

2 **Endurance exercise immediately before sea diving reduces bubble**
3 **formation in scuba divers**

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8 **Abstract** Previous studies have observed that a single
9 bout of exercise can reduce the formation of circulating
10 bubbles on decompression but, according to different
11 authors, several hours delay were considered necessary
12 between the end of exercise and the beginning of the dive.
13 The objective of this study was to evaluate the effect of a
14 single bout of exercise taken immediately before a dive on
15 bubble formation. 24 trained divers performed open-sea
16 dives to 30 msw depth for 30 min followed by a 3 min stop
17 at 3 msw, under two conditions: (1) a control dive without
18 exercise before (No-Ex), (2) an experimental condition in
19 which subjects performed an exercise before diving (Ex).
20 In the Ex condition, divers began running on a treadmill for
21 45 min at a speed corresponding to their own ventilatory
22 threshold 1 h before immersion. Body weight, total body
23 fluid volume, core temperature, and volume of consumed
24 water were measured. Circulating bubbles were graded
25 according to the Spencer scale using a precordial Doppler
26 every 30 min for 90 min after surfacing. A single sub-
27 maximal exercise performed immediately before immer-
28 sion significantly reduces bubble grades ($p < 0.001$). This
29 reduction was correlated not only to sweat dehydration, but
30 also to the volume of water drunk at the end of the exercise.

Moderate dehydration seems to be beneficial at the start of 31
the dive whereas restoring the hydration balance should be 32
given priority during decompression. This suggests a 33
biphasic effect of the hydration status on bubble formation. 34
35

Keywords Diving · Decompression sickness · Bubble · 36
Exercise · Heat · Hydration 37

Introduction 38

Decompression sickness (DCS) after sea diving is an effect 39
of the formation of intra- and/or extravascular nitrogen gas 40
bubbles when returning to surface pressure. Nitrogen 41
bubbles cause a variety of symptoms ranging from mild 42
skin rash to serious neurological symptoms (Francis and 43
Gorman 1993). Assessment of venous gas emboli through 44
Doppler ultrasonic monitoring is considered a valid indi- 45
cator of decompression stress (Nishi and Kisman 1981). 46
Indeed, it is generally accepted that the incidence of DCS is 47
low when few or no bubbles are present in the circulation 48
(Nishi and Kisman 1981). Preconditioning divers to reduce 49
post-dive acute adverse effects has gained increased 50
interest in diving medical research over the last few years. 51
Known beneficial effects of exercise a few hours before 52
diving (Blatteau and Boussuges 2007; Dujic and Valic 53
2008), oxygen breathing (Landolfi and Yang 2006), pre- 54
dive hyperbaric sessions (Katsenelson and Arieli 2007), 55
heat preconditioning (Blatteau and Gempp 2008), hydra- 56
tion (Gempp and Blatteau 2009), and some other approa- 57
ches such as the administration of certain drugs, have 58
further prompted this branch of research. 59

Intense physical exercise before diving has long been 60
considered an additional risk factor for DCS (Vann and 61
Thalman 1993). It is suggested that muscle contraction 62

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63 and tissue movement produce gas nuclei, which lead to
64 bubble formation and a corresponding increase in the risk
65 of DCS (Harvey and Whiteley 1944). Recently, several
66 studies have indicated that this notion needs rethinking.

67 Several recent studies give indication that it is beneficial
68 to perform physical exercise before diving. However, there
69 are very few human studies available. Dujic and Duplancic
70 (2004) have reported recently that strenuous aerobic exercise
71 24 h before a simulated dive reduces venous bubble forma-
72 tion. In other human studies, it has been shown that a single
73 bout of sub-maximal exercise followed 2 h later by simu-
74 lated diving in a hyperbaric chamber (Blatteau and Gempp
75 2005; Blatteau and Boussuges 2007) or in open-sea water
76 (Pontier and Blatteau 2007) significantly reduces the number
77 of venous gas bubbles found in the right side of the heart. A
78 recent study confirmed the beneficial effect of exercise taken
79 2 h but not 24 h before diving (Jurd and Tacker 2009).

