

Manuscript Number: APPETITE-D-14-00967R1

Title: Insula tuning towards external eating versus interoceptive input in adolescents with overweight and obesity

Article Type: SI: Obesity and Cognition

Keywords: Insula, Interoception, External Eating, Decision-making, Adolescence.

Corresponding Author: Dr. Antonio Verdejo-Garcia,

Corresponding Author's Institution: Monash University

First Author: Fernanda Mata

Order of Authors: Fernanda Mata; Juan Verdejo-Roman; Carles Soriano-Mas; Antonio Verdejo-Garcia

**Abstract:** This study was aimed to examine if adolescent obesity is associated with alterations of insula function as indexed by differential correlations between insula activation and perception of interoceptive feedback versus external food cues. We hypothesized that, in healthy weight adolescents, insula activation will positively correlate with interoceptive sensitivity, whereas in excess weight adolescents, insula activation will positively correlate with sensitivity towards external cues. Fifty-four adolescents (age range 12-18), classified in two groups as a function of BMI, excess weight (n=22) and healthy weight (n=32), performed the Risky-Gains task (sensitive to insula function) inside an fMRI scanner, and completed the heartbeat perception task (measuring interoceptive sensitivity) and the Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (measuring external eating as well as emotional eating and restraint) outside the scanner. We found that insula activation during the Risky-Gains task positively correlated with interoceptive sensitivity and negatively correlated with external eating in healthy weight adolescents. Conversely, in excess weight adolescents, insula activation positively correlated with external eating and negatively correlated with interoceptive sensitivity, arguably reflecting obesity related neurocognitive adaptations. In excess weight adolescents, external eating was also positively associated with caudate nucleus activation, and restrained eating was negatively associated with insula activation. Our findings suggest that adolescent obesity is associated with disrupted tuning of the insula system towards interoceptive input.

## **HIGHLIGHTS**

- Insula activation negatively correlates with interoceptive sensitivity and positively correlates with external eating in adolescents with excess weight.
- Caudate nucleus activation positively correlates with external eating in adolescents with excess weight.
- In adolescents with overweight and obesity, the function of brain interoceptive and reward systems is not associated with perception of bodily feedback, and conversely correlates with maladaptive eating tendencies.

## **TITLE**

Insula tuning towards external eating versus interoceptive input in adolescents with overweight and obesity

## **AUTHOR NAMES AND AFFILIATIONS**

Fernanda Mata<sup>a</sup>, Juan Verdejo-Roman<sup>b</sup>, Carles Soriano-Mas<sup>c,d</sup>, & Antonio Verdejo-Garcia<sup>a,b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>School of Psychological Sciences, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia.

<sup>b</sup>Institute of Neuroscience F. Oloriz, Universidad de Granada, Granada, Spain.

<sup>c</sup>CIBERSAM, Carlos III Health Institute. Barcelona, Spain.

<sup>d</sup>Department of Psychiatry, Bellvitge Biomedical Research Institute-IDIBELL. Barcelona, Spain.

## **CORRESPONDING AUTHOR**

Antonio Verdejo-Garcia

School of Psychological Sciences, Monash University

18 Innovation Walk

3800 Wellington Rd.

Melbourne (Australia)

Phone: +61 3 99055374, Fax:+61 3 9905 3948

Email: [Antonio.Verdejo@monash.edu](mailto:Antonio.Verdejo@monash.edu)

## **ABSTRACT**

This study was aimed to examine if adolescent obesity is associated with alterations of insula function as indexed by differential correlations between insula activation and perception of interoceptive feedback versus external food cues. We hypothesized that, in healthy weight adolescents, insula activation will positively correlate with interoceptive sensitivity, whereas in excess weight adolescents, insula activation will positively correlate with sensitivity towards external cues. Fifty-four adolescents (age range 12-18), classified in two groups as a function of BMI, excess weight (n=22) and healthy weight (n=32), performed the Risky-Gains task (sensitive to insula function) inside an fMRI scanner, and completed the heartbeat perception task (measuring interoceptive sensitivity) and the Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (measuring external eating as well as emotional eating and restraint) outside the scanner. We found that insula activation during the Risky-Gains task positively correlated with interoceptive sensitivity and negatively correlated with external eating in healthy weight adolescents. Conversely, in excess weight adolescents, insula activation positively correlated with external eating and negatively correlated with interoceptive sensitivity, arguably reflecting obesity related neurocognitive adaptations. In excess weight adolescents, external eating was also positively associated with caudate nucleus activation, and restrained eating was negatively associated with insula activation. Our findings suggest that adolescent obesity is associated with disrupted tuning of the insula system towards interoceptive input.

**KEYWORDS:** Insula, Interoception, External Eating, Decision-making, Adolescence.

# 1 INTRODUCTION

2

3 The current food environment is full of cues that keep thoughts of palatable, energy-dense  
4 food almost constantly in mind (Swinburn et al., 2011). Therefore, individual  
5 differences in the relative value given to external food cues versus current homeostatic  
6 needs (e.g. hunger, satiety) may contribute to understand the increasing prevalence of  
7 obesity (Carnell, Benson, Pryor, & Driggin, 2013). In this context, obesity is viewed as  
8 a condition characterised by difficulties in resisting the urge to respond to external food  
9 cues, which may override homeostatic control of food intake (Blundell & Finlayson,  
10 2004). The insula is the brain hub that integrates homeostatic feedback with external  
11 information and expected outcomes (Craig, 2009), and therefore it is key to understand  
12 the neural balance between interoceptive and external information. Recent research  
13 suggests that during adolescence insula function is sensitised towards external reward  
14 cues and comparatively less sensitive to risk (Smith, Steinberg, & Chein, 2014). It is  
15 however yet unclear whether this pattern translates into greater insula weighing of  
16 external versus interoceptive information in adolescents with overweight and obesity.  
17 This question is relevant as in that case insula related adaptations may contribute to the  
18 establishment and maintenance of a highly palatable yet unhealthy (hence risky) diet.

