

REVIEW

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# Genetic and nutrient interactions in the escalating global burden of obesity and metabolic disorders: a comprehensive review

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## Abstract

**Background** Obesity appeared as one of the most urgent public health issues globally. It markedly upraises the likelihood of disease and early mortality, contributing to various chronic ailments including diabetes (DM), cardiovascular disorders (CVD) and some specific types of cancer. Obesity onset of is not attributable to a one cause. it is a multifaceted interaction among genetic predispositions, environmental factors and lifestyle adoptions. Between these elements, dietary habits stand out as one of the most important influences, determining how the body manages and expends energy. Unhealthy food patterns, coupled inactive lifestyles can progressively disturb metabolic equilibrium. Then result in excessive fat accumulation and enduring health challenges.

**Objective** This research examines the interplay between genetic factors associated with obesity and nutrient consumption, as well as the implications of these interactions for the regulation of body weight. Additionally, it delves into how these gene-nutrient connections play a role in the onset of obesity and elevate the likelihood of metabolic disorders, such as type 2 diabetes, dyslipidemia, and hypertension.

**Methods** A comprehensive literature review was performed, focused on research published in the last twenty years. This review investigated significant genetic variants associated with obesity including *FTO*, *MC4R* and *LEPR*. The interactions with various dietary components. Particular emphasis was placed on how certain nutrients can affect gene expression and modify obesity risk. Also, the review observed how metabolic disorders like type 2 diabetes and osteoporosis might influence these gene-diet interactions. Furthermore, it evaluated the role of epigenetic modifications especially those influenced with long-term dietary patterns to the development of obesity and related metabolic issues.

**Conclusions** This research highlights the complex interplay between genetic components, diet and onset of obesity. It highlights the importance of modified nutrition as a feasible approach for the management and prevention of obesity. Grasping both genetic tendency and environmental factors is essential for developing effective, tailored

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interventions. These inclusive strategies can improve treatment results, encourage healthier habits and enhance long-term health across various populations.

### Key points

- 1) Obesity arises from a multifactorial interplay among genetic, dietary, and environmental factors regulating metabolism and energy balance.
- 2) Specific nutrients influence gene expression, impacting obesity risk and metabolic health outcomes.
- 3) Long-term dietary habits induce epigenetic changes that modulate obesity-related genes and fat metabolism.
- 4) Personalized nutrition based on genetic variants offers an effective strategy for obesity prevention and management.
- 5) Diverse genetic forms of obesity syndromic, monogenic and polygenic showed the need for targeted interventions.

**Keywords** Genetic, Nutrient, Epigenomics, Obesity, Metabolic diseases

## Introduction

In 1975 World Health Organization (WHO) recognizes obesity as one of the most significant global health issues (Khusainova et al. 2025), from 2016 over 1.9 billion adults were classified as overweight with more than 650 million of these individuals were obese (Górczyńska-Kosiorz et al. 2024). Now approximately 39% of adults globally are overweight and 13% almost obese. The increasing trend was exaggerated in recent years, mostly in the COVID-19 pandemic. Obesity rises from a combination of unhealthy diet, inadequate physical activity and genetic predisposition (Das et al. 2025). While the patterns can differ regionally.

The developed countries frequently report elevated obesity rates due to high-calorie diets and lifestyles issues but developing nations are also experiencing a swift rise in obesity as urbanization and Western dietary practices are more prevalent (Arshad et al. 2025). Obesity is a chronic form that emerges as a mixture of biological and lifestyle influences. It disturbs normal lipid and glucose metabolism, diminishes insulin sensitivity and increase abnormal inflammatory and oxidative responses (Razi et al. 2025). In result the fat accumulation and modify the secretion of adipocytokines can further disrupt metabolic equilibrium.

The aim of this narrative review was to examine the association between genetic factors and nutrient consumption in the obesity and associated metabolic disorders. Emphasizes important obesity-related genes which play a role in appetite control, energy homeostasis, lipid metabolism and insulin sensitivity. It examines how dietary habits and particular nutrients affect gene expression via epigenetic processes. The consolidates existing evidence regarding gene-nutrient interactions and their contribution to various obesity phenotypes. It including syndromic, monogenic and polygenic types.

