



REVIEW ARTICLE

Genomics of body fat distribution

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Received 1 May 2020; revised 10 November 2020; accepted 4 January 2021

Abstract. Central obesity and body fat distribution measured by waist circumference (WC) and waist hip ratio (WHR) are good predictors of cardio metabolic adversities independent of overall adiposity. There are substantial evidence that body fat distribution is controlled by genetic factors. Even after accounting for body mass index (BMI), individual variation in body fat distribution is heritable, with estimates ranging from 31–76%. Individuals genetically predisposed to store more fat in visceral depots are at higher risk of developing metabolic complications. Several linkage and genomewide association studies (GWAS) for measures of body fat distribution uncovered numerous loci harbouring genes potentially regulating body fat distribution. Additionally, genes with fat depot specific expression patterns (especially, subcutaneous adipose tissue (SAT) and visceral adipose tissue (VAT)) have provided plausible candidate genes involved in body fat regulation. Further, sexual dimorphism have revealed a remarkable heterogeneity in the genetic regulation of body fat distribution. More than hundred loci have been identified through GWAS, displaying more pronounced effect in females than males, suggesting that both sexes share potentially different biological architecture in traits related to body fat distribution. Moreover, the handful of genes identified by GWAS have been validated in different population groups. This article aims at reviewing the current knowledge of genomic basis of body fat distribution.

Keywords. body fat distribution; waist to hip ratio; genetics; genomewide association study; sexual dimorphism.

Introduction

Obesity is one of the major public health conditions that predispose population for the increased risk of type 2 diabetes, fatty liver disease, dyslipidemia, hypertension and cardiovascular disease (Van Gaal *et al.* 2006). The common measures of overall and regional adiposity, i.e. body mass index (BMI), and waist circumference (WC) and waist hip ratio (WHR), respectively, are well established risk factors for metabolic disorders (Carey *et al.* 1997; Wang *et al.* 2005; Canoy 2008). Moreover, the effect of central abdominal fat in visceral adipose depots make obese individuals more prone to metabolic complications than fat stored in subcutaneous adipose depots (Björntorp 1991; Cassano *et al.* 1992; Kissebah 1997; Wei *et al.* 1997; Folsom *et al.* 2000). Epidemiological evidence proposing the role of regional fat depots, as a mediator in causing metabolic disease risk is gradually accumulating in different human populations (Wang *et al.* 2005; Canoy 2008; Hardy *et al.* 2017; Lee *et al.* 2017).

There is a fair amount of literature that suggest the genetic underpinnings of body fat distribution independent of BMI and overall adiposity (Lindgren *et al.* 2009; Heid *et al.* 2010; Shungin *et al.* 2015). Twin and family aggregation studies have estimated the heritability levels of WC and WHR ranging from 31% to 76% (Selby *et al.* 1990; Nelson *et al.* 1999; Souren *et al.* 2007) even after adjusting for BMI (Rose *et al.* 1998; Nelson *et al.* 2002). Regional fat depots are also heritable, for instance, the heritability estimates of subcutaneous adipose tissue (SAT) and visceral adipose tissue (VAT) were reported to be 40% and 50–55%, respectively (Pérusse *et al.* 1996).

Studies have shown that the genetic factors underlying adiposity traits detected through linkage and genomewide linkage studies (Pérusse *et al.* 2001; Do *et al.* 2008; González-Sánchez *et al.* 2009; Vaughan *et al.* 2015). Genome-wide linkage studies have identified several chromosomal regions harbouring genes for obesity related traits using the linkage related genetic data (Pérusse *et al.* 2001; Rice *et al.* 2002; Aberg *et al.* 2009). Further, linkage studies have been

subsequently accompanied by large and statistically powerful genomewide association studies (GWAS), designed to dissect the genetic architecture of adiposity traits in hypothesis-free way (Manolio 2010; Lu *et al.* 2016; Rask-Andersen *et al.* 2019). GWAS have led to substantial discoveries of the genetic susceptibility loci for body fat distribution (Winkler *et al.* 2015; Ng *et al.* 2017). Genetic variants that reached genomewide significance level were further replicated to double ensure the statistical associations. These findings were further validated among different ethnic groups for the scientific credibility of genetic discoveries (den Hoed *et al.* 2010; Moore *et al.* 2012; Xi *et al.* 2013a). These detected genetic variants are important for unraveling biological mechanism and pathways involved in the regulation of body fat distribution.

A comprehensive understanding of the genetic architecture of body fat distribution is required to address the clinical and public health implications of alarming burden of obesity. Moreover, BMI as an imperfect proxy for the body fat with differential validity among populations highlight the importance of studying more accurate methods of quantifying regional adiposity levels. Therefore, the purpose of this review was to summarize the current knowledge and understanding of genomic basis of body fat distribution.

Linkage studies

We have identified five linkage-based studies which have primarily focussed on obesity related traits but were restricted to a few genetic markers (Norman *et al.* 1998; Lee *et al.* 1999; Norris *et al.* 2005; Voruganti *et al.* 2011; Gragnoli 2013). Two linkage studies have reported genetic association with body fat percentage (BF%) assessed by bioelectrical impedance. The first study ($n = 451$ sib-pairs and 362 siblings) found a strongest sib-pair-based multipoint linkage at 11q21-q22, near D11S2366, and the strongest sibling-based multipoint variance-components linkage at 18q21, near D18S877 for BF% with highest logarithm of the odds score (LOD = 2.1, 2.3, $P = 0.001$, 0.0006, respectively) in Pima Indians (Norman *et al.* 1998). Genes including *MMP1*, *MMP3*, *MMP8*, *GPDH-C* and *ATM* at chromosome 11 might influence adiposity through insulin resistance, lipid synthesis and insulin stimulated glucose transport (Hotamisligil *et al.* 1993; Evans *et al.* 1995; Edwards *et al.* 1996). The second study had revealed three peaks (D20S887, D20S120 and D20S149) at 20q13 for BF% (Lee *et al.* 1999), harbouring several genes such as *MC3R*, *MC4R* (Lu *et al.* 1994; Fong *et al.* 1997), *GNASI* and *CEPB* (Yeh *et al.* 1995) which might be candidates for obesity. Agouti-signalling protein (*ASIP*) belonged to the relevant region is a strong inhibitor of alpha melanocyte-stimulating-hormone receptors 3 and 4 (*MC3R* and *MC4R*) (Lu *et al.* 1994; Fong *et al.* 1997). Lack of functional *MC4R* gene resulted in obese mice (Huszar *et al.* 1997). However, mice homozygous for knockout mutations in *MC3R* gene had increased body fat

and decrease lean mass not caused by increased food intake but due to increase food efficiency (Chen *et al.* 2000). The other candidate gene mapped in this region was CAAT/enhancer-binding-protein beta (*CEPB*), having significant contribution in differentiation of adipocytes (Yeh *et al.* 1995).