19

20 Risky decision-making involves cognitive evaluation of potential rewards and outcomes,  
21 but it is also critically modulated by homeostatic signals that project to the insula cortex  
22 (Paulus, 2007). The insula receives the major sources of interoceptive input (i.e., gut,  
23 hormonal) and gives rise to awareness of homeostatic states, which guide behaviour in  
24 the direction of satisfying body needs (Craig, 2009). The insula is centrally involved in

25 basic functions related to perception of physiological needs such as thirsty and hunger as  
26 evidenced by animal (Hollis et al., 2008; Saker et al., 2004) and human studies (Craig,  
27 2009; Frank, Kullmann, & Veit, 2013). In relation to food intake, the insula cortex  
28 receives gut motility and hormonal signals of appetite and satiety, processes sensory  
29 and gustatory aspects of food and guides food related decisions (Frank, Kullmann, &  
30 Veit, 2013; Volkow, Wang, & Baler, 2011). Moreover, the insula is typically engaged  
31 when subjects make risky decisions involving gains and potential losses (Preusschoff,  
32 Quartz, & Bossaerts, 2008) and specifically involved in signaling the probability of  
33 aversive outcomes (Bossaerts, 2010; Venkatraman, Payne, Bettman, Luce, & Huettel,  
34 2009). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the insula plays a relevant role on food  
35 decisions involving reward, but potentially associated with health related costs.

36

37 Adolescents with excess weight have decreased activation of the insula during  
38 anticipation of higher rewards in the Risky-Gains task, which opposes a less rewarding  
39 safe choice with more rewarding risky choices (Delgado-Rico, Soriano-Mas, Verdejo-  
40 Roman, Rio-Valle, & Verdejo-Garcia, 2013). The insula also plays a crucial role in  
41 interoceptive sensitivity, which is decreased in individuals with excess weight (Herbert &  
42 Pollatos, 2014). Importantly, individual differences in interoceptive sensitivity modulate  
43 decision-making processes regarding food intake. Higher interoceptive sensitivity has  
44 been shown to predict adaptive eating behaviours (guided by awareness of internal cues  
45 of hunger or satiety), which indeed is negatively associated with BMI levels (Herbert,  
46 Blechert, Hautzinger, Matthias, & Herbert, 2013). Conversely, poor interoceptive  
47 sensitivity in the face of the current obesogenic environment may predispose obese  
48 individuals to rely on external cues rather than on internal feedback on physiological states

49 (e.g., hunger and satiety) (Schachter, 1968).

50

51 In this study, we used functional magnetic resonance imaging to examine whether insula  
52 activation during risk-based decision-making is associated with sensitivity towards external  
53 food cues versus perception of interoceptive feedback in adolescents with excess weight.  
54 Decision-making was challenged using the Risky-Gains task (Paulus, Rogalsky,  
55 Simmons, Feinstein, & Stein, 2003), which reliably induces recruitment of insula  
56 activation (Delgado-Rico et al., 2013). The perception of interoceptive feedback was  
57 measured by a heartbeat perception task (Schandry, 1981). It has been demonstrated that  
58 cardiac interoception is strongly correlated with gastric interoception, which indicates this  
59 is a general index of interoceptive sensitivity (Herbert, Muth, Pollatos, & Herbert, 2012).  
60 Sensitivity towards external food cues was measured by the external eating subscale of  
61 the Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire (Van Strien, Frijters, Bergers, & Defares,  
62 1986). We hypothesized that in excess weight adolescents insula activation would  
63 positively correlate with external eating, at difference with positive correlations with  
64 interoceptive sensitivity in healthy weight controls.

65

66 METHODS

67 PARTICIPANTS

68

69 Fifty-four adolescents (age range 12-18) participated in this study. They were classified  
70 in two groups (excess weight [n=22] or healthy weight [n=32]) according to their age- and  
71 sex-adjusted BMI percentile, following the criteria of the International Obesity Task Force  
72 (IOTF) defined by Cole (Cole & Lobstein, 2012). The demographic data, BMI,

73 percentage of fat and the biochemical parameters are summarized in Table 1. The two  
74 groups did not differ significantly in age, sex or any biochemical parameter. Participants  
75 were recruited from the pediatrics and endocrinology services of the Hospital “Virgen  
76 de las Nieves” in Granada, Spain, and from schools located in the same geographical  
77 area. The inclusion criteria were as follows: (i) aged between 12 and 18 years old, (ii)  
78 BMI values falling within the intervals categorized as excess weight or healthy weight  
79 according to the IOTF, (iii) absence of history or current evidence of neurological or  
80 psychiatric disorders, assessed by participants and parents interviews and the Eating  
81 Disorder Inventory (Garner, 1994), (iv) absence of significant abnormalities on MRI  
82 (Magnetic Resonance Imaging) or any contraindications to MRI scanning (including  
83 claustrophobia and implanted ferromagnetic objects) and (v) absence of history of brain  
84 injury involving loss of consciousness (LOC) for longer than 5 minutes. All of them  
85 had normal or corrected-to-normal vision. The study was approved by the Ethics  
86 Committee of the University of Granada. All participants and their parents were briefed  
87 about study aims and detailed procedures, and both signed an informed consent form  
88 certifying their voluntary participation.

89  
90 TABLE 1: Socio-demographic characteristics, biometric and biochemical parameters  
91 of the study groups. SINGLE COLUMN FITTING IMAGE

92

### 93 **fMRI TASK**

94 We used the Risky-Gains task described by Paulus (Paulus et al., 2003). In each trial,  
95 participants are presented with the numbers 20, 40 and 80 in a fixed order. The task  
96 requires the participant to acquire as many points as possible by choosing between safe



97 (20 points) and risky (40, 80 points) options. Each number (20, 40 or 80) is presented  
98 on the screen for 1 s, and the participant is instructed to press a button while the  
99 selected number is on the screen in order to win the corresponding amount of points. If  
100 participants fail to press the button within the required time, a ‘too late’  
101 message is displayed on the screen and they miss the points for that trial.

