

## Inspiratory muscle training improves pulmonary functions and respiratory muscle strength in healthy male smokers

Özgür Bostancı<sup>a</sup>, Hakan Mayda<sup>a</sup>, Coşkun Yılmaz<sup>b</sup>, Menderes Kabadayı<sup>a</sup>, Ali Kerim Yılmaz<sup>b</sup>, Mustafa Özdal<sup>c,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Sport Science Faculty, Ondokuz Mayıs University, Ondokuz Mayıs University Performance Laboratory, Ondokuz Mayıs University, Yaşar Doğu Sport Science Faculty, 55100, Samsun, Turkey

<sup>b</sup> Graduate School of Health Sciences, Ondokuz Mayıs University, Ondokuz Mayıs University Performance Laboratory, Ondokuz Mayıs University, Yaşar Doğu Sport Science Faculty, 55100, Samsun, Turkey

<sup>c</sup> Physical Education and Sport, Institution: Gaziantep University, Laboratory: Gaziantep University Performance Laboratory, Gaziantep University, Physical Education and Sport Dept., 27310, Gaziantep, Turkey

### ARTICLE INFO

**Keywords:**  
Exercise  
Lung function  
Spirometry

### ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study is to investigate the effects of inspiratory muscle training (IMT) on pulmonary function and respiratory muscle strength of both healthy smokers and nonsmokers. Forty-two healthy males (16 in the IMT smokers group [IMT<sub>S</sub>], 16 in the IMT nonsmokers group [IMT<sub>N</sub>], and 10 in the placebo group) participated in the present study. Using a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled design, IMT<sub>S</sub> and IMT<sub>N</sub> underwent 4 weeks of 30 breaths twice daily at 50% (+5% increase each week) of maximum inspiratory pressure (MIP), while the placebo group maintained 30 breaths twice daily at 15% MIP using an IMT device. The data were analyzed with repeated measures for one-way analysis of variance, 3 × 2 mixed factor analysis of variance, and least significant difference tests. Respiratory muscle strength (MIP and maximal expiratory pressure [MEP]) and pulmonary functions significantly improved after a 4-week period (between the pre and posttests) in the IMT<sub>N</sub> and IMT<sub>S</sub> groups ( $p < 0.05$ ). The mean difference and percentage differences showed significant alterations in the respiratory muscle strength, forced and slow pulmonary capacities, and pulmonary volume between the IMT<sub>N</sub> and IMT<sub>S</sub> groups ( $p < 0.05$ ). There were significant changes in the expiratory muscle strength (MEP), slow vital capacity (SVC), and forced pulmonary measurements (forced expiratory volume after 1 s and maximal voluntary ventilation) between IMT<sub>N</sub> and IMT<sub>S</sub> groups in favor of smokers ( $p < 0.05$ ). These results show that greater improvements occurred in smokers after IMT. Increased respiratory muscle strength may be the underlying mechanism responsible for this improvement. Additionally, the benefits of IMT were greater in smokers than nonsmokers. This difference between smokers and nonsmokers may potentially be explained by higher influence of exercise on smokers' lung microbiome, resulting in greater reversal of negative effects.

### 1. Introduction

Inspiratory muscle training (IMT) is described as a remarkable exercise that exerts significant load on inspiratory muscles to strengthen the muscles of respiration (Silva et al., 2013). Incremental increase in respiratory muscle strength can enhance pulmonary function (Beckerman et al., 2005). Respiratory muscles show hypertrophy after proper training and load the skeletal muscles (Gibala et al., 2006; Egan and Zierath, 2013). IMT is generally used to treat people who suffer from asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), and

airflow limitation (Beckerman et al., 2005; Weiner et al., 2004). Lately, sport scientists are studying this training to examine resulting acute or chronic changes (Volianitis et al., 2001; Griffiths and McConnell, 2007; Arnall et al., 2014).

Reductions in blood lactate concentration, heart rate, and perception of breathing and limb effort may occur due to IMT (McConnell and Sharpe, 2005; Chiappa et al., 2008). If the inspiratory muscles do not fatigue, breathing energy is reduced, making it possible to maintain a more efficient, deep, and slow breathing pattern (McConnell, 2011). These findings highlight the importance of IMT.

\* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: [bostanci@omu.edu.tr](mailto:bostanci@omu.edu.tr) (Ö. Bostancı), [hakan\\_mayda@hotmail.com](mailto:hakan_mayda@hotmail.com) (H. Mayda), [csknylmz@windowslive.com](mailto:csknylmz@windowslive.com) (C. Yılmaz), [kabadayi@omu.edu.tr](mailto:kabadayi@omu.edu.tr) (M. Kabadayı), [alkrm\\_ylmz@hotmail.com](mailto:alkrm_ylmz@hotmail.com) (A.K. Yılmaz), [mustafaozdal@gantep.edu.tr](mailto:mustafaozdal@gantep.edu.tr) (M. Özdal).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resp.2019.04.001>

Received 1 March 2019; Received in revised form 26 March 2019; Accepted 2 April 2019

Available online 03 April 2019

1569-9048/ © 2019 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

Previous studies conducted on healthy subjects (McConnell and Romer, 2004), patients with pulmonary disease (Beckerman et al., 2005), healthy athletes (Arnall et al., 2014), disabled athletes (Wuyam, 2009), obese individuals (Tenório et al., 2013), hypertensive patients (Ferreira et al., 2013), elderly smokers (Jun et al., 2016), and the healthy elders (Rodrigues et al., 2018), have also demonstrated the benefits of IMT. However, there is limited information regarding the effects of IMT on pulmonary functions in healthy male smokers. To our knowledge, this is the first study to assess the effect of IMT in healthy male smokers.

The purpose of the present study is to examine the influence of 4 weeks of IMT on pulmonary function and respiratory muscle strength in smokers and nonsmokers. We hypothesize that IMT will attenuate the deleterious effects of smoking on respiratory muscle strength and pulmonary functions.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Experimental design

The study incorporated a randomized, double-blind, and placebo-controlled design. The study design included one familiarization session followed by two testing sessions (pre- and post-tests) for all subjects. During the familiarization session, they experienced laboratory-based tests of pulmonary function, maximal inspiratory pressure (MIP) and maximal expiratory pressure (MEP) tests, and IMT procedures. During the second (pretest) and third (posttest) sessions, they undertook all tests. The IMT program (4 weeks 7 days per week) was implemented between the pre and posttest period in all subjects. Subjects were randomly assigned to the experimental (IMT<sub>N</sub>: nonsmoker experimental group, n = 16; IMT<sub>S</sub>: smoker experimental group, n = 16) or placebo (smoker control group, n = 10) groups. Subjects in the experimental groups (IMT<sub>N</sub> and IMT<sub>S</sub>) performed the IMT procedure at 50% of MIP (+5% load increase each week and MIP test repeated on the first training day of every week), and placebo group subjects performed the IMT procedure at 15% of MIP. The IMT sessions (performed between 10:00 and 12:00) and the pre and posttest measurements (acquired between 16:00 and 18:00) were applied at the same time each day. The present study was designed and implemented in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association, 2013). Approval was obtained from a local clinical research ethics committee.

### 2.2. Subjects

A total of 42 healthy male subjects volunteered to participate in this study (Table 1). The aim of the study was explained to all subjects and written informed consent was obtained from all subjects at the familiarization session. The IMT<sub>S</sub> and placebo groups included subjects who had smoked more than 15 cigarettes per day for at least 5 years. The IMT<sub>N</sub> subjects had never smoked during their life. Exercise and high-intensity physical activity were not allowed before the trials. Subjects avoided alcohol, caffeine, and exercise in the 24 h prior to testing.

**Table 1**  
Descriptive characteristics of subjects (Means ± SD).

	IMT <sub>S</sub> (n = 16)	IMT <sub>N</sub> (n = 16)	Placebo (n = 10)
Age (years)	24.13 ± 6.34	23.31 ± 3.52	23.90 ± 1.45
Height (cm)	173.38 ± 5.81	172.69 ± 6.88	177.00 ± 7.29
Weight (kg)	72.31 ± 8.15	69.75 ± 9.70	73.05 ± 8.46
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	24.07 ± 2.66	23.31 ± 2.14	23.28 ± 1.90
Smoking	> 15 cigarettes/day	Never smoke	> 15 cigarettes/day
MIP (cmH <sub>2</sub> O)	115.63 ± 35.21	104.59 ± 32.17	100.30 ± 22.92

BMI, body mass index; MIP, maximal inspiratory pressure; SD, standard deviation; IMT<sub>S</sub>, inspiratory muscle training smoker group; IMT<sub>N</sub>, inspiratory muscle training nonsmoker group.

However, smokers in both the experimental and control groups were permitted to continue smoking. The placebo group was used to compare smokers with and without IMT. The nonsmoker experimental group (IMT<sub>N</sub>) was used to determine whether IMT produced different effects in smokers versus nonsmokers.

### 2.3. Procedures

#### 2.3.1. MIP and MEP measurements

MIP and MEP were measured with a portable hand-held mouth respiratory pressure meter (MicroRPM, CareFusion Micro Medical, Kent, UK), according to the 2002 guidelines of the American Thoracic Society and European Respiratory Society (2002). After the appropriate filters and holders were fixed, the nose airway was closed with a clip. MIP measurement started with the residual volume, while MEP was started with total lung capacity. The measurements were repeated between the 2 best findings until there was a 5% difference, and the average was recorded in cm H<sub>2</sub>O (Polkey et al., 1995).

