

1 **Influence of smoking status on acute biomarker responses to**  
2 **successive days of arduous military training**

3 Andrew G.Siddall<sup>a,b</sup>, Keith A. Stokes<sup>a</sup>, Dylan Thompson<sup>a</sup>, Rachel M. Izard<sup>c</sup>, Julie P.  
4 Greeves<sup>d</sup>, James L. J. Bilzon<sup>a</sup>.

5

6 <sup>a</sup>Department for Health, University of Bath, Bath, United Kingdom

7 <sup>b</sup>Occupational Performance Research Group, University of Chichester, Chichester, United  
8 Kingdom

9 <sup>c</sup>Department of Occupational Medicine, Army Recruiting and Initial Training Command,  
10 Ministry of Defence, Upavon, United Kingdom

11 <sup>d</sup>Army Personnel Research Capability, Ministry of Defence, Andover, United Kingdom

12

13 **Corresponding author:**

14 Professor James Bilzon, 1 West, Department for Health, University of Bath, Bath BA27NS

15 Email: [j.bilzon@bath.ac.uk](mailto:j.bilzon@bath.ac.uk)

16 Telephone: +44 (0)1225 383174

17

18 **Keywords** Immune-inflammatory response; endocrine response; exercise; military; smoking, tobacco;

19 acute

20 **Funding:** This work was funded by the Army Recruiting and Initial Training Command (formerly  
21 Army Recruiting and Training Division), UK Ministry of Defence: Army.

22 **Declarations of Interests:** None.

23 **Acknowledgements:** The authors would like to thank the staff at Infantry Training Centre, Catterick,  
24 for supporting this investigation and the trainees for their participation.

25

26

27 **Influence of smoking status on acute biomarker responses to successive days**  
28 **of arduous military training**

29 **Abstract**

30 Introduction: Habitual smoking is highly prevalent in military populations despite its association with  
31 poorer training outcomes. Smoking imposes challenges on immune and endocrine systems which could  
32 alter how smokers acutely respond to, and recover from, intensive exercise, particularly over multiple  
33 days of training.

34 Methods: Across a two-day period, thirty-five male British Army recruits (age  $22 \pm 3$  yr; mass  $76.9 \pm 8.0$   
35 kg; height  $1.78 \pm 0.06$  m; 15 smokers) completed a 16.1 km loaded march (19.1 kg additional mass) on  
36 the first morning and a best-effort 3.2 km 'log race' (carrying a 60 kg log between six-to-eight people)  
37 on the subsequent morning. Blood samples were obtained upon waking and immediately post-exercise  
38 on both days and analysed for C-reactive protein (CRP), interleukin (IL)-6, testosterone/cortisol ratio  
39 and insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-1.

40 Results: Independent of smoking group, the exercise bouts on both days evoked significant increases in  
41 IL-6 ( $p < 0.001$ ) and decreases in testosterone/cortisol ratio ( $p < 0.05$ ). CRP concentrations on Day 2 were  
42 significantly higher than both time-points on Day 1 ( $p < 0.001$ ) and an 9% decline in IGF-1 occurred  
43 over the two-day period, but was not significant ( $p = 0.063$ ). No significant differences were observed  
44 between smokers and non-smokers ( $p > 0.05$ ).

45 Conclusions: Military-specific tasks elicited immune-inflammatory and endocrine responses, with  
46 systemic CRP and IGF-1 indicating that the physiological stress generated during the first training day  
47 was still evident on the second day. Despite the well-established impacts of smoking on resting levels  
48 of the markers examined, responses to two days of arduous military-specific training did not differ by  
49 smoking status.

50

51

52 **Key messages**

- 53 • Smoking is prevalent in military populations and is linked to reduced physical fitness,  
54 heightened injury risk and poorer training outcomes.
- 55 • Habitual smoking imposes challenges on immune and endocrine systems, but whether this  
56 impacts on responses to exercise and recovery is unclear.
- 57 • Exercise evoked substantial inflammatory and hormonal responses during two days of military  
58 training, but neither resting nor exercise-induced levels were impacted by smoking status.
- 59 • The multi-stressor training environment, and the physical activity level and fitness of the  
60 population studied, may collectively explain the lack of smoking-related differences.
- 61 • Systemic CRP and IGF-1 indicated physiological stress from the first training day was evident  
62 in the second, suggesting continued training should implement sufficient recovery.

