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1 **Dental biorhythm is associated with adolescent weight gain**

2

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37 **Abstract**

38

39 **Background**

40 Evidence of a long-period biological rhythm present in mammalian hard tissue relates to species average
41 body mass. Studies have just begun to investigate the role of this biorhythm in human physiology.

42

43 **Methods**

44 The biorhythm is calculated from naturally exfoliated primary molars for 61 adolescents. We determine
45 if the timing relates to longitudinal measures of their weight, height, lower leg length and body mass
46 collected over 14 months between September 2019 to October 2020. We use univariate and multivariate
47 statistical analyses to isolate and identify relationships with the biorhythm.

48

49 **Results**

50 Participants with a faster biorhythm typically weigh less each month and gain significantly less weight
51 and mass over 14-months, relative to those with a slower biorhythm. The biorhythm relates to sex
52 differences in weight gain.

53

54 **Conclusions**

55 We identify a previously unknown factor that associates with the rapid change in body size that
56 accompanies human adolescence. Our findings provide a basis from which to explore novel
57 relationships between the biorhythm and weight-related health risks.

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64 **Plain language summary**

65

66 The human body undergoes cyclic changes such as the daily cycle of sleeping and waking, and monthly
67 menstruation. This study calculated one cycle that can be tracked through the growth of children's milk
68 teeth. The timing of the cycle in different children was compared to changes in body size that occurred
69 when these children were in puberty. A link was seen between the children's cycle and the weight they
70 gained over 14-months. Adolescents with a faster cycle typically weighed less each month and gained
71 less weight over 14 months compared to those with a slower cycle.

72

73

74 **Introduction**

75 Human adolescence is a period of rapid change in body size following the onset of puberty¹. Sex specific
76 increases in lean muscle, bone mass, stature, and the amount and distribution of subcutaneous and total
77 body fat²⁻⁴ contribute to extensive gains in body size^{2,5-8}. These shifts vary by the stage of puberty for
78 males and females^{9,10}. Adolescents can gain 8.3-9.0 kg a year^{2,6} depending upon genetic¹¹⁻¹⁴ and
79 environmental factors such as dietary habits⁶ and activity levels^{15,16}.

80
81 The hypothalamus plays a pivotal role in the pubertal transition. It is a region of the brain that stimulates
82 the release of hormones and regulates food intake and energy expenditure. Under the influence of
83 growth hormone and insulin-like growth factor-I in early adolescence, the steroid hormone oestradiol
84 creates the main growth spurt responsible for body size changes in both sexes (testosterone is converted
85 in males)^{17,18}. The change in body size is mediated via the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis^{17,18}.

86
87 Life on earth is regulated by biological rhythms. Some are daily rhythms linked to the light-related
88 circadian cycle^{19,20}. Others are longer than 24-hours with an infradian cycle. Evidence of infradian cycle
89 is present in a range of organisms (such as tree rings) and mammalian physiological systems²⁰⁻²³. For
90 humans, a near seven-day rhythm has been identified in adult heart rate, core body temperature,
91 excretion of metabolites and salt, and blood pressure during pregnancy²⁴⁻²⁹.

92
93 Accumulating evidence suggests an infradian biorhythm may act upon the mammalian hypothalamus
94 to regulate cell growth and body mass^{30,31}. Microscopic-layered structures of mammalian teeth retain
95 evidence of this rhythm. In human tooth enamel, the rhythm is referred to as Retzius periodicity (RP)³²
96 (**Fig. 1**). RP forms through a circadian-like process, occurring with a repeat interval that can be
97 measured through histology with a resolution of days. The rhythm is consistent within the permanent
98 molars of individuals^{33,34} that do not retain evidence of developmental stress³⁵. RP relates to the period
99 in which tooth enamel forms. For human primary molars, this is the two-year period following birth³⁶.
100 The human modal RP has a near seven-day cycle^{33,34,37,38} but varies from five to 12 days^{38,39} when
101 compared between individuals. Higher RP values occurring over more days suggest a slow underlying
102 biorhythm. Lower RP values suggest a faster biorhythm.

103
104 Researchers during the 1990's^{40,41} suggested variation in RP might relate to species-specific average
105 body mass. Interspecific studies (meaning studies comparing different species) confirmed these
106 observations revealing that, with exceptions^{42,43}, RP-biorhythm was higher ('slower') in larger bodied
107 living species including anthropoids^{30,31,44-46}. In these studies, biological pathways connecting RP and
108 interspecific variation in body size were proposed. Larger bodied species were suggested to attain their
109 greater adult size through a slower biorhythm that produces slow growth rates over long periods of time,
110 relative to the faster biorhythm of smaller bodied species^{30,31}. This pathway has emerged as a key
111 hypothesis for advancing understanding of the evolution of primate life history³¹.

112 Interspecific relationships are not always found within species⁴⁷. But when the underlying cause is
113 similar across different taxonomic levels then similar biological relationships can be present within and
114 between species⁴⁸. The hypothalamus has a central role for human growth^{17,18}. Our previous studies
115 suggest aspects of human growth may relate to RP-biorhythm. Specifically, we have shown that the size
116 of microscopic canals that house blood vessels in human adolescent ribs relate to RP⁴⁹. Larger canals
117 facilitate greater blood flow and nutrient transfer^{50,51}. We observed higher RP values correspond with
118 increased deposition of primary bone in humeri of young children⁵². These studies hint at a biorhythm
119 underlying RP that influences rates of cell proliferation during the childhood growth years.

