

## Title Page

### Physical activity, smoking and the incidence of clinically-diagnosed insomnia

Li-Jung Chen <sup>1</sup>, Andrew Steptoe <sup>2</sup>, Yi-Huei Chen <sup>3</sup>, Po-Wen Ku <sup>4\*</sup>, Ching-Heng Lin <sup>5\*</sup>

Submission to *Sleep Medicine*

1<sup>st</sup> author: Li-Jung Chen, PhD [ljchen@ntupes.edu.tw](mailto:ljchen@ntupes.edu.tw)

Department of Exercise Health Science, National Taiwan University of Sport, Taichung, Taiwan

Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, University College London, London, UK

2<sup>nd</sup> author: Andrew Steptoe, DPhil, DSc [a.steptoe@ucl.ac.uk](mailto:a.steptoe@ucl.ac.uk)

Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, University College London, London, UK

3<sup>rd</sup> author: Yi-Huei Chen, MSc [chenyh@vghtc.gov.tw](mailto:chenyh@vghtc.gov.tw)

Department of Medical Research, Taichung Veterans General Hospital, Taichung, Taiwan

4<sup>th</sup> author: Po-Wen Ku, PhD (Corresponding author)

Graduate Institute of Sports and Health, National Changhua University of Education, Changhua City, Taiwan

Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, University College London, UK

Address: No.1, Jinde Rd., Changhua City, 500, Taiwan

E-mail: [powen.ku@gmail.com](mailto:powen.ku@gmail.com); Telephone: +886 (4) 723-2105 ext.1991

5<sup>th</sup> author: Ching-Heng Lin, PhD (Co-corresponding author)

Department of Medical Research, Taichung Veterans General Hospital, Taichung, Taiwan

Address: 1650 Taiwan Boulevard Sect. 4, Taichung, Taiwan 40705

E-mail: [joelin99@gmail.com](mailto:joelin99@gmail.com); Telephone: +886 (4) 2359-2525 ext.4089

**Words count:** text: 2675; abstract: 249

**Running Title:** Physical activity, smoking and incident insomnia

## Physical activity, smoking and the incidence of clinically-diagnosed insomnia

### Abstract

**Objective:** This study was designed to examine the independent and combined associations of physical activity and smoking on incidence of doctor-diagnosed insomnia using a nationally representative sample over seven years, taking into account other relevant covariates.

**Methods:** Participants who aged 18 or older in the 2005 Taiwan National Health Interview Survey (NHIS) with links to National Health Insurance (NHI) claim data between 2005-2012, and without diagnosed insomnia before 2005, were selected into this study (n=12728). Participants were classified as having insomnia with ICD-9 CM codes: 307.41, 307.42, or 780.52. Self-reported smoking status and frequency, duration and types of leisure-time and non-leisure time physical activities were collected. Metabolic equivalent (MET) intensity levels for each activity were assigned and weekly energy expenditure of each activity was calculated and summed.

**Results:** Inactive participants had a higher risk of incident insomnia (HR=1.22, 95 % CI=1.06-1.42,  $p=0.007$ ) than the active group, and ever-smokers were more likely to have incident insomnia than never smokers (HR=1.45, 95 % CI=1.20–1.76,  $p<0.001$ ). Compared with the non-smoker/active group, the ever-smoker/inactive group had a higher risk of incident insomnia (HR=1.78, 95 % CI=1.41–2.25,  $p<0.001$ ). Sensitivity analyses excluding individuals diagnosed with other sleep disorders or mental disorders yielded similar results, with the ever-smoker/inactive group having

the highest risk of insomnia.

**Conclusions:** Inactive adults and smokers are at higher risk for incident insomnia, highlighting the importance of a healthy lifestyle and pointing to strategies such as encouraging smoking cessation and physical activity in order to avoid insomnia among adults.

**Key words:** Sleep disorder, physical inactivity, exercise, unhealthy behavior, cigarette

## **Physical activity, smoking and the incidence of clinically-diagnosed insomnia**

### **1. Introduction**

Insomnia is a common psychological disorder and the estimated prevalence varies from 10-40% depending on definitions (1). Up to one-third of the general population report insomnia symptoms including difficulties initiating or maintaining sleep, and the average prevalence of diagnosed insomnia is around 6% (2). Insomnia is associated with an increased risk of adverse mental and physical health outcomes such as depression (3), cognitive impairment (4, 5), poor self-rated health (6), and cardiovascular disease (7), as well as an impaired quality of life (8).

