

circumstances of a critically ill patient seeking advice concerning a life saving procedure and those in which a person is contemplating taking up a new recreational activity. A court is more likely to sympathize with a position of a medical adviser seeking to assist a critically ill patient, where time is of the essence, than with a doctor consulted by a prospective diver.

It is largely for these reasons that we have formed the view that a doctor performing an assessment of fitness to dive ought to inform the candidate about PFO, the implications the latent condition has for divers and the technique available for its diagnosis and the risks associated with it. In so advising the patient the hyperbaric doctor greatly in-

creases the probability that the obligation imposed upon him by the law will be discharged.

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THE PATHOLOGY OF AIR EMBOLISM OF THE BRAIN IN DIVERS

Des Gorman and Stephen Helps

Introduction

The conventional pathophysiological model of air embolism of the brain circulation does not fit either animal or human data well. A revised model is proposed, based on bubbles precipitating deleterious effects in blood vessels and in blood constituents.

Aetiology

Bubbles can enter the brain arteries of divers either after pulmonary barotrauma or in decompression sickness (DCS).¹⁻⁶

Pulmonary barotrauma is largely seen in novice and trainee divers⁷ and occurs in 1:2,500 free/buoyant-ascent performed by submariners in training.^{8,9} The latter occurs despite these candidates having a normal chest X-ray and a spirometric ratio of FEV₁ to FVC of greater than 75%.

The lung vessels act as a filter for venous bubbles in DCS,^{10,11} but bubbles can overload this mechanism and can also by-pass it via shunts such as a patent foramen ovale.⁴ Arterial gas embolism (AGE) may underlie much of the brain damage in DCS.¹

The incidence of AGE of the brain in Australasian divers and trainees is unknown.

Bubble distribution

Bubbles distribute in large vessels in accordance with blood flow and their buoyancy relative to blood, and in small vessels with flow alone.¹²⁻¹⁵ In divers this distribution and the invariable upright posture on ascent explains the preponderance of brain involvement.^{8,9} Bubbles entering one carotid system tend to distribute ipsilaterally and the middle cerebral artery is primarily affected.^{8,9,16}

These bubbles usually do not become trapped and pass through the arteries, arterioles and capillaries to the veins;^{13,14,17} to be collected in jugular vein air traps introduced into experimental animals.^{15,17-20} This passage of bubbles is promoted by the relatively large calibre of the venous end of capillaries, the hypertension and vasodilatation that follow embolism of the brain-stem vasomotor centres and the local vasodilatory response to bubbles.^{16,17}

Indeed, bubbles will only become trapped when they are large enough to occupy several generations of branching arterioles such that net surface tension pressure exceeds cerebral perfusion pressure.^{13,14,17} The vessels at the junction of the grey and white matter may be predisposed to such trapping.²¹

Effects of bubble trapping

Very large bubbles or bubbles in a hypotensive diver may be trapped to block flow in a region of the brain; the degree of ischaemia and the development of an infarct is dependent upon the adequacy of the collateral circulation.^{2,18,19,21-24} Most of these larger bubbles will however only be trapped temporarily and will eventually be dis-

placed by blood that advances progressively with cardiac systole.^{13,14,16,17} Such interruptions of flow are poorly tolerated and even after flow is restored brain function may remain suppressed.²⁵ Also, if redistribution of bubbles does not occur within 20 minutes of embolism, vessels may collapse so that subsequent reperfusion will require extremely high pressures.¹⁷

Effects of bubble transit

Fortunately most bubbles pass through the brain circulation and do not become trapped.^{13,14,15,17,20} During bubble passage local brain function is lost, but returns as bubbles clear.²⁶⁻³⁰ These mobile bubbles damage endothelial cells,³¹⁻³³ perhaps by stripping them of surfactants, cause a persistent vasodilatation,^{16,25} which may itself be a result of the endothelial damage, but is not indicative of vasoparalysis,¹³ and activate platelets and leucocytes both to aggregate and adhere to vessel walls.^{26-29,34-37}

The accumulation of leucocytes is rheologically important³⁴ and making animals leucocytopenic, but with normal red blood cell and platelets, prevents the typical decline in cerebral blood flow seen after AGE of the brain.³⁸ This endothelial damage will also potentiate leucocyte adherence and probably underlies the immediate but temporary (several hours) increase in extravasation of fluid across the blood-brain-barrier into the brain interstitium.^{23,32,39-42}