120
121 Studies of adult humans indicate taller adults tend to have lower RP values compared to shorter
122 individuals⁵³⁻⁵⁵. The biorhythm appears to have a limited association with adult human weight⁵⁵.
123 Researchers utilised the height data from adults to hypothesize a biological pathway for human growth
124 that differs to the interspecific pathway^{30,31}. As the duration of human growth is constrained, relative to
125 interspecific variation in growth periods, the biorhythm might accelerate to increase cell proliferation
126 to achieve greater body size³⁰. Thus, in contrast to the interspecific positive correlation between the
127 duration of growth periods and body size and RP, the idea is that stature and RP should correlate
128 negatively in humans. Currently however, evidence of the biorhythm in relation to human growth^{49,52} is
129 limited.

130
131 Here, we calculate the biorhythm from primary molars in relation to weight gain for 61 children (average
132 starting age = 10.33yrs) from Dunedin, southern New Zealand, over a period of 14 months between
133 September 2019 to October 2020. Adolescent weight is of particular interest because of the substantial
134 gains during puberty that are driven by the hypothalamus. We demonstrate that adolescents with a faster
135 biorhythm gain less weight over 14 months and have the smallest change in their body mass index
136 (BMI) compared to adolescents with a slower biorhythm.

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145 **Methods**

146 **Participants, dental samples, study design and ethics**

147 The 61 participants ($n=34$ females and $n=27$ males) were selected from a larger cohort that were part of
148 the Biorhythm of Childhood Growth project. The BCG is an ongoing prospective cohort study that
149 investigates childhood development in middle-income children from Southern New Zealand⁵⁶.
150 Participants attended primary schools at the start of the project and then intermediate schools (see
151 acknowledgements) within Dunedin city, New Zealand. 49 participants were of New Zealand European
152 ethnicity. 6 participants were of mixed heritage either New Zealand European/Māori, or New Zealand
153 European/Pasifika. 6 participants were either Māori, Pasifika, Iranian or of mixed Swiss/Korean
154 heritage.

155
156 Naturally exfoliated primary molars were collected from all BCG participants ($n=125$ children) and
157 $n=61$ were randomly selected from these for the current analyses based upon histology criteria (see
158 methods). RP was calculated for each participant, directly from their naturally exfoliated primary
159 molars, which was compared to measures of that individual's weight and BMI. RP was calculated by
160 one of us, GM, in the United Kingdom independently and blind of the weight and height data recorded
161 in New Zealand by another author (SW).

162
163 We focused on primary molars only, as RP is a sequence for some individuals that can change between
164 tooth types along the tooth row³³. All deciduous molars, both maxillary and mandibular, were naturally
165 exfoliated during the project. They were collected once a month during the monthly measurement of
166 the growth variables. Molars with accentuated markings (also known as stress lines) were excluded as
167 RP can sometimes change on either side of a stress marking³⁵.

168
169 Additional measures were incorporated into our study design so we could identify their effect on
170 potential relationships between RP and weight gain. Adolescence typically commences in females (age
171 9 to 12 years) before males (age 11 to 14 years)^{1,2}. Peak growth in height is greater for males but occurs
172 sooner for females⁵⁷. Because of these sex differences in the timing of adolescence, we expected females
173 to gain more weight and height than males over the course of 14-months. If the biorhythm relates to
174 adolescent weight/BMI gains, then there should be sex differences in these relationships.

175
176 Many factors influence body size during puberty. Body composition has a genetic component¹¹⁻¹⁴, and
177 can be influenced by dietary habits⁶, social environment, and variation in activity levels^{15,16} related to
178 seasons⁵. A recent study reports the effect of a Covid-19 national lockdown on adolescent BMI⁵⁷. We
179 therefore recorded the timing of maturation stages for participants in our study, modelled from

180 longitudinal measurements of height and lower leg length, and variation in these parameters and weight
181 gain related to ancestry, seasons of the year and a Covid-19 lockdown that occurred unexpectedly
182 between the end of March 2020 until the beginning of June when New Zealand returned to Level 1⁵⁸.

183

184 Ethical approval for monthly measurements from participants and collection of primary molars was
185 obtained from the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee (approval number H19/030). Research
186 consultation with Māori was obtained from the Ngāi Tahu Research Consultation Committee. In New
187 Zealand, research consultation with Māori is mandated in all areas of research that involves people of
188 Māori descent. Informed consent was obtained from all participants and their parents or guardians. A
189 list of participating schools in Dunedin is given in Acknowledgments.

190

191 Histology

192 Thin sections were created following standard procedures³⁹. Teeth were embedded in resin (Buehler
193 EpoxiCure®) and sectioned through the tip of the mesial cusp and dentin horn using a Buehler Isomet
194 1000 precision saw. Sections were fixed to glass microscope slides (Evo Stick® resin), ground (grit
195 P400, P600, P1200) (Buehler® EcoMet 300), polished with a 0.3 µm aluminium oxide powder
196 (Buehler® Micro-Polish II), cleaned in an ultrasonic bath, dehydrated in 95-100% ethanol, cleared
197 (Histoclear®), and mounted with a coverslip (DPX®). Thin section thickness is determined by visibility
198 of incremental lines. Lines can become visible at different depths in thin sections of primary molar
199 from different individuals. Sections were examined using a high-resolution microscope (Olympus®
200 BX53) and microscope camera (Olympus® DP25). Images were obtained and analysed in CELL® Live
201 Biology imaging software.

202

203 Retzius periodicity data was recorded by GM in the United Kingdom, independently and blind of the
204 New Zealand growth data. Each participant was selected for inclusion into the study if we were able to
205 produce two matching RPs for their primary molars, either: (a) from the outer lateral enamel of each
206 participant's first and second primary molars, or (b) from one single primary molar. Lateral enamel
207 commences as the first Retzius line emerges on the outer enamel surface as a perikymata (meaning,
208 growth lines on the exterior rather than interior of the tooth enamel).