80 At present, some theoretical explanations have been
81 proposed to explain the beneficial effect of pre-dive exer-
82 cise. The first is the reduction, before immersion, of the
83 number of preexisting micronuclei from which gas bubbles
84 grow (Blatteau and Souraud 2006). This reduction could be
85 induced by endothelial nitric oxide (NO) production, an
86 important vasodilator (Wisloff and Richardson 2004). In a
87 recent study conducted within this framework (Dujic et al.
88 2006), 16 divers received 0.4 mg of nitroglycerine by oral
89 spray 30 min before both a seawater dive and a simulated
90 dive in a hyperbaric chamber. This study demonstrated that
91 the intake of a short-lasting NO donor (i.e., nitroglycerine)
92 reduced bubble formation following decompression after
93 different dives. On the other hand, the sweat produced
94 during physical exercise led to hypovolemia, thus causing a
95 reduction in tissue perfusion during the subsequent dive,
96 and therefore a reduction in the quantity of dissolved
97 nitrogen (Blatteau and Boussuges 2007).

98 The main objective of this study is to assess if a single
99 bout of aerobic exercise performed immediately before a
100 dive can reduce venous gas emboli. This study is especially
101 applicable as, in the daily activity of professional or military
102 divers, there is no delay between exercise and diving, and as
103 this combination has unfortunately not been the subject of
104 prior investigation. We hypothesize that heat production,
105 extracellular dehydration, and loss of body weight due to
106 exercise affect bubble formation in a subsequent dive.

107 Methods

108 Subjects

109 The study population consisted of 24 healthy and physi-
110 cally active males with diving experience (300–3,000
111 dives). All characteristics of the population are presented in

Table 1. None of them had experienced DCS in the past. 112
The study was approved by the University's Institutional 113
Review Board, and a written, informed consent was 114
obtained before experimentation began. 115

Subject capacity determination 116

Subjects served as their own control. Exercise capacities 117
were determined on a treadmill (HP Cosmos, Nussdorf- 118
Traunstein, Germany) in a separate preliminary session. An 119
incremental running protocol was performed in order to 120
characterize maximal oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_{2\max}$) and assess 121
the running speed corresponding to the ventilatory thresh- 122
old (S_{VeT}). After an 8 min warm-up run at 8 km h⁻¹, the 123
speed was increased by 0.5 km h⁻¹ every minute until 124
volitional exhaustion. Gas and respiratory parameters were 125
calculated breath-by-breath throughout the test by the 126
software provided with the equipment (Cosmed K4b2[®]; 127
Roma, Italy), which has been previously validated by Mc 128
Laughlin (McLaughlin and King 2001). The ventilatory 129
threshold (VeT) was calculated according to the method 130
proposed by Wasserman and Whipp (1973). VeT is the 131
point at which pulmonary ventilation and carbon dioxide 132
output begin to increase exponentially during an incre- 133
mental exercise test, and corresponds (but is not identical) 134
with the development of muscle and blood acidosis. The 135
following criteria were used to define the running speed at 136
 $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$: a respiratory exchange ratio (RER) >1.1, an 137
increase in running speed without an O₂ increase, a [La_{bi}] 138
>7 mmol l⁻¹, and attainment of the theoretical HR max 139
value (220 – age) (Astrand and Rodahl 1986). 140

Protocol development 141

At least 2 days after attending the incremental test, open- 142
sea dives were performed under two experimental condi- 143
tions (Fig. 1) in a counterbalanced order: (1) a control 144

