Undersea Biomedical Research, Vol. 18, No. 2, 1991

Decrease in the single-breath diffusing capacity after saturation dives

S. SUZUKI, T. IKEDA, and A. HASHIMOTO

Japan Maritime Self-Defense Force Undersea Medical Center, 2-7-1 Nagase, Yokosuka, Japan 239

Suzuki S, Ikeda T, Hashimoto A. Decrease in the single-breath diffusing capacity after saturation dives. Undersea Biomed Res 1991; 18(2):103–109—Before and after saturation dives, we measured lung volumes and diffusing capacity (DLCo/VA) with a single-breath method on 12 divers (6 divers per dive) who participated in 300-msw saturation dives (total dive time of 15 days with $PO_2=0.42$ atm abs) and on 6 divers who were engaged in a 320-msw saturation dive (6 days of bottom time with $PO_2=0.42$ atm abs and 12 days of total decompression time with $PO_2=0.495$ atm abs. In all divers, vital capacity right after surfacing did not significantly decrease compared with predive values. In the 300-msw saturation divers after surfacing, DLCo/VA adjusted for hemoglobin (Hb) changes did not significantly decrease, but in the 320-msw saturation divers Hb-adjusted DLCo/VA was significantly (P<0.001) decreased by 0.70 (mean) \pm 0.21 (SD) (ml·min⁻¹·mmHg⁻¹·liter⁻¹). These observations indicate that the diffusing capacity is a more sensitive index of pulmonary oxygen toxicity than vital capacity that is traditionally used, and that oxygen partial pressure less than 0.5 atm abs can induce a decrease in pulmonary function.

oxygen toxicity prolonged oxygen breathing pulmonary function saturation dive

It is well known that exposure to hyperoxia produces progressive lung injury (1, 2). With regard to the short-term toxic effects of oxygen, many papers (3–6) have reported reduction of vital capacity as an index of pulmonary oxygen toxicity. In those studies, humans exposed to oxygen partial pressure (Po_2) of under 0.5 atmospheres absolute (atm abs) have been considered at no risk for pulmonary oxygen toxicity. To investigate the long-term effect of oxygen toxicity on the lung after saturation dives $(Po_2 < 0.5$ atm abs), we measured both lung volumes and diffusing capacity.

METHODS

The subjects for saturation dives were 18 healthy, male, active-duty uniformed divers. Twelve divers (6 divers per dive) did saturation dives to 300 meters of sea water (msw) and 6 divers did a 320-msw saturation dive. Physical characteristics of

the subjects are given in Table 1. These dives were conducted in the deep diving simulator (DDS) at the Japan Maritime Self-Defense Force (JMSDF) Undersea Medical Center (one 300- and one 320-msw saturation dive) and in the deep diving system on board JDS *Chiyoda* (AS 405) (one 300-msw saturation dive).

All divers engaged in both simulated and open-water saturation dives underwent pulmonary function tests as a part of health check procedures so that data taken from all divers were compiled for analysis.

In all cases, divers were decompressed according to the Royal Navy saturation decompression schedule for the 300-msw saturation dives (7) and the modified Royal Navy saturation decompression schedule for the 320-msw saturation dive (8). In the 300-msw saturation dives (Fig. 1), total time of dive was 14 days and 17 h, and PO_2 was maintained at 0.42 atm abs throughout the dives. Oxygen partial pressure was made up before each stage of decompression. In the 320-msw saturation dive (Fig. 2), total time of dive was 16 days and 17 h, and PO_2 was kept at 0.42 atm abs for 5 days and 5 h of the bottom stay and 0.495 atm abs for 11 days and 12 h of the decompression period. Oxygen was added after decompression of each stage to make up $PO_2 = 0.495$, so that PO_2 was kept below 0.5 atm abs throughout the decompression phase. The reason for increasing PO_2 to 0.495 atm abs during decompression was to reduce the risk of decompression sickness (DCS) (9).

Lung volumes including residual volume (RV), functional residual capacity (FRC), total lung capacity (TLC), and vital capacity (VC) and pulmonary diffusing capacity for carbon monoxide (DLco/VA) were measured with an automated system (CHES-

TABLE 1
PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS^a

	Height, cm	Weight, kg	Age, yrs
300 msw, n = 12	170.2 ± 3.5	68.8 ± 6.7	32.9±7.3
320 msw, $n = 6$	170.5 ± 5.1	66.8 ± 6.9	27.5 ± 5.0

aValues are mean ± SD.

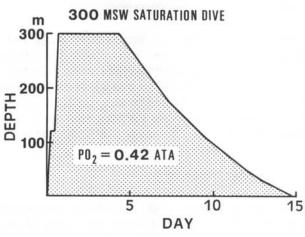


Fig. 1. The profile for 300-msw saturation dives.