209

210 We found no evidence that RP changed within an individual when compared between their primary
211 molars, either in comparisons between mandibular and maxillary molars or first and second molars
212 (Supplementary Table 1). This is consistent with findings for permanent molars³³. Oblique thin sections
213 were identified and removed from the study. Oblique sections can be easily identified from the
214 morphology of the dentin horn together with the slope of the enamel buccal and lingual surfaces of the
215 functional and guiding cusps.

216 RP was calculated in two standard ways. The number of daily cross striations was counted along a prism
217 between two adjacent Retzius lines in lateral enamel at 200-400x magnifications (includes the ocular
218 magnification). When consecutive cross-striations were not clearly visible between two Retzius lines,
219 RP was calculated from local daily enamel secretion rates (DSRs) divided by prism lengths⁴⁵.

220

221 We had a good understanding of DSRs in primary molars of these New Zealand children⁵⁶. Variation
222 in DSRs was not a confounding factor in our calculation of RP as DSRs vary only slightly in outer
223 lateral enamel of primary molars of New Zealand European children⁵⁶. DSRs were calculated by
224 measuring along a prism across the span of six cross striations, which corresponds to five days of enamel
225 formation (two adjacent cross striations = 24 hrs of enamel secretion), and dividing this measurement
226 by five to get a daily mean DSR. This was repeated six times within the local enamel so that a grand
227 mean DSR could be calculated. Following this first calculation, the distance between four to six adjacent
228 Retzius lines was also measured, corresponding to three to five repeat intervals respectively, and divided
229 by three or five. This distance between two adjacent Retzius lines was then divided by the grand mean
230 DSR to yield an RP value.

231

232 Measurements of weight, height, maturation, and body mass index.

233 These were recorded by SW in Dunedin, independently and blind of the Retzius periodicity data that
234 was generated in the United Kingdom. Height, weight and lower leg length measurements were
235 recorded from each child over a 14-month period between September 2019 to October 2020 during
236 visits to the schools. Most measurements were taken about 4 weeks apart, excluding January 2020
237 during the school holiday, and between March to early June 2020 during the national lockdown due to
238 the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic. Standing height measurements were taken using a Seca 213
239 Stadiometer. Lower leg length measurements were recorded three times per participant per visit, using
240 a custom-made laser measuring device with the children in a standardised seated position. Weight was
241 recorded on calibrated scales.

242

243 Maturity status of each participant was primarily estimated by modelling longitudinal measurements of
244 their heights taken approximately once per month. Measurements were modelled using fixed bandwidth
245 kernel weighted robust 3rd degree polynomial regression smoothing of heights on measurement dates⁵⁹.
246 Each individual was assigned one of four maturity scores based upon criteria involving the shape of
247 individually modelled curves along with their sex and age-specific heights. Individuals who were
248 relatively short for age who had not reached pre-spurt minimum height growth velocity were assigned
249 a maturity score of 1 ('pre' in Table 1). Individuals who had reached pre-spurt minimum height growth
250 velocity but who were not near peak height velocity were assigned a maturity score of 2 ('early'). Those
251 individuals who were very close to or who had just exceeded peak height growth velocity were assigned

252 a maturity score of 3 ('peak'). Individuals who had clearly exceeded peak height velocity and were
253 approaching an upper asymptote were assigned a maturity score of 4 ('late'). Individual maturity status
254 was also estimated using the same approach but with longitudinal measures of lower leg length. Results
255 were very similar and are available from the authors.

256

257 BMI and BMI percentiles, for a given age and sex, were calculated using each participant's birth date,
258 sex, height, weight and date that the measurements were taken. These measurements were entered into
259 the online calculator for New Zealand children provided by the New Zealand Ministry of Health.

260

261 Statistical analyses

262 Data were log-transformed. Pearson correlation coefficient was used to measure strength of association
263 between gains in weight gain and height, lower leg length, starting age and maturation stage. The
264 influence of starting age on the relationship between RP and weight gained over 14 months was assessed
265 through partial correlations. Height and weight were compared between males and females with a two
266 tailed t-test. Weight was compared between females grouped by RP using a Kruskal-Wallis H with
267 multiple comparisons. The relationship between RP and weight/gained over 14 months was modelled
268 using quadratic regression with *p* values adjusted using a Bonferroni correction. We conducted further
269 analyses using a Kruskal-Wallis H test with multiple comparisons to analyse the rank order of RPs and
270 weight/BMI gained when grouped by those with six, seven and eight days, which were the largest
271 samples sizes. A Chi square test was used to determine if there was a relationship between participants
272 with RPs of five or six days and a BMI of or greater than the 95th percentile, compared to those with
273 RPs of seven or eight days. Multivariate regression was undertaken to assess the relative strength of the
274 effect of log transformed weight, leg length, stature on the predictor variable RP, using standardized
275 beta coefficients. We also examined the relative relationship of RP to total gains in log-transformed
276 weight, height, and leg length, using standardized beta coefficients, just for females with maturation
277 scores of three.

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284 **Results**

285 Descriptive data

286 Participants gained an average of 6.33 kg over 14-months (Table 1). Log transformed weight gained
287 over this period was positively and significantly correlated with total gains in height ($p=0.018$) and
288 lower leg length ($p=0.006$), but not starting age (in years) ($p=0.616$) (Supplementary Figure 1a-c).
289 Average starting BMI of 18.51 kg/m² (range=14.9-28.80) is close to the average BMI of 19.8 kg/m²
290 (range=14.4-33.8) reported for slightly older children from Dunedin³. Within our cohort, weight gained
291 (6.69 kg, sd=2.82) by New Zealand European females over 14 months (the largest sample size) was
292 similar to weight gained by New Zealand European/Māori and New Zealand European/Pasifika females
293 (6.70 kg, sd=2.47).