102

103 The first number in the sequence (20) is always a safe choice. Participants are told that if  
104 they choose to press the bottom while the 20 is on the screen they would always receive 20  
105 points. Moreover, participants are told that they have the option to wait and select one of the  
106 two subsequent choices (40 and 80); in that case they could win either 40 or 80 points, but  
107 that there would a chance (i.e., the probability is uncertain) that these options lead to loses 40  
108 or 80 points, respectively. Thus, although the subject may gain more points per trial by  
109 waiting until the 40 or 80 choices appear on the screen, there is also a risk of losing 40 or  
110 80 points. Points accumulate from trial to trial and the stake is shown at the top of the  
111 screen, being continuously updated. Participants received feedback immediately after  
112 making a response, so they could adapt their behavior to the feedback received.

113

114 The task consisted of 96 trials of 5 seconds. Fifty-four trials were non-punished trial type,  
115 where participants could get as much as 80 points, while 24 trials were -40 punished and  
116 18 were -80 punished trial types. The expected value of the three options (20, 40 and 80) is  
117 the same (i.e., the penalties are set in a way that there is no advantage in selecting the 40  
118 and 80 options). Therefore, there is no advantage in selecting the risky response (40 or 80)  
119 over the safe response (20).

120

## 121 **IMAGING DATA ACQUISITION AND PROCESSING**

122 A 3.0 T clinical MRI scanner (Intera Achieva, Philips Medical Systems, Eindhoven, The  
123 Netherlands), equipped with an eight-channel phased-array head coil, was used during  
124 task performance to obtain a T2\*-weighted echo-planar imaging (EPI) sequence with the  
125 following parameters: repetition time (TR) = 2000 ms, echo time (TE) = 35 ms, field of  
126 view (FOV) = 230 x 230 mm, 96 x 96 matrix, flip angle = 90°, 21 4 mm axial slices,  
127 1 mm gap, 243 scans. A sagittal three-dimensional T1-weighted turbo-gradient-echo  
128 sequence (3D-TFE) (160 slices, TR= 8.3 ms, TE = 3.8 ms, flip angle = 8°, FOV = 240 x  
129 240, 1 mm<sup>3</sup> voxels) was also obtained in the same experimental session for anatomical  
130 reference. Stimuli were presented through magnetic resonance-compatible liquid crystal  
131 display goggles (Resonance Technology Inc., Northridge, California, USA), and  
132 responses were recorded through Evoke Response Pad System (Resonance Technology  
133 Inc., Northridge, California, USA).

134

135 The brain images were analyzed using Statistical Parametric Mapping (SPM8) software  
136 (Wellcome Department of Cognitive Neurology, Institute of Neurology, Queen Square,  
137 London, United Kingdom), running under Matlab R2009 (MathWorks, Natick,  
138 Massachusetts, USA). Preprocessing steps were slice timing correction, reslicing to the  
139 first image of the time series, normalization (using affine and smoothly nonlinear  
140 transformations) to an EPI template in the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) space,  
141 and spatial smoothing by convolution with a 3D Gaussian kernel (full width at half  
142 maximum = 8 mm).

143

144 INSIDE SCANNER BEHAVIOURAL MEASURES

145 The main performance measures were safe and risky choice rates (proportion of  
146 safe/risky election by total trials) and safe and risky choice rates after punishments  
147 (proportion of safe/risky election after a punishment trial).

148

149 OUTSIDE SCANNER BEHAVIOURAL MEASURES

150 *HEARTBEAT PERCEPTION TASK*

151 We used the heartbeat perception task (Schandry, 1981), as described by Ehlers and  
152 Breuer (Ehlers & Breuer, 1992). In each trial participants were required to count how  
153 many heartbeats they felt over a period of time while the real number of heartbeats were  
154 measured by electrocardiogram (ECG). In order to determine whether subjects could  
155 calculate their number of heartbeats by simply estimating the time interval of the trial, a  
156 time estimation test was included. Participants completed three heartbeat trials (35, 25 and  
157 45 sec.), three time trials (23, 56 and 40 sec.) and then three further heartbeat trials (23, 56  
158 and 40 sec.). Prior to testing, participants were asked to remove their watch and instructed  
159 not to take their pulse with their fingers or to hold their breath. Time and heartbeat  
160 perception inaccuracy was calculated by taking the modulus of the actual value minus  
161 the estimated value, dividing this by the actual value and multiplied by 100 to express  
162 the inaccuracy as a percentage:  $(|AV-EV|) / (AV) * 100$ , where AV is the actual value, and  
163 EV is the estimated value.

164

165 Electrocardiogram (ECG) was recorded at rest and during performance of the heartbeat  
166 perception task at a sampling rate of 2000 Hz through a Biopac MP150 (Biopac Systems  
167 Inc., USA). Electrodes (Ag/AgCl) were placed according to Einthoven's II derivation

168 attaching them to the participant's right and left ankles and wrist of the non-dominant hand.  
169 The ECG raw signal was processed using the software AcqKnowledge 3.8.1.

170

#### 171 *DUTCH EATING BEHAVIOR QUESTIONNAIRE*

172 The Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (DEBQ) (Van Strien et al., 1986) was used to  
173 measure trait-eating behaviours. It is a 33-item questionnaire consisting of three subscales  
174 measuring the constructs of emotional eating (13 items), external eating (10 items) and  
175 restrained eating (10 items). Responses are made via a 5-point Likert scale ranging from  
176 "Never" (1) to "Very often" (5). It has good reliability and internal and discriminant  
177 validity (van Strien, 1986).

178

#### 179 DATA ANALYSIS

##### 180 *BEHAVIOURAL ANALYSIS*

181 Behavioural data were analyzed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences  
182 version 19 (SPSS 19; Chicago, IL, USA). We conducted independent-sample t-tests (two-  
183 tailed) to compare the two groups on relevant sociodemographic variables, and inside and  
184 outside scanner behavioural measures.

185

##### 186 *NEUROIMAGING ANALYSIS*

187 The time series were convolved with the SPM8 canonical hemodynamic response function  
188 and a high-pass filter was used to remove low-frequency noise (1/128 Hz). We defined 2  
189 conditions of interest: (i) safe response (20 points trials), (ii) risky response (40, -40, 80  
190 and -80 points trials). Conditions were modeled as the time elapsed from the beginning of  
191 the trial to the participants' response or punishment feedback appears. Our contrast of

192 interest was defined to study risky related brain activations: risky versus vs. safe choices.