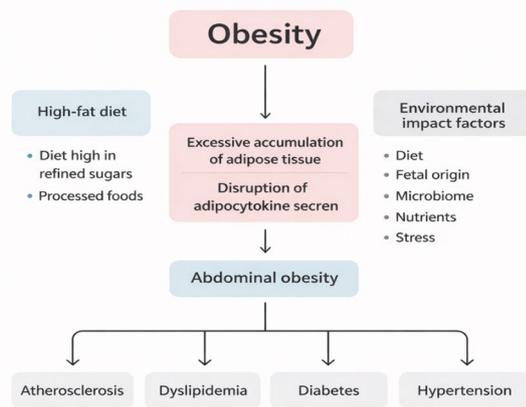
The review was conducted with used structured literature search. Relevant peer-reviewed published studies,

last two decades. That's were identified from scientific databases using predefined keywords related to genetics, nutrition and obesity. Included were original research observational and experimental studies, clinical trials, epigenetic studies, relevant systematic reviews and meta-analyses focusing on gene–nutrient interactions and metabolic outcomes. Non-peer-reviewed articles, case reports, duplicate publications, studies not directly related to obesity gene diet interactions and papers without available full text were excluded. The review is innovative as it integrates genetic variants, nutrient gene interactions and epigenetic mechanisms into a consistent framework explaining obesity development. But distinctly contrasting syndromic, monogenic and polygenic obesity forms and their phenotype-specific nutritional responses.

Bad dietary habits particularly the high in saturated fats with refined sugar and processed foods can alter adipokine function (Abdolla et al. 2025). That diets frequently elevate pro-inflammatory adipokines like leptin and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ) but lessening anti-inflammatory ones like adiponectin (Błażejewska et al. 2025). This disruption raises chronic low-grade inflammation, insulin resistance and other metabolic disturbances which can crucial in the onset of obesity (Wang et al. 2025). The accumulation of visceral fat may refer to as abdominal obesity, significantly heightens the risk of cardiometabolic diseases. These cover high blood pressure, type 2 diabetes and abnormal blood lipid levels. After these conditions can may change into severe complications like atherosclerosis, heart attack, stroke, peripheral artery disease and certain cancer types, here bellow explained the various causes of obesity in (Fig.1).

### Updated prevalence data on obesity

The incidence of adult obesity has significantly increased worldwide. Nations from 1990 to 2021, indicating a continuous and increasing public health emergency. In 2021,



**Fig. 1** Biological, genetic, dietary and lifestyle pathways which contributing to development of obesity and related cardiometabolic complications

about 2.11 billion adults worldwide were classified as overweight or obese, 1.00 billion men and 1.11 billion women. Since 1990 the worldwide prevalence of obesity surged with over 155% in males and 105% in females. The most rapid growth observed in the North Africa and Middle East region. China, India and the United States represented the largest absolute numbers of affected adults. Highlighting the combined effects of population size and increasing prevalence.

The forecasts suggest that if current patterns persist, the number of adults with overweight and obesity could reach about 3.8 billion till 2050. Accounting for more than half of the worldwide adult population with mostly increases anticipated in sub-Saharan Africa and certain areas of Asia. The statistics shows the extensive and escalating nature of obesity and indicate a urgent requirement for effective, region-specific prevention and control measures. In (Fig. 1) explained that how obesity it effects on body with different complications.

#### Pathways linking obesity, abdominal obesity and cardiometabolic complications

Obesity induced with diet results from the excessive collection of adipose tissue. It is primarily caused of diets high in fat and sugar, as well as the consumption of processed foods, leading to a disruption in the secretion of adipocytokines. The genetic factors and epigenetic changes play a role in determining an individual's vulnerability to fat accumulation. The environmental influences like the quality of diet, the composition of the microbiome, fetal programming, nutrient intake and stress levels further affect the risk of developing obesity. Thus, abdominal obesity contributes to various metabolic

complications, including atherosclerosis, dyslipidemia, diabetes and hypertension as explained in (Fig. 1).

#### Various biological and lifestyle factors that cause obesity

The illustration shows the various interconnected elements that can contribute to the initiation and advancement of obesity (Fig. 1). These factors work in concert and interact insistently over time. Key elements include poor dietary habits, chronic low-grade inflammation and disrupted metabolic regulation (Fic and Polak-Szczybyło 2025). They facilitate extra fat accumulation, particularly in the abdominal region. Obesity subsequently raises the risk of developing metabolic conditions like insulin resistance and abnormal lipid profiles (Razi et al. 2025).

#### Association between diet and obesity

Obesity rises with a multifaceted interplay between genetic predispositions and environmental influences (Chermon and Birk 2024). An important component of that phenomenon is epigenetics. It refers to modifications in gene expression that do not involve alterations to the DNA sequence itself (Agrawal et al. 2024). The changes may can affect to metabolism, fat accumulation and the regulation of overall body weight.

Diet as instrumental in influencing the epigenetic modifications (Suleiman et al. 2025). Specific nutrients have a capacity to activate or inhibit genes that are relevant to energy balance and fat metabolism like carbohydrates can affect the gut microbiota that subsequently influences genes linked to obesity (Mansour et al. 2024). Prebiotic carbohydrates encourage the proliferation of beneficial gut bacteria that mitigate inflammation and enhance metabolic health and proteins can play a role in gene expression with modulating appetite, energy expenditure and hormonal functions (Yoo et al. 2024). That proteins can activate genes that facilitate fat breakdown but others may suppress the expression of genes that contribute to fat storage.