294
295 RP-biorhythm had a mean value of 7.26, a modal six-day periodicity, and a range between five to 10
296 days (Table 1) that lies within the range of RP's reported for humans^{37,39,45}. As with permanent molars³³,
297 we found no evidence that RP varied between primary maxillary or mandibular molars, or between
298 primary first and second molars, when compared within individuals (see Supplementary Table 1).
299 Within the cohort, New Zealand European females had a mean RP of 7.50 that was slightly higher than
300 the mean RP of 7.37 for New Zealand European/Māori/Pasifika females.

301 302 Sex differences in weight, mass and height

303 As expected, female weight, BMI, height and lower leg length increased by a greater amount than males
304 when compared over a 14-month period between September 2019 to October 2020 (**Fig. 2a-d**;
305 Supplementary Data 1). On average, females weighed more at the start (females=38.41kg;
306 males=37.42kg) and end of the project (females=46.00kg; males=43.20kg). Twenty-six females were
307 assigned a maturation score of 3 (Table 1) having probably reached peak height velocity. Eight males
308 were preadolescent, 18 had entered adolescence, and one individual probably approached peak height
309 velocity. As expected, log transformed maturity scores were significantly and positively correlated with
310 weight/BMI gained over 14 months (Supplementary Figure 2a-b).

311 312 Weight and mass gained relate to RP-biorhythm

313 Regression analyses revealed log transformed RP was significantly related to the log transformed weight
314 and BMI (**Fig. 3a-b**; Supplementary Data 2) that participants gained over 14-months. A quadratic
315 equation was the best fit for our data as the relationship between RP and weight/BMI was curvilinear.
316 RP was still significantly related to weight gain over shorter intervals of 12 and 13-months, one longer
317 interval of 15-months, and to adjusted maximum weight gains over 14-months (Table 2). After applying
318 a conservative Bonferroni-corrected criterion to adjust for multiple testing, all but one p-value in Table

319 2 is still significant falling below 0.008 (0.05 divided by 6 tests). Examination of partial correlations
320 revealed starting age had no influence on the relationship between RP and weight gained
321 (Supplementary Table 2).

322

323 We conducted further analyses using a Kruskal-Wallis H test with multiple comparisons to analyse the
324 rank order of RPs of those with six, seven and eight day-periodicities (the largest sample sizes),
325 compared to their weight/BMI gained. Participants with an RP of six days gained significantly less
326 weight (mean weight =4.19 kg) after 14 months, compared to the greater average weight gain of those
327 with RPs of seven days (mean=7.61 kg) or eight days (mean=7.80 kg) (KW=12.774, df=2, p=0.002;
328 **Fig. 3c**; Supplementary Data 2). Participants with an RP of six days also gained significantly less BMI
329 (mean BMI =0.38 kg/m²) after 14 months, compared to the much greater average BMI gain of those
330 with RPs of seven days (mean=1.51 kg/m²) or eight days (mean=1.73 kg/m²) (KW=11.283, df=2,
331 p=0.004; **Fig 3d**; Supplementary Data 2).

332

333 Mass greater than the 95th percentile relates to RP-biorhythm

334 Starting (September 2019) and ending-BMI percentiles (October 2020) from participants with RPs of
335 five or six days (n=20) were compared to those with RPs of seven and eight days (n=27). Of the
336 participants with a lower RP, n=3 had a starting BMI that was equal to or above the 95th percentile
337 compared with n=7 of those with a higher RP, but the Chi square test of association was not significant
338 (**Fig 3e**; Supplementary Data 2). After 14 months, n=1 participant with a lower RP had a BMI above
339 the 95th percentile compared to n=9 of those with a higher RP, and the association was significant ($\chi^2(1)$
340 = 4.755, p=0.029; **Fig. 3f**; Supplementary Data 2). Participants with higher RP's were 6.6 times more
341 likely to develop obesity (BMI>95th percentile) after 14 months.

342

343 Average total weight relates to RP-biorhythm

344 Regression analyses revealed RP was significantly related to the average weight of the participants over
345 14-months (Table 3; **Fig 4a**; Supplementary Data 3). Examination of the month-by-month average
346 weight of the participants revealed those with repeat-intervals of seven or eight days typically weighed
347 more each month compared to those with RPs of six days (**Fig. 4b-c**; Supplementary Data 3). Sex
348 differences in weight and RP values are contributing factors here, as n=17 of those with RPs of seven
349 and eight days were females compared to n=12 males (see analyses below). Further regression analyses
350 revealed RP was significantly related to the monthly weight of the participants (Table 3; **Fig 4d-f**;
351 Supplementary Data 3). Applying a conservative Bonferroni-correction to adjust for multiple testing,
352 one of the four p-values in Table 2 are significant below 0.013 (0.05 divided by 4 tests).

353

354

355 Sex differences in RP-biorhythm related to weight gain and total average weight

356 Females had a higher modal RP of eight days compared to the male modal RP of six days (Table 1; **Fig.**
357 **5a**; Supplementary Figure. 3; Supplementary Data 4). Females with a log transformed RP of six days
358 gained significantly less weight over 14 months (KW=8772, df=3, $p=0.032$; **Fig. 5b-c**; Supplementary
359 Data 4) and less BMI (KW=8.829, df=3, $p=0.032$; **Fig. 5e**) compared to females with higher RPs of
360 seven to nine days. For males, the greatest average weight gain occurred with a seven-day periodicity,
361 unlike the greatest average gain for females that occurred with an eight-day periodicity (**Fig. 5b**;
362 Supplementary Data 4). Males with RPs of six days gained least weight, but the step-up in periodicity
363 from six days did not lead to significantly greater gains in male weight (**Fig 5d**; Supplementary Data 4)
364 or BMI (**Fig. 5f**; Supplementary Data 4), though the relationships were in the expected direction. Thus,
365 the link between RP and weight gain, and BMI gain, is much stronger for females than males which we
366 interpret here as equivalent to sex differences in the link between enamel formation processes and RP³⁹.