193

194 One-sample t-test was conducted to assess intra-group activations (healthy weight and  
195 excess weight) in the contrasts of interest. Between-group comparisons were conducted  
196 using a two-sample t-test, masking results by the activation maps derived from the one-  
197 sample t-tests. The statistical threshold used for creating this mask was  $p < 0.005$ , with a  
198 minimum cluster size extent (KE) of 10 contiguous voxels. Regarding brain-behaviour  
199 associations, voxel-wise correlation analyses with our variables of interest (i.e., percentage  
200 of error in heartbeat perception and eating behaviour scores) were masked by two  
201 anatomical masks of the insular cortex and caudate nucleus, corresponding to the  
202 regions activated by risky choices in our study groups (see below). Such masks were  
203 created using the automated anatomical labelling (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002) from  
204 the WFU Pick Atlas Tool, version 3.0, integrated into SPM8 (Maldjian, Laurienti, Kraft,  
205 & Burdette, 2003). Within this masks we conducted within group correlations as well as  
206 between-group comparisons of correlation values (i.e., interactions).

207

208 All these analyses were corrected for multiple comparisons with a combination of voxel  
209 intensity and cluster extent thresholds. The spatial extent threshold was determined by  
210 1,000 Monte Carlo simulations using AlphaSim as implemented in the SPM REST  
211 toolbox (Song et al., 2011) (Ward, 2013). The input parameters included an insula and  
212 a caudate mask of 5383 and 1239 voxels, respectively, an individual voxel threshold  
213 probability of 0.005 and a cluster connection radius of 5 mm, considering the actual  
214 smoothness of data after estimation. A minimum cluster extent (KE) of 34 voxels was  
215 estimated to satisfy a Family-wise error (FWE) corrected P value of  $PFWE < 0.05$ .

216

217 Finally, in order to calculate the correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) and depict correlation plots, the  
218 beta eigenvalues from each cluster of significant brain differences between groups were  
219 extracted for each participant, and then correlated with behavioural measures in SPSS.  
220 We performed fisher  $r$ - to- $z$  transformation to calculate between-group interactions in these  
221 correlations.

222

## 223 **RESULTS**

### 224 BEHAVIOURAL RESULTS

225 There were no between-group differences in any of the behavioural measures.

226 TABLE 2: Behavioural measures.

### 227 SINGLE COLUMN IMAGE

228

### 229 NEUROIMAGING RESULTS

230 *RISKY-SAFE CONTRAST*: One-sample  $t$ -tests showed that both groups commonly  
231 activated the caudate nucleus and a cluster comprising inferior frontal gyrus and  
232 anterior insula bilaterally. Excess weight group additionally activated the midbrain.  
233 We did not observe significant differences between the groups at the selected  
234 threshold.

235

236 TABLE 3: Brain activations observed in risky versus safe choices in within-group  
237 (one-sample) whole-brain analyses. DOUBLE COLUMN FITTING IMAGE.

238

239 *MAIN ANALYSIS – CORRELATIONS BETWEEN BRAIN ACTIVATION PATTERNS*

240 *AND BEHAVIOURAL MEASURES:* A negative correlation between percentage of errors

241 in the heartbeat perception task and bilateral posterior insula activation was found in

242 healthy weight participants (x, y, z = 40, -4, 8, z score= 3.61; x, y, z = -36, -10, 12, z

243 score= 3.52). Conversely, the percentage of errors in the heartbeat perception task (x, y, z

244 = -36, 6, -12, z score= 3.54; x, y, z = 32, 6, -12, z score= 2.81) and external eating scores

245 (x, y, z = -46, 2, -10, z score= 3.61) were positively correlated with posterior insula

246 activations in excess weight participants (see Figure 1).

247

248 Results showed significant between-group (normal weight vs. excess weight) interactions

249 in the correlations between errors heartbeat perception and external eating scores and

250 posterior insula activation (z score=3.84, p=0.0001, and z score=2.77, p=0.0056,

251 respectively) (see Figure 1).

252

253 **Figure 1:** Significant interaction between heartbeat perception error and external eating

254 scores and posterior insula activation during Risky > Safe contrast. Y denote

255 coordinate in standard MNI space. Right hemisphere is displayed on the right. DOUBLE

256 COLUMN FITTING IMAGE IN COLOUR.

257

258 Moreover, bilateral insula activation correlated positively with Restrained Eating scores

259 in normal weight participants (x, y, z = -40, -20, -2, z score= 3.27; x, y, z = 34, -22, 14,

260 z score= 3.27) whereas this correlation was negative in excess weight participants (x, y,

261 z = 36, 4, 12, z score= 3.08) The direct comparison between these correlations revealed

262 a significant difference (z score=4.13, p<0.0001) (see Figure 2).

263  
264

265 **Figure 2:** Significant interaction between restrained eating scores and posterior insula  
266 activation during Risky > Safe contrast. Y denote coordinate in standard MNI space.  
267 Right hemisphere is displayed on the right. DOUBLE COLUMN FITTING IMAGE IN  
268 COLOUR.

269  
270

271 Finally, although there were no significant correlations between caudate activation and any  
272 of the behavioural measures in the healthy weight group, a significant and positive  
273 correlation with external eating (x, y, z = -6, 8, 10, z score= 3.10) was observed in the  
274 excess weight group (see Figure 3).

275

276 **Figure 3:** Correlation between external eating scores (X axis) and caudate activation  
277 during Risky > Safe contrast (Y axis). Y denote coordinate in standard MNI space. Right  
278 hemisphere is displayed on the right. DOUBLE COLUMN FITTING IMAGE IN  
279 COLOUR.

280

## 281 DISCUSSION

282

283 In agreement with the initial hypothesis, we found that insula activation during risk-  
284 based decision-making is positively associated with external eating and negatively  
285 associated with interoceptive sensitivity in adolescents with excess weight. The opposite  
286 pattern was observed in adolescents with healthy weight. Therefore, the distinctive  
287 insula tuning towards external compared to internal information likely reflects  
288 neurocognitive adaptations associated with obesity. In excess weight adolescents,  
289 external eating was also positively associated with caudate nucleus activation, and  
290 restrained eating - which refers to an effort to restrict food intake for the purposes of



291 maintenance or weight loss - was negatively associated with insula activation. These  
292 correlations emerged in the absence of significant between-group differences on brain  
293 activations or behavioural measures.