63 **Introduction**

64 The adverse impacts of tobacco smoking on health and risk of non-communicable diseases are  
65 widely recognised. Within military populations, habitual smoking is more prevalent than in the general  
66 public<sup>1</sup> and is associated with other adverse implications such as reduced physical fitness, heightened  
67 injury risk and poorer training outcomes<sup>2,3</sup>. These findings have brought into question what role long-  
68 term smoking plays in possible maladaptive responses to exercise and physical training<sup>4</sup>. Habitual  
69 smoking elicits a myriad of alterations in immune-inflammatory processes and hormonal control, which  
70 are implicated in the development of cardiovascular, metabolic and respiratory diseases<sup>5,6</sup>. Indeed, even  
71 in young, physically active adults, smokers tend to display elevated levels of oxidative stress and  
72 inflammation both at rest, which has been observed during long-term military training<sup>4</sup>, and in response  
73 to single bouts of laboratory-based exercise<sup>7-9</sup>. These responses indicate that habitual smoking has the  
74 potential to alter how smokers acutely respond to, and recover from, exercise but remains  
75 unsubstantiated.

76 Military training, and particularly short-term training exercises, are necessarily arduous to  
77 prepare personnel for their occupational role. It is customary for these operational simulations to span  
78 multiple days, where soldiers must repeatedly perform effectively while exposed to multiple stressors

79 including sleep restriction, environmental extremes and/or energy deficit, which impose significant  
80 challenges on immune and endocrine systems<sup>10,11</sup>. Specifically, increases in pro-inflammatory cytokines  
81 such as interleukin (IL)-6 and elevated circulatory cortisol have been observed in a range of training  
82 durations<sup>11,12</sup>, alongside a steady decline in basal insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-1 over a period of  
83 days<sup>13</sup>, akin to intensive periods of athletic overtraining. Though causally and mechanistically different,  
84 these alterations are comparatively similar to the immunosuppressive and inflammatory state observed  
85 chronically as a result of long-term smoking. Habitual smokers typically exhibit chronic low-grade  
86 inflammation, characterised by elevated levels of circulatory cytokines and acute-phase marker C-  
87 reactive protein (CRP)<sup>6,8,14</sup>, which play a key role in reduced secretion of IGF-1<sup>15</sup> and increased  
88 production of cortisol<sup>16</sup> compared to non-smokers. For habitual smokers in the military, the combination  
89 of these underlying consequences of long-term smoking with exposure to external training stresses may  
90 present a cumulative physiological challenge.

91 Physical exercise transiently increases pro-inflammatory signalling<sup>17</sup>, stimulating an increase  
92 in CRP in the hours after exercise<sup>18</sup>, but is accompanied by anti-inflammatory actions which are  
93 implicated in the well-established long-term health benefits of regular physical activity<sup>17</sup>. Few studies  
94 have examined acute biochemical responses to exercise in habitual smokers compared to non-smokers,  
95 and have predominantly focused either on oxidative stress, which is mechanistically involved in the  
96 inflammatory profile of smokers<sup>14</sup>, or immune-inflammatory changes within exercise laboratory  
97 settings<sup>7-9</sup>. Specifically, in response to low-moderate intensity exercise, young (~22 yr) male smokers  
98 exhibited higher levels of inflammatory cytokines IL-1 receptor agonist and IL-6 than their age-matched  
99 non-smoking counterparts both immediately- and 1 hour-post-exercise<sup>8</sup>. In another young (~24 yr) male  
100 cohort, an exacerbated oxidative stress response to graded cycling was observed in smokers<sup>7</sup>. To the  
101 authors' knowledge, acute hormonal responses to exercise in smokers and non-smokers have not been  
102 examined. During 10 weeks of British Army basic training, despite evidence of higher inflammation  
103 and oxidative stress in smokers, testosterone, cortisol and IGF-1 did not differ by smoking status<sup>4</sup>. As  
104 this study only examined waking (at-rest) samples however, it is still unknown whether more short-

105 term, exercise-induced responses would differ in smokers in this population or whether these  
106 differences are evident further into recovery, such as in successive days of training.