#### Role of trace elements and gene regulation in obesity

A deficiency in trace elements has associated to increased fat accumulation and changes in the expression of genes related to obesity (Li et al. 2025). These minerals are important for numerous metabolic functions, including energy production, lipid metabolism and antioxidant defense mechanisms (Agrawal et al. 2024). Important antioxidant enzymes like superoxide dismutase, catalase, peroxidase, glutathione transferase and glutathione reductase rely on trace minerals for their optimal functioning (Lupu et al. 2024). When the enzymes operate effectively, they can increase the expression of genes that facilitate energy usage and inhibit excessive fat storage (Yarahmadi et al. 2024).

The enzymatic antioxidants various non-enzymatic substances also engage with genes associated with obesity (Olivares-Vicente and Herranz-López 2025). These substances encompass glutathione, vitamins A, C and E, as well as carotenoids, tocopherols and tocotrienols (Młynarska et al. 2024). All they assist in mitigating oxidative stress and may affect gene activity related to fat metabolism and storage (Cheng et al. 2025). Although environmental factors like diet, physical activity and lifestyle significantly influence the risk of obesity, genetic factors also play a vital role. Numerous genes have been identified that govern appetite, energy balance and fat distribution, so contributing to individual variations in body weight and metabolic health (Górczyńska-Kosiorz et al. 2024).

### Genetic factors of obesity

Several genes are intricately linked with obesity due to the influence on appetite regulation, metabolic processes and energy management, these under.

- 1) *FTO*: Variants of this gene correlate with heightened appetite and an elevated body mass index (Górczyńska-Kosiorz et al. 2024).
- 2) *MC4R*: This gene is instrumental in regulating energy consumption, appetite and metabolic rate (Fansa and Acosta 2024).
- 3) *LEPR*: It encodes the leptin receptor and is vital for managing food intake and sustaining energy equilibrium (Sharma et al. 2025).
- 4) *PPARG*: This gene is crucial for the formation of fat cells and the overall regulation of metabolism (Górczyńska-Kosiorz et al. 2024; Sharma et al. 2025).
- 5) *TAS2R*: These genes related to taste receptors may impact food preferences and consequently affect the risk of obesity (Górczyńska-Kosiorz et al. 2024; Ponnusamy et al. 2022).

The interplay between nutrient consumption, genetic predispositions and weight gain is vital for enhancing obesity prevention and treatment strategies (Mansour et al. 2024). The environmental factors and genetic makeup influence how the body accumulates and utilizes energy. Nutrients can alter gene expression but genetic factors can dictate the body's response to particular foods (Priyadarshini et al. 2025).

### Genetic, epigenetic and environmental interaction in obesity

The selection of genes concentrated on those recognized for their significant roles in obesity research (Brandolino

et al. 2025). The genes like *FTO*, *MC4R*, *LEPR* and *PPARG* (Table 1) were emphasized due to their contributions to appetite regulation, energy metabolism and fat storage (Siddiqui et al. 2025). The second approach investigated the genetic variability associated with obesity (Pratiwi et al. 2025). Genes linked to syndromic, monogenic and polygenic forms were analyzed to guide potential therapeutic strategies. The third approach focused on genes that influence dietary behaviors.

The *TAS2R* gene family was combined due to its impact on taste perception that effects on food preferences and can raised the risk of obesity (Sternini and Rozengurt 2025). The fourth approach examined epigenetic factors that could modify treatment outcomes. Genes like *PLIN1* and the *SIRT1–SIRT7* family were chosen to shed light on the interaction between genetic and dietary factors and their influence on obesity-related comorbidities (Rana and Nawaz 2025). In Fig. 2, the relationship between nutrient intake, gene expression and the obesity phenotype and their relationships.

### Associated factors in obesity

Figure 2 shows the intricate interactions between genetic predisposition, environmental influences, dietary habits and the gut microbiota concerning obesity and associated metabolic disorders. Genetic factors have a significant role to determining both the likelihood of obesity and personal dietary choices but environmental aspects, including lifestyle and physical activity, have a direct effect on obesity outcomes (Danesh Doost et al. 2025).

The gut microbiota has as a crucial regulator of metabolic health, can influence the likelihood of comorbidities such as type 2 diabetes and osteoporosis (Armutcu and McCloskey 2025). Diet can alter gene expression in both beneficial and detrimental manners and specific nutritional interventions may enhance body weight, microbiota diversity and overall metabolic performance (Ma et al. 2025). Epigenetic mechanisms have more influence on gene activity, intensifying the effects of environmental and dietary factors. In Table 1 genes associated with obesity and metabolic disorders explained below.