294

295 Our findings indicate that adolescents with excess weight have an altered association  
296 between insula function and processing of interoceptive information. This neuroimaging  
297 finding resonates with previous behavioural results showing that obesity is associated  
298 with poorer perception of interoceptive signals in adults (Herbert & Pollatos, 2014). The  
299 insula is the key brain system for interoceptive processing, but growing evidence  
300 suggests that adiposity may interfere with the normal perception of interoceptive  
301 input. For instance, adult obese patients display reduced posterior insula activation in  
302 response to mechanically-induced gastric distention (Tomasi et al., 2009). Therefore,  
303 adolescents with excess weight may have decreased insula sensitivity towards  
304 interoceptive stimuli (i.e., signals of hunger and satiety, bodily representations of the  
305 risk of aversive outcomes) and comparatively increased sensitivity towards external  
306 rewards (Smith, Steinberg, & Chein, 2014). In agreement with this notion, our findings  
307 suggest that adolescent obesity is associated with disrupted tuning of the insula system  
308 towards interoceptive input. At the same time, insula activity correlates with external  
309 eating patterns, which speculatively suggest that adolescents with excess weight  
310 might have a distinctive insula tuning towards external eating cues. This is consistent  
311 with previous neuroimaging studies showing that adolescents with excess weight and  
312 adolescents at risk of obesity (by virtue of family history) have increased insula  
313 activation in response to food images (Batterink, Yokum, & Stice, 2010) and monetary  
314 rewards (Stice, Yokum, Burger, Epstein, & Small, 2011), during reallocation of

315 attention to appetizing food images (Yokum, Ng, & Stice, 2011), and during  
316 anticipation and actual consumption of milkshakes (Stice, Spoor, Bohon, Veldhuizen, &  
317 Small, 2008). Obese men have been shown to activate the posterior and middle insula  
318 upon exposure to a meal whereas lean individuals deactivate the middle insula and show  
319 no response in the posterior insula (DelParigi et al., 2004). The insula sensitivity  
320 towards external cues has important public health implications as insula activation in  
321 response to food cues has been shown to predict ensuing consumption of high energy  
322 foods (Mehta et al., 2012) and weight gain (Demos, Heatherton, & Kelley, 2012).  
323 Furthermore, postprandial insula activation is associated with subsequent selection of  
324 high energy foods in an “ad libitum” buffet (Mehta et al., 2012).

325  
326 In addition, in adolescents with excess weight, caudate nucleus activation (related to the  
327 reward - impulsive system) was positively correlated with external eating and insula  
328 activation was negatively correlated with restrained eating (related to the goal-  
329 monitoring systems). Collectively, our findings suggest that obesity may be associated  
330 with a disruption of the interoception system involved in ongoing mapping of  
331 homeostatic signals and subsequent moderation of reward-impulsive versus goal-  
332 monitoring systems (Noel, Brevers, & Bechara, 2013). Specifically, engaging the  
333 insula system during risk-based decision-making in obesity might increase the  
334 vulnerability to eat in response to external food cues (regardless of physiological needs)  
335 by exacerbating activity within the reward-impulsive system and weakening activity of  
336 the goal-monitoring systems. Sensitization of the dopaminergic reward-impulsive  
337 system might serve to increase the salience of food cues in the environment and make them  
338 more attractive (Robinson & Berridge, 1993). This is consistent with the finding that

339 obese versus healthy weight individuals show increased brain activation in the caudate  
340 nucleus while viewing appetizing versus bland food (Nummenmaa et al., 2012). The  
341 caudate nucleus also shows increased connectivity with the posterior insula in obese  
342 individuals while they are seeing appetitive versus bland food (Nummenmaa et al.,  
343 2012). Moreover, a recent systematic review of the literature suggests that the striatum  
344 and the amygdala (reward-impulsive system) and the insula are hyper-reactive to visual  
345 food cues in obese individuals, paralleled by decreased response in the lateral and  
346 medial prefrontal areas (goal-monitoring system) (Garcia-Garcia et al., 2013).

347

348 The main conclusion of this study is that insula activation during risky versus safe  
349 choices is positively associated with external eating and negatively associated with  
350 interoceptive sensitivity in adolescents with excess weight, which is opposite to the  
351 “normal” pattern predicted by theory and observed in healthy weight controls. Moreover,  
352 in excess weight adolescents, the activation of the caudate nucleus also positively  
353 correlates with external eating, and the activation of the insula also negatively correlates  
354 with restraint. Collectively these findings suggest that, in excess weight adolescents,  
355 both interoceptive and reward related regions are tuned towards external cues, which  
356 may hamper efforts to restrain excessive eating behaviour. These findings give  
357 therefore support to cognitive interventions focused on enhancing appraisal of internal  
358 body signals as well as hunger and satiety awareness (Bloom, Sharpe, Mullan, &  
359 Zucker, 2013). These findings should be however interpreted in the context of relevant  
360 limitations. First, the data is correlational and therefore cannot speak of the causality of  
361 these alterations. Second, the correlations between brain activations and behavior

362 emerged in absence of significant group differences in brain or behavior, likely  
363 because at difference with previous studies (Delgado- Rico et al., 2013), the present  
364 study was not adequately powered to detect such between-group differences. Future  
365 studies using longitudinal designs, larger samples sizes and ecologically valid food choice  
366 tasks are warranted to validate our findings and to examine their public health  
367 implications. In essence we speculatively propose that altered insula tuning towards  
368 external rather than interoceptive cues may underlie unhealthy (“risky”) food choices in  
369 adolescents with overweight and obesity.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

This study has been funded by grants P10-HUM-6635 (NEUROECOBÉ) and PSI2010-17290 (INTEROBÉ) to AVG. CSM is funded by a ‘Miguel Servet’ contract from the Carlos III Health Institute (CP10/00604). We acknowledge Elena Delgado-Rico and Jacqueline Schmidt for their contribution to recruitment and assessment of participants included in this study.