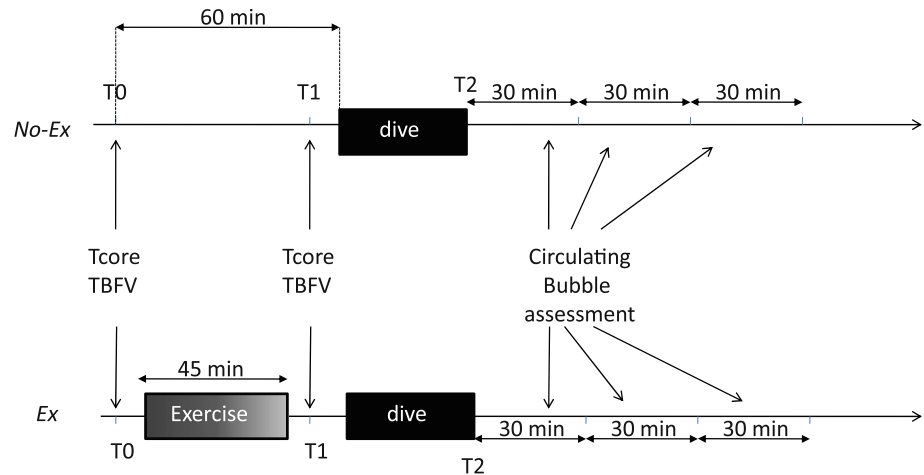
Table 1 Main characteristics of the population

	<i>n</i> = 24
Age (years)	32.4 ± 8.1
Body mass (kg)	62.4 ± 9.57
Height (cm)	169.7 ± 8.4
BMI	21.6 ± 1.6
Body fat (%)	18.1 ± 4.23
$\dot{V}O_{2\max}$ (ml min ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹)	48.1 ± 5.16
Speed at $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$ (km h ⁻¹)	14.2 ± 1.6
Speed at VeT (km h ⁻¹)	11.3 ± 1.6

Values are presented as mean ± SD

BMI, body mass index; $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$ maximal oxygen uptake; Speed at VeT, treadmill speed corresponding to the ventilatory threshold

Fig. 1 Experimental protocol in both conditions: *No-Ex* no exercise before dive; *Ex* exercise before dive; *T_{core}*, core temperature; *TBFV*, total body fluid volume. *T₀* = 60 min before the dive, *T₁* = immediately before the dive, *T₂* = immediately after the dive



145 condition without exercise before dives (No-Ex), (2) an
 146 experimental condition in which subjects performed an
 147 exercise before diving (Ex). Both experimental conditions
 148 were separated by a minimum of 48 h. All subjects were
 149 tested at the same time of day to minimize the effects of
 150 circadian rhythm. The subjects were asked to arrive at the
 151 diving center 1 h before immersion, having refrained from
 152 eating for at least 3 h before arrival. Under the No-Ex
 153 condition, during the hour before immersion, divers rested
 154 in an air-conditioned area (mean temperature = 21°C).
 155 Under the Ex condition divers ran for 45 min on a treadmill
 156 at a speed corresponding to their own *VeT* value (i.e.,
 157 *SVeT*) in the same air-conditioned area, starting 1 h before
 158 immersion. A delay of 15 min was ensured between the end
 159 of exercise and immersion. Under the Ex condition, subjects
 160 were allowed to drink mineral still water freely during the
 161 15 min between the end of exercise and the immersion. The
 162 volume of water drunk was noted. Under both conditions,
 163 after surfacing, the divers were not allowed to drink until
 164 the end of bubble assessment (during 90 min.).

165 Body composition, hydration, and temperature
 166 measurements

167 Body weight (BW) was measured using electronic scales
 168 (Tanita[®], Hoofddorp, The Netherlands) and total body fluid
 169 volume (TBFV) recordings were estimated using a multi-
 170 frequency bioimpedancemeter (Nutriguard[®]; Data Input
 171 Frankfurt/Germany). Since it was not possible to take
 172 blood samples in the field, we chose to use the bioimpe-
 173 dancemeter method. Modern impedance measurement
 174 devices measure the electrolyte water contained in the
 175 tissues very accurately (Heyward 1996; Shirreffs 2003). It
 176 is generally agreed that the distribution of total body fluid
 177 volume (TBFV) is: Extra-cellular: $\approx 40\%$ of TBFV
 178 (lymph, interstitial, trans-cellular, plasma) and Intracellu-
 179 lar: $\approx 60\%$ of TBFV. Under both conditions, TBFV was

assessed three times: 60 min before the dive (*T₀*), imme-
 180 diately before the dive (*T₁*) and immediately after surfac-
 181 ing (*T₂*) (Fig. 1). The Nutriguard[®] was also used to
 182 estimate the subjects' percentage of body fat.
 183