Studies on refined measures of body fat distribution had identified a wide linkage peak on 12q13-q24 among Hispanic American families for WHR (D12S297 (LOD = 2.67), D12S1052 (LOD = 2.60) after adjusting with BMI (Norris *et al.* 2005). The potential candidate genes in this region such as *VDR*, *CD36L1* and *IGF1* are significantly involved in the mechanism of insulin release and glucose tolerance maintenance (Ye *et al.* 2001), high density lipoprotein metabolism (Acton *et al.* 1999) and insulin sensitivity (Sun *et al.* 1999), respectively. However, a linkage signal for BMI-adjusted with VAT was observed at 11q13 D11S2006 (LOD = 2.36) (Norris *et al.* 2005). Genes (*UCP2/UCP3*) identified in this location are actively involved in metabolism (Rodriguez *et al.* 2002). Moreover, genes mapped near 5q33 region for BMI-adjusted with SAT (D5S820, LOD = 2.64) include the glucocorticoid receptor (*GRL*) and β 2-adrenoreceptor genes (Norris *et al.* 2005). The β 2-adrenoreceptor are the most abundant lipolytic adrenoceptor subtype and found to be linked with obesity due to accumulation of subcutaneous fat in Japanese men (Mori *et al.* 1999). In Quebec family study, β 2-adrenoceptor genes have shown notable interactions with *GRL* gene, when their influence was evaluated on total abdominal fat area (Ukkola *et al.* 2001).

Voruganti *et al.* (2011) detected the evidence of linkage between D19S414 and D19S220 on chromosome 19 for WC (LOD = 3.5), BF% (LOD = 1.7), WHR (LOD = 2.5), subscapular (LOD = 2.1) and triceps skinfolds (LOD = 1.9) in 1214 Alaskan Eskimos. Important candidate genes in this region are *TGFB1*, *GYS1*, *LIPE*, *APOE*, *GIPR* and *LSR* which are functionally associated with growth and differentiation (Dickinson *et al.* 1990) and clearance of very low density lipoproteins and chylomicron remnants (Mooijaart *et al.* 2006). In addition, these genes also participate in insulin and glucocorticoid metabolism (Usdin *et al.* 1993), mobilization of free fatty acids from adipose tissue (Holm *et al.* 1988) and lipid transporter activity and clearance of dietary triglyceride (Yen *et al.* 1999). Moreover, the linkage of *PSMD9* (LOD = 0.93, $P = 0.023$) was observed with WC in 108 Italian families (Gragnoli 2013). This gene may contribute to type-2 diabetes, obesity, overweight and visceral obesity (Thomas *et al.* 1999).

Genomewide linkage studies

Before the advent of GWAS, genomewide linkage study was the primary approach for genetic mapping of Mendelian and complex traits with familial aggregation through linked markers (Dickinson *et al.* 1990). We have identified six

genomewide linkage studies on obesity related traits (Hsueh *et al.* 2001; Sutton *et al.* 2006; Dong *et al.* 2011; Kim *et al.* 2013; Liu *et al.* 2014; Vaughan *et al.* 2015), while additional six have focussed on body fat distribution as an independent phenotype (Pérusse *et al.* 2001; Rice *et al.* 2002; Fox *et al.* 2004; Aberg *et al.* 2009; Feitosa *et al.* 2009; Chiu *et al.* 2010) (table 1).

The first genomewide linkage study of obesity-related traits conducted on Old Order Amish population had reported linkage with maximum LOD scores for BF% (LOD = 1.61) and WC (LOD = 1.80) occurring on chromosomes 3p and 14q, respectively mapped near *PPARG* or *PPAR γ* (Hsueh *et al.* 2001). *PPAR γ* is actively involved in differentiation of adipocytes and glucose metabolism. Further, a genomewide linkage study on visceral fat assessed by CT scan in the Quebec family cohort revealed the strongest evidence of linkage on chromosome 12q24.3 between marker D12S2078 and abdominal subcutaneous fat (LOD = 2.88) (Pérusse *et al.* 2001). Three loci (1p11.2, 9q22.1 and 17q21.1) were in close proximity to the genes involved in regulation of sex steroid levels (*NHLH2*, *HSD17B3* and *HSDB3*), whereas other two loci (4q32.1 and 17q21.1) were close to the genes involved in regulation of food intake (*NPY* and *NPY2R*) (Pérusse *et al.* 2001). Moreover, the best evidence for abdominal visceral fat was found on 2q22.1 and 2q33.2-q36.3 (including the *IRS1* locus) in whites and suggestive findings on 7q22.2-q31.3 (including the *LEP* locus) in blacks of HERITAGE family cohort (Rice *et al.* 2002). *IRS1* is a cornerstone factor in insulin-signalling pathways and mediates the control of various cellular processes by insulin (Asano *et al.* 2007). Studies on humans and knockout mice have shown association of leptin gene with BMI, weight loss and body weight (Shintani *et al.* 1996; Li *et al.* 1999).

The significant linkage signal for WC were also attained at 1q32 (near *PROX1* gene marker rs1704198) in an Asian population (Kim *et al.* 2013). The biological role of *PROX1* gene was previously studied in a mouse model, where heterozygosity in *PROX1* gene causes adult-onset obesity and heavier adipocytes with large circumference as compared to wild-type animals. In addition, mice with *PROX1* heterozygosity had also developed impaired hepatic lipid accumulation along with increased levels of leptin and insulin (Harvey *et al.* 2005).

Candidate gene association studies

Candidate gene approach is hypothesis driven. Genes which have been previously implicated in pathways controlling energy intake and expenditure have been selected as important candidates and analysed (Tabor *et al.* 2002). Thus, this approach relies upon the existing knowledge of the biology and pathophysiology of the disease. A total of 14 candidate gene association studies have been conducted with respect to body fat distribution (table 2). Some of these

genes were previously belonged to body mass and adiposity measures while others are involved in energy intake and energy expenditure.

Since from the discovery of *FTO* gene, an association of single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) with obesity and BMI was reported in number of populations, making *FTO* the first candidate gene associated with obesity (Yajnik *et al.* 2009; Vasan *et al.* 2013). Gene expression studies in animal models suggested that *FTO* is actively involved in controlling feeding behaviour and energy expenditure (Fawcett and Barroso 2010). It had been reported that the genetic variants of *FTO* influence obesity, and also associated with body fat distribution independent of BMI and sex (Do *et al.* 2008; González-Sánchez *et al.* 2009; Pausova *et al.* 2009; Yajnik *et al.* 2009; Liu *et al.* 2010a; Dwivedi *et al.* 2012; Vasan *et al.* 2013). Another candidate gene for obesity is *MC4R*, which play a significant role in the regulation of body weight and appetite (Huszar *et al.* 1997). The importance of *MC4R* in body weight regulation is apparent but studies have also reported its association with WC, WHR and BF% (Dwivedi *et al.* 2013; Evans *et al.* 2014). In addition, *PPAR γ* was found to be an important candidate gene, actively involved in adipocyte differentiation (Passaro *et al.* 2011; Bhatt *et al.* 2012). Animal studies showed that the adipose-specific *PPAR γ* knockout mice showed diminished weight gain on feeding with high-fat diet despite hyperphagia and also had diminished serum concentrations of leptin and adiponectin, and did not develop glucose intolerance or insulin resistance (Jones *et al.* 2005). In humans, of the three *PPAR γ* isoforms, *PPAR γ 2* mRNA is the most abundantly and relatively specifically expressed in adipose tissue. It has been reported that *PPAR γ 2* mRNA levels were increased in adipocytes from morbidly obese subjects (Auwerx 1999). Further, investigators have explored the role of variants in *SIRT1* gene, previously known to be an important regulator of energy metabolism via its influence on glucose and lipid metabolism (Peeters *et al.* 2008). Moreover, variants in *LPL* and *IL6* genes might regulate body fat distribution through their contribution in ectopic visceral storage (Parikh and Groop 2004; Radha *et al.* 2007; Gupta *et al.* 2011).