Smoking is also linked to a number of negative health outcomes, including cancer, cardiovascular and pulmonary diseases, anxiety disorders or symptoms, and impaired memory (9-11). Moreover, smokers are more likely to report several insomnia-like sleep impairments (e.g. insufficient sleep, longer sleep latency, poorer sleep quality) than non-smokers (10, 12, 13). Longitudinal studies have found that adult smokers who began smoking in adolescence have an increased risk of insomnia (14) and continuous heavy smoking in women is associated with an increased likelihood of insomnia in late mid-life (15).

By contrast, physical activity appears to be beneficial for sleep and is associated with increased total sleep time and sleep efficiency, decreased sleep latency, and improved sleep quality (16, 17). It is thought that physical activity may be valuable for improving sleep outcomes among individuals

with sleep difficulties, as well as in those diagnosed with insomnia (18-20). It has also been suggested that physical activity may help reduce the incidence of insomnia symptoms (21, 22).

Most population studies investigating risk factors for insomnia incidence have used simple questions to define insomnia (21, 23), which may lead to some degree of misclassification. Formal diagnoses of insomnia provide a stronger basis on which to manage the condition, but epidemiological studies involving insomnia diagnoses are limited (2). One longitudinal study examined risk factors for diagnosed insomnia but focused on the demographic correlates of the condition and did not include physical activity or smoking status in the analyses (24)

Since physical inactivity, smoking and insomnia are associated with a range of physical and psychiatric disorders, understanding their relationship may help to promote public health. Additionally, if physical activity and not smoking are beneficial for sleep, combining the two behaviors may be valuable in the prevention of insomnia. This study was therefore designed to examine the independent and combined associations of physical activity and smoking on incidence of doctor-diagnosed insomnia using a nationally representative sample over seven years, taking into account other relevant covariates.

## **2. Methods**

### *2.1 Study population*

Participants were selected from the 2005 National Health Interview Survey (NHIS), conducted

by the National Health Research Institutes and Bureau of Health Promotion, Taiwan. This is a periodic nationwide survey using a multi-stage stratified systematic sampling design to select a nationally representative sample (25). A total of 24,726 participants were included in the 2005 NHIS with a response rate of 80.59%. The NHIS data were linked to the 2005-2012 claims data in the National Health Insurance (NHI) Research Database. The NHI is a public compulsory insurance system for all citizens covering over 99% of Taiwan's population (26, 27).

Participants who aged 18 or older in the NHIS (n=18529), provided the consent to link their NHI claim data (n=13926), and were not diagnosed with insomnia before 31 December 2005 were selected into this study (n=12728). The study was approved by Taichung Veterans General Hospital Institutional Review Board, Taiwan. To ensure adequate data protection, all data access and statistical analyses were conducted in the Health and Welfare Data Science Centre, Ministry of Health and Welfare, Taiwan.

## *2.2 Definition of clinical insomnia*

Participants were classified as having insomnia if they had any of the following insomnia-related ICD-9 CM codes: 307.41, 307.42, or 780.52 based on the claim data from the NHI Research Database. Participants who were newly diagnosed as having insomnia between 2006-2012 and who had not been defined as having insomnia for at least 2 years before 31 December 2005 were considered incident cases. The date of diagnosis of insomnia was recorded.

### *2.3 Physical activity*

Leisure-time and non-leisure time physical activity were self-reported in the 2005 NHIS. Leisure-time physical activity was assessed by the following question: ‘Did you participate in any leisure-time physical activities during the last two weeks?’. Respondents were asked to identify the activity types they engaged in from 31 named activities (e.g. Tai Chi, walking, jogging, swimming etc.), and were able to specify up to five types. Frequency and duration for each activity were also collected, and metabolic equivalent (MET) intensity levels for each activity were assigned (28). Weekly energy expenditure (kcal) of each activity was calculated by: activity intensity code (kcal/min)  $\times$  frequency per week (times)  $\times$  duration for each time (min). These were then summed to provide a total weekly amount of energy expenditure for leisure-time activity.

Participants were also asked: ‘Did you participate in any non-leisure time physical activity during the last two weeks?’ They were asked to identify the activity types they engaged in from 10 named activities (e.g. farm or fishing work, heavy lifting, household chores) and could specify up to five types. The total weekly amount of energy expenditure for non-leisure time physical activity was calculated as described above. The leisure time and non-leisure time physical activity were then summed to provide weekly energy expenditure for overall physical activity, which was grouped into two levels (inactive: 0-999, active:  $\geq 1000$  kcal/week) based on international recommendations (29). These physical activity measures have been used in previous work (25, 30, 31).