107 Taken together, smoking causes noticeable alterations in biochemical markers and processes  
108 which also, in response to exercise, could be indicative of greater physiological strain<sup>13,17</sup>. Whether  
109 smokers respond differently to exercise, in a military-specific context, would be of particular interest  
110 given the combination of high smoking prevalence and intensive physical training that uniquely exists  
111 in the military. The aim of this study was therefore to examine acute inflammatory and hormonal  
112 responses to arduous bouts of military-specific exercise on two consecutive days and investigate  
113 whether these responses differed between habitual smokers and non-smokers. Based on the available  
114 evidence, our hypotheses were that, compared to non-smokers, smokers would present with higher  
115 inflammation at baseline and would have amplified exercise-induced immune-inflammatory responses  
116 and reduction in testosterone/cortisol ratio, in addition to greater training-induced decline in IGF-1 over  
117 the two-day period.

118

## 119 **Methods**

120 Data collection for this study was completed at the British Army's Infantry Training Centre, Catterick  
121 (ITC(C)), UK. Thirty-five British Army recruits (age  $22 \pm 3$  yr; mass  $76.9 \pm 8.0$  kg; height  $1.78 \pm 0.06$   
122 m) undertaking the Parachute regiment selection week at ITC(C) gave written informed consent to take  
123 part in the study. All participants were given a full written and verbal brief of the research study in the  
124 week prior to selection week. During the study, participants completed training according to their  
125 standard programme with only minor modifications, agreed with directing staff, to ensure data did not  
126 affect training. The study was approved by the Ministry of Defence Research Ethics Committee  
127 (MODREC/0911/236).

128 The parachute regiment selection week commences in week 19 of the regiment's 26-week  
129 training course at ITC(C) and is designed to assess recruit operational readiness by examining  
130 performance in a selection of arduous physical tasks which simulate operational stress and test various

131 components of physical fitness. The study took place over the first two days of the selection week,  
132 containing a military exercise task on each morning: the '10-miler' on day 1 and the 'log race' on day  
133 2. The 10-miler required recruits to complete a paced 16.1-km march over varying terrain within 1 hour  
134 and 50 minutes ( $8.8 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) while carrying a 'Bergen' (backpack), webbing and rifle (total mass of 19.1  
135 kg). The log race required recruits in groups of 6-8 to carry a 60 kg log over approximately 3.2 km of  
136 varying terrain in as short a time as possible (and within 18 minutes;  $\geq 10.7 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ). Both events started  
137 at approximately 0900hrs, after the participants had consumed breakfast and completed a standardised  
138 warm-up.

139 Anthropometric data and smoking status were assessed on the day prior to commencement of  
140 selection week. Body mass (weighing scales; Seca, Hamburg, Germany) and stature (stadiometer;  
141 Leicester, UK) were measured, and body fat percentage was estimated using measurements of skin-fold  
142 thickness<sup>19</sup> on four upper-body sites (Biceps brachii, triceps brachii, sub-scapular and supra-iliac) using  
143 callipers (Holtain LTD. Crymych, UK). Smoking behaviour (history, frequency) and status were  
144 collected via a previously validated lifestyle questionnaire<sup>20</sup> where habitual smokers were defined as  
145 those who regularly smoked >1 cigarette per day and non-smokers had never smoked.

146 Venous blood samples (~20 mL) were drawn upon waking (0500-0600hrs) on both days after  
147 an overnight fast and immediately following both the 10-miler (Post-10) on day 1 and the log race (Post-  
148 LR) on day 2. Blood samples were taken by venepuncture (antecubital vein) using a needle and  
149 Vacutainer system (BD Diagnostics, Becton, Dickinson & Co.). Samples were collected in plain tubes  
150 (BD Diagnostics, Becton, Dickinson & Co.) and left to clot for 60 minutes before being centrifuged to  
151 separate the serum. All samples were aliquoted and stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  for analysis of blood chemistry.  
152 Commercially available enzyme immunoassays were used to determine serum concentrations of  
153 cortisol and IGF-1 (Diagnostic Systems Laboratories Inc., Webster, Texas, USA) and CRP and IL-6  
154 (R&D Systems Inc., Abingdon, UK). Combined intra- and inter-assay coefficient of variance calculated  
155 from study assay data for IL-6, CRP, cortisol, IGF-1 and TES were 2.22%, 2.00%, 1.02%, 2.56% and  
156 1.35%, respectively.