Candidate gene approach have been criticized because of its limited ability to include all possible causative genes, nonreplication of results and incapability to discover new genes (Tabor *et al.* 2002). All these limitations led to the establishment of more advanced tool, i.e. GWAS, which can pinpoint genes regardless of their unknown function.

GWAS

GWAS are the powerful tool for understanding the genetic basis of many complex traits (McCarthy *et al.* 2008). GWAS focussed on fat distribution traits including WC and WHR have generated genotyping data on thousands of samples and uncovered several loci (> 200) that harbour associations of common variants with adiposity traits (Shungin *et al.* 2015;

Table 1. Genes identified by genomewide linkage studies in context with body fat distribution.

Author (year)	Population	Sample size	Nearest gene	Position	Marker (EA)	Trait	Effect size, P-value
Pénissse et al. (2001)	Canadian families of French ancestry	496	<i>NHLH2, HSDB3</i> <i>PPARGC1</i> <i>NPY2R</i> <i>LEP, CAV2</i> <i>HSD17B3</i>	1p11.2 4p15.1 4q32.1 7q31.1 9q22.1	D1SS34 D4S2397 D4S2417 D7S1875 D9S122	ASF ASF ASF ASF ASF	LOD = 2.07 LOD = 2.13 LOD = 1.74 LOD = 2.01 LOD = 1.69
			<i>IGF1</i> <i>HNF1</i>	– 12q22-q23 13q24.3	D9S257 IGF1 D12S2078 D12S1045	ASF ASF ASF ASF	LOD = 1.86 LOD = 2.53 LOD = 1.09 LOD = 1.44
			<i>HSD17B1</i> <i>PYY</i> <i>PPY</i>	13q34 17q21.1-q21.3 –	D17S2180 D17S1290 D17S1301	ASF ASF ASF	LOD = 1.30 LOD = 1.29 LOD = 1.99
Hsueh et al. (2001)	Amish	672	– <i>PPARDγ</i>	14q 3p	– D3S5608 D2p41	WC BF%	LOD = 1.80 LOD = 1.61
Rice et al. (2002)	European ancestry	99	99 HERITAGE white families	2q22.1 2q22.1 2q36.1 <i>IRSI</i>	D2S1334 D2S1399 D2S434 IRSI	ASF AVF AVF ASF	LOD = 1.88, P = 0.00164 LOD = 1.97, P = 0.00131 LOD = 2.33, P = 0.00053 LOD = 2.49, P = 0.00035
			– <i>IRSI</i>	2q36.3 5q31.2 5q31.2 5q31.3	D5S658 D5S658 D5S1480 D22S264	ATF ATF ATF ASF	LOD = 1.87, P = 0.00168 LOD = 2.06, P = 0.00104 LOD = 1.84, P = 0.00179 LOD = 1.87, P = 0.00169
			– 105 HERITAGE black families	22q11.23 3p26.3 3q29 4q31.22 7q36.3	D3S2387 D3S1311 D4S2431 D7S559	ASF ASF ASF ASF	LOD = 1.96, P = 0.00132 LOD = 2.16, P = 0.00080 LOD = 2.45, P = 0.00039 LOD = 2.34, P = 0.00052
			– 105 HERITAGE black families	1p14.1 1q424.1 1p15.2 <i>ESRI, OPRM1 and NMBR</i>	GATA34E08 D14S588 C11P15.3 D6S1009	ASF ASF ASF ASF	LOD = 1.74, P = 0.00230 LOD = 1.75, P = 0.00224 LOD = 2.38, P = 0.00047 LOD = 2.30, P = 0.00177
Fox et al. (2004)	European Hispanics	2086	<i>POMC, IRS1 and calpastin 10</i>	6	D17S1301/D17S801 D17S1301/D17S801 GATA116B01	VAT VAT WC	LOD = 3.30 LOD = 3.05 LOD = 4.23
Sutton et al. (2006)	–	1425	–	–	D9S285	BF%	LOD = 1.92 LOD = 2.48
Feitosa et al. (2009)	European American Samoa and Samoa	5076	<i>PROX1</i>	2p25	D9S157-D9S171	ABDCIR	LOD = 2.14
Aberg et al. (2009)	–	1164	<i>TBC1D224</i> <i>SBSFON</i>	9p22.3-p21.3	–	Hip	LOD = 2.39, P = 0.0018
Chiu et al. (2010)	Chinese	1365	–	6p123	–	WC	LOD = 1.61, P = 0.0146
Dong et al. (2011)	Caribbean Hispanic	1390	–	12q23.1 16q23-24	D16S3091/D16S539 D14S1434	Average tricep skinfold Abdominal thickness	LOD = 2.32, P = 0.0008 LOD = 2.17, P = 0.001
Kim et al. (2013)	Mongolian and Korean	3106	<i>PROX1</i>	14q32	rs1704198 (A)	WC	P = 4.11 × 10 ⁻⁷
Liu et al. (2014)	Chinese	1791	<i>TBC1D224</i>	21q7717	rs16996195	WC	LOD = 3.13
Vaughan et al. (2015)	European	982	<i>SBSFON</i>	22q13.31-13.33	rs1007750	Thigh circumference	P = 0.0005
			–	5	rs878953	Thigh skinfold	P = 0.0004
			<i>LUZP2</i>	11	rs1596854	WC	P = 0.0003

ABDCIR, abdominal circumference; ASF, abdominal subcutaneous fat; ATF, abdominal total fat; BF%, body fat percentage; EA, effect allele; LOD, logarithm of the odds; VAT, visceral adipose tissue; WC, waist circumference.

Winkler *et al.* 2015; Wen *et al.* 2016) (table 3). A study conducted by Chambers *et al.* (2008) had reported an association of rs12970134 with WC ($\beta = 0.88$) among individuals of Indian-Asian and European ancestry. This genetic variant (rs12970134) have been mapped near *MC4R* gene and is known for their association with monogenic obesity (Hinney *et al.* 2010). Further, the association of a novel variant (rs10146997) of *NRXN3* with WC was discovered among Caucasians but this effect was reduced after adjusting for BMI, indicating the role of this locus in regulating overall adiposity rather than central obesity (Heard-Costa *et al.* 2009).

The first meta-analysis of GWAS related to two widely studied measures of body fat distribution, i.e. WC and WHR, was conducted among Europeans (Lindgren *et al.* 2009). Genetic variants within *TFAP2B* ($P = 1.87 \times 10^{-11}$) and near *MSRA* ($P = 8.89 \times 10^{-9}$) were found to be strongly associated with WC and a third locus, near *LYPLAL1* ($\beta = 0.040$, $P = 2.6 \times 10^{-8}$), was associated with WHR in women only (Lindgren *et al.* 2009). Second meta-analysis have included 32 GWAS to detect other genetic variants associated with WHR adjusted for BMI (WHRadjBMI) ($n = 77,167$). They have also followed up 16 loci in additional 29 studies ($n = 113,636$). Thirteen novel loci in or near *VEGFA*, *RSPO3*, *NISCH-STAB1*, *TBX15-WARS2*, *LY86*, *NFE2L3*, *GRB14*, *ITPR2-SSPN*, *HOXC13*, *ADAMTS9*, *ZNRF3-KREMEN1*, *DNM3-PIGC* and *CPEB4* genes were uncovered and confirmed association signal at *LYPLAL1* (Heid *et al.* 2010).