## *2.4 Smoking status*

The following questions were asked to assess smoking status in the 2005 NHIS: ‘Have you ever smoked?’ and ‘Did you smoke during the past one month?’. Participants were classified as ‘current smoker’ if they reported they have ever smoked and smoked during the past month. Those who answered they had ever smoked but did not smoke during the past month (quit smoking) were classified as ‘former smokers’. Others who have never smoked were grouped into ‘never-smoker’. As the percentage of former-smokers was very small (4.7%), and only 57 of them were identified as developing insomnia, both the current and former smokers were combined and are subsequently referred to as ‘ever-smokers’.

## *2.5 Covariates*

The following variables in 2005 NHIS (at baseline) were selected as covariates based on previous research (23, 32): (1) socio-demographic variables: sex, age (18-44, 45-64,  $\geq 65$ ), education level ( $\leq$ primary school, high school,  $\geq$ college), marital status (married/cohabitating, never married, others), monthly household income (US dollars) (<1000, 1000-2333,  $\geq 2333$ ); (2) health-related variables: alcohol consumption (yes vs. no), weight status (body mass index, BMI : <18.5, 18.5-23.9, 24-26.9,  $\geq 27$ ) (33), and the Charlson comorbidity index (0, 1-2,  $\geq 3$ ), which is based on the number and severity of diseases (34, 35).

## *2.6 Data analysis*



Descriptive statistics for each variable at baseline in 2005 by insomnia incidence between 2006 and 2012 were calculated to characterize the sample structure. Chi-square analyses were performed to test differences between insomnia incidence and each variable.

Two separate Cox proportional hazards regressions were computed. The first regression tested the independent association of baseline physical activity and smoking status on 7-year insomnia incidence controlling for socio-demographic and health-related variables (model 1). To assess the combined associations between physical activity and smoking status on insomnia incidence, participants were categorized by smoking status across physical activity levels. Four groups were created: Non-smoker/Active, Non-smoker/Inactive, Ever-smoker/Active, and Ever-smoker/Inactive. A second regression was carried out to predict insomnia incidence by entering this classification with multivariate adjustments (model 2).

Given other sleep disorders or mental disorders may affect the associations between physical activity, smoking and insomnia (32), several sensitivity analyses were conducted. First, participants who were diagnosed with other sleep disorders including sleep apnea, restless legs syndrome, periodic limb movement disorder, or circadian rhythm sleep disorder before 31 December 2005 were excluded (n=10) (model 3 and 4). Additionally, those who were diagnosed with mental disorders including dementia, alcohol- or drug-induced mental disorders, schizophrenia, anxiety, or episodic mood disorders before 31 December 2005 were further excluded (n=1401) (model 5 and

6).

All analyses were performed using SAS 9.4 software and a  $p$  value  $< 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.

### 3. Results

Table 1 provides information about characteristics of participants in 2005 at baseline and the rate of clinical insomnia incidence between 2006 and 2012. The prevalence of clinical insomnia was 5.7% in 2005 and the incidence of clinical insomnia was 6.6% from 2006 to 2012. Participants with incident insomnia were more likely to be older, female, less educated, had lower incomes and a higher burden of comorbidity than the remainder of the sample (all  $p < 0.001$ ). Overall, 63.4% of Taiwanese adults were not physically active and around one third (32.5%) were ever-smokers. Among the participants, 22.0% were categorized as non-smoker/active, 45.5% as non-smoker/inactive, 14.6% as ever-smoker/active, and 17.9% as ever-smoker/inactive. Participants who were not physically active had a higher rate of incident insomnia ( $p=0.010$ ). No difference was found in insomnia incidence between non-smokers and ever-smokers in univariate analyses ( $p=0.801$ ), but participants in the ever-smoker/inactive group had the highest rate of incident insomnia than the comparison groups ( $p=0.015$ ).

Table 1

Table 2 shows the independent and combined associations of physical activity and smoking on

the incidence of diagnosed insomnia by Cox regression with fully adjusted models. Inactive participants had a higher risk of incident insomnia (HR =1.22, 95 % CI =1.06–1.42,  $p=0.007$ ) than the active group (model 1). Similarly, ever-smokers were more likely to have incident insomnia than never smokers (HR =1.45, 95 % CI =1.20–1.76,  $p<0.001$ ). The overall effect of combined physical activity and smoking on incident insomnia was significant ( $p<0.001$ ). Compared with the non-smoker/active group, the ever-smoker/inactive group had a higher risk of incident insomnia (HR =1.78, 95 % CI =1.41–2.25,  $p<0.001$ , model 2).

Apart from physical activity and smoking, participants who were older, female, married, underweight, with high school rather than college education, and a higher burden of comorbidity had a higher rate of clinical insomnia than the reference groups (all  $p<0.05$ ).