The flow of this increasingly viscous blood⁴³ through these damaged vessels consequently decreases even though bubbles may no longer be present,^{16,25} and may eventually become inadequate for neuronal function.^{26,29,35,44} This can explain the typical history of AGE in divers; sudden loss of brain function, early recovery and perhaps a deterioration or relapse within several hours.³⁰ A sudden relapse, particularly if it involves an originally affected area of brain, may also be due to re-embolism.⁹

AGE and DCS

The pathological consequences of AGE will also depend upon whether the diver has DCS or significantly increased tissue inert gas tensions.⁴⁵ DCS may even be precipitated by AGE (Type III DCS).⁴⁵ The outcome after AGE of the brain consequently worsens with increasing dive duration/depth.⁴⁶

Summary

Arterial gas embolism of the brain is not a simple mechanical occlusive event. Much of the brain dysfunction/damage is due to the effects that bubbles have on blood vessels and on the blood itself.

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Key Words

Air embolism, gas embolism, arterial gas embolism, cerebral arterial gas embolism

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THE BS-AC '88 DECOMPRESSION TABLES

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The British Sub-Aqua Club 1988 (BS-AC '88) Decompression Tables were introduced, after numerous delays, into general usage in the latter months of 1988. I was first introduced to them by a patient I was treating for an episode of neurological decompression sickness (DCS). Before I create the wrong impression, I should state that the patient was not using the new tables, but had completed his dive in accordance with the older RNPL/BS-AC tables of 1972.

The dive in question was to 26 m for 31 minutes with appropriate decompression conducted for 5 minutes at both 10 m and 5 m depths. As I monitored this patient's extended RN table 62 treatment, I had a chance to read through the new tables. I was surprised to find that using the new tables, while the definitions were slightly different, a more lenient dive of 27 m for a bottom time of 32 minutes could have been performed and would require only a 1 minute decompression stop at a depth of 6 m. I examined them further and noted that, for the same 10 minutes of decompression, the allowable bottom time would have been 43 minutes. I was fascinated.

Call me old fashioned, call me conservative, but this notable reduction in decompression requirement or, conversely, increase in available diving time, seemed just too good to be true so I went looking for the magic formula upon which these changes were based. I found myself, within a

very short time, embroiled in controversy with the BS-AC. I had the pleasure of several lengthy discussions with the author of the tables, Dr Tom Hennessey, but I find myself still in search of the magic formula and remain as firmly against their general use now as I have been since the first day I read them. I have been asked here to comment on the format, design, algorithms and testing of these tables.

The BS-AC gives four basic reasons for introducing new tables in their BS-AC '88 Decompression Tables Instructor's notes. Since the introduction of the RNPL/BS-AC tables, "the pattern of diving has changed, the possibilities available to sports divers have developed, much experience has been gained in the use of the tables and understanding of decompression has improved". To quote *DIVER*, the magazine of the British Sub-Aqua Club, August 1988, "it has become increasingly clear that the RNPL/BS-AC table is insufficiently flexible for the patterns of diving required by divers today".

It is my personal opinion that, despite other objectives, the single most important factor in the introduction of a new set of tables is that they must not increase the risk of DCS and other accidents in the general diving population. The introduction of a new set of diving tables is no easy task and for acceptance in the commercial diving world one of two conditions must apply. The tables must be more conservative than previous versions or must have undergone extensive testing and evaluation prior to their use. While it is laudable that the BS-AC would desire to give its members greater flexibility in their diving, it must also accept the responsibility that any new tables it introduces should be safe and well tested.

Testing and evaluation of the BS-AC '88 tables

To my knowledge, the BS-AC '88 tables have never been tested in any type of controlled situation. Dr. Hennessey maintains that the BS-AC '88 tables are more conservative and provide a "greater margin of safety than the classic military-based tables". This is despite significant reductions of in-water decompression requirements and with an emphasis placed on decompression stop and repetitive diving. When asked about the lack of testing, Dr. Hennessey has argued that actual in-water testing would be impossible to do across the range of the tables. He says that limited testing might be conducted, but would not be statistically valid, and relies on unproven theoretical considerations to claim that the tables are more conservative than their predecessors and do not, therefore, require testing.

Comparisons of BS-AC '88 and established tables

Admittedly, it is difficult to do straight across comparisons of diving tables. The wide variation of designs makes exact comparisons impossible but I believe that