367

368 Females with an RP of six days were, on average, lighter over 14-months compared to females with
369 RPs of seven, eight or nine days but the difference was not significant (**Fig 5g**; Supplementary Data 4).
370 There was no significant difference in the average weight of males over 14 months when they were
371 grouped and compared by their RP values (**Fig. 5h**; Supplementary Data 4) though the mean values
372 trended in the expected direction.

373

374 We conducted additional analyses to identify the potential effect of covariates on the relationship of RP
375 to gains in weight/BMI.

376

377 RP-biorhythm is related to weight but not height and lower leg length

378 Regression analyses revealed log-transformed RP was not significantly related to total gains in height
379 ($p=0.225$) or lower leg length ($p=0.165$) though the relationships were in the expected direction.

380

381 Multivariate regression was undertaken to assess the relative strength of the predictor (RP) on each
382 independent variable (log transformed gains in weight, leg length, height). Examination of standardized
383 beta coefficients indicated that RP had the strongest effect on weight gained (weight $\beta=0.315$, $p=0.027$;
384 height $\beta=0.005$, $p=0.972$; lower-leg length $\beta=0.131$, $p=0.400$), and only weight gain significantly
385 predicted RP.

386

387 The effect of maturation stage

388 Females tended to have a higher RP in this sample and were more mature compared to males. We
389 separated females with a maturity score of three, the largest sample size ($n=26$), to determine if the
390 relationship between RP and weight gain persisted after the effect of maturation stage was held constant.

391 Regression analyses revealed the significant relationship between log-RP and log-weight gained was
392 still present (Supplementary Figure. 4).

393
394 Multivariate regression was undertaken to examine the relative relationship of RP to total gains in log-
395 transformed weight, height, and leg length for just these females with maturation scores of three.
396 Examination of standardized beta coefficients indicated that weight had the strongest relationship to RP
397 (weight $\beta=0.425$, height $\beta=-0.178$, lower-leg length $\beta=0.230$).

398

399 The effect of Covid-19 lockdown and seasons

400 There were substantial differences in the amount of weight gained over lockdown when participants
401 were grouped and compared by their periodicities (Supplementary Table 3). Those with an RP of 6
402 maintained a relatively consistent trajectory of weight gain throughout the entire 14-month period (**Fig.**
403 **4b-c**). They gained an average of 1.00 kg during lockdown, which was similar to the 1 kg gained during
404 the preceding summer period (Supplementary Table 3). However, participants with an RP of 7 gained
405 an average of 3.50 kg during lockdown which was at least twice that compared to any other season of
406 the year. Participants with RP's of 8 gained 3.03 kg during lockdown. These findings suggest pandemic
407 stressors may have been more impactful for adolescents with slower RP-biorhythms.

408
409 The summer vacation period coincided with a period of slight weight loss for those with RPs of seven
410 and eight days (**Fig. 4b-c**). On average, those with a seven and eight-day periodicity gained more weight
411 in the Spring and Winter seasons compared to those with RPs of six-days (Supplementary Table 3).

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426 **Discussion**

427 Understanding of the relationship between RP-biorhythm and body mass has focused mainly upon
428 interspecific analyses of mammalian species. Although humans retain evidence of this rhythm in hard
429 tissues, the relevance for childhood growth remains underdefined. In this study we related the timing of
430 the rhythm to mass and weight gained by a cohort of adolescents followed longitudinally. We observed
431 participants with a faster RP-biorhythm (five or six-day periodicity) typically weighed less, gained the
432 least weight, and had the smallest change in their BMI compared to those with a slower biorhythm
433 (seven or eight-day periodicity). To our knowledge, our finding provides first evidence that a long-
434 period biorhythm relates to the rapid change in body size that occurs during puberty.

435
436 Our data conform partly with the hypothesized interspecific biological pathway that relates RP to
437 growth³¹. Greater gains in mass related to higher ('slower') RPs, not the lower ('faster') RPs predicted
438 for humans³⁰. Participants with lower RPs gained less weight and mass over the course of the project,
439 when comparisons were undertaken between those with periodicities that lay between five and eight
440 days. Limited weight gain suggests a lower RP-biorhythm associates with a less intense growth spurt.
441 Our data differ to the interspecific pathway in that the biorhythm had an optimal periodicity in terms of
442 maximum weight gain during puberty, and this did not relate to the highest RP value. Typically, seven
443 or eight day-RPs produced the greatest weight gain. We described this relationship though a curve not
444 a straight line.

445
446 We report an association between a dental biorhythm and weight gain during puberty, but we have not
447 determined how this association relates to the duration of adolescence. Shorter growth periods can
448 combine with more intense growth spurts to allow relatively early maturation⁶⁰. Differences in growth
449 tempo were evident in our sample but our observations were confined to a 14-month 'window'. It is
450 likely many females entered their growth spurt (pre-spurt minimum velocity) and eventually exited late
451 adolescence at different times, leading to variation in the total duration of their growth periods. Thus,
452 females with 8-day RPs and more intense growth gained more weight over 14-months, but they might
453 have a shorter adolescent growth period. Conversely, those with a low 6-day RP and a moderate growth
454 rate gained less weight, but they might compensate for this by exiting puberty when they are older.
455 Under this scenario the biorhythm may have tracked weight via accelerated or decelerated maturation.
456 This would make sense in terms of the reported correlation between RP and adult stature⁵³⁻⁵⁵. Within
457 the sexes, if females with a 6-day RP-biorhythm mature later, then they should attain greater adult
458 stature^{61,62}.