## Table 2

The sensitivity analyses excluding patients diagnosed with other sleep disorders or mental disorders before 31<sup>th</sup> December 2015 yielded similar results for physical activity and smoking (table 3). Inactive participants and ever-smokers both had higher risk of incident insomnia than the comparison groups after excluding patients diagnosed with other sleep disorders (HR =1.22, 95 % CI =1.05–1.42,  $p=0.008$ ; HR =1.44, 95 % CI =1.20–1.75,  $p<0.001$ , respectively, model 3). The combination of physical inactivity and smoking also showed a significant effect on incident insomnia, with the ever-smoker/inactive group having the highest risk of insomnia (HR =1.77, 95 %

CI =1.40–2.23,  $p<0.001$ , model 4). Further exclusion of individuals diagnosed with mental disorders did not alter these associations between clinical insomnia, physical inactivity and smoking (models 5 and 6).

Table 3

#### **4. Discussion**

This population-based seven-year follow-up study revealed that the majority of participants were not physically active and around one third were current or former smokers. The prevalence of clinically diagnosed insomnia was 5.7% in 2005, and this is consistent with other population estimates (2). The incidence of clinical insomnia was 6.6% over the 7-year follow-up period. Inactive individuals or ever-smokers had higher risks of subsequent clinically diagnosed insomnia compared with the active group or non-smokers. The highest risk of incident insomnia was observed among ever-smokers who were inactive. Sensitivity analyses that excluded individuals diagnosed with other sleep disorders or mental disorders provided further evidence for the robustness of these findings.

The beneficial effects of physical activity on sleep outcomes were conformed. Many previous studies have involved structured aerobic exercise programs in relatively small samples (16, 17, 19, 36). Epidemiological studies examining the association of physical activity and incident insomnia are limited and several have focused on older adults (21, 22). Although the age range and definition

of physical activity and insomnia varied between this study and previous work, similar results were found with respect to low physical activity and the risk of insomnia. There are several plausible pathways through which greater physical activity might lead to better sleep. For example, physical activity depletes energy stores, so may increase the need for sleep in order to reduce metabolic requirements for energy conservation and/or body restoration (37). Moreover, active individuals tend to be less obese, have better health outcomes and quality of life, as well as better mood, all of which are associated with better sleep (18, 38, 39).

Significant associations between smoking and sleep disturbances or insomnia have also been reported (15, 40, 41). Our findings are consistent with previous results even though we used strict diagnostic criteria for insomnia, suggesting that smokers are at increased risk. Possible mechanisms that have been proposed include the activating effects of nicotine and the associations with depressive symptoms or health conditions among smokers (13, 15, 40, 41). However, our study controlled several potential confounders including medical conditions and also further excluded patients with mental disorders in the sensitivity analyses, and the association between smoking and incident insomnia remained.

No previous studies have examined the combination of physical activity and smoking in relation to incident insomnia. Our results showed that inactive smokers had the highest risk of insomnia and active smokers had a lower rate of insomnia compared with inactive smokers. This

suggests that promoting physical activity among smokers might help to prevent the development of clinical insomnia. Smoking prevalence is generally higher among disadvantaged groups (42) and heavy smokers tend to engage in more unhealthy behaviors such as poor dietary choice and inactive and sedentary behaviors (43). Research indicates that active smokers are more likely to engage in inexpensive, low-intensity, and solitary leisure-time physical activities than in formal organized exercise programs (44). This should be taken into account when promoting physical activity among smokers for the prevention of insomnia.

Some limitations should be taken into account when evaluating these findings. Insomnia is a patient-reported symptom (45). In this study, insomnia was clinically diagnosed, but other research shows that only 30-42% of patients with sleep difficulties have consulted physicians for sleep problems (46, 47). Our findings may therefore have underestimated the actual incidence in the population and might not generalize to those who without clinically diagnosed with insomnia. Although we excluded people with diagnosed insomnia, we did not have ratings of sleep difficulties at baseline. Physical activity volume was computed from self-reported frequency, duration, and intensity, which may have been susceptible to recall bias. The rates of smoking were higher than in many Western populations, and there were not enough former smokers to analyze as a separate group. Finally, this study did not collect information about physical pain, fatigue, or menstrual status, which may impact on insomnia (32), although we did take medical comorbidity, mental

disorders, and other sleep disorders into account.

In sum, this study examined the independent and combined associations of physical activity and smoking on the incidence of diagnosed insomnia adjusting for potential confounders with a nationally representative sample across seven years. It suggests that inactive adults and smokers are at higher risk for incident insomnia. It also highlights the importance of a healthy lifestyle and points to strategies such as encouraging smoking cessation and physical activity in order to avoid insomnia among adults.