157 An *a priori* power calculation performed (G\*Power: Version 3.0.10) for a two-group, repeated  
158 measures design, assuming a medium effect of smoking or time ( $f=0.25$ ), estimated a requirement for  
159 18 participants per group to achieve sufficient power with statistical significance defined as  $p\leq 0.05$ .  
160 Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS software (Version 22.0, IBM, USA). Independent t-  
161 tests were performed on baseline anthropometric data to identify any initial between-group differences.  
162 A two-way mixed model analysis of variance (ANOVA), with effect sizes (partial eta-squared;  $\eta_p^2$ ), was  
163 used to identify significant main effects of time, group or interaction in biochemical variables. As group  
164 sample numbers were uneven in this investigation, Greenhouse-Geisser output statistics were used. In  
165 the event of a significant interaction or training effect, post-hoc analysis with bonferroni adjustment  
166 was used to determine the location of the significant difference. Population characteristics are presented  
167 as mean  $\pm$ SD. Biochemical data are presented as mean  $\pm$ 95% confidence intervals (CI).

168

## 169 **Results**

170 Participant characteristics and anthropometric data organised by group are presented in Table 1. The  
171 non-smoking and smoking groups comprised 20 and 15 recruits, respectively. The smoking group had  
172 a mean ( $\pm$ SD) cigarette consumption of 11.8 ( $\pm$ 5.3) per day for an average of 7.0 ( $\pm$ 2.8) years. No  
173 significant differences in anthropometric data were present between groups at baseline ( $p>0.05$ ).

174 Serum concentrations of CRP (Figure 1; Panel a) and IL-6 (Figure 1; Panel b) were not different  
175 between smokers and non-smokers (CRP:  $F_{(1, 33)}=0.11$ ,  $p=0.74$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.003$ ; IL-6:  $F_{(1, 33)}=0.08$ ,  $p=0.77$ ,  
176  $\eta_p^2=0.002$ ) and no interaction effects were identified in either marker (CRP:  $F_{(1.03, 34.06)}=0.01$ ,  $p=0.92$ ,  
177  $\eta_p^2<0.001$ ; IL-6:  $F_{(1.07, 35.25)}=0.22$ ,  $p=0.66$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.006$ ). Both markers, independent of smoking status,  
178 were significantly affected by training (main effect of time), but with different time-courses. CRP  
179 concentrations ( $F_{(1.03, 34.06)}=45.51$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.580$ ) were significantly higher at both time points on  
180 the second day than both time points on the first ( $p<0.001$ ). In contrast, IL-6 concentrations ( $F_{(1.07,$   
181  $35.25)}=80.98$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.710$ ) increased transiently in response to each exercise, where post-exercise  
182 values (Post-10 and Post-LR) were significantly higher than their respective pre-exercise values (Pre-

183 10 and Pre-LR;  $p < 0.001$ ), returning to baseline in between. Average IL-6 concentration immediately  
184 after the 10-miler was 3.7 fold higher than after the log race ( $p < 0.001$ ).

185 Neither testosterone ( $F_{(1, 33)} = 1.29$ ,  $p = 0.26$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.038$ ) nor cortisol ( $F_{(1,33)} = 0.171$ ,  $p = 0.68$ ,  
186  $\eta_p^2 = 0.005$ ) were different in smokers compared to non-smokers and no interaction effects were  
187 identified (Testosterone:  $F_{(2.48, 81.81)} = 1.78$ ,  $p = 0.17$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.051$ ; Cortisol:  $F_{(1.61, 52.96)} = 0.207$ ,  $p = 0.77$ ,  
188  $\eta_p^2 = 0.006$ ). Testosterone/cortisol ratio (Figure 1; Panel c) significantly reduced in response to both  
189 exercise bouts (main effect of time:  $F_{(1.81, 59.65)} = 14.47$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.305$ ): a product of significant  
190 exercise-induced increases in cortisol (mean change  $\pm 95\%$  CI; Day 1:  $+236 \pm 211$  nmol·L<sup>-1</sup>,  $p = 0.004$ ;  
191 Day 2:  $+102 \pm 96$  nmol·L<sup>-1</sup>,  $p = 0.005$ ) and decreases in serum testosterone concentration (Day 1:  $-1.51$   
192  $\pm 0.55$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; Day 2:  $-1.82 \pm 0.57$  ng·mL<sup>-1</sup>;  $p < 0.001$ ) on both days.

193 No significant effects of smoking status ( $F_{(1, 33)} = 1.73$ ,  $p = 0.20$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.050$ ) nor interaction ( $F_{(2.66,$   
194  $87.70)} = 1.05$ ,  $p = 0.37$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.031$ ) were present for serum IGF-1 (Figure 1; Panel d). Group average IGF-1  
195 concentration steadily reduced from waking Pre-10 on day 1 to Post-LR on day 2 (mean change  $\pm$   
196  $95\%$  CI:  $-16.5 \pm 9.0$  ng·mL<sup>-1</sup>) but the main effect of time was not significant ( $F_{(2.66, 87.70)} = 2.61$ ,  $p = 0.063$   
197  $\eta_p^2 = 0.073$ ).