### Syndromic forms of obesity

Syndromic forms of obesity that shows as part of a genetic syndrome which shows the presence of excess body weight is merely one characteristic among various other medical or developmental issues (Farzand et al. 2025). This condition may emerge in early life and it is often linked to additional complications like intellectual disabilities, unique facial or physical features and disorders affecting organs or behavior (Wyszyńska et al. 2025). The origins of this form of obesity can maybe traced in multiple genetic anomalies. It included chromosomal alterations, microdeletions or variations in copy number.

**Table 1** Genes associated with obesity and metabolic disorders

| Gene  | Gene symbol   | Associated metabolic disorder                | Function   | References                                |
|---|---------------|--|--|---|
| <i>Leptin</i>   | <i>LEP</i>    | Obesity, Leptin deficiency                   | Regulates energy balance by inhibiting hunger; promotes energy expenditure. Involved in appetite control.                      | Ahima and Flier <a href="#">2025</a>      |
| <i>Leptin receptor</i>                                      | <i>LEPR</i>   | Obesity, Leptin resistance                   | Mediates the effects of leptin on appetite and energy expenditure. Key in regulating food intake and energy balance.           | Durak et al. <a href="#">2025</a>         |
| <i>Pro-opiomelanocortin</i>                                 | <i>POMC</i>   | Obesity, POMC deficiency                     | Involved in melanocortin signaling for energy homeostasis, regulating hunger and fat metabolism.                               | Yanik and Durhan <a href="#">2025</a>     |
| <i>Melanocortin 4 receptor</i>                              | <i>MC4R</i>   | Obesity, MC4R mutations                      | Regulates food intake and energy expenditure; mutations lead to severe obesity.  | Imangaliyeva et al. <a href="#">2025</a>  |
| <i>FTO (Fat Mass and obesity-associated gene)</i>           | <i>FTO</i>    | Obesity, Type 2 Diabetes                     | Regulates fat storage and body weight; involved in the regulation of energy expenditure and appetite.                          | Jamali et al. <a href="#">2025</a>        |
| <i>Adiponectin</i>  | <i>ADIPOQ</i> | Obesity, Insulin resistance                  | Modulates glucose regulation and fatty acid oxidation; has anti-inflammatory effects and regulates fat metabolism.             | Vuković et al. <a href="#">2025</a>       |
| <i>Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma</i>     | <i>PPARγ</i>  | Obesity, Insulin resistance, Type 2 Diabetes | Regulates adipogenesis, glucose metabolism, and insulin sensitivity; crucial for fat storage and energy balance.               | Kounatidis et al. <a href="#">2025</a>    |
| <i>Insulin receptor</i>                                     | <i>INSR</i>   | Type 2 Diabetes, Obesity                     | Mediates the effects of insulin on glucose uptake and metabolism; mutations lead to insulin resistance.                        | Coelho et al. <a href="#">2025</a>        |
| <i>Uncoupling protein 1</i>                                 | <i>UCP1</i>   | Obesity, Metabolic disorders                 | Involved in thermogenesis and energy expenditure; helps regulate heat production in brown adipose tissue.                      | Klein <a href="#">2025</a>                |
| <i>PPAR alpha</i>   | <i>PPARA</i>  | Obesity, Hyperlipidemia                      | Regulates fatty acid oxidation and lipid metabolism; has a role in maintaining energy balance.                                 | Koppen <a href="#">2025</a>               |
| <i>Cysteine-rich protein 2</i>                              | <i>CRP2</i>   | Obesity, Metabolic syndrome                  | Involved in regulation of adipocyte differentiation and fat accumulation.  | Milanović et al. <a href="#">2025</a>     |
| <i>Fibrillin 1</i>  | <i>FBN1</i>   | Marfan Syndrome, Obesity                     | Involved in connective tissue formation and energy homeostasis; mutations may contribute to metabolic disorders.               | Marsan et al. <a href="#">2025</a>        |
| <i>MC3R (Melanocortin 3 Receptor)</i>                       | <i>MC3R</i>   | Obesity, Insulin resistance                  | Regulates food intake and energy expenditure; mutations cause excessive weight gain.   | Yanik and Durhan <a href="#">2025</a>     |
| <i>Fatty acid synthase</i>                                  | <i>FASN</i>   | Obesity, Hyperlipidemia                      | Key enzyme in the synthesis of fatty acids; excessive activity leads to fat accumulation.                                      | Banaszak et al. <a href="#">2025</a>      |
| <i>Apolipoprotein E</i>                                     | <i>APOE</i>   | Alzheimer's, Obesity, Dyslipidemia           | Plays a role in lipid metabolism and energy homeostasis; has been implicated in both metabolic diseases and neurodegeneration. | Solanke <a href="#">2025</a>              |
| <i>UCP2 (Uncoupling protein 2)</i>                          | <i>UCP2</i>   | Obesity, Diabetes                            | Regulates energy expenditure and mitochondrial proton leak; plays a role in metabolic flexibility.                             | Kelany et al. <a href="#">2025</a>        |
| <i>Thyroid hormone receptor beta</i>                        | <i>THRB</i>   | Hypothyroidism, Obesity                      | Regulates metabolism and thermogenesis; mutations lead to obesity and metabolic dysregulation.                                 | Tulp et al. <a href="#">2025</a>          |
| <i>TNF-alpha</i>  | <i>TNF</i>    | Obesity, Insulin resistance                  | A pro-inflammatory cytokine that affects insulin sensitivity, lipid metabolism, and fat accumulation.                          | Sierra-Ruelas et al. <a href="#">2025</a> |
| <i>CART (Cocaine- and Amphetamine-regulated transcript)</i> | <i>CARTPT</i> | Obesity, Eating disorders                    | Involved in regulating appetite and energy balance; regulates feeding behavior.  | Tonin et al. <a href="#">2025</a>         |
| <i>Ghrelin</i>  | <i>GHRL</i>   | Obesity, Prader-Willi Syndrome               | Stimulates appetite, growth hormone release, and energy balance.   | Doğan and Bülbül <a href="#">2025</a>     |