### **Ethical approval**

This study was approved by the Taichung Veterans General Hospital Institutional Review Board, Taiwan (reference number: SE14257A-1). All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

### **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

### **Acknowledgements**

The authors would like to thank the Health and Welfare Data Science Centre, Ministry of Health and Welfare (HWDC, MOHW) for support and the Healthcare Service Research Centre

(HSRC) of Taichung Veterans General Hospital for statistical support. Professor Andrew Steptoe is supported by the British Heart Foundation. Professor Chen's contribution was partly supported by the Taiwan Ministry of Science and Technology (103-2410-H-001-MY2). The sponsors had no role in study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or in the writing of the report.

## References

1. Lopes CS, Robaina JR, Rotenberg L. Epidemiology of insomnia: Prevalence and risk factors. In: Sahoo S, editor. *Can't sleep? Issues of being an insomniac*. Rijeka: InTech; 2012. p. 3-22.
2. Ohayon MM. Epidemiology of insomnia: What we know and what we still need to learn. *Sleep Med Rev* 2002. p. 97-111.
3. Sivertsen B, Salo P, Mykletun A, Hysing M, Pallesen S, Krokstad S, et al. The bidirectional association between depression and insomnia: The HUNT study. *Psychosom Med*. 2012;74(7):758-65.
4. Chen P-L, Lee W-J, Sun W-Z, Oyang Y-J, J-L F. Risk of dementia in patients with insomnia and long-term use of hypnotics: A population-based retrospective cohort study. *PLoS One*. 2012;7(11):e49113. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0049113.
5. Yaffe K, Falvey CM, Hoang T. Connections between sleep and cognition in older adults. *Lancet Neurol*. 2014;13(10):1017-28.
6. Nomura K, Yamaoka K, Nakao M, Yano E. Impact of insomnia on individual health dissatisfaction in Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan. *Sleep*. 2005;28(10):1328-32.
7. Sofi F, Cesari F, Casini A, Macchi C, Abbate R, Gensini GF. Insomnia and risk of cardiovascular disease: A meta-analysis. *European Journal of Preventive Cardiology*. 2014;21(1):57-64.



8. Ishak WW, Bagot K, Thomas S, Magakian N, Bedwani D, Larson D, et al. Quality of life in patients suffering from insomnia. *Innov Clin Neurosci*. 2012;9(10):13-26.
9. US Department of Health and Human Services. The health consequences of smoking—50 years of progress: A Report of the Surgeon General. Atlanta, GA: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, Office on Smoking and Health, 2014.
10. Liu J-T, Lee I-H, Wang C-H, Chen K-C, Lee C-I, Yang Y-K. Cigarette smoking might impair memory and sleep quality. *J Formos Med Assoc*. 2013;112(5):287-90.
11. Moylan S, Jacka FN, Pasco JA, Berk M. How cigarette smoking may increase the risk of anxiety symptoms and anxiety disorders: A critical review of biological pathways. *Brain and Behavior*. 2013;3(3):302-26.
12. Sabanayagam C, Shankar A. The association between active smoking, smokeless tobacco, second-hand smoke exposure and insufficient sleep. *Sleep Med*. 2011;12(1):7-11.
13. Jaehne A, Unbehauen T, Feige B, Lutz UC, Batra A, Riemann D. How smoking affects sleep: A polysomnographical analysis. *Sleep Med*. 2012;13(10):1286-92.
14. Brook JS, Zhang C, Rubenstone E, Brook DW. Insomnia in adults: The impact of earlier cigarette smoking from adolescence to adulthood. *J Addict Med*. 2015;9(1):40-5.
15. Brook DW, Rubenstone E, Zhang J, Brook S. Trajectories of cigarette smoking in adulthood predict insomnia among women in late mid-life. *Sleep Med*. 2012;13(9):1130–7.
16. Yang P-Y, Ho K-H, Chen H-C, Chien M-Y. Exercise training improves sleep quality in middle-aged and older adults with sleep problems: A systematic review. *J Physiother*. 2012;58(3):157-63.
17. Kredlow MA, Capozzoli MC, Hearon BA, Calkins AW, Otto MW. The effects of physical activity on sleep: A meta-analytic review. *J Behav Med*. 2015;38(3):427-49.