Several studies have used more precise techniques (CT scan) for measuring body fat distribution (Norris *et al.* 2009; Fox *et al.* 2012a; Plourde *et al.* 2013). GWAS focussing on more accurate methods for quantifying body fat had uncovered additional variants contributing to genetic control of body fat distribution. A novel locus near *THNSL2* was identified in association with VAT among women of European ancestry (Fox *et al.* 2012a). For the VAT/SAT ratio, the most significant P -value was attained at *LYPLAL1* gene ($P = 3.1 \times 10^{-9}$), previously identified in association with WHR. The genetic associations of seven loci were observed with VAT/SAT ratio (Fox *et al.* 2012a) after interrogating data for the 14 previously identified loci for WHRadjBMI (Heid *et al.* 2010). Findings of these studies have suggested that phenotyping using imaging techniques is better than typical anthropometric measures as imaging have the ability to partition subcutaneous fat depots from visceral fat depots (Fox *et al.* 2012a).

Further, six new loci near *IRS1*, *SPRY2*, *PLA2G6*, *IGF2BP1*, *COBLL1/GRB14* and *CRTC1* were identified for BF% (Kilpeläinen *et al.* 2011; Lu *et al.* 2016). The body fat decreasing allele of *IRS1* (rs2943650) and *SPRY2* (rs534870) were associated with 0.16% and 0.14%, respectively, decrease in BF% (Kilpeläinen *et al.* 2011). Additionally, four novel loci near *EFEMP1*, *ADAMTSL3*, *CNPY2*, *GNAS* with WC adjusted for BMI (WCadjBMI), two loci near *NID2*, *HLA-DRB5* with WHRadjBMI, and three novel loci near *CEP120*, *TSC22D2* and *SLC22A2* genes with WC not

adjusted for BMI (WCnoBMI) were identified at the genome-wide significance level among individuals of East Asian ancestry (Wen *et al.* 2016). Moreover, the only GWAS conducted on pericardial fat identified a novel locus (rs10198628) near *TRIP2* showing significant association ($P = 2.7 \times 10^{-8}$) among individuals of European ancestry. This gene is exclusively associated with pericardial fat suggestive of unique genetic underpinnings for ectopic fat distribution (Fox *et al.* 2012b).

Recently, the largest GWAS ($n = 362,499$) conducted on proportions of body fat distributed to arms, trunk and legs assessed through segmental bioelectric impedance analysis had identified 98 independent associations with body fat distribution. Of these, 29 associations were previously established for anthropometric traits. A total of 37 loci showed more pronounced effect in females than males, indicated a high level of sex heterogeneity (Rask-Andersen *et al.* 2019) (table 3). Moreover, Pulit *et al.* (2019) had performed a GWAS meta-analysis for WHRadjBMI in up to 694,649 individuals of European ancestry and identified 436 independent signals in 346 loci ($P < 5 \times 10^{-9}$). All these variants explained nearly 3.9% of the overall phenotypic variance in WHRadjBMI. On constructing the polygenic risk score, 5% of the individuals carrying WHRadjBMI increasing alleles were 1.62 times more expected to meet WHR threshold used for defining metabolic syndrome. Additionally, the WHRadjBMI of the individuals in the top 5% of the polygenic risk score was 1.05 and 1.06 times higher in males and females, respectively, as compared to individuals in the bottom 5% of the polygenic risk score (Pulit *et al.* 2019).

Sexual dimorphism

Sexual dimorphism is a well characterized feature of body fat distribution. Unlike BMI, both males and females tend to have different levels of fat depots that define body shape (Pulit *et al.* 2017). Studies focussed on the biology of body fat distribution considered WHR as the main phenotype since it indicates the amount of fat located in the visceral part of an individual (Heid *et al.* 2010). Our search for GWAS uncovering sexually dimorphic loci associated with fat distribution yielded limited number of studies and most of them have identified sexually dimorphic loci for WHRadjBMI.

Firstly, Heid *et al.* (2010) had conducted a sex stratified meta-analyses for the 14 WHR associated loci within the GIANT consortium included up to 108,979 women and 82,483 men (mean age range: 16.0–76.52 years) of European ancestry. They have identified seven loci (near *RSPO3*, *VEGFA*, *GRB14*, *LYPLAL1*, *HOXC13*, *ITPR2-SSPN* and *ADAMTS9*) which showed significant differences in sex-specific effect sizes (P ranging from 1.9×10^{-3} to 1.2×10^{-13}) in joint analyses. All these 14 loci explained 0.46% of the variance in WHR (adjusted for BMI and age) in men and 1.34% in women (Heid *et al.* 2010). Another sex-

Table 2. Candidate gene association and validation of GWAS identified genes in context with body fat distribution.

Author (year)	Population	Sample size total (M/F)/range	Gene	SNPs studied (EA)	Trait	Effect size (S.E.)	95% CI	P value
Radha <i>et al.</i> (2007)	Indians	731	<i>LPL</i>	-93 T to G (G)	WC	—	—	0.03
Maruelle <i>et al.</i> (2008)	Philippines	1,886 Cebu Filipino female	<i>FTO</i>	rs9939609 (A)	WC	—	—	0.0094
Peeters <i>et al.</i> (2008)	Belgian	Obese cases, 1068; controls, 313	<i>SIRT1</i>	rs7069102 (C)	WC	—	—	0.04
Do <i>et al.</i> (2008)	European	908	<i>FTO</i>	rs3818292 (G) rs17817449 (G)	WHR VFA VFA WC HC	— — — — —	0.02 0.005 0.005 0.0014 0.0013	0.02
Bauer <i>et al.</i> (2009)	European	1700 females	<i>NEGR1</i>	rs2568958 (A)	WC	—	—	0.0100
Bressler <i>et al.</i> (2009)	African-American	3869	<i>INSIG2</i>	rs7566605 (C)	WHR	—	—	0.01
Yajnik <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Indians	960	<i>FTO</i>	rs9939609 (A)	HC	—	—	0.02
González-Sánchez <i>et al.</i> (2009)	European	80/127	<i>FTO</i>	rs9939609 (A)	WC	—	—	0.011
Pausova <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Americans	485 adolescents	<i>FTO</i>	rs9939609 (A)	WC	β = -0.43	-0.76, -0.10	0.0100
den Hoed <i>et al.</i> (2010)	European	2042	<i>SEC16B</i>	rs10913469	Intra-abdominal fat Subcutaneous fat Sum of skinfolds	β = 0.5 β = 0.5 B = 0.126 (0.03)	0.1, 0.8 0.2, 0.8 —	0.007 0.0008
Li <i>et al.</i> (2010)	European	20,125	<i>LYPLAL1</i>	rs2605100	WC	β = 0.075 (0.03)	—	2.5 × 10 ⁻⁴
			<i>TMEM18</i>	rs6548238	Sum of skinfolds	β = 0.060 (0.03)	3.9 × 10 ⁻²	6.8 × 10 ⁻³
			<i>TMEM18</i>	rs6548238	Sum of skinfolds	β = 0.060 (0.02)	—	1.0 × 10 ⁻²
			<i>NEGR1</i>	rs2815752	WC	β = 0.068 (0.03)	—	2.5 × 10 ⁻⁵
			<i>GNPD42</i>	rs10938397	Sum of skinfolds	β = 0.061 (0.03)	—	2.5 × 10 ⁻³
			<i>BDNF</i>	rs925946	Sum of skinfolds	β = 0.065 (0.03)	—	2.7 × 10 ⁻³
			<i>TFAP2B</i>	rs987237	WC	β = 0.056 (0.03)	—	3.5 × 10 ⁻²
			<i>NEGR1</i>	rs3101336	WC	β = 0.022 (0.010)	—	0.027
			<i>TMEM18</i>	rs6548238	WC	β = 0.050 (0.013)	—	1.50 × 10 ⁻⁴
			<i>GNPD42</i>	rs10938397	WC	β = 0.039 (0.010)	—	1.69 × 10 ⁻⁴
			<i>KCTD15</i>	rs368794	WC	β = 0.024 (0.011)	—	0.023
			<i>MC4R</i>	rs17782313	WC	β = 0.042 (0.012)	—	3.48 × 10 ⁻⁴
			<i>FTO</i>	rs1121980	WC	β = 0.080 (0.010)	—	2.04 × 10 ⁻¹⁵
			<i>BDNF</i>	rs925946	WC	β = 0.049 (0.011)	—	8.47 × 10 ⁻⁶
			<i>SH2B1</i>	rs7498665	WC	β = 0.024 (0.010)	—	0.015
			<i>FAIM2</i>	rs7132908	WC	β = 0.040 (0.010)	—	8.43 × 10 ⁻⁵