Core temperature was monitored using an ingestible
 184 core body thermometer pill (Coretemp[®], HQ, Inc. Pal-
 185 metto, Florida, USA). The pill was swallowed on the
 186 morning of the experiment, at least 3 h before the experi-
 187 ment started. Under both conditions, *T_{core}* was assessed
 188 twice: *T₀* and *T₁* (Fig. 1).
 189

Diving design

The depth of each dive was set to 30 msw with 30 min
 191 bottom time. The ascent rate was set at 10 m min⁻¹ with a
 192 decompression stop at 3 m for 6 min. The divers used air
 193 as breathing gas and were supplied with a diving computer
 194 (Suunto[®] D9, Helsinki, Finland). During the dive, subjects
 195 were told not to perform any strenuous exercise. The heart
 196 rate was checked using a Polar[®] Belt (S810i, Polar[®],
 197 Helsinki, Finland). The divers were instructed to keep heart
 198 rate values between 90 and 110 bpm. The sea temperature
 199 at the surface and at the bottom varied between 25 and
 200 28°C and all subjects were equipped with a 5 mm wet suit.
 201

Post-dive bubble analysis

After completing each dive, the divers stayed on the boat
 203 without doing any exercise. Circulating bubbles were
 204 detected by an experienced operator using a continuous
 205 wave Doppler system equipped with a 5 MHz probe
 206 (Aqualab system GE, Milwaukee, WI) in the precordial
 207 area. Monitoring was performed by the same operator
 208 every 30 min for 90 min after surfacing and Doppler sig-
 209 nals were stored on a laptop computer for subsequent
 210 blinded evaluation. During bubble measurement, the divers
 211 were supine for 3 min at rest.
 212

213 The quantity of bubbles was graded using the Spencer
 214 scale (Spencer 1976) before being converted into a Kisman
 215 Integrated Severity Score (KISS). The KISS was assumed
 216 to be a meaningful linearised measurement of post-
 217 decompression intravascular bubble activity status that can
 218 be treated statistically (Nishi and Kisman 1981). The
 219 change in bubble production, an indicator of the benefi-
 220 cial role of physical exercise taken immediately before
 221 diving, was estimated using the Δ KISS values between
 222 the two experimental conditions (Δ KISS = KISS No-Ex
 223 – KISS Ex).

224 Statistical analysis

225 Statistical tests were run using Sigma Stat software. Each
 226 participant served as his own control. In this study, only
 227 non-parametric tests were used because of their high
 228 severity and the small size of our sample. A normality test
 229 showed normal distribution for all variables (with excep-
 230 tion of the Spencer scale). All data are expressed as means
 231 (\pm SD), except the Spencer scale values, which are
 232 expressed as medians (range).

233 For values obtained at two time points, a Wilcoxon's
 234 paired signed rank test was used. The simple relationships
 235 between KISS and different variables such as Tcore and
 236 TBFV were assessed using Spearman's rank order correla-
 237 tion tests. The level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

238 Results

239 Under the No-Ex condition, diving was associated with a
 240 significant reduction in TBFV between T1 and T2
 241 (36.10 ± 5.57 vs. 35.1 ± 5.41 l; $p < 0.05$) (Fig. 2). Fur-
 242 thermore, under both conditions, a significant relationship
 243 was observed between KISS values and age ($n = 24$,
 244 $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.003$) and body fat ($n = 24$, $\alpha = 0.05$,
 245 $p < 0.0001$), respectively.