18. Passos GS, Poyares DLR, Santana MG, Tufik S, de Mello MT. Is exercise an alternative treatment for chronic insomnia? *Clinics*. 2012;67(6):653-9.
19. Chen L-J, Fox KR, Ku P-W, Chang Y-W. Effects of aquatic exercise on sleep in older adults with mild sleep impairment: A randomized controlled trial. *Int J Behav Med*. 2015:doi: 10.1007/s12529-015-9492-0.
20. Hargens TA, Kaleth AS, Edwards ES, Butner KL. Association between sleep disorders, obesity, and exercise: A review. *Nat Sci Sleep*. 2013;5:27-35.
21. Inoue S, Yorifuji T, Sugiyama M, Ohta T, Ishikawa-Takata K, Doi H. Does habitual physical activity prevent insomnia? A cross-sectional and longitudinal study of elderly Japanese. *Journal of Aging and Physical Activity*. 2013;21(2):119-39.
22. Chen L-J, Fox KR, Sun W-J, Lo M-K, Ku P-W. Prospective associations between different categories of physical activity and insomnia in older adults. *Int J Sport Psychol*. 2014;45(3):173-86.
23. Singareddy R, Vgontzas AN, Fernandez-Mendoza J, Liao D, Calhoun S, Shaffer ML, et al. Risk factors for incident chronic insomnia: A general population prospective study. *Sleep Med*. 2012;13(4):346-53.
24. Hsu YW, Ho CH, Wang JJ, Hsieh KY, Weng SF, Wu MP. Longitudinal trends of the healthcare-seeking prevalence and incidence of insomnia in Taiwan: An 8-year nationally representative study. *Sleep Med*. 2013;14(9):843-9.
25. Lan T-Y, Chang H-Y, Tai T-Y. Relationship between components of leisure physical activity and mortality in Taiwanese older adults. *Prev Med*. 2006;43(1):36-41.
26. Jiang Y-D, Chang C-H, Tai T-Y, Chen J-F, Chuang L-M. Incidence and prevalence rates of diabetes mellitus in Taiwan: Analysis of the 2000–2009 Nationwide Health Insurance database. *J Formos Med Assoc*. 2012;111(11):599-604.

27. Hsiao F-y, Yang C-L, Huang Y-T, Huang W-F. Using Taiwan's National Health Insurance Research Databases for pharmacoepidemiology research. *J Food Drug Anal.* 2007;15(2):99-108.
28. Ainsworth B, Haskell W, Whitt M, Irwin M, Swartz A, Strath S, et al. Compendium of physical activities: an update of activity codes and MET intensities. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2000;32(9):S498-S516.
29. Blair SN, LaMonte MJ, Nichaman MZ. The evolution of physical activity recommendations: How much is enough? *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2004;79(Suppl):913S-20S.
30. Chen LJ, Stevinson C, Ku PW, Chang YK, Chu DC. Relationships of leisure-time and non-leisure-time physical activity with depressive symptoms: a population-based study of Taiwanese older adults. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act.* 2012;9(28):1-10.
31. Lee IM, Skerrett PJ. Physical activity and all-cause mortality: what is the dose-response relation? *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2001;33(6 Suppl.):S459-S71.
32. Buysse DJ, Ancoli-Israel S, Edinger JD, Lichstein KL, Morin CM. Recommendations for a standard research assessment of insomnia. *Sleep.* 2006;29(9):1155-73.
33. Taiwan Department of Health. Identification, Evaluation, and Treatment of Overweight and Obesity in Adults in Taiwan. Taipei: Taiwan Department of Health; 2003.
34. Quan H, Sundararajan V, Halfon P, Fong A, Burnand B, Luthi J-C, et al. Coding algorithms for defining comorbidities in ICD-9-CM and ICD-10 administrative data. *Med Care.* 2005;43(11):1130-9.
35. Deyo RA, Cherkin DC, Ciol MA. Adapting a clinical comorbidity index for use with ICD-9-CM administrative databases. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology.* 1992;45(6):613-9.
36. Passos GS, Poyares D, Santana MG, Garbuio SrA, Tufik S, Mello MTI. Effect of acute physical exercise on patients with chronic primary insomnia. *J Clin Sleep Med.* 2010;6(3):270-5.
37. Driver HS, Taylor SR. Exercise and sleep. *Sleep Med Rev.* 2000;4(4):387-402.