#### 2.3.2. Pulmonary function assessment

Pulmonary function tests were conducted using a spirometer (CPFS/D USB Spirometer, MGC Diagnostics, Saint Paul, MN, USA), according to the 2002 guidelines of the American Thoracic Society and European Respiratory Society (2002). Forced vital capacity (FVC), forced expiration volume in one second (FEV1), ratio of FEV1/FVC, maximal voluntary ventilation (MVV), slow vital capacity (SVC), and inspiratory capacity (IC) were recorded using pulmonary function test (Miller et al., 2005). The best measurements were recorded (Magadle et al., 2007).

#### 2.3.3. Inspiratory muscle training procedure

A specific inspiratory training device (POWER®Breathe Classic, IMT Technologies Ltd., Birmingham, UK) was used for IMT. Experimental group subjects (IMT<sub>N</sub> and IMT<sub>S</sub>) performed the IMT procedure at 50% of MIP (with +5% load increase each week and MIP test repeated on the first training day of every week), and placebo group subjects performed IMT procedure at 15% of MIP. The IMT procedure included 30 × 2 dynamic inspiratory efforts (with 1 min interval) daily for 4 weeks (Kilding et al., 2010). This procedure was chosen because it has been previously studied in healthy individuals (Karsten et al., 2018).

### 2.4. Statistical analyzes

The SPSS version 22.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL) program was used for statistical analyzes. The data were expressed as the mean, standard deviation, effect size, and percentage of the mean difference. The effect sizes were obtained from partial eta-squared data. The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to assess normality. Significance was defined as p ≤ 0.05. To determine the difference between groups for one dependent variable (IMT effect), one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. Least significant difference (LSD) correction was used to analyze percent difference of mean between groups. In order to determine the significance of IMT on MIP, MEP, and pulmonary function measurements, 3 × 2 mixed factor ANOVA and LSD correction were performed on the pretest, posttest, and mean differences of the 3 groups.

## 3. Results

Table 2 shows the analysis of pre- and post-tests, mean differences, and percent differences on MIP, MEP, and pulmonary function measurements in the intervention groups. After 4 weeks of the IMT program, significant increases in MIP, MEP, FVC, FEV1, MVV, SVC, and IC were observed in the IMT<sub>S</sub> group (p < 0.05). MIP, MEP, FVC, FEV1, MVV, and IC in the IMT<sub>N</sub> group were also significantly higher at post-test compared to the pretest session (p < 0.05). In the placebo group, MEP demonstrated a significant change between the pre and post-tests (p < 0.05). Respiratory muscles and pulmonary functions of the IMT<sub>S</sub>