459
460 We investigated sex differences in the biorhythm as some^{39,63} but not all research⁶⁴, reports females tend
461 to have higher RP's than males. In compliance with studies that report sex differences in RP, female

462 participants in our study had a higher 8-day modal RP compared to the 6-day modal RP of males (Table
463 1; Supplementary figure 3). Our finding aligns with expectations for sex differences in final attained
464 adult human stature⁵³⁻⁵⁵. It is interesting to note the delayed maturation of males, compared to females,
465 also aligns with their lower modal 6-day RP.

466

467 We sought an integrated view of the biorhythm by examining other related measures of growth. While
468 RP was linked to height, as in studies of adult humans⁵³⁻⁵⁵, this link was weak in our data. Peak gains
469 in weight typically follow peaks in height by approximately one year⁵. Many individuals in this study
470 had probably not reached peak weight velocity, but a substantial number of females probably had
471 reached peak height velocity. These relationships might have blunted the influence of RP on height
472 when males and females are considered together.

473

474 Environmental influences had modest or temporary effects on our central finding. The weight of many
475 participants decreased over the summer period but the underlying relationship with the biorhythm
476 returned afterwards. Lockdown led to a period of increased weight gain for those with higher RP's but
477 the relationship between the biorhythm and weight gain was apparent before, during and after lockdown
478 for these participants.

479

480 Excessive weight gain during adolescence can have consequences for adult health^{4,65-67}. Excess weight
481 gain during adolescence is more likely to lead to obesity in adulthood⁶⁸. We observed children with
482 higher RPs were six times more likely to be overweight (have a BMI greater than the 95th percentile)
483 after 14 months compared to those with lower RPs. BMI is not a perfect measure of body composition
484 as it can be influenced by body proportions. However, it is related to the percentage of body fat for
485 Dunedin children³, and BMI is a useful indicator of the way adipose tissue can change during
486 puberty^{69,70}. Obesity occurs when energy intake consistently exceeds expenditure⁷¹, which is
487 determined by a complex interaction between genetic and environmental factors^{6,13,15,16,72}. It is
488 unsurprising that a hypothalamic mediated biorhythm is linked to this process. The hypothalamic central
489 melanocortin system responds to hormonal signals from the digestive tract and adipose tissue by
490 regulating food intake and energy expenditure, ultimately impacting body weight⁷³. Abnormalities in
491 the melanocortin system, or hormone imbalances, have been linked to early onset human
492 obesity^{74,75}. Detailed interrogation of how the RP-biorhythm relates to this system, and to genes that are
493 known to associate with obesity and thinness^{76,77}, should be pursued in future studies.

494

495 The biorhythm related to adolescent weight gain, but the nature of the growing tissue, whether adipose
496 tissue, muscle mass or bone mineral content, has not been established. This is important because body
497 composition during puberty can relate to adult disease⁷⁸. If the type and rate of growth for different

498 tissues correspond with the biorhythm, then new pathways in preventive medicine may be opened, and
499 new approaches developed further to explore this long-period rhythm. Studies should also determine if
500 those with histories of early life adversity exposure⁷⁹, have fluctuations in RP-biorhythm between early
501 (primary molars) and latter forming teeth (third molars or wisdom teeth) relating to periods of adversity.

502

503 The strength of our study lies in the use of direct measures of RP-biorhythm calculated from naturally
504 exfoliated primary molars for each individual which we compared to measures of the same individual's
505 weight and BMI. A suite of statistical tests allowed us to isolate and identify relationships with the
506 biorhythm, and assess potential effects of covariates on our central finding. Limitations in our study
507 include: (i) growth measurements are descriptive and lack the information and precision of a whole-
508 body scan which would have enabled us to determine which tissue types were responsible for the link
509 between RP and weight-gain. (ii) Most male participants were in early stages of puberty. We could not
510 assess if this determined their weaker associations with RP-biorhythm, relative to most females that
511 were at a more advanced stage of puberty. (iii) A practical limitation of our study arose due to the
512 histology methodology. Potentially, $n=125$ participants were available for the current study (taken from
513 the BCG project) which would have been desirable. However, to ensure an accurate measure of the
514 biorhythm we required each individual to have two matching RP's, which greatly reduced the sample
515 size. Given that we have now shown RP does not vary between primary molars, as in permanent
516 molars³³, future studies may be able to increase sample sizes by calculating one molar-RP for each
517 individual. (iv) Finally, lockdown increased weight gain for participants with higher RP's, but not for
518 those with lower RPs. It was unclear whether this was behavioural for the higher RP children or an
519 influence of the biorhythm for those with lower RPs. A follow-up study of lockdown behaviour would
520 have helped elucidate this finding.

521

522 Our findings raise the possibility that at least for some individuals, RP-biorhythm may maintain a
523 consistent relationship with aspects of physiology across development (**Fig. 6**). RP in human primary
524 molars is recorded in enamel within two years following birth³⁶ and thus reflects processes of
525 development early in life. We observed primary molar RP related to aspects of physical development
526 during early adolescence, which was around 10 years after primary molar enamel had formed. This
527 suggests continuity in the effect of the biorhythm from early life through to adolescence. The sex-
528 differences we observed in RP-biorhythm provide further support for this idea, pointing towards
529 biologically based differences that persist across the life course into adulthood, or are confined to a
530 given developmental stage where sex differences may be more likely to emerge.