246 Exercise effects

247 Exercising induced, one hand, a BW and TBFV values
 248 decrease and on the other hand a Tcore rise (Table 2).
 249 Furthermore, the fall in BW provoked by exercise was
 250 significantly correlated to the fall in TBFV ($n = 24$,
 251 $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.037$).

252 Under the Ex condition, TBFV values were significantly
 253 lower after exercise (T1) than before (T0); (35.31 ± 5.43
 254 vs. 36.10 ± 5.57 l; $p < 0.05$) (Fig. 2). On the opposite to
 255 No-Ex condition, no significant difference was found
 256 between TBFV values measured before (T1) immediately
 257 after the dive (T2) in Ex condition (35.3 ± 5.46 vs.
 258 35.1 ± 5.43 l; $p = \text{NS}$) (Fig. 2).

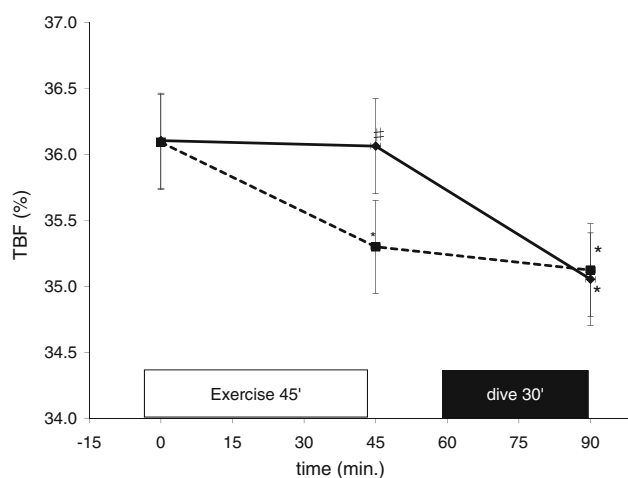


Fig. 2 Dehydration level expressed as TBFV (%) between no-exercise condition (solid line) and exercise condition (dashed line). TBFV total body fluid volume. Oral hydration after exercise prevented dehydration induced by diving. * $p < 0.05$ from baseline; # $p < 0.05$ from the corresponding value in exercise condition. Values are presented as means (SD)

Table 2 Variation of body weight (BW), kg; total body fluid volume (TBFV), l; and core temperature (Tcore), °C; between T0 and T1, for all divers, and in both conditions

	Ex	No-Ex
BW (g)	-770 \pm 280*	-52 \pm 24
TBFV (ml)	-793 \pm 350*	-42 \pm 11
Tcore (°C)	-1.93 \pm 0.77*	-0.09 \pm 0.01

Values are presented as means \pm SD

EX exercise condition, No-EX no-exercise condition

* If significant difference between T0 and T1 periods ($p < 0.05$)

259 Thus, at the end of both dives (T2), no significant dif-
 260 ference in TBFV values was observed when comparing Ex
 261 and No-Ex conditions (35.11 ± 5.43 vs. 35.10 ± 5.50 l;
 262 $p = 0.2$) (Fig. 2).

263 There was also significant correlation between the vol-
 264 ume of water drunk at the end of the exercise and the
 265 reduction in TBFV ($n = 24$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.004$).

266 Under the Ex condition, maximum Spencer bubble
 267 grades were significantly lower than under No-Ex condi-
 268 tion ($p < 0.0001$) (Fig. 3a). Furthermore, Kiss values under
 269 the Ex condition were significantly lower than under No-
 270 Ex (14.7 ± 12.3 vs. 25.5 ± 12.3 , respectively, $p < 0.001$)
 271 (Fig. 3b). Only one diver recorded a higher grade of venous
 272 bubbles under the Ex condition compared to No-Ex.