38. Reiner M, Niermann C, Jekauc D, Woll A. Long-term health benefits of physical activity - A systematic review of longitudinal studies. *BMC Public Health*. 2013;13(813 DOI: 10.1186/1471-2458-13-813).
39. Penedo FJ, Dahn JR. Exercise and well-being: A review of mental and physical health benefits associated with physical activity. *Current Opinion in Psychiatry*. 2005;18(2):189-93.
40. Wetter DW, Young TB. The relation between cigarette smoking and sleep disturbance. *Prev Med*. 1994;23(3):328-34.
41. Lee JY, Brook JS, Finch SJ, Brook DW. Trajectories of cigarette smoking beginning in adolescence predict insomnia in the mid thirties. *Subst Use Misuse*. 2016;51(5):616-24.
42. Hiscock R, Bauld L, Amos A, Fidler JA, Munafò M. Socioeconomic status and smoking: A review. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 2012;1248:107-23.
43. Masood S, Cappelli C, Li Y, Tanenbaum H, Chou C-P, Spruijt-Metz D, et al. Cigarette smoking is associated with unhealthy patterns of food consumption, physical activity, sleep impairment, and alcohol drinking in Chinese male adults. *International Journal of Public Health*. 2015;60(8):891-9.
44. Gauthier AP, Snelling SJ, King M. "Thinking outside the pack": examining physically active smokers and implications for practice among Ontario residents. *Health Promot Pract*. 2012;13(3):395-403.
45. Benca RM. Diagnosis and treatment of chronic insomnia: A review. *Psychiatr Serv*. 2005;56(3):332-43.
46. Shochat T, Umphress J, Israel AG, Ancoli-Israel S. Insomnia in primary care patients. *Sleep*. 1999;22(Suppl 2):S359-S65.
47. Morin CM, LeBlanc M, Daley M, Gregoire JP, Mérettee C. Epidemiology of insomnia: Prevalence, self-help treatments and consultations initiated, and determinants of help-seeking

behaviors. *Sleep Med.* 2006;7:123-30.

## **Highlights**

- Inactive adults or ever-smokers are at higher risk of developing clinical insomnia than active adults or non-smokers.
- The highest risk of incident insomnia was observed among ever-smokers who were inactive.
- It is important to maintain a healthy lifestyle, including not smoking and being physically active, to avoid insomnia.

Table 1. Characteristics of participants in 2005 by insomnia incidence 2006-2012

Variables (n=12728)	n	Insomnia incidence		
		n	%	p-value <sup>a</sup>
Age				<0.001
18-44	7675	352	(4.6)	
45-64	3614	331	(9.2)	
≥ 65	1439	162	(11.3)	
Sex				<0.001
Female	5929	491	(8.3)	
Male	6799	354	(5.2)	
Education				<0.001
≥ College	4148	167	(4.0)	
High school	5708	392	(6.9)	
≤ Primary school	2872	286	(10.0)	
Marital status				<0.001
Married/cohabiting	7643	583	(7.6)	
Never Married	3912	144	(3.7)	
Others	1173	118	(10.1)	
Monthly household income (US dollar)				<0.001
≥ 2333	4060	237	(5.8)	
1000-2333	5343	336	(6.3)	
< 1000	3325	272	(8.2)	
Weight status (BMI)				0.170
Normal (18.5-23.9)	6795	438	(6.4)	
Underweight (<18.5)	904	70	(7.7)	
Overweight (24-26.9)	2948	183	(6.2)	
Obese (≥27)	2081	154	(7.4)	
Charlson Comorbidity Index				<0.001
0	9831	528	(5.4)	
1-2	2395	262	(10.9)	
≥3	502	55	(11.0)	
Alcohol consumption				<0.001
No	7861	584	(7.4)	
Yes	4867	261	(5.4)	
Active smoking				0.801
Non-smoker	8596	574	(6.7)	
Ever-smoker	4132	271	(6.6)	
Overall PA (kcal/week)				0.010
1000+ (active)	4655	274	(5.9)	
0-999 (inactive)	8073	571	(7.1)	
Smoking_PA				0.015
Never-smoker_Active	2802	177	(6.3)	
Never-smoker_Inactive	5794	397	(6.9)	
Ever-smoker_Active	1853	97	(5.2)	
Ever-smoker_Inactive	2279	174	(7.6)	