## REFERENCES

- Batterink, L., Yokum, S., & Stice, E. (2010). Body mass correlates inversely with inhibitory control in response to food among adolescent girls: an fMRI study. *Neuroimage*, 52(4), 1696-1703. doi: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2010.05.059
- Bloom, T., Sharpe, L., Mullan, B., & Zucker, N. (2013). A pilot evaluation of appetite-awareness training in the treatment of childhood overweight and obesity: a preliminary investigation. *Int J Eat Disorder*, 46(1), 47-51. doi: 10.1002/eat.22041
- Blundell, J. E., & Finlayson, G. (2004). Is susceptibility to weight gain characterized by homeostatic or hedonic risk factors for overconsumption? *Physiol Behav*, 82(1), 21-25. doi: 10.1016/j.physbeh.2004.04.021
- Bossaerts, P. (2010). Risk and risk prediction error signals in anterior insula. *Brain Struct Funct*, 214(5-6), 645-653. doi: 10.1007/s00429-010-0253-1
- Carnell, S., Benson, L., Pryor, K., & Driggin, E. (2013). Appetitive traits from infancy to adolescence: using behavioral and neural measures to investigate obesity risk. *Physiol Behav*, 121, 79-88. doi: 10.1016/j.physbeh.2013.02.015
- Cole, T. J., & Lobstein, T. (2012). Extended international (IOTF) body mass index cut-offs for thinness, overweight and obesity. *Pediatr Obes*, 7(4), 284-294. doi: 10.1111/j.2047-6310.2012.00064.x
- Craig, A. D. (2009). How do you feel now? The anterior insula and human awareness. *Nat Rev Neurosci*, 10(1), 59-70. doi: 10.1038/nrn2555
- Delgado-Rico, E., Soriano-Mas, C., Verdejo-Roman, J., Rio-Valle, J. S., & Verdejo-Garcia, A. (2013). Decreased insular and increased midbrain activations during decision-making under risk in adolescents with excess weight. *Obesity*, 21(8), 1662-1668. doi: 10.1002/oby.20375
- DelParigi, A., Chen, K., Salbe, A. D., Hill, J. O., Wing, R. R., Reiman, E. M., & Tataranni, P. A. (2004). Persistence of abnormal neural responses to a meal in postobese individuals. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*, 28(3), 370-377. doi: 10.1038/sj.ijo.0802558
- Demos, K. E., Heatherton, T. F., & Kelley, W. M. (2012). Individual differences in nucleus accumbens activity to food and sexual images predict weight gain and sexual behavior. *J Neurosci*, 32(16), 5549-5552. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5958-11.2012
- Ehlers, A., & Breuer, P. (1992). Increased cardiac awareness in panic disorder. *J Abnorm Psychol*, 101(3), 371-382.
- Frank, S., Kullmann, S., & Veit, R. (2013). Food related processes in the insular cortex. *Front Hum Neurosci*, 7, 499. doi: 10.3389/fnhum.2013.00499
- Garcia-Garcia, I., Narberhaus, A., Marques-Iturria, I., Garolera, M., Radoi, A., Segura, B., . . . Jurado, M. A. (2013). Neural responses to visual food cues: insights from functional magnetic resonance imaging. *Eur Eat Disord Rev*, 21(2), 89-98. doi: 10.1002/erv.2216
- Herbert, B. M., Blechert, J., Hautzinger, M., Matthias, E., & Herbert, C. (2013). Intuitive eating is associated with interoceptive sensitivity. Effects on body mass index. *Appetite*, 70, 22- 30. doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2013.06.082
- Herbert, B. M., Muth, E. R., Pollatos, O., & Herbert, C. (2012). Interoception across modalities: on the relationship between cardiac awareness and the sensitivity for gastric functions. *PLoS One*, 7(5), e36646. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0036646

- Herbert, B. M., & Pollatos, O. (2014). Attenuated interoceptive sensitivity in overweight and obese individuals. *Eating Behaviors, 15*(3), 445-448. doi:10.1016/j.eatbeh.2014.06.002
- Herbert, B. M., Ulbrich, P., & Schandry, R. (2007). Interoceptive sensitivity and physical effort: implications for the self-control of physical load in everyday life. *Psychophysiology, 44*(2), 194-202. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-8986.2007.00493.x
- Hollis, J. H., McKinley, M. J., D'Souza, M., Kampe, J., & Oldfield, B. (2008). The trajectory of sensory pathways from the lamina terminalis to the insular and cingulate cortex: a neuroanatomical framework for the generation of thirst. *AM J PHYS, 294*(4), 1390-1401. doi: 10.1152/ajpregu.00869.2007
- Maldjian, J. A., Laurienti, P. J., Kraft, R. A., & Burdette, J. H. (2003). An automated method for neuroanatomic and cytoarchitectonic atlas-based interrogation of fMRI data sets. *Neuroimage, 19*(3), 1233-1239.
- Mehta, S., Melhorn, S. J., Smeraglio, A., Tyagi, V., Grabowski, T., Schwartz, M. W., & Schur, E. A. (2012). Regional brain response to visual food cues is a marker of satiety that predicts food choice. *Am J Clin Nutr, 96*(5), 989-999. doi: 10.3945/ajcn.112.042341
- Noel, X., Brevers, D., & Bechara, A. (2013). A neurocognitive approach to understanding the neurobiology of addiction. *Curr Opin Neurobiol, 23*(4), 632-638. doi: 10.1016/j.conb.2013.01.018
- Nummenmaa, L., Hirvonen, J., Hannukainen, J. C., Immonen, H., Lindroos, M. M., Salminen, P., & Nuutila, P. (2012). Dorsal striatum and its limbic connectivity mediate abnormal anticipatory reward processing in obesity. *PLoS One, 7*(2), e31089. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0031089
- Paulus, M. P. (2007). Decision-making dysfunctions in psychiatry--altered homeostatic processing? *Science, 318*(5850), 602-606. doi: 10.1126/science.1142997
- Paulus, M. P., Rogalsky, C., Simmons, A., Feinstein, J. S., & Stein, M. B. (2003). Increased activation in the right insula during risk-taking decision making is related to harm avoidance and neuroticism. *Neuroimage, 19*(4), 1439-1448.
- Preusschoff, K., Quartz, S. R., & Bossaerts, P. (2008). Human insula activation reflects risk prediction errors as well as risk. *J Neurosci, 28*(11), 2745-2752. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4286-07.2008
- Robinson, T. E., & Berridge, K. C. (1993). The neural basis of drug craving: an incentive-sensitization theory of addiction. *Brain Res Brain Res Rev, 18*(3), 247-291.
- Saker, P., Farrell, M. J., Adib, F. R. M., Egan, G. F., McKinley, M. J., & Denton, D. A. (2014). Regional brain responses associated with drinking water during thirst and after satiation. *PNAS, 111*(4), 5379-5384. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1403382111
- Schachter, S. (1968). Obesity and eating. Internal and external cues differentially affect the eating behavior of obese and normal subjects. *Science, 161*(3843), 751-756.
- Schandry, R. (1981). Heart beat perception and emotional experience. *Psychophysiology, 18*(4), 483-488.
- Schwartz, D. H., Leonard, G., Perron, M., Richer, L., Syme, C., Veillette, S., . . . Paus, T. (2013). Visceral fat is associated with lower executive functioning in adolescents. *Int J Obesity, 37*(10), 1336-1343.
- Smith, A. R., Steinberg, L., & Chein, J. (2014). The role of the anterior insula in adolescent decision making. *Dev Neurosci-Basel, 36*(3-4).
- Song, X. W., Dong, Z. Y., Long, X. Y., Li, S. F., Zuo, X. N., Zhu, C. Z., . . . Zang, Y. F. (2011). REST: a toolkit for resting-state functional magnetic resonance imaging data processing. *PLoS One, 6*(9), e25031. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0025031
- Stice, E., Spoor, S., Bohon, C., Veldhuizen, M. G., & Small, D. M. (2008). Relation of