The researchers have recognized about 140 genetic syndromes that are associated with syndromic obesity, with Prader–Willi syndrome being among the most well-known (Guillon [2025](#)).

The patterns of inheritance can vary, manifesting as autosomal dominant, autosomal recessive, or X-linked traits (Nagral and Mallakmir [2025](#)). A exact diagnosis generally necessitates a collaborative effort among geneticists, endocrinologists and other medical professionals to ascertain the underlying genetic factors. The most common genetic syndromes associated to syndromic

obesity encompass Prader–Willi (Table 2), Bardet–Biedl, Alström and Cohen syndromes (Table 2) (Argente et al. [2025](#)). The weight gain observed in these syndromes is attributed to disruptions in energy balance, it can be caused with excessive appetite (hyperphagia), insulin resistance or hormonal imbalances like hypothyroidism (Dharia et al. [2025](#)).

#### Hyperphagia and obesity in Prader–Willi syndrome

The diagnosing Prader–Willi syndrome (PWS) in children in the early stages of infancy are characterized with



**Table 2** The clinical features, syndromic obesity, genes and inheritance

| Obesity-related syndrome            | Gene   | Inheritance pattern<br>Clinical features   | Obesity features  | References                      |
|-------------------------------------|--|--|---|---------------------------------|
| Prader-Willi Syndrome (PWS)         | Chromosome 15q11-q13 (deletion or imprinting defect) | Autosomal dominant (de novo)<br>Hypotonia, developmental delay, intellectual disability, hyperphagia, small hands/feet, hypogonadism | Severe hyperphagia, insatiable appetite leading to extreme obesity in childhood           | Chen et al. 2021                |
| Bardet-Biedl Syndrome (BBS)         | <i>BBS1, BBS10</i> (multiple genes, 21 loci)         | Autosomal recessive<br>Retinal degeneration, polydactyly, renal abnormalities, developmental delay, heart defects                    | Early onset obesity, reduced energy expenditure, slow metabolism                          | Zhang 2025                      |
| Alström syndrome                    | <i>ALMS1</i> (Chromosome 2p13)                       | Autosomal recessive<br>Progressive sensorineural hearing loss, dilated cardiomyopathy, retinal degeneration                          | Progressive obesity starting in early childhood, adiposity accumulation                   | Qi et al. 2025                  |
| Cohen syndrome                      | <i>COH1</i> (Chromosome 8q22)                        | Autosomal recessive<br>Intellectual disability, hypotonia, microcephaly, cataracts, facial dysmorphism                               | Progressive obesity in early childhood, truncal adiposity                                 | Wang et al. 2025                |
| Rasopathies (e.g., Noonan Syndrome) | <i>PTPN11, KRAS, SOS1</i> (multiple genes)           | Autosomal dominant<br>Short stature, congenital heart defects, characteristic facial features, developmental delay                   | Mild to moderate obesity, reduced growth, low muscle mass                                 | Rodríguez 2025                  |
| MC4R deficiency                     | <i>MC4R</i> (Chromosome 18q22)                       | Autosomal dominant<br>Hyperphagia, decreased satiety, early onset obesity, some cognitive delay                                      | Severe obesity starting in early childhood, hyperphagia                                   | Imangaliyeva et al. 2025        |
| Silver-Russell syndrome             | Chromosome 11p15                                     | Autosomal dominant (de novo)<br>Short stature, triangular face, asymmetry, developmental delay, feeding difficulties                 | Growth restriction and obesity at different stages of life, especially in early childhood | Begemann et al. 2025            |
| Congenital leptin deficiency        | <i>LEP</i> (Chromosome 7q32)                         | Autosomal recessive<br>Severe early onset obesity, hypogonadotropic hypogonadism, high levels of circulating leptin                  | Severe obesity beginning in infancy, hyperphagia despite high leptin                      | Golounina et al. 2025           |
| McCune-Albright syndrome            | <i>GNAS</i> (Chromosome 20q13)                       | Mosaic (post-zygotic mutation)<br>Café-au-lait spots, fibrous dysplasia of bone, precocious puberty, endocrine abnormalities         | Early onset obesity, particularly due to endocrine dysfunction                            | Tsintavis and Stathopoulos 2025 |
| Mosaic Trisomy 8 Syndrome           | Chromosome 8 (Mosaic trisomy)                        | De novo (mosaicism)<br>Developmental delay, dysmorphic features, learning disabilities, heart defects                                | Obesity observed in early childhood, poor motor coordination                              | Ehn et al. 2025                 |
| Smith-magenis syndrome              | <i>RAI1</i> (Chromosome 17p11.2)                     | Autosomal dominant (de novo)<br>Intellectual disability, sleep disturbances, behavior problems, craniofacial abnormalities           | Increased appetite and obesity, impulsive eating behaviors                                | Covarelli et al. 2025           |
| Leprechaunism (Donohue Syndrome)    | <i>INSR</i> (Chromosome 19p13.2)                     | Autosomal recessive<br>Severe insulin resistance, growth retardation, microcephaly, profound developmental delay                     | Early onset, severe obesity due to insulin resistance, hyperglycemia                      | Pliszka and Szablewski 2025     |