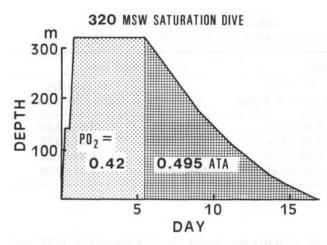


Fig. 2. The profile for 320-msw saturation dive.

TAC-25V model; Chest Ltd., Tokyo, Japan), which allowed the investigator to encourage the subject while monitoring the result. DLco measurement was carried out by single-breath technique. Alveolar volume (VA) was calculated by adding the inspiratory volume to the RV that was measured just before the measurement of the inspiratory volume (10). All measurements were performed by the same investigator at least 3 times for each subject at each measurement in the sitting position. DLco measurement was repeated until three values were obtained whose intervariation was within 5%, and the median value was used for analysis. The largest VC from three measurements was taken for comparison. The unit of lung volumes was converted into body temperature, ambient pressure, saturated with water vapor, BTPS.

For the 300-msw saturation dives, measurements were carried out at pre- and postdive (0 day after surfacing) conditions, and for the 320-msw saturation dive were at pre- and postdive (0, 4, 13, and 48 days after surfacing). In the latter case, there was no measurement between 13 and 48 days after surfacing because the divers were not available during that period.

At pre- and postdive conditions, hemoglobin (Hb) concentration was measured from venous blood using an E-3000 (Toa Medical Electronics, Tokyo, Japan). Taking account of changes in Hb after the saturation dives, the measured DLCO was adjusted to standard values of Hb = 14.6 g/dl as described below (10):

Hb adjusted DLco = measured DLco
$$\times$$
 {(10.22 + Hb)/(1.7 \times Hb)}

In this study, M-mode ultrasonic detection of microbubbles in the right heart was performed right after surfacing to investigate the effects of decompression-induced bubbles on lung function. In the 320-msw saturation dive, ultrasonic examination was conducted in the DDS during the decompression period as well. These methods have been described in detail elsewhere by Ikeda et al. (11–13).

Paired Student's t tests were employed for statistical analysis.

RESULTS

Vital capacity right after surfacing did not significantly decrease in all divers in comparison with predive values (Table 2). No significant change occurred in other lung volumes (RV, FRC, and TLC) (Table 2).

	300 msw		320 msw	
	Predive	Postdive Right After Surfacing	Predive	Postdive Right After Surfacing
VC[1]	5.14±0.46	5.10 ± 0.48	5.05 ± 0.88	5.03 ± 0.81
FRC[1]	3.37 ± 0.52	3.19 ± 0.64	3.28 ± 0.60	3.14 ± 0.75
TLC[1]	6.67 ± 0.65	6.59 ± 0.74	6.48 ± 1.07	6.49 ± 1.24
RV[1]	1.57 ± 0.28	1.45 ± 0.41	1.46 ± 0.32	1.44 ± 0.40

^aValues are mean ± SD.

DLco/VA was significantly (P < 0.01) decreased by 0.25 (mean) \pm 0.27 (SD) (ml·min⁻¹·mmHg⁻¹·liter⁻¹) (4.3%) in the 300-msw saturation divers, and the further decrease by 0.89 \pm 0.23 (P < 0.001) (15%) was observed in the 320-msw saturation divers immediately after surfacing (Table 3).

Hemoglobin was significantly decreased after all saturation dives (Table 3). Hb adjusted DLco/VA did not significantly decrease in the 300-msw saturation divers, but still showed a significant decrease in the 320-msw saturation divers by 0.70 \pm 0.21 (P < 0.001) (13%) (Table 3 and Fig. 3). In the 320-msw saturation divers, the decreased DLco/VA was still observed even 13 days after surfacing; the decrease was insignificant 48 days later (Fig. 4).

In the bubble detection we observed few microbubbles except in 1 diver who participated in 1 of the 300-msw saturation dives (12). There were no remarkable microbubbles during decompression and after the 320-msw saturation dive (8).