**Table 2**  
Analysis of MIP, MEP, and pulmonary function measurements.

		IMT <sub>S</sub> (n = 16)		IMT <sub>N</sub> (n = 16)		Placebo (n = 10)	
		Mean ± SD	ES	Mean ± SD	ES	Mean ± SD	ES
MIP (cmH <sub>2</sub> O)	Pre-test	115.13 ± 29.16	-0.79	104.94 ± 29.72	-0.67	104.30 ± 15.07	-0.27
	Post-test	137.09 ± 26.10 <sup>a</sup>		124.94 ± 29.64 <sup>a</sup>		108.65 ± 16.83	
	Mean Difference	21.97 ± 14.97 <sup>b</sup>		20.00 ± 14.20 <sup>b</sup>		4.35 ± 7.26	
	Percent Diff. (%)	21.75 ± 17.66 <sup>b</sup>	-	21.27 ± 15.95 <sup>b</sup>	-	4.20 ± 6.58	0.21
MEP (cmH <sub>2</sub> O)	Pre-test	138.91 ± 20.63	-1.04	124.41 ± 20.69	-0.56	116.65 ± 18.06	-0.59
	Post-test	159.41 ± 18.71 <sup>a</sup>		136.44 ± 22.27 <sup>a</sup>		126.30 ± 14.52 <sup>a</sup>	
	Mean Difference	20.50 ± 9.04 <sup>b,c</sup>		12.03 ± 4.76 <sup>b</sup>		9.65 ± 9.31	
	Percent Diff. (%)	15.49 ± 7.87 <sup>b,c</sup>	-	9.80 ± 4.41 <sup>b</sup>	-	9.20 ± 9.91	0.14
FVC (L)	Pre-test	4.42 ± 1.28	-0.49	4.09 ± 0.95	-0.86	4.89 ± 1.21	-0.05
	Post-test	4.92 ± 0.65 <sup>a</sup>		4.78 ± 0.63 <sup>a</sup>		4.95 ± 1.00	
	Mean Difference	0.50 ± 1.00 <sup>b</sup>		0.69 ± 0.99 <sup>b</sup>		0.06 ± 0.89	
	Percent Diff. (%)	18.38 ± 30.60 <sup>b</sup>	-	22.20 ± 28.88 <sup>b</sup>	-	5.05 ± 28.72	0.05
FEV1 (L)	Pre-test	3.73 ± 0.94	-0.81	3.58 ± 0.64	-0.62	3.71 ± 1.02	-0.20
	Post-test	4.33 ± 0.47 <sup>a</sup>		3.96 ± 0.59 <sup>a</sup>		3.92 ± 1.03	
	Mean Difference	0.60 ± 0.90 <sup>bc</sup>		0.39 ± 0.56		0.22 ± 0.83	
	Percent Diff. (%)	23.50 ± 35.21 <sup>b,c</sup>	-	12.44 ± 16.76	-	9.43 ± 26.10	0.05
FEV1/FVC (%)	Pre-test	86.19 ± 13.02	-0.22	90.31 ± 18.09	0.53	78.59 ± 21.46	-0.05
	Post-test	88.44 ± 5.97		83.01 ± 6.55		79.66 ± 15.29	
	Mean Difference	2.26 ± 14.66		-7.30 ± 15.38		1.07 ± 14.36	
	Percent Diff. (%)	5.80 ± 24.50	-	-5.31 ± 15.90	-	6.42 ± 25.15	0.07
MVV (L/min)	Pre-test	149.19 ± 43.31	-0.93	150.25 ± 45.58	-0.45	160.10 ± 49.74	0.13
	Post-test	183.88 ± 29.91 <sup>a</sup>		169.31 ± 39.22 <sup>a</sup>		154.30 ± 36.65	
	Mean Difference	34.69 ± 25.56 <sup>b,c</sup>		19.06 ± 21.55 <sup>b</sup>		-5.80 ± 31.94	
	Percent Diff. (%)	29.46 ± 26.87 <sup>b,c</sup>	-	16.83 ± 22.22 <sup>b</sup>	-	-1.07 ± 22.86	0.18
SVC (L)	Pre-test	4.56 ± 0.95	-0.59	4.66 ± 0.96	-0.18	5.37 ± 0.76	0.31
	Post-test	5.10 ± 0.89 <sup>a</sup>		4.84 ± 0.99		5.17 ± 0.53	
	Mean Difference	0.55 ± 0.83 <sup>b,c</sup>		0.18 ± 0.39 <sup>b</sup>		-0.21 ± 0.42	
	Percent Diff. (%)	14.75 ± 22.53 <sup>b,c</sup>	-	4.28 ± 9.60 <sup>b</sup>	-	-5.68 ± 5.63	0.18
IC (L)	Pre-test	3.27 ± 0.74	-0.25	2.87 ± 0.74	-2.26	3.56 ± 1.03	-0.05
	Post-test	3.45 ± 0.69 <sup>a</sup>		3.03 ± 0.44		3.61 ± 0.85	
	Mean Difference	0.18 ± 0.77		0.17 ± 0.53		0.05 ± 1.19	
	Percent Diff. (%)	8.67 ± 22.70	-	9.80 ± 21.30	-	6.91 ± 36.01	0.00

<sup>a</sup> Significant difference between pre- and post-tests.

<sup>b</sup> Significant difference from placebo group.

<sup>c</sup> Significant difference from IMT<sub>N</sub> group; SD, standard deviation; ES, effect size; IMT<sub>S</sub>, inspiratory muscle training smoker group; IMT<sub>N</sub>, inspiratory muscle training nonsmoker group; MIP, maximal inspiratory pressure; MEP, maximal expiratory pressure; FVC, forced vital capacity; FEV1, forced expiratory volume in one second; MVV, maximal voluntary ventilation; SVC, slow vital capacity; IC, inspiratory capacity.