Table 2 (contd)

Author (year)	Population	Sample size total (M/F)/range	Gene	SNPs studied (EA)	Trait	Effect size (S.E.)	95% CI	P value
Liu <i>et al.</i> (2010a)	European and African ancestry	1975	<i>FTO</i>	rs9939609 (A)	WC	—	—	0.04
Haupt <i>et al.</i> (2010)	European	1469 nondiabetic white subjects	<i>TMEM18</i> <i>SH2B1</i> <i>NEGR1</i>	rs6548238 (T) rs7498665 (G) rs2815752 (C)	VAT VAT TAT WHR	— — — —	— — — —	0.03 0.009 0.02 0.03 <0.001
Gupta <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Indians	178	<i>IL6</i>	G-174C (C)	WC BF%	— —	— —	0.03 <0.001 <0.001 0.00047
Liu <i>et al.</i> (2010b)	European Americans & African Americans	395–1652 European Americans & African Americans	<i>MC4R</i>	rs17782313 (C) rs17700633 (A)	WC BF% VAT SAAT VFA	— — — — —	— — — — —	0.03 <0.001 <0.001 — —
Hotta <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Japanese	1279 (556/723)	<i>SH2B1</i>	rs7498665 (G)	WC	—	—	—
Klimentidis <i>et al.</i> (2011)	European	298 (children)	<i>FTO</i>	rs8050136 (A) rs9939609 (A)	WC WC	— —	— —	0.0168 0.0197 0.042
Bille <i>et al.</i> (2011)	European	6038	<i>TMEM18</i> <i>LYPLAL1</i> <i>NRXN3</i> <i>PPARγ</i> ²	rs7561317 (G) rs2605100 (G) rs10146997 (G) Pro12Ala (Ala)	WC WC WC WC	β = -0.08 β = 0.55 β = 2.03	-0.29, 0.13 0.20, 0.89 —	0.04 0.02 0.001
Passaro <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Caucasians	364	<i>PPARγ</i> ²	Pro12Ala (Ala)	HC	—	—	—
Bhatt <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Indians	495	<i>FTO</i>	rs3751812 (T)	WC	—	—	0.03
More <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Indians	1129	<i>FTO</i>	rs8050136 (A)	WC HC WHR	β = 0.12 β = 0.11 β = 0.07	0.07, 0.18 0.05, 0.16 0.02, 0.13	7.9 × 10 ⁻⁶ 1.5 × 10 ⁻⁴ 9.2 × 10 ⁻³
Dwivedi <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Indians	3126 children	<i>FTO</i>	rs1004467 (A) <i>CYP17A1</i> <i>NT5C2</i> <i>MC4R</i>	SFA SFA SFA WHR	β = -0.030 (0.008) β = -0.026 (0.008) β = 0.26 β = 0.13	— — — —	0.00011 0.0016 3.8 × 10 ⁻¹² 2.0 × 10 ⁻⁴
Hotta <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Japanese	1279	<i>NT5C2</i>	rs11191548 (T) rs17782313 (C) (in children)	WC	β = 0.24	0.16, 0.31	4.3 × 10 ⁻¹⁰
Dwivedi <i>et al.</i> (2013)	Indians	1362 children 2028 nondiabetic controls	<i>MC4R</i>	rs12970134 (A) (in children)	WHR	β = 0.11	0.04, 0.18	0.002
				rs17782313 (C) (In adults)	WC	β = 0.07	0.01, 0.14	0.034
				rs12970134 (A) (In adults)	WC	—	—	0.05
				rs10823406 (A)	WHR	β = 0.08	—	0.01
Gupta <i>et al.</i> (2013)	Indians	5056	<i>NGN3</i>	rs9939609 (A)	WHR	β = 0.006	0.001, 0.012	0.021
Vasan <i>et al.</i> (2013)	Indians	1230	<i>FTO</i>	rs9939609 (A)	WHR	—	—	—
Xi <i>et al.</i> (2013a)	Chinese	2849	<i>SEC16B</i>	rs10913469 (C)	WC	β = 0.39	0.08, 0.7	0.014
Xi <i>et al.</i> (2013b)	Chinese	19593 children	<i>FTO</i>	rs9939609 (A)	WC	OR = 1.29	1.10, 1.50	0.001
			<i>MC4R</i>	rs17782313 (C)	WHR	OR = 1.33	1.14, 1.56	3.56 × 10 ⁻⁴
			<i>BDNF</i>	rs6265 (G)	WHR	OR = 1.27	1.12, 1.44	1.32 × 10 ⁻⁴
			<i>GNPDA2</i>	rs10938397 (G)	WC	OR = 1.25	1.10, 1.42	4.71 × 10 ⁻⁴
Evans <i>et al.</i> (2014)	African American white	1538–1616	<i>MC4R</i>	rs11152221 (T)	WHR BF%	OR = 1.25 β = 0.75 (0.25)	1.08, 1.34 1.09, 1.37 1.11, 1.39	8.86 × 10 ⁻⁴ 4.09 × 10 ⁻⁴ 1.32 × 10 ⁻⁴ 0.003

Table 2 (contd)

Author (year)	Population	Sample size total (M/F)/range	Gene	SNPs studied (EA)	Trait	Effect size (S.E.)	95% CI	P value
Zhu <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Chinese	2894	<i>MTIF3</i> <i>SH2B1</i> <i>PCSK1</i> <i>GIPR</i>	rs4771122 rs4788102 rs261967 rs55669001 (T)	BF% BF% BF% VFA WC	$\beta = 0.98$ (0.34) $\beta = 0.55$ (0.26) $\beta = 20.16$ (0.08) $\beta = 0.029$ $\beta = 0.046$	— — — — —	0.0047 0.033 0.044 0.035 0.008
Nakayama <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Japanese	3013 (1,572/1339)		rs2287019 (C)	VFA WC	$\beta = 0.031$ $\beta = 0.038$	— —	0.023 0.028

BF%, body fat percentage; β , beta coefficient; CI, confidence interval; EA, effect allele; HC, hip circumference; OR, odds ratio; SAT, subcutaneous adipose tissue; SFA, subcutaneous fat area; SAAT, subcutaneous abdominal adipose tissue; TAF, total adipose tissue; VFT, visceral fat area; WC, waist circumference; WHR, waist hip ratio.

specific meta-analyses have identified four previously established and three novel anthropometric trait loci (near *MAP3K1*, *HSD17B4*, *PPARG*) exhibiting significant sex-differences for WHRadjBMI in European population (mean age range: 40.9–74.3 years). All these loci reached genome-wide significant level only in women (joint *P*-women: 3.4×10^{-9} to 4.2×10^{-14}) (Randall *et al.* 2013).