TABLE 3
PRE- AND POSTDIVE DIFFUSING CAPACITY^a

	300 msw		320 msw	
	Predive	Postdive	Predive	Postdive
DLco,				
ml • min-1 • mmHg-1	28.0 ± 2.70	26.1 ± 2.31^{b}	30.3 ± 4.12	$25.4 \pm 3.56^{\circ}$
VA,				
liter	5.18 ± 0.59	5.07 ± 0.65	5.21 ± 0.85	5.17 ± 0.93
DLco/VA,				
ml · min-1 · mmHg-1 · liter-1	5.46 ± 0.74	5.21 ± 0.68^{b}	5.88 ± 0.85	$5.00 \pm 0.83^{\circ}$
Hb,				
g - dl-1	16.1 ± 1.15	15.4 ± 1.39^{b}	17.2 ± 0.93	16.0 ± 0.79^d
DLco, adj,				
ml · min-1 · mmHg-1	27.0 ± 2.82	25.6 ± 2.54^d	28.4 ± 3.81	$24.5 \pm 3.39^{\circ}$
DLco/VA, adj,				
ml · min-1 · mmHg-1 · liter-1	5.26 ± 0.68	5.11 ± 0.66	5.51 ± 0.73	$4.82 \pm 0.80^{\circ}$

^aValues are mean \pm sp; ^bP < 0.01; ^cP < 0.001; ^dP < 0.05 from comparable predive value; -adj = values adjusted to standard levels of Hb.

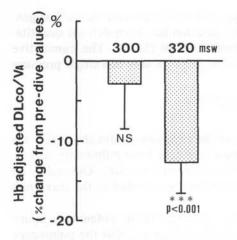


Fig. 3. Change of Hb-adjusted DLco/VA right after surfacing. Values are means \pm SD.

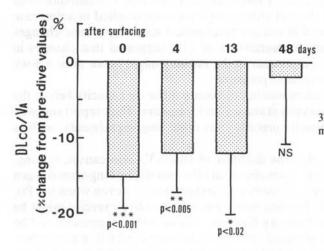


Fig. 4. Change of DLco/VA in the 320-msw postdiving periods. Values are means ± SD.

Right after surfacing there were no complaints of cough, chest tightness, chest pain, and dyspnea at rest. Some divers in this study however complained of slight dyspnea after mild postdive exercise.

DISCUSSION

Our results indicated that Po₂ less than 0.5 atm abs could induce a decrease in pulmonary function (DLco/VA) during prolonged oxygen exposure even when the decrease in Hb, which is often seen in hyperoxic exposure, was taken into account. What is the reason for this decrease?

The absence of DCS and scarcity of detected microbubbles in our cases suggest little relationship between the decompression-induced microbubbles or DCS and the decrease of DLco/VA. Consequently, it is unlikely that the reduced DLco was caused by microbubble insult in the lung.

It is widely accepted that exposure to hyperoxia produces progressive lung injury (1, 2). This injury becomes progressively more severe as the inhaled Po₂ and exposure

duration increase (3). To aid continuous tracking of the toxic consequences of oxygen, exposure to different combinations of PO₂ and duration has been defined quantitatively in terms of a unit pulmonary toxic dose (UPTD) (5, 14). The cumulative pulmonary toxic dose (CPTD) for a continuous oxygen exposure at a single pressure in UPTDs is expressed as

CPTD =
$$t \cdot \sqrt[-1.2]{0.5/(P-0.5)}$$

where t = exposure time in minutes, $P = \text{Po}_2$ of the exposure in atm abs, and 0.5 is an approximate pressure asymptote for development of detectable pulmonary effects. In this equation, Po_2 under 0.5 atm abs is not taken into account. Generally, an inspired O_2 tension of 0.5–0.6 atm abs for infinite time is accepted as the maximum limit for humans (3, 15, 16).

Hayatdavoudi et al. (17) reported, however, that significant pulmonary injury occurred in rats exposed to 60% O₂ at 1 atm abs for 7 days and that the pulmonary site of injury was the pulmonary capillary endothelium. Holm et al. (18) demonstrated that exposure to 60% O₂ for 21 days at atmospheric pressure resulted in a decrease in arterial Po₂ and induced several important biochemical and morphologic changes in alveolar type II pneumocytes. Kutsuzawa et al. (19) suggested that changes in water distribution and protein components in the rat lung might occur after a 6-wk exposure to 50% O₂ under atmospheric pressure.

Caldwell et al. (20) observed decreases in pulmonary diffusing capacity before the fall in VC in men breathing 98% oxygen at atmospheric pressure. Their report suggests that the decrease in diffusing capacity precedes any other lung impairments, such as decreased VC.

Therefore, we conclude first, that the decrease of DLco/VA was caused by long-term exposure to oxygen close to 0.5 atm abs or, in other words, by long-term oxygen toxicity. We must consider the risk of pulmonary oxygen toxicity even when the Po₂ is below 0.5 atm abs. The slight dyspnea following mild postdive exercise might be due in part to this decrease of pulmonary function, although this symptom could be partly attributable to the lack of physical activity while being confined in a chamber. Second, the diffusing capacity is a more sensitive index of pulmonary oxygen toxicity than the VC that is traditionally used. DLco test is preferable in postdive tracking or regular routine health examination of saturation divers.