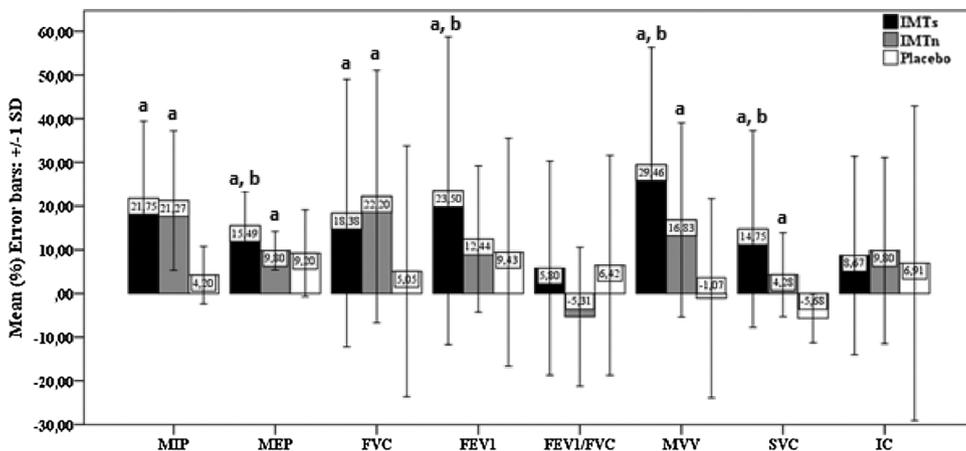
and IMT<sub>N</sub> subjects improved after the IMT program, whereas those of the placebo subjects did not (Table 2).

Mean and percent differences demonstrated different effects of IMT among the 3 groups in the Fig. 1. Significant mean and percent differences were found in MIP, MEP, FVC, FEV1, MVV, and SVC between the IMT<sub>S</sub> and placebo groups (p < 0.05). In addition, significant differences were observed in MIP, MEP, FVC, MVV, and SVC between the IMT<sub>N</sub> and placebo groups (p < 0.05). Comparing the mean and percent differences between the IMT<sub>S</sub> and IMT<sub>N</sub> groups revealed significant differences in MEP, FEV1, MVV, and SVC in favor of the IMT<sub>S</sub> group

(p < 0.05). More significantly improvement observed, in expiratory muscle strength and pulmonary functions of the IMT<sub>S</sub> subjects after the IMT program, than IMT<sub>N</sub> subjects (Fig. 1).

#### 4. Discussion

The aim of this study was to determine the influence of IMT on pulmonary function and respiratory muscle strength in smokers and nonsmokers using a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled experimental design. There were 2 major findings of the present study: (1)



**Fig. 1.** Percent difference comparisons of groups. <sup>a</sup> significant difference from placebo group; <sup>b</sup> significant difference from IMT<sub>N</sub> group SD, standard deviation; ES, effect size; IMT<sub>S</sub>, inspiratory muscle training smoker group; IMT<sub>N</sub>, inspiratory muscle training nonsmoker group; MIP, maximal inspiratory pressure; MEP, maximal expiratory pressure; FVC, forced vital capacity; FEV1, forced expiratory volume in one second; MVV, maximal voluntary ventilation; SVC, slow vital capacity; IC, inspiratory capacity.

changes in expiratory muscle strength and pulmonary measurements following IMT were significantly higher in smokers than nonsmokers ( $p < 0.05$ ) and (2) respiratory muscle strength and pulmonary functions significantly improved after 4-week IMT program ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Although lungs are not free of microorganisms even when healthy, tobacco smoking negatively influences the pulmonary microbiome (Harris et al., 2007; Hilty et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2010; Rogers et al., 2004). The leading cause of COPD is exposure to tobacco smoke. COPD is characterized by largely irreversible airflow limitation, mucus hypersecretion, small airway fibrosis, and destruction of the alveolar space (Barnes et al., 2009). All of these characteristics may be affected by the pulmonary microbiome. Although all smokers do not develop COPD, they do express some of the aforementioned characteristics (Erb-Downward et al., 2011). Therefore, it may be hypothesized that exercise for the respiratory system may positively affect the pulmonary microbiome (Barton et al., 2018) and combat the negative effects of smoking (Han et al., 2014). This may be a possible mechanism underlying our finding that expiratory muscle strength and pulmonary measurements show significantly greater changes in smokers than nonsmokers.

Smoking in young people has increased, leading to early respiratory function problems (Tantisuwat and Thaveeratitham, 2014; Jun et al., 2016). The close association between smoking and pulmonary dysfunction is widely accepted (Roh et al., 2012). IMT enhances inspiratory muscle strength, resulting in increases in lung function and lung volumes after IMT (Volianitis et al., 2001; Arnall et al., 2014; McConnell and Lomax, 2006). It has been reported that an increase in cigarette consumption is associated with a progressive decrease in mean flow rates and increased obstruction (Kuperman and Riker, 1973; Lee and Fry, 2010). In the current study, respiratory muscle strength and pulmonary functions significantly increased in the IMT<sub>S</sub> and IMT<sub>N</sub> groups after participation in the IMT program. Other studies in the literature have shown that IMT improves the functioning of the respiratory system, thereby allowing more oxygen to enter the bloodstream with each breath while strengthening the respiratory muscles (Özdal, 2016a). Our study indicates that IMT significantly improves respiratory muscle strength. Stronger respiratory muscles delay or abolish inspiratory muscle fatigue (McConnell and Lomax, 2006; Özdal, 2016b; Özdal and Bostanci, 2018), enabling the necessary respiratory functions to be performed more easily (Weiner et al., 2004; Volianitis et al., 2001; McConnell, 2011; Özdal, 2016a). Our study also demonstrated increases in lung volumes. This is in agreement with prior investigations that showed IMT significantly increased FVC, FEV1, IC, as well as respiratory capacity of long-term male smokers (Roh et al., 2012; Seo et al., 2015) and nonsmokers (Özdal, 2016a; Enright et al., 2004). Increased lung volumes have previously been associated with stronger neck muscle and upper thorax to the inspiratory muscle (Tenório et al., 2013). Therefore, our present findings regarding pulmonary response can be explained by increases in inspiratory muscle strength.