in adipogenesis and triglyceride storage (Takeda and Dai 2024)(3) Genes that manage energy expenditure (Hong et al. 2024). Below the table 3 have showed Genes Linked with Obesity, Functional Roles in the Metabolic Regulation.

The dietary interventions interact to genetic variants to affect obesity and metabolic health every method targets unique phenotypic traits which based on the relationships among genes and nutrients. The Low-Carbohydrate Diet (LCD) which may effective for individuals possessing the *FTO* (T-allele) (Table 3) and *MC4R*(C-allele) variants (Gorini and Tonacci 2025). The genetic factors are associated with increase appetite and diminished satiety and low-carbohydrate intake aids in weight reduce and enhances metabolic control.

The mediterranean diet have advantage for the carrying the *APOA2* (T-allele) and *SIRT1* (G-allele) variants these are linked to compromised lipid metabolism and fat storage (Xiao et al. 2024). The anti-inflammatory and antioxidant characteristics of diet encourage metabolic health and ease obesity associated risks. The high protein diet is recommended for individuals who are with the *LEP* (A-allele) and *FTO* (T-allele) variants (Vranceanu et al. 2024).

The low-glycemic diet is suitable for individuals with the *TCF7L2* (T-allele) and *GCKR* (C-allele) variants that are associated with insulin resistance (Table 4) (Gorini and Tonacci 2025). Foods with a low glycemic index assist in stabilizing blood glucose levels and enhancing metabolic outcomes (Saidaiah et al. 2024). The ketogenic diet is effective for those with the *IRX3* (A-allele) and *MC4R*