- reward from food intake and anticipated food intake to obesity: a functional magnetic resonance imaging study. *J Abnorm Psychol*, 117(4), 924- 935. doi: 10.1037/a0013600
- Stice, E., Yokum, S., Burger, K. S., Epstein, L. H., & Small, D. M. (2011). Youth at risk for obesity show greater activation of striatal and somatosensory regions to food. *J Neurosci*, 31(12), 4360-4366. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.6604-10.2011
- Swinburn, B. A., Sacks, G., Hall, K. D., McPherson, K., Finegood, D. T., Moodie, M. L., & Gortmaker, S. L. (2011). The global obesity pandemic: shaped by global drivers and local environments. *The Lancet*, 378(9793), 804-814. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(11)60813-1
- Tomasi, D., Wang, G.-J., Wang, R., Backus, W., Geliebter, A., Telang, F., . . . Volkow, N. (2009). Association of body mass and brain activation during gastric distention: implications for obesity. *PLoS ONE*, 4(8), e6847-e6847.
- Tzourio-Mazoyer, N., Landeau, B., Papathanassiou, D., Crivello, F., Etard, O., Delcroix, N., . . . Joliot, M. (2002). Automated anatomical labeling of activations in SPM using a macroscopic anatomical parcellation of the MNI MRI single-subject brain. *Neuroimage*, 15(1), 273-289. doi: 10.1006/nimg.2001.0978
- Van Strien, T., Frijters, J. E. R., Bergers, G. P. A., & Defares, P. B. (1986). The Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (DEBQ) for assessment of restrained, emotional, and external eating behavior. *Int J Eat Disorders*, 5(2), 295-315.
- Venkatraman, V., Payne, J. W., Bettman, J. R., Luce, M. F., & Huettel, S. A. (2009). Separate neural mechanisms underlie choices and strategic preferences in risky decision making. *Neuron*, 62(4), 593-602. doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2009.04.007
- Volkow, N. D., Wang, G. J., & Baler, R. D. (2011). Reward, dopamine and the control of food intake: implications for obesity. *Trends Cogn Sci*, 15(1), 37-46. doi: 10.1016/j.tics.2010.11.001
- Werner, N. S., Jung, K., Duschek, S., & Schandry, R. (2009). Enhanced cardiac perception is associated with benefits in decision-making. *Psychophysiology*, 46(6), 1123-1129. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-8986.2009.00855.x
- Yokum, S., Ng, J., & Stice, E. (2011). Attentional bias to food images associated with elevated weight and future weight gain: an fMRI study. *Obesity*, 19(9), 1775-1783. doi:10.1038/oby.2011.168



TABLE 1: Socio-demographic characteristics, BMI, percentage of fat and biochemical parameters for each group

	Excess weight (n=22) Mean (SD) <sup>b</sup>	Healthy weight (n=32) Mean (SD)	p-value
<b>Demographic variables</b>			
Age	15.14 (2.03)	15.53 (1.70)	0.443
Sex (male/female)	11/21	10/12	0.412
BMI <sup>a</sup>	29.40 (3.00)	21.17 (2.24)	<0.001
Fat (%)	33.14 (8.85)	19.01 (6.73)	<0.001
<b>Biochemical parameters</b>			
Insulin	45.58 (59.90)	39.13 (38.69)	0.635
Basal glucose	92.34 (3.91)	92.17 (7.19)	0.91
Triglycerides	71.70 (31.80)	65.15 (29.05)	0.437
HDL <sup>c</sup>	55.15 (13.13)	56.88 (10.81)	0.6
Total cholesterol	154.64 (27.77)	146.00 (18.34)	0.174

aBody Mass Index

bStandard deviation

cHigh-density lipoprotein

TABLE 2: Behavioural measures

	Healthy weight (n=32) Mean (SD) <sup>a</sup>	Excess weight (n=22) Mean (SD)	p-value
<b>Body perception task</b>			
Error in heartbeat perception (%)	33.74 (16.17)	36.35 (18.02)	0.581
Error in time perception (%)	17.94 (15.96)	18.32 (13.57)	0.928
<b>Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire</b>			
Emotional Eating	23.13 (7.52)	22.86 (8.91)	0.908
Restrained Eating	20.50 (8.61)	24.68 (8.28)	0.081
External Eating	30.06 (7.40)	28.68 (7.01)	0.494
<b>Risky Gains Task</b>			
Safe choices (%)	50.39 (17.04)	53.66 (13.96)	0.46
Risky choices (%)	49.61 (17.04)	46.34 (13.96)	0.46
Safe choices after punishment (%)	61.69 (26.97)	65.41 (24.44)	0.607
Risky choices after punishment (%)	38.31 (26.97)	34.59 (24.44)	0.607

aStandard deviation

TABLE 3: Brain activations observed in risky versus safe choices in within-group (one-sample) whole-brain analyses