198

## 199 Discussion

200 The primary aim of this study was to assess, in a military population where smoking and exercise  
201 training are both common, whether habitual smokers appear to respond differently to arduous training.  
202 Inflammatory and endocrine markers were examined in smokers and non-smokers upon waking and  
203 after intense bouts of exercise during two days of military training. These markers are commonly altered  
204 by habitual smoking and, in response to a period of training, can reflect the magnitude of physiological  
205 strain experienced. The key finding of this study was that while biochemical markers reflected the  
206 arduous nature of training, responses did not differ by smoking status. Exercise on both days acutely  
207 increased IL-6 and cortisol, with subsequent decreases in testosterone/cortisol ratio. The arduous



208 exercise on day 1 was reflected in elevated CRP concentrations upon waking on day 2. An 8% decline  
209 in IGF-1 was observed over the two-day period which, in combination with the other observations,  
210 suggests a cumulative effect of the first day of training on the second. However, similar levels between  
211 groups in all markers, both at baseline and in response to training, suggest any influence of long-term  
212 smoking was not apparent.

213         Habitual smoking is highly prevalent in military training populations despite known impacts of  
214 smoking on health. To date, few studies have examined the acute responses of immune-inflammatory  
215 markers to exercise in smokers and non-smokers<sup>8,9</sup>, and no studies have investigated this research  
216 question with hormonal parameters, in a military population, or over successive days. The main finding  
217 of the current study was that smokers and non-smokers did not respond differently to either bout of  
218 exercise in any of the biochemical parameters measured. This is not consistent with previous studies  
219 that have demonstrated augmented cytokine and oxidative stress responses to, respectively, low-to-  
220 moderate- and incremental intensity exercise in smokers<sup>7,8</sup>. The sparsity of current literature however,  
221 means it is unclear whether higher intensity exercise (such as that performed in the current study) would  
222 elicit a magnitude of response that would mask any differences between smokers and non-smokers,  
223 rather than highlight them. The current study hypothesis was also, in part, based on the common finding  
224 that chronic smokers exhibit an elevated inflammatory profile at rest, which could theoretically act to  
225 prime and/or exacerbate the immune-inflammatory response to exercise<sup>8,9</sup>. Higher resting oxidative  
226 stress and CRP have been observed in smokers during initial military training, in a British Army recruit  
227 cohort comparable to the present study<sup>4</sup>. Given this evidence, and that systemic inflammation is  
228 exacerbated by oxidative stress<sup>14</sup>, similar resting inflammation observed between groups was surprising,  
229 but may have contributed to the similar immune-exercise response. The well-recognised anti-  
230 inflammatory effect of long-term habitual exercise may also have contributed<sup>17</sup>, since the participating  
231 recruits were 19 weeks into a training course, potentially counteracting low-grade inflammation  
232 normally observed in untrained smokers<sup>14</sup>. Prior to this investigation, it was difficult to ascertain  
233 whether hormone responses to exercise would differ by smoking status and in which relative direction  
234 due to lack of available evidence. Numerous mechanisms linked to the actions of nicotine and immune-

235 inflammatory signalling have been implicated in altered resting hormone levels in smokers previously<sup>16</sup>.  
236 However, the current study did not provide further evidence of this nor indicate a discernible impact on  
237 training-induced endocrine responses.

238 Military field exercise, involving consecutive days of arduous training, has been shown to elicit  
239 alterations in hormone concentrations similar to the present study, but typically over longer durations  
240 and in energy deficit. Specifically, suppression of IGF-1 and testosterone alongside increased  
241 circulating concentrations of cortisol have been demonstrated during periods of intensive military  
242 training<sup>12,21</sup>. Increases in cortisol, in particular, are associated with daily and weekly training volume<sup>10,21</sup>  
243 and sleep disruption<sup>22</sup>. Taken together, the findings of previous research, suggest that military field  
244 exercise evokes a period of metabolic stress that would be, ostensibly, maladaptive if prolonged, and  
245 that endocrine responses can act as indicators of the strain experienced<sup>13,21,23</sup>. The exercise-induced  
246 elevations in cortisol and ~9% decline in IGF-1 we observed over the two-day period, also support this  
247 notion. While the study setting was not a field exercise, the exercise tasks are designed to simulate  
248 military-specific operational stress. Unfortunately, energy balance and/or sleep patterns were not  
249 examined and it is therefore not possible to discern whether the observed decline in IGF-1 was evoked  
250 solely by physical demand of the exercise itself despite sufficient recovery and caloric intake<sup>23</sup>, or as a  
251 combination of arduous training, insufficient recovery and/or energy deficit<sup>24</sup>. While the current study  
252 is short in duration, the patterns identified reflect that an extension of training of this nature warrant  
253 suitable recovery strategies to avoid overtraining<sup>22</sup>.