The sexual dimorphism in body fat distribution gained further support from a recent large scale GWAS meta-analyses (>320,000 individuals of European descent; mean age range: 18.9–69.1 years) identified 44 loci displaying significantly distinct effects on WHRadjBMI between male and female, of which 17 were novel (near *TTN*, *IRSI*, *CDH10*, *IQGAP2*, *SIM1*, *ISPD*, *KLF14*, *SGCZ*, *PTPRD*, *RXRA*, *GANAB*, *SLC2A3*, *LEMD3*, *GPNAT1*, *RPS6KA5*, *CECR2*, *HMGXB4*) and 27 loci had been confirmed in earlier study (Winkler *et al.* 2015). Of these 27 loci, sex-specific effects on WHRadjBMI for 10 of the previously established loci (near *GORAB*, *LY86*, *ITPR2*, *PIGU*, *EYA2*, *KCNJ2*, *MEIS*, *EYA1*, *CCDC92*, *NSDI*) were also reported. A total of 28 loci ($P_{\text{binomial}} = 3.3 \times 10^{-5}$) have shown more pronounced effects in females than in males (Winkler *et al.* 2015).

Another largest meta-analysis on 224,459 European individuals (mean age range: 18.90–73.90 years) have discovered 49 loci associated with WHRadjBMI, of which 20 loci showed significant sexual differences (Shungin *et al.* 2015). A total of 19 loci (11 new) near *PLXND1*, *NMU*, *FAM13A*, *MAP3K1*, *HMGAI*, *NKX2-6*, *SFXN2*, *MACROD1-VEGFB*, *CMIP*, *BCL2*, *SNX10*, *LYPLAL1*, *GRB14-COBL1*, *PPARG*, *ADAMTS9*, *TNFAIP8-HSD17B4*, *VEGFA*, *RSPO3*, *HOXC13* displayed a stronger effect in women while only loci that showed a larger effect in men mapped near *GDF5* (rs224333, $\beta_{\text{men}} = 0.036$ and $P = 9.0 \times 10^{-12}$, $\beta_{\text{women}} = 0.009$ and $P = 0.074$, $P_{\text{difference}} = 6.4 \times 10^{-5}$). Further, on conditional analysis, in *HOXC6–HOXC13* region, one loci was found to be female-specific (rs1443512, $P_{\text{conditional}} = 1.1 \times 10^{-14}$), similarly, in *TBX15–WARS2–SPAG17* region, one signal was male-specific (rs1106529, $P_{\text{conditional}} = 4.8 \times 10^{-9}$) (Shungin *et al.* 2015).

The association of rs3791679 near *EFEMP1* gene with WCadjBMI was significantly stronger in men than in women (effect size: 4.04 vs 2.43), whereas the association of rs1982963 near *NID2* gene with WHRadjBMI was significantly weaker in men than in women (effect size: 2.88 vs 6.26) (Wen *et al.* 2016) among individuals of East Asian ancestry (mean age range: 36.5–66.0 years). Two novel loci (*SSX2IP*, *PDE3B*) with WHRadjBMI were identified among women of African ancestry. On combining the GWAS of African and European ancestry, two more novel loci (*CASC8*, *ZDHHC1/HSD11B2*) for WHRadjBMI were identified in African and European ancestry (mean age range: 9.3–73.5 years) (Ng *et al.* 2017).

The only GWAS focussed on sexual dimorphic loci in BF% among individuals of European and Asian Indians

ancestry (mean age range: 43.4–75.5 years) have identified the association of locus near *IRS1* with BF% ($P_{\text{sex-difference}} = 0.02$) and this effect was more pronounced in men ($P = 3 \times 10^{-11}$) than in women ($P = 9 \times 10^{-3}$) (Kilpeläinen *et al.* 2011). The *IRS1* locus was found to be associated with an adverse distribution of body fat in men as the BF% decreasing allele of rs2943650 near *IRS1* was associated with reduced subcutaneous fat in men ($P = 1.8 \times 10^{-3}$) but not in women ($P = 0.063$), implying that there may be sex differences in the effects of near *IRS1* locus on the function of gene itself (Kilpeläinen *et al.* 2011).

The above findings of GWAS have suggested that the contribution of women to genetic variance is significantly higher as compared to men.

Validation of GWAS identified genes

Our search yielded 17 validation studies of previously identified GWAS hits which have shown significant associations with body fat distribution in pooled sample size of 75,776 participants. Most of the validation studies ($n = 9$) have been conducted on WC and WHR and found significant associations (Marvelli *et al.* 2008; Bauer *et al.* 2009; Bressler *et al.* 2009; den Hoed *et al.* 2010; Bille *et al.* 2011; Klementidis *et al.* 2011; Liu *et al.* 2012b; Moore *et al.* 2012; Xi *et al.* 2013a). The largest study ($n = 20,125$) conducted on European population have validated 12 loci, previously identified from GWAS on BMI. Of these, nine loci have shown significant association with WC with an effect size range from 0.010 to 0.013 cm per allele change for WC (Li *et al.* 2010). Second largest study performed on 19,593 Chinese children have validated 11 BMI associated loci in GWAS for associations with central obesity. It was found that four loci have shown significant association with central obesity assessed through WC (odds ratio (OR) range: 1.20–1.29) and WHR (OR range: 1.25–1.33) (Xi *et al.* 2013b). In addition, a validation study on Indian population have identified a locus (*NGN3*), previously established in GWAS for type-2 diabetes, in association with WHR ($P = 0.01$), suggestive of a common underlying biological mechanism (Gupta *et al.* 2013).

Moreover, the genetic associations were also validated for VAT (*NEGR1*, *SH2B1*), leg fat percentage (*PCSK1*, *MSRA*, *TFAP2B*), BF% (*FTO*, *MC4R*, *MTIF3*), trunk fat percentage (*TFAP2B*), visceral fat area (*GIPR*, *SH2B1*), subcutaneous fat area (*CYP17A1*, *NT5C2*), sum of skin-folds (*GNPDA2*, *BDNF*, *LYPLAL1*, *TMEM18*, *SEC16B*) (den Hoed *et al.* 2010; Liu *et al.* 2010b; Haupt *et al.* 2010; Hotta *et al.* 2011, 2012; Zhu *et al.* 2014; Nakayama *et al.* 2014). A total of 30 genetic variants in 20 genes have been validated in association with body fat distribution (table 2).