Manuscript received March 1990; accepted January 1991.

REFERENCES

- Clark JM, Lambertsen CJ. Pulmonary oxygen toxicity: a review. Pharmacol Rev 1971; 23:37-133.
- Small A. New perspectives on hyperoxic pulmonary toxicity—a review. Undersea Biomed Res, 1984; 11:1–24.
- Clark JM, Lambertsen CJ. Pulmonary oxygen tolerance in man and derivation of pulmonary oxygen tolerance curves. Philadelphia: Institute of Environmental Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, 1970.
- Lambertsen CJ. Basic requirements for improving diving depth and decompression tolerance. In: Lambertsen CJ, ed. Underwater physiology. Proceedings of the third symposium on underwater physiology. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins, 1967:223-240.

109

 Wright WB. Use of the University of Pennsylvania, Institute for Environmental Medicine procedure for calculation of cumulative pulmonary oxygen toxicity. Washington, DC: Navy Experimental Diving Unit, 1972 (Naval Exp. Diving Unit rep. 2-72).

 Harabin AL, Homer LD, Weathsby PK, Flynn ET. An analysis of decrements in vital capacity as an index of pulmonary oxygen toxicity. J Appl Physiol 1987; 63:1130–1135.

 Hennessy TR. Decompression aspects. In: Hempleman HV, ed. Human physiological studies at 43 bar. Rep AMTE (E) R80-402. Alverstoke, England: Admiralty Marine Technology Establishment, 1981:217-240.

8. Ikeda T, Ozawa K, Suzuki S, et al. The first case of 320m saturation diving (350m excursion) in Japan; part 1: diving profile. National Defense Med J 1990; 37:251-262 (in Japanese).

- Vorosmarti J, Hanson R de G, Barnard EEP. Further studies in decompression from steady state exposure to 250 meters. In: Shilling CW, Beckett MW, eds. Underwater physiology VI. Proceedings of the Sixth Symposium on underwater physiology. Bethesda, MD: Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology, 1978; 432–442.
- Cotes JE. Allowance for the effect on the transfer factor of variation in haemoglobin concentration and in capillary oxygen tension. In: Lung function, 4th ed. London: Blackwell Scientific Publications, 1979:245-246.
- Ikeda T, Suzuki T, Oiwa H, et al. M-mode ultrasonic detection of microbubbles in blood. Igaku Ayumi 1985; 134:1185–1186 (in Japanese).
- Ikeda T, Suzuki S, Shimizu K, Okamoto Y, Llewellyn ME. M-mode ultrasonic detection of microbubbles following saturation diving: a case report and proposal for a new grading system. Aviat Space Environ Med 1989; 60:166–169.
- 13. Ikeda T, Suzuki S, Okamoto Y, Shimizu K, Nitahara K, Hashimoto A. Application of M-mode ultrasonic method to the use in a dive simulation chamber to detect intraventricular microbubbles. In: XIVth Annual meeting of the European Undersea Biomedical Society on diving and hyperbaric medicine. Aberdeen, Scotland: European Undersea Biomedical Society, 1988.
- Bardin H, Lambertsen CJ. A quantitative method for calculating pulmonary oxygen toxicity.
 Use of the unit pulmonary toxicity dose (UPTD). Philadelphia, PA: Institute for Environmental Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, 1970.
- Cheney FW, Huang TW, Gronka R. The effects of 50% oxygen on resolution of pulmonary injury. Am Rev Respir Dis 1980; 122:373-379.
- Hackney D, Evans MJ, Christie BR. Effects of 60% and 80% oxygen on cell division in lung alveoli of squirrel monkeys. Aviat Space Environ Med 1975; 46:791–794.
- Hayatdavoudi G, O'Neil JJ, Barry BE, Freeman BA, Crapo JD. Pulmonary injury in rats following continuous exposure to 60% O₂ for 7 days. J Appl Physiol 1981; 51:1220-1231.
- Holm BA, Notter RH, Leary JF, Matalon S. Alveolar epithelial changes in rabbits after a 21day exposure to 60% O₂. J Appl Physiol 1987; 62:2230-2236.
- Kutsuzawa T, Ono Y, Yagaki T, et al. Pathophysiological examination in rat lung exposed 50% O₂. Jpn J Thorac Dis 1989; 27 (suppl):199 (in Japanese).
- 20. Caldwell PRB, Lee WL Jr, Schildkraut HS, Archibald ER. Changes in lung volume, diffusing capacity, and blood gases in men breathing oxygen. J Appl Physiol 1966; 21:1477–1483.