254 Our observations are consistent with previous evidence that IL-6 transiently increases in  
255 response to exercise and that the magnitude of this response is affected by exercise intensity and  
256 duration<sup>17</sup>. The increase in IL-6 concentrations in response to the 10-miler (1 hour 50-minute duration)  
257 was almost four-fold larger than to the log race (< 20-minute duration). The relative difference between  
258 these responses could simply be a function of time since onset of exercise, or could indicate that duration  
259 of exercise had a greater effect on the inflammatory response than exercise intensity. Also in agreement  
260 with previous literature, CRP concentrations did not change immediately in response to exercise, but  
261 were significantly elevated by the second morning. This is consistent with the typical rise in CRP

262 associated with exercise (stimulated by IL-6) which can continue to increase over 24 hours<sup>18</sup>. In the  
263 current study, the log race was initiated when waking CRP concentration averaged greater than 3 mg·L<sup>-1</sup>;  
264 <sup>1</sup>; higher than would be expected in a normal healthy population of this age and cardiorespiratory fitness.  
265 From the magnitude and nature of the responses observed, it is possible that the multi-stressor  
266 environment of military training means the impacts of smoking were too small to be independently  
267 identified, particularly with the sample size available.

268 Due to the high prevalence of smoking in military populations, it seemed appropriate to  
269 examine this research question with an ecologically valid design, by observing successive days of  
270 military-specific training with no modification to the training programme. However, this did also result  
271 in key limitations of the current study. This study was a part of a larger programme of work with  
272 different research aims that required waking samples, meaning (immediately) pre-exercise samples or  
273 a higher frequency of blood sampling could not be completed without substantial disruption to training.  
274 This, and examining further subsequent days of training, could have helped explain some of the  
275 observed responses. For instance, it is plausible that our waking samples reflect early morning  
276 peak/nadir concentrations of markers such as testosterone, against which post-exercise concentrations  
277 appear substantially reduced. Similarly, Kastelein et al. (2015) observed elevated cytokines in smokers  
278 during 1-4 hours of post-exercise recovery, which may have occurred in the current study but was not  
279 observable due to the study design.

## 280 **Conclusions**

281 We observed that consecutive days of arduous physical exercise evoked marked inflammatory  
282 and endocrine responses, but that these responses were not influenced by smoking status. Previous  
283 laboratory studies have demonstrated differing responses of oxidative stress and immune-inflammatory  
284 markers to exercise between smokers and non-smokers<sup>7-9</sup>, and it is possible that with the greater  
285 experimental control afforded by a laboratory setting, some differences may have been apparent.  
286 However, a high incidence of smoking during long-term exercise training is unique to the military and  
287 the study aimed to assess an ecologically valid representation of military-specific exercise. It is unclear

288 from the current findings why different responses were not observed in smokers and non-smokers, but  
289 future investigations could look to understand whether being highly physically fit and/or active is  
290 beneficial to immune health amongst smoking populations.