Biological functions of genes

Several genes have been identified through GWAS but the functional role could be allocated to a few of the candidate genes. For instance, the *cis*-expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL) data implicated *GRB14* as a potential candidate gene for WHR association (Heid *et al.* 2010). The *GRB14* variant (rs10195252) was also studied in association with insulin and triglyceride levels. These findings were supported by evidence that mice deficient with *Grb14* displayed improved glucose homeostasis despite having less circulating insulin levels, and increased insulin signalling in skeletal muscle and liver (Cooney *et al.* 2004). *VEGFA* is another candidate gene identified through GWAS, having a significant role as a mediator in adipogenesis (Nishimura *et al.* 2007). Given evidence that serum levels of *VEGFA* are correlated with obesity (Silha *et al.* 2005). Further, *TBX15* emerged to be a strongest candidate gene through *cis*-eQTL in omental fat with significant depot specific differences in expression of adipose tissue in mice and humans and associations between WHR and *TBX15* expression in visceral fat (Gesta *et al.* 2006, 2007). Developmental gene (*HOX13*) may determine the pattern of adipocyte specific expression which have been observed in different fat depots (Gesta *et al.* 2006; Lanctot *et al.* 2007). The signal near *ADAMTS9* showed overlapping with previously associated type-2 diabetes locus (Zeggini *et al.* 2009). The type-2 diabetes risk alleles of *ADAMTS9* locus were found to be associated with insulin resistance in peripheral tissue (Boesgaard *et al.* 2009). Moreover, the mRNA of the five potential body fat distribution related genes (*ITPR2*, *RSPO3*, *TBX15*, *WARS2* and *STAB1*) was differentially expressed between gluteal and abdominal subcutaneous adipose tissue (Heid *et al.* 2010).

Some of the validated genes such as *LYPLAL1* which encodes a lysophospholipase-like protein might acts as a triglyceride lipase and was reported to be upregulated in SAT of obese subjects (Steinberg *et al.* 2007). *TFAP2B* is another validated gene which encodes a transcription factor preferentially expressed in adipose tissue. Over expression of *TFAP2B* downregulates the expression of insulin sensitizing hormone adiponectin by direct transcriptional repression (Ikeda *et al.* 2006). Further, *CYP17A1* gene is involved in the biosynthesis of androgens, oestrogens, mineral corticoids and glucocorticoids (Gilep *et al.* 2011).

Moreover, other identified genes were involved in adipogenesis (*ZNF423*, *CEBPA*, *PPARG*, *BMP2*, *HOXCm196*, *SPRY1* and *PEMT*), angiogenesis (*VEGFB*, *PLXND1*, *CALCR*, *MEIS1*, *FGF2*, *SMAD6*), and inflammation (*NLRP3*) (Heid *et al.* 2010). Some of the transcriptional regulators at WHRadjBMI loci include *CEBPA*, *PPARG*, *MSC*, *SMAD6*, *HOXA*, *HOXC*, *ZBTB7B*, *JUND*, *KLF13*, *MEIS1*, *RFX7*, *NKK2-6* and *HMGAI* (Shungin *et al.* 2015). Deficiency of a few candidate genes including *NMU* (Hanada *et al.* 2004), *FGFR4* (Huang *et al.* 2007) and

Table 3. Summary of the genes identified by GWAS in context with body fat distribution.

Table 3 (contd)

Author (year)	Population	Sample size total (M/F)/ range	Gene	Chr	SNP studied (EA)	Phenotype	Effect size (S.E.)	P value
Plourde <i>et al.</i> (2013)	European	926	<i>LRRKIP1</i>	2	rs3769053 (C)	TAT	$\beta = 0.402$	1.1×10^{-4}
					rs11680012 (C)	VAT	$\beta = 0.321$	3.7×10^{-4}
						BF%	$\beta = 0.388$	2.7×10^{-4}
						TAT	$\beta = 0.581$	3.8×10^{-6}
						SAT	$\beta = 0.537$	1.6×10^{-5}
						VAT	$\beta = 0.450$	3.5×10^{-5}
						TAT	$\beta = 0.398$	1.7×10^{-4}
					rs3806505 (G)	VAT	$\beta = 0.329$	3.4×10^{-4}
Yoneyama <i>et al.</i> (2014)	European	48,549 48,548 35,827	<i>TMCC1</i> <i>HQXCL0</i> <i>FEMT</i>	3	rs2811337 (G)	WHR	$\beta = 0.048 (0.008)$	7.7×10^{-9}
		13,532 Females	<i>SHC1</i>	12	rs7302703 (G)	WHR	$\beta = 0.044 (0.008)$	2.9×10^{-7}
		15,207 Females	<i>ATRDB4</i>	17	rs936108 (C)	WHR	$\beta = 0.035 (0.007)$	1.9×10^{-6}
Gao <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Hispanic-American	1257	<i>DHBI</i>	1	rs12076073 (A)	WHR	$\beta = 0.10 (0.02)$	1.9×10^{-6}
		1034	<i>ZGRF1</i>	15	rs1037575 (A)	WHR	$\beta = 0.046 (0.01)$	2.2×10^{-6}
				2	rs34218846 (T)	WC	$\beta = -0.080 (0.010)$	1.62×10^{-8}
				4	rs1471880 (C)	WHR	$\beta = -0.027 (0.0047)$	1.00×10^{-8}
Shungin <i>et al.</i> (2015)	European	207,867 181,049	<i>DCST72</i> <i>GORAB</i> <i>MEIS1</i> <i>CALCR</i> <i>PLXND1</i> <i>LEKRI</i> <i>NMU</i> <i>HAMI3A</i> <i>SP4TA5FGF2</i> <i>MAP3K1</i> <i>FGFR4</i> <i>BTNL2</i> <i>IMGAI</i> <i>HOXA11</i> <i>NKX2-6</i> <i>MSC</i> <i>ABCAL</i> <i>SEXN2</i> <i>CCDC92</i> <i>KLF13</i> <i>RFX7</i> <i>SMAD6</i> <i>MACROD1VEGFB</i> <i>CMIP</i> <i>FEMT</i> <i>BCL2</i> <i>JUND</i> <i>KCNQ2</i>	1	rs1385167 (G)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = -0.027 (0.0047)$	3.15×10^{-8}
		206,619	<i>rs10919388 (C)</i>	1	rs805938 (T)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.027 (0.0048)$	3.23×10^{-8}
		209,906	<i>rs7696816 (C)</i>	1	rs12054518 (A)	WHR	$\beta = 0.027 (0.0048)$	4.35×10^{-8}
		209,921	<i>rs10919388 (C)</i>	1	rs10919388 (C)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.025$	7.3×10^{-10}
		207,795	<i>rs1385167 (G)</i>	2	rs1385167 (G)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.024$	3.2×10^{-9}
		209,218	<i>rs1569135 (A)</i>	2	rs1569135 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.029$	1.9×10^{-9}
		209,941	<i>rs10804591 (A)</i>	3	rs10804591 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.021$	5.6×10^{-10}
		208,181	<i>rs17451107 (T)</i>	3	rs17451107 (T)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.025$	6.6×10^{-9}
		178,874	<i>rs3805389 (A)</i>	4	rs3805389 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.026$	1.1×10^{-12}
		208,263	<i>rs99091328 (T)</i>	4	rs99091328 (T)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.012$	1.5×10^{-3}
		177,879	<i>rs303084 (A)</i>	4	rs303084 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.019$	4.5×10^{-8}
		195,215	<i>rs9687846 (A)</i>	5	rs9687846 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.023$	3.9×10^{-8}
		209,766	<i>rs6556301 (T)</i>	5	rs6556301 (T)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.024$	7.1×10^{-8}
		203,826	<i>rs7759742 (A)</i>	6	rs7759742 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.022$	2.6×10^{-8}
		209,941	<i>rs1776897 (G)</i>	6	rs1776897 (G)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.023$	4.4×10^{-11}
		209,642	<i>rs7801581 (T)</i>	7	rs7801581 (T)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.030$	1.1×10^{-5}
		209,807	<i>rs7830933 (A)</i>	8	rs7830933 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.027$	3.7×10^{-10}
		208,255	<i>rs12679556 (G)</i>	8	rs12679556 (G)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.022$	7.4×10^{-8}
		208,374	<i>rs10991437 (A)</i>	9	rs10991437 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.027$	2.1×10^{-11}
		207,447	<i>rs7917772 (A)</i>	10	rs7917772 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.023$	1.0×10^{-8}
		198,072	<i>rs4765219 (C)</i>	12	rs4765219 (C)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.014$	5.6×10^{-5}
		207,828	<i>rs8042543 (C)</i>	15	rs8042543 (C)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.028$	1.6×10^{-15}
		198,196	<i>rs8030605 (A)</i>	15	rs8030605 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.026$	1.2×10^{-9}
		169,793	<i>rs1440372 (C)</i>	15	rs1440372 (C)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.030$	8.8×10^{-9}
		209,990	<i>rs11231693 (A)</i>	11	rs11231693 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.024$	1.1×10^{-10}
		209,977	<i>rs2925979 (T)</i>	16	rs2925979 (T)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.041$	2.7×10^{-11}
			<i>rs4646404 (G)</i>	17	rs4646404 (G)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.018$	1.2×10^{-6}
			<i>rs12454712 (T)</i>	18	rs12454712 (T)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.027$	1.4×10^{-11}
			<i>rs12608504 (A)</i>	19	rs12608504 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.016$	1.0×10^{-4}
			<i>rs8066985 (A)</i>	17	rs8066985 (A)	WHRadjBMI	$\beta = 0.022$	8.0×10^{-10}
							$\beta = 0.018$	1.4×10^{-7}