273 There was significant correlation between Δ KISS values
 274 with the elevation of Tcore ($n = 24$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p < 0.001$),
 275 reduction of TBFV ($n = 24$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p < 0.001$) (Fig. 4),
 276 and fall in body mass ($n = 24$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p < 0.05$),
 277 respectively, induced by physical exercise. There was also

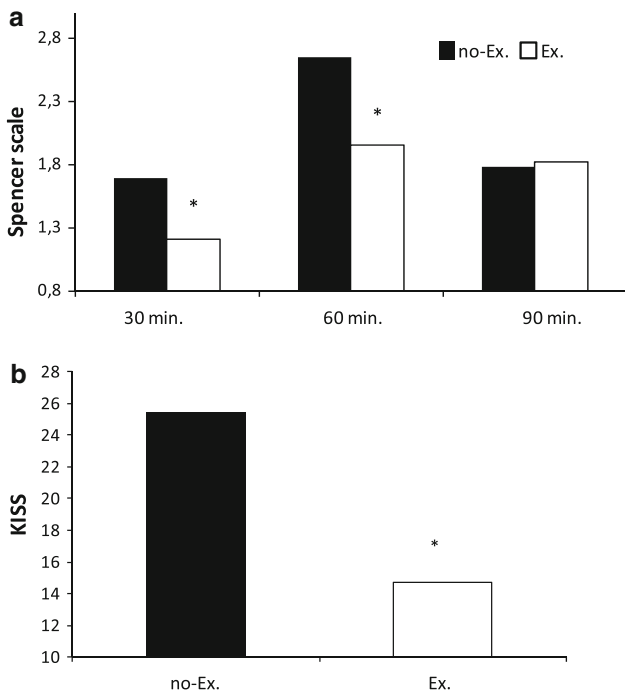


Fig. 3 **a** Post-dive circulating bubble Spencer scale (medians) detected 30, 60, and 90 min after surfacing for all divers in both conditions. *Significant difference between conditions, $p < 0.01$. **b** Post-dive circulating bubble detection (KISS) for all divers in both conditions. *Significant difference between conditions, $p < 0.01$

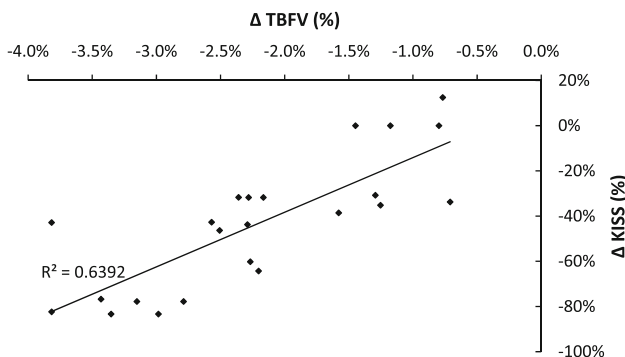


Fig. 4 Correlation between bubble reduction expressed as $\Delta KISS$ (%) and total body fluid volume reduction ($\Delta TBFV$) induced by exercise. All data expressed as a percentage

278 significant correlation between the volume of water drunk
 279 at the end of the exercise and $\Delta KISS$ values ($n = 24$,
 280 $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.06$) (Fig. 5).

281 **Discussion**

282 The main result of this study was a demonstration of the
 283 protective effect of a single bout of exercise taken imme-
 284 diately before a dive, expressed by a significant decrease in
 285 circulating bubbles assessed after a dive.

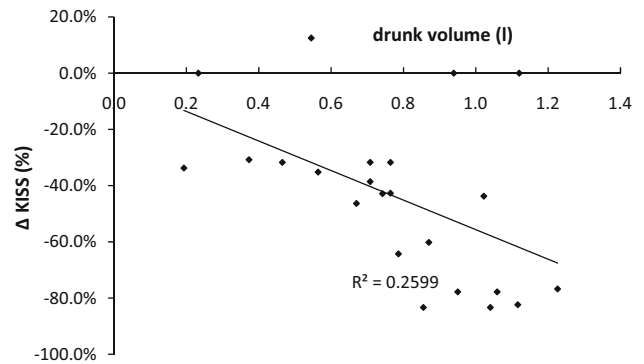


Fig. 5 Correlation between the volume of water drunk after exercise (l) and bubble reduction expressed as $\Delta KISS$ (%)