291

## 292 **References**

- 293 1. Robinson M, Siddall A, Bilzon J, et al. Low fitness, low body mass and prior injury predict injury risk during  
294 military recruit training: a prospective cohort study in the British Army. *BMJ Open Sport Exerc Med*  
295 2016;2:e000100.
- 296 2. Siddall AG, Bilzon JLJ, Thompson D, et al. Smoking status and physical fitness during initial military  
297 training. *Occup Med (Lond)* 2017.
- 298 3. Brooks RD, Grier T, Dada EO, et al. The combined effect of cigarette smoking and fitness on injury risk in  
299 men and women. *Nicotine Tob Res* 2018.
- 300 4. Siddall A, Bilzon J, Thompson D, et al. Smoking and Biochemical, Performance, and Muscle Adaptation to  
301 Military Training. *Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise* 2020;52:1201–1209.
- 302 5. Taylor JD. COPD and the response of the lung to tobacco smoke exposure. *Pulm Pharmacol Ther*  
303 2010;23:376-383.
- 304 6. Sopori M. Effects of cigarette smoke on the immune system. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2002;2:372-377.
- 305 7. Bloomer RJ, Creasy AK, Smith WA. Physical work-induced oxidative stress is exacerbated in young cigarette  
306 smokers. *Nicotine Tob Res* 2007;9:205-211.
- 307 8. Kastelein TE, Duffield R, Marino FE. Acute Immune-Inflammatory Responses to a Single Bout of Aerobic  
308 Exercise in Smokers; The Effect of Smoking History and Status. *Front Immunol* 2015;6. Available at:  
309 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4688366/>. Accessed November 1, 2016.
- 310 9. Kastelein TE, Donges CE, Mendham AE, et al. The Acute Exercise-Induced Inflammatory Response: A  
311 Comparison of Young-Adult Smokers and Nonsmokers. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*  
312 2017;88:15-25.
- 313 10. Tanskanen MM, Kyröläinen H, Uusitalo AL, et al. Serum sex hormone-binding globulin and cortisol  
314 concentrations are associated with overreaching during strenuous military training. *J Strength Cond Res*  
315 2011;25:787-797.
- 316 11. Diment BC, Fortes MB, Greeves JP, et al. Effect of daily mixed nutritional supplementation on immune  
317 indices in soldiers undertaking an 8-week arduous training programme. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 2012;112:1411-  
318 1418.
- 319 12. Kyröläinen H, Karinkanta J, Santtila M, et al. Hormonal responses during a prolonged military field exercise  
320 with variable exercise intensity. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 2008;102:539-546.
- 321 13. Nindl BC, Pierce JR. Insulin-like growth factor I as a biomarker of health, fitness, and training status. *Med*  
322 *Sci Sports Exerc* 2010;42:39-49.
- 323 14. Helmersson J, Larsson A, Vessby B, et al. Active smoking and a history of smoking are associated with  
324 enhanced prostaglandin F(2alpha), interleukin-6 and F2-isoprostane formation in elderly men. *Atherosclerosis*  
325 2005;181:201-207.

326 15. Renehan AG, Atkin WS, O'dwyer ST, et al. The effect of cigarette smoking use and cessation on serum  
327 insulin-like growth factors. *Br J Cancer* 2004;91:1525-1531.

328 16. Steptoe A, Ussher M. Smoking, cortisol and nicotine. *Int J Psychophysiol* 2006;59:228-235.

329 17. Petersen AMW, Pedersen BK. The anti-inflammatory effect of exercise. *J Appl Physiol* 2005;98:1154-1162.

330 18. Plaisance EP, Grandjean PW. Physical activity and high-sensitivity C-reactive protein. *Sports Med*  
331 2006;36:443-458.

332 19. Durnin JV, Womersley J. Body fat assessed from total body density and its estimation from skinfold  
333 thickness: measurements on 481 men and women aged from 16 to 72 years. *Br J Nutr* 1974;32:77-97.

334 20. Robinson M, Stokes K, Bilzon J, et al. Test-retest reliability of the Military Pre-training Questionnaire.  
335 *Occup Med (Lond)* 2010;60:476-483.

336 21. Tyyskä J, Kokko J, Salonen M, et al. Association with physical fitness, serum hormones and sleep during a  
337 15-day military field training. *J Sci Med Sport* 2010;13:356-359.

338 22. Booth CK, Probert B, Forbes-Ewan C, et al. Australian army recruits in training display symptoms of  
339 overtraining. *Mil Med* 2006;171:1059-1064.

340 23. Rarick KR, Pikosky MA, Grediagin A, et al. Energy flux, more so than energy balance, protein intake, or  
341 fitness level, influences insulin-like growth factor-I system responses during 7 days of increased physical  
342 activity. *J Appl Physiol* 2007;103:1613-1621.

343 24. Henning PC, Scofield DE, Rarick KR, et al. Effects of acute caloric restriction compared to caloric balance  
344 on the temporal response of the IGF-I system. *Metab Clin Exp* 2013;62:179-187.

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359 **Table 1.** Participant characteristics by group. Values are means  $\pm$ SD.