531

532 Given the strong association between weight gain and the biorhythm during puberty, it would seem
533 likely that this association could be present during other periods of rapid human growth. Infants gain

534 weight rapidly in the first six months after birth. The amount of weight gained during infancy influences
535 the tempo of growth and onset of puberty⁸⁰, and is a determinant of obesity in later life⁸¹⁻⁸⁴. The presence
536 of an interspecific association between RP and infant weight³¹ points to a biorhythm that might exert an
537 influence on body size from birth. It remains unknown whether this is the case for humans.

538

539 Our findings provide researchers with a new avenue from which to explore links between overweight
540 and obese children and adult health risks, as well as an accelerated or decelerated pace of maturation.
541 Naturally exfoliated primary (deciduous or ‘milk’) teeth from children may prove to be a novel marker
542 of weight related health risks, and thus be an actionable target for intervention many years before
543 adverse health outcomes manifest in adulthood. The aim of developing a novel predictor of human
544 weight and health is clearly worth pursuing.

545

546 To summarise, we calculated the timing of a biorhythm in primary molars and compared these values
547 to the weight and mass gained by a cohort of adolescents over 14-months. Those with a faster biorhythm
548 of five and six days gained the least weight and mass. Those with a slower seven and eight-day
549 biorhythm were more likely to have a BMI above the 95th percentile. These results provide first evidence
550 that a long-period biorhythm associates with adolescent weight gain. Our study points towards a
551 hypothalamic mediated biorhythm that is active during a key period of human growth.

552

553

554 **Data availability**

555 Data underlying Figs. 2 - 5 is present in Supplementary Data files 1 - 4. All data supporting this study
556 and described in this manuscript are available at the University of Kent data repository through the
557 following url: <https://data.kent.ac.uk/id/eprint/411>

558

559 **Supplementary information**

560 Supplementary tables and figures are available in a single Supplementary pdf file.

561 Reporting summary is available as a single Supplementary pdf file

562

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573

574

575 **Author contributions**

576 PM, CL, and DGS conceptualised the project. GM, SW, CL, BF, RP, and PM participated in data
577 generation. PM and BF conducted data analysis. PM, ED, AN, and DGS wrote the manuscript. All
578 contributed to interpretation.

579
580 **Competing interests**

581 The authors declare no competing interests.

582
583 **References**

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774 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

775 **Fig. 1: Calculating RP-biorhythm in human primary molars.**

776 **a** Sectioned primary (deciduous, ‘milk’) molar. Arrow pointing to lateral enamel with Retzius lines on the far
777 right. **b** Thin section through enamel with Retzius lines to the right (lower white circle). Upper white circle
778 overlays tubular enamel rods which formed as groups of cells (named ameloblasts) lay down new enamel as a
779 tooth crown develops. **c** A record of ameloblast pathways are preserved in teeth as enamel rods. **d** Daily cross
780 striations. Enamel deposition by ameloblasts is interrupted every 24-hours producing regions along rods that have
781 relatively less mineral. When prepared and examined under a microscope these differences in mineralisation
782 along rods appear as cross striations. This occurs because variation in mineralisation alters the refractive index
783 of light transmitted by a microscope, producing the striations. Cross striations are used to calculate Retzius
784 periodicity. **e** Black arrows point to Retzius lines in primary molar enamel. **f** White arrows point to cross striations
785 and six days of enamel formation between two adjacent Retzius lines giving a Retzius periodicity of six days.
786 Parts of Fig 1 (part of panel **a**, and all of panel **c**) were created using a template from BioRender.com (2022)
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788 **Fig. 2: Sex differences in growth over 14 months.**

789 **a** Females ($n=31$) attained more weight than males ($n=26$) and the difference approached significance ($p=0.054$).
790 **b** Females ($n=31$) gained significantly more height compared to males ($n=26$). **c** On average females ($n=30$)
791 attained a greater but not significant increase in BMI relative to males ($n=27$). **d** On average female ($n=30$) lower
792 leg length was greater than that of males ($n=26$). Data are represented as box plots showing interquartile ranges,
793 and whiskers that illustrate the minimum and maximum values that were not outliers. * $p < 0.05$, two-tailed t test.
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795 **Fig. 3: Weight and BMI gained relates to RP-biorhythm.**

796 **a** Scatter plot illustrating that the best way to model the significant relationship between log-transformed weight
797 gained after 14 months and log-RP ($n=58$) was through a curvilinear quadratic regression model. Excludes outlier.
798 **b** Scatter plot illustrating the significant relationship between log-transformed BMI gained after 14 months and
799 log-RP ($n=54$). Excludes two outliers, and RP of 10 ($n=2$). **c** Kruskal Wallis H test with multiple comparisons
800 illustrating the significantly greater gain in weight for those with RP of seven ($n=12$), or eight days ($n=15$)
801 compared to those with an RP of six days ($n=14$; one outlier removed). **d** Kruskal Wallis H test with multiple
802 comparisons showing the significantly greater BMI for those with RP of seven ($n=12$), or eight days ($n=15$)
803 compared to those with an RP of six days ($n=16$; one outlier removed). **e** BMI percentile at the start of the project
804 split into those that have a percentile that is less than 95% and greater than 95% compared to a faster (low RP
805 value) and slower biorhythm (high RP value); and **f** after 14 months, illustrating the significant association
806 between obesity and a slow biorhythm. ** $p < 0.05$. Data are represented as box plots in **c** and **d** showing
807 interquartile ranges, and whiskers that illustrate the minimum and maximum values that were not outliers. Bars
808 represent number of individuals in **e** and **f**.