Table 3 (*contd*)

Table 3. (contd)

Author (year)	Population	Sample size total (M/F)/range	Gene	Chr	SNP studied (EA)	Phenotype	Effect size (S.E.)	P value
		195,068 (females)						
			<i>CPZ</i>	4	rs2241069	TFR	3.97 × 10 ⁻¹³	
			<i>RPLI-32D16</i>	5	rs1317415	LFR	4.71 × 10 ⁻¹¹	
			<i>ERII</i>	8	rs2044387	AFR	1.69 × 10 ⁻¹⁶	
			<i>XKR6</i>	8	rs12546366	AFR	8.23 × 10 ⁻¹⁴	
			<i>RMI1</i>	9	rs7039458	TFR	7.20 × 10 ⁻¹⁷	
			<i>ADAMTS14</i>	10	rs34821335	TFR	2.89 × 10 ⁻¹⁴	
			<i>TSGA10IP</i>	11	rs71455793	TFR	8.29 × 10 ⁻¹²	
			<i>LARP4</i>	12	rs11614785	TFR	1.15 × 10 ⁻¹⁸	
			<i>SMAD3</i>	15	rs35874463	TFR	3.10 × 10 ⁻²¹	
			<i>RPLI-343B1.8.2</i>	15	rs8026676	TFR	6.37 × 10 ⁻¹⁴	
			<i>RPLI-419C5.2</i>	16	rs80257620	AFR	1.79 × 10 ⁻¹⁷	
			<i>C16OR83</i>	16	rs10584116	TFR	1.20 × 10 ⁻¹²	
			<i>ZNF652</i>	17	rs28394864	TFR	3.51 × 10 ⁻¹⁷	
			<i>ADAMTS10</i>	19	rs62621197	TFR	8.33 × 10 ⁻⁴⁶	

AFR, arm fat ratio; β , beta coefficient; EA, effect allele; HC, hip circumference; HIPadjBMI, hip adjusted with body mass index; LFR, leg fat ratio; OR, odds ratio; BF%, body fat percentage; SAT, subcutaneous adipose tissue; VAT, visceral adipose tissue; WC, waist circumference; WHR, waist hip ratio; WHRadjBMI, waist circumference adjusted with body mass index; WCadjBMI, waist circumference not adjusted for BMI.

HMGAI (Foti *et al.* 2005) exhibit obesity, glucose intolerance and insulin resistance in mice.

Overlapping signals with BMI

The era of large scale GWAS have identified several loci influencing overall obesity through BMI (Thorleifsson *et al.* 2009; Speliotes *et al.* 2010). The first obesity GWAS identified a strongest association of rs9930506 with BMI ($P = 8.6 \times 10^{-7}$) and HC ($P = 3.4 \times 10^{-8}$) in the first intron of the *FTO* gene among Sardinian population (Scuteri *et al.* 2007). In line with this, a strong and replicated association between variants in *MC4R* and BMI was reported among Asian Sikh and European population (Been *et al.* 2010; Locke *et al.* 2015). The effect of *MC4R* variant was also reported with WC ($P = 1.7 \times 10^{-9}$) among Europeans and Indian Asians living in UK, suggesting the role of *MC4R* loci in mediating susceptibility to obesity by influencing overall body size (Chambers *et al.* 2008). In addition, associations of 12 loci (*NEGR1*, *BDNF*, *SH2B1*, *GNPDA2*, *FAIM2*, *TMEM18*, *ETV5*, *MTCH2*, *KCTD15*, *TFAP2B*, *NRXN3*, *GIPR*) previously established by GWAS for BMI (Thorleifsson *et al.* 2009; Speliotes *et al.* 2010; Wen *et al.* 2014) were found to overlap with WC (Heard-Costa *et al.* 2009; Li *et al.* 2010; Wang *et al.* 2011; Nakayama *et al.* 2014).

Moreover, few other loci (*SEC16B*, *INSIG2*, *GPRC5B*, *PCSK1*, *MTIF3*, *TOMM40*, *TUFM*, *NT5C2*, *IRSI*) associated with BMI (Zhao *et al.* 2009; Speliotes *et al.* 2010; Wen *et al.* 2014; Locke *et al.* 2015), also revealed evidences of their association with BF%, leg fat percentage, subcutaneous fat area and WHR (Talbert *et al.* 2009; Hotta *et al.* 2012; Murphy *et al.* 2013; Zhu *et al.* 2014; Lu *et al.* 2016).

Conclusion

The compilation of genetic studies related to body fat distribution, summarized in our critical review provides a comprehensive update on the current knowledge of genomic basis of body fat distribution among different ethnic groups. Several linkage scans and association studies, as well as many candidate gene studies have yielded numerous loci associated with body fat distribution. Nevertheless, given the high heritability estimates for body fat distribution, only a small proportion of the variance can be explained by the existing knowledge of identified variants associated with body fat distribution. Further, the genetic heterogeneity of variants associated with fat distribution has not been well documented among different ethnic groups. Majority of the GWAS have focussed on samples with European ancestry while gene mapping findings among Asian populations remain rare. Moreover, the use of GWAS has increasingly gained importance for uncovering the genetics of complex traits and diseases. Despite their value, problems to confirm the findings of GWAS are rather common; therefore, there is

a need to validate these discoveries in distinct human populations using appropriate study design and large sample size for further confirmation. This review emphasized not only the need for more genetic studies to explore missing heritability using more accurate methods (DEXA and CT scan) but also dissecting the precise biological functions of these genes in the regulation of body fat, which could be helpful in developing better disease management strategies.

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to acknowledge Science and Engineering Research Board (SB/YS/ LS-173/2014) for financial assistance.

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Corresponding editor: B. K. THELMA