The positive effects of exercise on the lungs are well known (Yilmaz and Özdal, 2019). Forced pulmonary parameters depend on the performance of respiratory muscles (Gupta and Sawane, 2012). Improvement in the strength of the diaphragm, the most important respiratory muscle, positively affects expiratory forced volume and capacity (Weiner et al., 2003). Also, the chronic adaptation of the pulmonary system to exercise is related to decreased muscle stiffness, improved nerve conduction velocity, improved contractile activity, increased metabolic enzyme activity in respiratory muscles (Wright and Johns, 1961; Ranatunga et al., 1987; Proske et al., 1993), and increased elasticity of the lungs and chest wall (Gupta and Sawane, 2012; Lakhera et al., 1984). These perspectives can explain the mechanism of our other finding that respiratory muscle strength and pulmonary functions significantly improve after the 4-week IMT program.

In conclusion, 4 weeks of IMT significantly improved the respiratory muscle strength and pulmonary function of smokers. The mechanism

responsible for this improvement is probably associated with increased respiratory muscle strength. On the other hand, smokers had higher increments in respiratory muscle strength and pulmonary functions than nonsmokers. The mechanism related to the difference between smokers and nonsmokers may potentially be explained by greater influence of exercise on smokers' lung microbiome in reversing the negative effects of smoking.

## 5. Limitations

The spirometer that was used did not calculate other some important pulmonary parameters such as forced expiratory flow, peak expiratory flow, forced inspiratory flow, and peak inspiratory flow. Also, our study design needs a nonsmoker placebo group for eliminating evaluation limitations.