Variable	Smoking Status		
	Non-smokers (n=20)	Smokers (n=15)	All (n=35)
Age (yr)	22 $\pm$ 3	22 $\pm$ 3	22 $\pm$ 3
Body mass (kg)	77.8 $\pm$ 8.9	75.9 $\pm$ 6.9	76.9 $\pm$ 8.0
Height (m)	1.78 $\pm$ 0.07	1.77 $\pm$ 0.05	1.78 $\pm$ 0.06
Body Fat (%)	14.2 $\pm$ 2.7 (n=18)	12.7 $\pm$ 2.1 (n=13)	13.6 $\pm$ 2.6

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

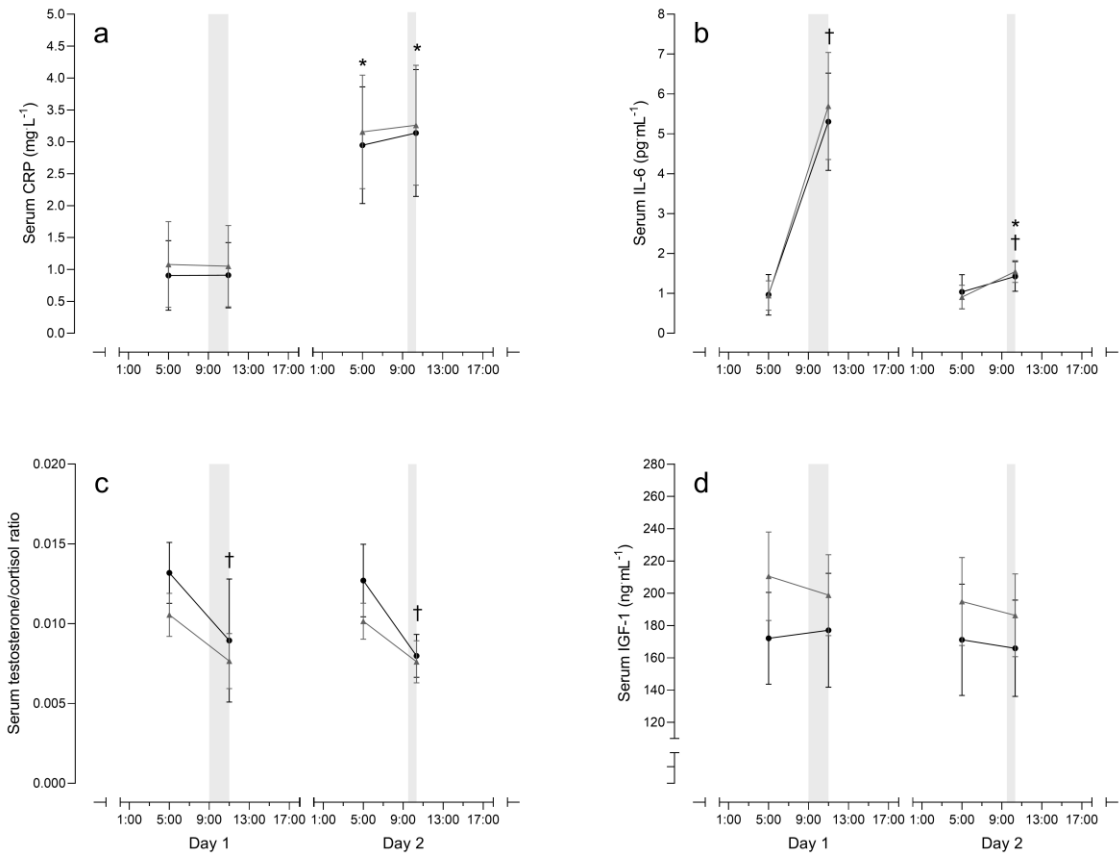
371

372

373

374

375



376

377 **Fig 1. Effects of two days of simulated operational stress on serum concentrations of inflammatory and hormonal**  
 378 **markers.** Mean ( $\pm 95\%$  CI) serum concentration of CRP ( $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ; **a**), IL-6 ( $\text{pg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ ; **b**), testosterone to cortisol ratio (**c**) and  
 379 IGF-1 ( $\text{ng}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ ; **d**) between non-smokers (Grey triangle) and smokers (Black circle). Grey boxes denote exercise: '10-miler'  
 380 on Day 1 and 'Log Race' on Day 2. \*Different from equivalent time point on Day 1 ( $p < 0.05$ ). †Different from pre-exercise  
 381 ( $p < 0.05$ ).

382