**Table 3** Genes linked with obesity, functional roles in the metabolic regulation

| Function                         | Gene name  | Phenotypic traits   | References               |
|----------------------------------|--|---|--------------------------|
| Appetite regulation              | <i>MC4R</i> (Melanocortin 4 Receptor)                              | Hyperphagia, early-onset obesity, insulin resistance, metabolic syndrome                        | Abuzzahab et al. 2025    |
| Fat storage and metabolism       | <i>FTO</i> (Fat mass and obesity-associated gene)                  | Increased fat mass, elevated BMI, susceptibility to metabolic diseases                          | Taneera et al. 2024      |
| Leptin regulation                | <i>LEP</i> (Leptin)  | Hyperphagia, severe early-onset obesity, hypogonadotropic hypogonadism                          | Mondal et al. 2024       |
| Glucose homeostasis              | <i>INS</i> (Insulin)   | Insulin resistance, early obesity, type 2 diabetes risk   | Sajir et al. 2024        |
| Energy expenditure               | <i>UCP1</i> (Uncoupling Protein 1)                                 | Reduced thermogenesis, increased adiposity, impaired cold-induced thermogenesis                 | Gong et al. 2024         |
| Fatty acid oxidation             | <i>PPAR-γ</i> (Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma)   | Increased adipogenesis, fat storage, insulin sensitivity impairment                             | Mohajan and Mohajan 2024 |
| Adipocyte differentiation        | <i>KLF6</i> (Kruppel-like factor 6)                                | Altered adipocyte differentiation, fat storage, reduced metabolic activity                      | Abbas Raza et al. 2024   |
| Adipogenesis and fat deposition  | <i>ADIPOQ</i> (Adiponectin)  | Decreased adiponectin levels, impaired fat metabolism, obesity-associated metabolic dysfunction | Błażejewska et al. 2025  |
| Glucose metabolism               | <i>GCKR</i> (Glucokinase Regulatory Protein)                       | Insulin resistance, hyperglycemia, obesity with metabolic risk                                  | Paliwal et al. 2024      |
| Cholesterol and lipid metabolism | <i>APOA2</i> (Apolipoprotein A2)                                   | Altered lipid profile, obesity-associated dyslipidemia  | Kakafoni et al. 2025     |
| Mitochondrial biogenesis         | <i>TOMM40</i> (Translocase of the outer mitochondrial membrane 40) | Impaired mitochondrial function, low energy expenditure, increased fat accumulation             | Yang 2024                |
| Thermogenesis regulation         | <i>IRX3</i> (Iroquois homeobox 3)                                  | Reduced thermogenic activity, susceptibility to obesity under high-calorie conditions           | Hahn 2024                |
| Appetite and reward pathways     | <i>BDNF</i> (Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor)                    | Reduced satiety, hyperphagia, emotional eating behaviors, obesity susceptibility                | Cao 2024                 |
| Nutrient sensing and metabolism  | <i>MTOR</i> (Mechanistic Target of Rapamycin)                      | Increased adipogenesis, altered fat metabolism, insulin resistance                              | Liu et al. 2025          |
| Adipocyte metabolism             | <i>CPT1A</i> (Carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1 A)                  | Impaired fatty acid oxidation, fat accumulation, metabolic dysfunction                          | Dong et al. 2024         |
| Inflammation and obesity         | <i>TNF-α</i> (Tumor necrosis factor-α)                             | Chronic low-grade inflammation, obesity-related insulin resistance, metabolic syndrome          | Eswar et al. 2024        |
| Oxidative stress                 | <i>SOD2</i> (Superoxide dismutase 2)                               | Impaired oxidative stress response, increased adiposity, obesity-associated metabolic disorders | Tamagawa et al. 2024     |
| Neuropeptide regulation          | <i>NPY</i> (Neuropeptide Y)  | Increased appetite, hyperphagia, obesity, stress-induced eating                                 | Sigorski et al. 2025     |

(*T-allele*) variants, related to decreased thermogenesis and appetite regulation (Voros et al. 2025). Below the Table 4 show a clear picture of association of gene, diet and Influence on obesity and metabolic health.

#### Epigenetic, diet and obesity

Dietary patterns have a important impact on gene expression (Zhang et al. 2024). Diets that are high in processed foods and with saturated fats have a tendency to promote inflammation, glucose intolerance and lipid accumulation (Mann et al. 2024). while diets rich in fruits, vegetables and whole grains are linked with supportive anti-inflammatory gene profiles (Yu et al. 2024). The bioactive compounds like apple polyphenols, resveratrol and Epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG) derived from green tea showed potential in modulating genes which is crucial for fat metabolism, lipolysis and adipogenesis (Capasso et al. 2025). The compound enhances metabolic

efficiency and provide protective benefits similar with those achieved by calorie restriction or physical exercise. Furthermore, soy isoflavones and sulforaphane showed anti-obesity properties with altering gene activity and inhibiting the formation of fat cells (Table 4).

The micronutrients like vitamin D, B12 and folate are vital in the regulation of adipogenesis and energy metabolism (Samavat et al. 2025). Vitamin D plays a role in gene expression within adipose tissue and may prevent the differentiation of fat cells, with its receptor (VDR) being critical for metabolic regulation (Sekar et al. 2025) and exposure with endocrine disruptors like Bisphenol A (BPA) can undermine these useful effects with encouraging adipocyte formation (García García et al. 2024). These insights underscore the importance of implementing targeted nutritional strategies for prevent and manage obesity through the modulation of epigenetic factors (Table 4).