## References

- American Thoracic Society/European Respiratory Society, 2002. ATS/ERS statement on respiratory muscle testing. *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.* 166, 518–624.
- Arnall, D.A., Camacho, C.I., Tomás, J.M., 2014. Effects of inspiratory muscle training and yoga breathing exercises on respiratory muscle function in institutionalized frail older adults: a randomized controlled trial. *J. Geriatr. Phys. Ther.* 37, 65–75.
- Barnes, P.J., Drazen, J.M., Rennard, S.I., Thomson, N.C. (Eds.), 2009. *Asthma and COPD: Basic Mechanisms and Clinical Management*. Elsevier, pp. 425–442.
- Barton, W., Penney, N.C., Cronin, O., Garcia-Perez, I., Molloy, M.G., Holmes, E., Shanahan, F., Cotter, P.D., O'Sullivan, O., 2018. The microbiome of professional athletes differs from that of more sedentary subjects in composition and particularly at the functional metabolic level. *Gut* 67 (4), 625–633.
- Beckerman, M., Magadle, R., Weiner, M., Weiner, P., 2005. The effects of 1 year of specific inspiratory muscle training in patients with COPD. *Chest* 128, 3177–3182.
- Chiappa, G.R., Roseguini, B.T., Vieira, P.J., Alves, C.N., Tavares, A., Winkelmann, E.R., Ribeiro, J.P., 2008. Inspiratory muscle training improves blood flow to resting and exercising limbs in patients with chronic heart failure. *J. Am. Coll. Cardiol.* 51, 1663–1671.
- Egan, B., Zierath, J.R., 2013. Exercise metabolism and the molecular regulation of skeletal muscle adaptation. *Cell Metab.* 17, 162–184.
- Enright, S., Chatham, K., Ionescu, A.A., Unnithan, V.B., Shale, D.J., 2004. Inspiratory muscle training improves lung function and exercise capacity in adults with cystic fibrosis. *Chest* 126, 405–411.
- Erb-Downward, J.R., Thompson, D.L., Han, M.K., Freeman, C.M., McCloskey, L., Schmidt, L.A., Young, V.B., Toews, G.B., Curtis, J.L., Sundaram, B., Martinez, F.J., 2011. Analysis of the lung microbiome in the “healthy” smoker and in COPD. *PLoS One* 6 (2), e16384.
- Ferreira, J.B., Plentz, R.D.M., Stein, C., Casali, K.R., Arena, R., Dal Lago, P., 2013. Inspiratory muscle training reduces blood pressure and sympathetic activity in hypertensive patients: a randomized controlled trial. *Int. J. Cardiol.* 166 (1), 61–67.
- Gibala, M.J., Little, J.P., Van Essen, M., Wilkin, G.P., Burgomaster, K.A., Safdar, A., Tarnopolsky, M.A., 2006. Short-term sprint interval versus traditional endurance training: similar initial adaptations in human skeletal muscle and exercise performance. *J. Physiol.* 575, 901–911.
- Griffiths, L.A., McConnell, A.K., 2007. The influence of inspiratory and expiratory muscle training upon rowing performance. *Eur. J. Appl. Physiol.* 99, 457–466.
- Gupta, S.S., Sawane, M.V., 2012. A comparative study of the effects of yoga and swimming on pulmonary functions in sedentary subjects. *Int. J. Yoga* 5 (2), 128.
- Han, M.K., Zhou, Y., Murray, S., Tayob, N., Noth, I., Lama, V.N., Moore, B.B., White, E.S., Flaherty, K.R., Huffnagle, G.B., Martinez, F.J., 2014. Association between lung microbiome and disease progression in IPF: a prospective cohort study. *Lancet Respir. Med.* 2 (7), 548.
- Harris, J.K., De Groote, M.A., Sagel, S.D., Zemanick, E.T., Kapsner, R., Penvari, C., Kaess, H., Deterding, R.R., Accurso, F.J., Pace, N.R., 2007. Molecular identification of bacteria in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid from children with cystic fibrosis. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 104 (51), 20529–20533.
- Hilty, M., Burke, C., Pedro, H., Cardenas, P., Bush, A., Bossley, C., Davies, J., Ervine, A., Poulter, L., Pachter, L., Moffatt, M.F., 2010. Disordered microbial communities in asthmatic airways. *PLoS One* 5 (1), e8578.
- Huang, Y.J., Kim, E., Cox, M.J., Brodie, E.L., Brown, R., Wiener-Kronish, J.P., Lynch, S.V., 2010. A persistent and diverse airway microbiota present during chronic obstructive pulmonary disease exacerbations. *OMICS A J. Integr. Biol.* 14 (1), 9–59.
- Jun, H.J., Kim, K.J., Nam, K.W., Kim, C.H., 2016. Effects of breathing exercises on lung capacity and muscle activities of elderly smokers. *J. Phys. Ther. Sci.* 28, 1681–1685.
- Karsten, M., Ribeiro, G.S., Esquivel, M.S., Matte, D.L., 2018. The effects of inspiratory muscle training with linear workload pressure on the sports performance and cardiopulmonary function of athletes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Phys. Ther. Sport* 34, 92–104.
- Kilding, A.E., Brown, S., McConnell, A.K., 2010. Inspiratory muscle training improves 100 and 200 m swimming performance. *Eur. J. Appl. Physiol.* 108, 505–511.
- Kuperman, A.S., Riker, J.B., 1973. The variable effect of smoking on pulmonary function. *Chest* 63, 655–660.
- Lakhera, S.C., Mathew, L., Rastogi, S.K., Sen, J.G., 1984. Pulmonary function of Indian