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810 **Fig. 4: Average weight relates to RP-biorhythm.**

811 **a** Scatter plot illustrating the significant relationship between log-transformed total average weight over 14
812 months (September 2019 to October 2020) and RP ($n=60$) through a curvilinear quadratic regression model (one
813 outlier removed). **b** Monthly weight, and trajectory of weight gain for participants subdivided into those with
814 Retzius periodicities of six ($n=17$), and seven days ($n=13$); and **c** six ($n=17$) and eight days ($n=16$). Data are
815 represented as box plots in **b** and **c** showing the median value, interquartile range and minimum and maximum
816 values that were not outliers. Quadratic regression models for the average weight of participants with RPs of 5 to
817 9 in **d** August 2020 ($n=44$), **e** September 2020 ($n=46$), and **f** October 2020 ($n=55$).
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822 **Fig. 5: Sex differences in RP-biorhythm related to weight/BMI gain and total average weight.**

823 **a** Bar chart showing the percentage of male (n=27) and female (n=34) RP values (also see Fig S3). **b** Line chart
824 illustrating the sex difference in the relationship between RP and weight gained over 14 months. Log-transformed
825 RP values compared to **c** log-transformed female weight gained (female RP of 6 n=7, RP of 7 n=6, RP of 8 n=9,
826 RP of 9 n=5) and **d** male weight gained over 14 months (male RP 6 n=9, RP 7 n=6, RP 8 n=5, RP 9 n=3; one
827 outlier removed). **e** Log-transformed RP compared to log-transformed female BMI gained (female RP 6 n=5, RP
828 7 n=6, RP 8 n=9, RP 9 n=5) and **f** male BMI gained over 14 months (male RP of 6 n=9, RP of 7 n=6, RP of 8
829 n=5, RP 9 n=3; one outlier removed). **g** Log-transformed RP values compared to log-transformed female average
830 weight over 14 months (outlier excluded; female RP 6 n=6, RP 7 n=6, RP 8 n=10, RP 9 n=5), and male average
831 weight over 14 months (male RP of 6 n=10, RP 7 n=6, RP 8 n=5, RP 9 n=3). *p < 0.05. Data are represented as
832 box plots in **c, d, e, f, g,** and **h** showing interquartile ranges, median value, and whiskers that illustrate the
833 minimum and maximum values that were not outliers.

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835 **Fig. 6: Biorhythm in early childhood related to adolescent weight gain.**

836 Evidence of the biorhythm is captured in primary molars within two years of birth, as primary molar enamel
837 forms. A faster biorhythm within two years of birth was related to smaller gains in weight and mass during early
838 adolescence. A slower biorhythm related to greater gains. Part of Figure 6 (lower panels) was created using a
839 template from BioRender.com (2022)

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864 **TABLES**

865 **Table 1 Descriptive statistics for RP-biorhythm and growth measures.**

Participants	Retzius periodicity		Starting age yrs	Maturation stage ^a				Gains			Ending BMI percentile	Gain BMI kg/m ²	
	<i>n</i>	mode		mean	1. pre	2. early	3. peak	4. late	Weight kg	Height cm			Leg cm
All	61	6	7.26 ±1.31	10.33 ±0.57	9	20	27	3	6.33 ±2.79	6.92 ±1.39	2.37 ±0.57	69.06 ±25.44	1.13 ±1.04
Female ^b	34	8	7.50 ±1.33	10.30 ±0.59	1	2	26	3	6.97 ±2.82	7.39 ±1.55	2.41 ±0.47	69.19 ±25.64	1.31 ±1.06
Male	27	6	6.96 ±1.25	10.36 ±0.56	8	18	1	0	5.56 ±2.60	6.37 ±0.92	2.32 ±0.67	68.91 ±25.69	0.95 ±1.01

866 **a=** Determined from longitudinal measurements of height and weight modelled using fixed bandwidth kernel weighted
 867 robust 3rd degree polynomial regression smoothing. **b=**We were unable to assign a maturation stage to two females.
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875 **Table 2. Regression analyses of log transformed gains in weight and body mass index and their**
 876 **association with log transformed Retzius periodicity.**

RP in days vs:	Intercept	Quadratic curve			877
		Slope	r	r ²	<i>p</i>
Total weight gained in kg					
Sept 2019 to Aug 2020	-5.530	7.593	0.492	0.243	0.012*
to Sep 2020	0.721	-1.474	0.498	0.248	0.007*
to Oct 2020^a	-2.876	7.526	0.476	0.227	0.001*
to Nov 2020	-3.390	8.861	0.524	0.275	0.002*
Total adjusted maximum weight gained in kg ^b					
Sept 2019 to Oct 2020 ^c	-3.126	7.849	0.483	0.233	0.000*
Total change in body mass index ^d in kg/m ²					
Sept 2019 to Oct 2020	-2.864	7.351	0.441	0.190	0.005*

878 **a=**Excludes one extreme outlier. **b=**Last minus first measurement / time interval. **c=**Excludes one extreme outlier. **d=**Excludes one outlier.
 879 Variable reflected and then log transformed. Excludes RP of 10 (n=2). *Statistically significant with p < 0.05.
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885 **Table 3. Regression analyses of log transformed average total weight and associations with log**
 886 **transformed Retzius periodicity.**

RP in days vs:	Quadratic curve				
	Intercept	Slope	r	r ²	<i>p</i>
Average weight over 14 months in kg	-0.375	4.431	0.333	0.111	0.035*
Average monthly weight in kg ^a					
Aug 2020	-2.132	8.829	0.401	0.161	0.026*
Sep 2020	-1.205	6.507	0.404	0.163	0.022*
Oct 2020	-1.379	6.908	0.397	0.157	0.012*

887 ^a=Retzius periodicities of 5 to 9. *Statistically significant with $p < 0.05$.