**Table 4** Association of gene, diet and influence on obesity and metabolic health

| Type of diet          | Variant, Gene, Allele  | Phenotypic effect   | References                     |
|-----------------------|--|---|--------------------------------|
| Low-carbohydrate diet | <i>FTO</i><br>( <i>rs9939609</i> ,<br><i>T-allele</i> )      | Increased obesity risk; greater weight loss response with low-carb diet         | Hajira et al. 2025             |
|                       | <i>MC4R</i><br>( <i>rs17782313</i> ,<br><i>C-allele</i> )    | Hyperphagia and obesity risk; improved weight reduction with low-carb intake    | Hajira et al. 2025             |
|                       | <i>GIPR</i><br>( <i>rs1800437</i> ,<br><i>T-allele</i> )     | Increased body fat; low-carb diet enhances metabolic outcomes                   | Paul et al. 2024               |
| Mediterranean diet    | <i>APOA2</i><br>( <i>rs5082</i> ,<br><i>T-allele</i> )       | Impaired lipid metabolism; better outcomes with Mediterranean diet              | Abaj et al. 2025               |
|                       | <i>SIRT1</i><br>( <i>rs2273954</i> ,<br><i>G-allele</i> )    | Fat accumulation risk; antioxidant-rich Mediterranean diet improves metabolism  | Tao et al. 2022                |
| High-protein diet     | <i>LEP</i><br>( <i>rs7799039</i> ,<br><i>A-allele</i> )      | Reduced leptin signaling; protein diet improves satiety and weight control      | Vranceanu et al. 2024          |
|                       | <i>FTO</i><br>( <i>rs9939609</i> ,<br><i>T-allele</i> )      | Increased fat mass risk; high-protein diet promotes fat loss                    | Merritt et al. 2018            |
| Low-glycemic diet     | <i>TCF7L2</i><br>( <i>rs7903146</i> ,<br><i>T-allele</i> )   | Insulin resistance and diabetes risk; improved glucose control                  | Hossein-pour-Niazi et al. 2022 |
|                       | <i>GCKR</i><br>( <i>rs780094</i> ,<br><i>C-allele</i> )      | Higher BMI and T2D risk; low-GI diet stabilizes glucose                         | Gorini and Tonacci 2025        |
| Ketogenic diet        | <i>MC4R</i><br>( <i>rs17782313</i> ,<br><i>T-allele</i> )    | Reduced caloric restriction response; better weight loss on ketogenic diet      | Abd Ali 2022                   |
|                       | <i>IRX3</i><br>( <i>rs16829729</i> ,<br><i>A-allele</i> )    | Reduced thermogenesis; ketogenic diet enhances fat oxidation                    | Rodriguez-Cortes 2025          |
| Low-fat diet          | <i>PPAR-γ</i><br>( <i>rs1801282</i> ,<br><i>Pro12Ala</i> )   | Fat accumulation tendency; low-fat diet more effective                          | Duarte et al. 2025             |
| High-fiber diet       | <i>SLC30A8</i><br>( <i>rs13266634</i> ,<br><i>A-allele</i> ) | T2D and obesity risk; fiber improves insulin sensitivity                        | Gupta et al. 2024              |
| Plant-based diet      | <i>BDNF</i> ( <i>rs6265</i> ,<br><i>Val66Met</i> )           | Emotional eating tendency; micronutrient-rich plant diet improves outcomes      | Zhang and Park 2025            |
| Intermittent fasting  | <i>ADIPOQ</i><br>( <i>rs1501299</i> ,<br><i>C-allele</i> )   | Low adiponectin levels; fasting improves fat metabolism and insulin sensitivity | Błażejewska et al. 2025        |
| High-fat diet         | <i>CPT1A</i><br>( <i>rs2835926</i> ,<br><i>T-allele</i> )    | Impaired fat oxidation; high-fat diet worsens obesity risk                      | Galmés et al. 2020             |

### Limitations

This research has limitations like it based on data that has been published which may lead to slight publication bias. The variations in study populations, dietary evaluations and genetic methodologies may influence the consistency of the results. The scarcity of longitudinal studies limits the ability to interpret causality. However, the results

provide valuable insights into the interactions between genes and nutrients in the context of obesity.

### Conclusion

To addressing obesity requires a comprehensive approach that incorporates genetic, dietary and environmental factors. Obesity influenced with various elements and making personalized treatment strategies essential for effective management. The need of data that tracks long-term outcomes and methods that support sustainable lifestyle changes. These efforts should involve not only healthcare professionals as well as the general public, aiding in the creation of environments that foster healthier habits. Working together, researchers, healthcare providers and policymakers can develop targeted strategies to reduce obesity and improve public health as a whole.

### Abbreviations

|        |  |
|--------|--|
| ADIPOQ | Adiponectin Gene                                 |
| BMI    | Body Mass Index                                  |
| CVD    | cardiovascular disease                           |
| DNA    | Deoxyribonucleic Acid                            |
| DM     | Diabetes Mellitus                                |
| FTO    | Fat Mass and Obesity-Associated Gene             |
| GWAS   | Genome-Wide Association Studies                  |
| MC4R   | Melanocortin 4 Receptor                          |
| LEPR   | Leptin Receptor                                  |
| PPARG  | Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptor Gamma |
| TNF-α  | Tumor Necrosis Factor Alpha                      |

### Author contributions

M.A.D, A.H., A.K., M.S.B., M. K. A., were involved in conceptualization, editing and original manuscript writing, S.S., M.A.B. were in language, language editing, all authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

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#### Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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