	BA <sup>a</sup>	Side	MNI coordinates			Ke <sup>b</sup>	T-value
			X	Y	Z		
Healthy weight							
Inferior frontal gyrus /Insula	47/13	L	-30	26	-10	384	6.77
Caudate		R/L	-8	12	-6	1261	6.7
Inferior frontal gyrus / Insula	47/13	R	30	28	-8	21	3.36
Excess weight							
Inferior frontal gyrus/Insula	47/13	L	-34	26	-2	234	4.47
Midbrain		R/L	-2	-18	-28	241	4.39
Caudate		R/L	8	10	-4	473	4.31
Inferior frontal gyrus/Insula	47/13	R	32	24	-8	60	3.99

<sup>a</sup>Brodmann area

<sup>b</sup>Cluster extent in voxels

FIGURE 1

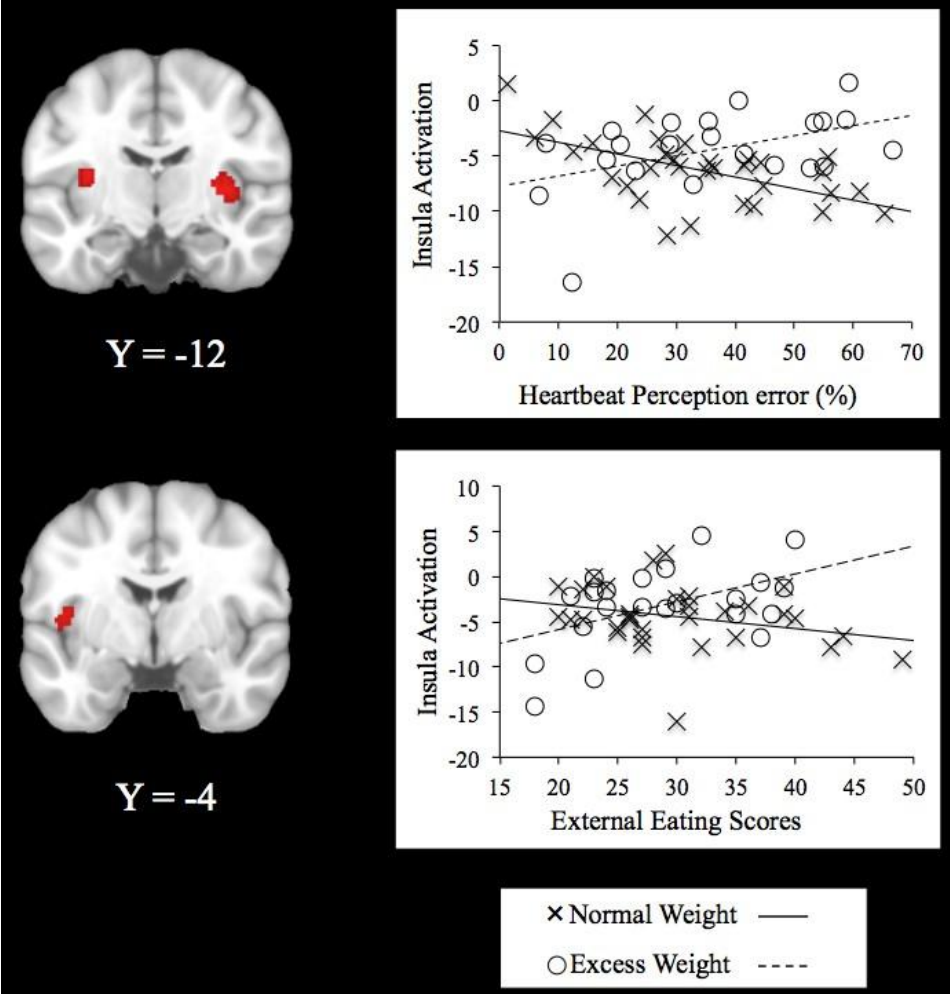


FIGURE 2

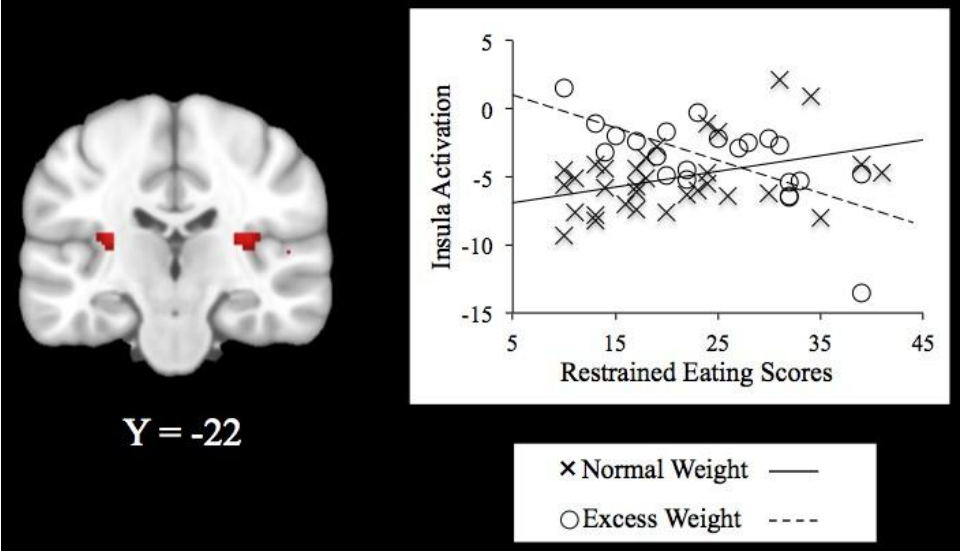


FIGURE 3