- athletes and sportsmen: comparison with American athletes. *Indian J. Physiol. Pharmacol.* 28 (3), 187–194.
- Lee, P.N., Fry, J.S., 2010. Systematic review of the evidence relating FEV1 decline to giving up smoking. *BMC Med.* 8, 1–29.
- Magadle, R., McConnell, A.K., Beckerman, M., Weiner, P., 2007. Inspiratory muscle training in pulmonary rehabilitation program in COPD patients. *Respir. Med.* 101 (7), 1500–1505.
- McConnell, A., 2011. *Breathe Strong, Perform Better*. Human Kinetics, Champaign, IL, pp. 56–65.
- McConnell, A.K., Lomax, M., 2006. The influence of inspiratory muscle work history and specific inspiratory muscle training upon human limb muscle fatigue. *J. Physiol.* 577, 445–457.
- McConnell, A.K., Romer, L.M., 2004. Respiratory muscle training in healthy humans: resolving the controversy. *Int. J. Sports Med.* 25, 284–293.
- McConnell, A.K., Sharpe, G.R., 2005. The effect of inspiratory muscle training upon maximum lactate steady-state and blood lactate concentration. *Eur. J. Appl. Physiol.* 94, 277–284.
- Miller, M.R., Hankinson, J.A.T.S., Brusasco, V., Burgos, F., Casaburi, R., Coates, A., Crapo, R., Enright, P.V., Van Der Grinten, C.P.M., Gustafsson, P., Jensen, R., 2005. Standardisation of spirometry. *Eur. Respir. J.* 26 (2), 319–338.
- Özidal, M., 2016a. Acute effects of inspiratory muscle warm-up on pulmonary function in healthy subjects. *Respir. Physiol. Neurobiol.* 227, 23–26.
- Özidal, M., 2016b. Influence of an eight-week core strength training program on respiratory muscle fatigue following incremental exercise. *Isokinet. Exerc. Sci.* 24 (3), 225–230.
- Özidal, M., Bostanci, Ö., 2018. Influence of inspiratory muscle warm-up on aerobic performance during incremental exercise. *Isokinet. Exerc. Sci.* 26 (3), 167–173.
- Polkey, M.I., Green, M., Moxham, J., 1995. Measurement of respiratory muscle strength. *Thorax* 50 (11), 1131.
- Proske, U., Morgan, D.L., Gregory, J.E., 1993. Thixotropy in skeletal muscle and in muscle spindles: a review. *Prog. Neurobiol.* 41 (6), 705–721.
- Ranatunga, K.W., Sharpe, B., Turnbull, B., 1987. Contractions of a human skeletal muscle at different temperatures. *J. Physiol.* 390 (1), 383–395.
- Rodrigues, G.D., Gurgel, J.L., Gonçalves, T.R., Da Silva Soares, P.P., 2018. Inspiratory muscle training improves physical performance and cardiac autonomic modulation in older women. *Eur. J. Appl. Physiol.* 118, 1143–1152.
- Rogers, G.B., Carroll, M.P., Serisier, D.J., Hockey, P.M., Jones, G., Bruce, K.D., 2004. Characterization of bacterial community diversity in cystic fibrosis lung infections by use of 16S ribosomal DNA terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism profiling. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 42 (11), 5176–5183.
- Roh, H., Lee, D., Lee, S., Park, J., 2012. Respiratory muscle training of pulmonary function for smokers and non-smokers. *J. Phys. Ther. Sci.* 24, 691–693.
- Seo, K., Park, S.H., Park, K., 2015. Effects of diaphragm respiration exercise on pulmonary function of male smokers in their twenties. *J. Phys. Ther. Sci.* 27, 2313–2315.
- Silva, I.S., Fregonezi, G.A., Dias, F.A., Ribeiro, C.T., Guerra, R.O., Ferreira, G.M., 2013. Inspiratory muscle training for asthma. *Cochrane Database Syst. Rev.* 9, 1–35.
- Tantisuwat, A., Thaveeratitham, P., 2014. Effects of smoking on chest expansion, lung function, and respiratory muscle strength of youths. *J. Phys. Ther. Sci.* 26, 167–170.
- Tenório, L.H.S., Santos, A.C., Câmara Neto, J.B., Amaral, F.J., Passos, V.M.M., Lima, A.M.J., Brasileiro-Santos, M.D.S., 2013. The influence of inspiratory muscle training on diaphragmatic mobility, pulmonary function and maximum respiratory pressures in morbidly obese individuals: a pilot study. *Disabil. Rehabil.* 35, 1915–1920.
- Volianitis, S., McConnell, A.K., Koutedakis, Y., McNaughton, L., Bacx, K., Jones, D.A., 2001. Inspiratory muscle training improves rowing performance. *Med. Sci. Sports Exerc.* 33, 803–809.
- Weiner, P., Magadle, R., Beckerman, M., Weiner, M., Berar-Yanay, N., 2003. Comparison of specific expiratory, inspiratory, and combined muscle training programs in COPD. *Chest* 124 (4), 1357–1364.
- Weiner, P., Magadle, R., Beckerman, M., Weiner, M., Berar-Yanay, N., 2004. Maintenance of inspiratory muscle training in COPD patients: one year follow-up. *Eur. Respir. J.* 23 (1), 61–65.
- World Medical Association, 2013. World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki: ethical principles for medical research involving human subjects. *Jama* 310 (20), 2191.
- Wright, V., Johns, R.J., 1961. Quantitative and qualitative analysis of joint stiffness in normal subjects and in patients with connective tissue diseases. *Ann. Rheum. Dis.* 20 (1), 36.
- Wuyam, B., 2009. Respiratory muscle training in athletes with spinal cord injury. *Int. J. Sports Med.* 30, 1–7.
- Yilmaz, Ö.F., Özidal, M., 2019. Acute, chronic, and combined pulmonary responses to swimming in competitive swimmers. *Respir. Physiol. Neurobiol.* 259, 129–135.