a: Chi-square tests

Table 2. Associations of PA and smoking on insomnia incidence by Cox regression

Variables (n=12728)	Model 1			Model 2		
	HR	95% CI	P-value	HR	95% CI	P-value
Age			<0.001†			<0.001†
18-44	1.00	—	—	1.00	—	—
45-64	1.69	(1.40-2.03)	<0.001	1.68	(1.40-2.03)	<0.001
≥ 65	2.11	(1.63-2.73)	<0.001	2.11	(1.63-2.73)	<0.001
Sex						
Female	1.00	—	—	1.00	—	—
Male	0.57	(0.48-0.69)	<0.001	0.57	(0.48-0.69)	<0.001
Education			0.001†			0.001†
≥ College	1.00	—	—	1.00	—	—
High school	1.44	(1.18-1.75)	<0.001	1.44	(1.18-1.75)	<0.001
≤ Primary school	1.27	(0.99-1.63)	0.064	1.26	(0.98-1.62)	0.070
Marital status			0.015†			0.015†
Married/cohabiting	1.00	—	—	1.00	—	—
Never Married	0.73	(0.59-0.90)	0.004	0.73	(0.59-0.90)	0.004
Others	0.99	(0.81-1.23)	0.960	0.99	(0.81-1.23)	0.953
Monthly household income (US dollars)			0.500†			0.524†
≥ 2333	1.00	—	—	1.00	—	—
1000-2333	0.90	(0.76-1.07)	0.242	0.91	(0.76-1.08)	0.257
< 1000	0.94	(0.78-1.15)	0.567	0.94	(0.78-1.15)	0.563
Weight status (BMI)			0.022†			0.021†
Normal (18.5-23.9)	1.00	—	—	1.00	—	—
Underweight (<18.5)	1.37	(1.06-1.77)	0.017	1.37	(1.06-1.77)	0.017
Overweight (24-26.9)	0.87	(0.73-1.03)	0.114	0.87	(0.73-1.03)	0.112
Obese (≥27)	0.98	(0.82-1.19)	0.870	0.99	(0.82-1.19)	0.889
Charlson Comorbidity Index			<0.001†			<0.001†
0	1.00	—	—	1.00	—	—
1-2	1.69	(1.45-1.98)	<0.001	1.69	(1.44-1.97)	<0.001
≥3	1.76	(1.32-2.36)	<0.001	1.76	(1.31-2.35)	<0.001
Alcohol consumption						
No	1.00	—	—	1.00	—	—
Yes	0.85	(0.72-1.00)	0.050	0.85	(0.72-1.00)	0.052
Active smoking						
Non-smoker	1.00	—	—			
Ever-smoker	1.45	(1.20-1.76)	<0.001			
Overall PA (kcal/week)						
1000+ (active)	1.00	—	—			
0-999 (inactive)	1.22	(1.06-1.42)	0.007			
Smoking_PA						<0.001†
Non-smoker Active				1.00	—	—



---

Non-smoker_ Inactive	1.14	(0.95-1.36)	0.157
Ever-smoker_ Active	1.27	(0.97-1.67)	0.087
Ever-smoker_ Inactive	1.78	(1.41-2.25)	<0.001

---

† p-value for the overall effect of a variable

1

Table 3. Sensitivity analyses for predicting risks of insomnia incidence

Variables	Model 3 (n=12718)			Model 4 (n=12718)			Model 5 (n=11317)			Model 6 (n=11317)		
	HR	95% CI	P-value	HR	95% CI	P-value	HR	95% CI	P-value	HR	95% CI	P-value
Active smoking												
Non-smoker	1.00	—	—				1.00	—	—			
Ever-smoker	1.44	(1.20-1.75)	<0.001				1.55	(1.25-1.92)	<0.001			
Overall PA (kcal/week)												
1000+ (active)	1.00	—	—				1.00	—	—			
0-999 (inactive)	1.22	(1.05-1.42)	0.008				1.19	(1.01-1.41)	0.039			
Smoking_PA						<0.001†						<0.001†
Non-smoker_Active				1.00	—	—				1.00	—	—
Non-smoker_Inactive				1.14	(0.95-1.36)	0.156				1.11	(0.90-1.37)	0.335
Ever-smoker_Active				1.27	(0.96-1.67)	0.091				1.36	(0.99-1.85)	0.055
Ever-smoker_Inactive				1.77	(1.40-2.23)	<0.001				1.85	(1.41-2.42)	<0.001

2 Model 3 & 4: Based on Model 1& 2, excluding patients diagnosed with other sleep disorders ( Sleep apnea 327.23, 780.57; Periodic  
3 limb movement disorder 327.51; Restless legs syndrome 333.94; Circadian rhythm sleep disorder, 327.36, 780.55 ) before  
4 2005.12.31

5 Model 5 & 6: Based on Model 1& 2, excluding patients diagnosed with other sleep disorders ( Sleep apnea 327.23, 780.57; Periodic  
6 limb movement disorder 327.51; Restless legs syndrome 333.94; Circadian rhythm sleep disorder, 327.36, 780.55 ) or mental  
7 disorders (Dementia 290, Alcohol-induced mental disorders 291, Drug-induced mental disorders 292, Schizophrenic disorders  
8 295, Episodic mood disorders 296, Anxiety, dissociative and somatoform disorder 300) before 2005.12.31

9 Covariates: all variables listed in Table 2

10 † p-value for the overall effect of a variable

11