286 Previous studies have already observed this protective
 287 effect of exercise, but according to different authors, a
 288 delay of several hours was considered necessary between
 289 the end of exercise and the beginning of the dive (Dujic and
 290 Duplancic 2004; Blatteau and Gempp 2005; Blatteau and
 291 Boussuges 2007; Dujic and Valic 2008). The novelty of
 292 this study is that it demonstrates that it is not necessary to
 293 wait for a certain period before diving after exercising.
 294 This observation is particularly interesting for military
 295 divers, who, because of their military activity, cannot rest
 296 for many hours after exercising before diving.

297 Conversely, previous studies have shown that passive or
 298 active movement before decompression acutely increased
 299 bubble formation (Harvey and Whiteley 1944; Dervay and
 300 Powell 2002; Berge and Jorgensen 2005). Harvey and
 301 Whiteley (1944) showed that bullfrogs passively exercised
 302 via electrical stimulation prior to decompression at altitude
 303 developed more bubbles than sedentary controls. They
 304 suggested that exercise immediately before decompression
 305 could either increase the number of nuclei or increase their
 306 size, thus requiring less supersaturation to grow. Dervay
 307 and Powell (2002) showed that 20 subjects completing a
 308 knee-bend squat exercise suffered increased bubble forma-
 309 tion when performed just prior to depressurization as
 310 compared with longer rest intervals. They suggested that
 311 the half-life of gas nuclei could be in the order of 1 h under
 312 these hypobaric conditions. Recently, Wisloff and Rich-
 313 ardson (2004) and Berge and Jorgensen (2005) observed
 314 that intensive exercise up to 85–90% $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ completed
 315 30 min before a dive neither promotes nor reduces bubble
 316 formation and finally does not increase the risk of devel-
 317 oping decompression sickness in rats.

318 However, most of these studies were performed in ani-
 319 mals, using electrical muscle stimulation (Harvey and
 320 Whiteley 1944) or by applying much higher levels of
 321 exercise intensity than were used in our study (Wisloff and
 322 Brubakk 2001; Berge and Jorgensen 2005). Furthermore,
 323 the only study performed on humans (Dervay and Powell

2002) took place under conditions of hypobaric exposure using an exercise protocol (knee-bend squats) which was quite different from the one used in our study (running, endurance effort).

Furthermore, the result of this study shows irrespective of the experimental condition (Ex or No-Ex), there is a correlation between measured venous gas emboli and the subjects' age and body fat, respectively. The fact that increases in the diver's age and body fat percentage are associated with a higher production of circulatory bubbles has already been reported many times in previous scientific studies (Carturan and Boussuges 2002; Boussuges and Retali 2009).

Another important result of this study is to note that the reduction in venous gas emboli (expressed by "ΔKISS" values) induced by doing physical exercise immediately before diving is correlated, not only to the temperature (Tcore) rise, the volume of body fluid (TBFV) and body mass decrement induced by this exercise, but also to the volume of water drunk at the end of the exercise.

Several theoretical explanations can be proposed to explain the beneficial effect of pre-dive exercise immediately before immersion. Rigorous analysis of the kinetics of adaptive mechanisms implemented by the body during and after physical exercise and throughout immersion is fundamental to understanding the results of this study.

Effects of pre-dive exercise on sweat production and dehydration

Physical exercise completed at 21°C, which was the case in this study, is accompanied by an increase in Tcore. In order to avoid the risk of hyperthermia, this Tcore elevation is accompanied by increased sweat production, which induces a decrease in the TBFV. In this study, ΔTBFV is used as an indicator of exercise-induced hydration status impairment. As expected, TBFV values assessed at the end of exercise (T1), so immediately before immersion, were significantly lower under the Ex condition than under No-Ex.

We suggest that this dehydration caused by the physical exercise influenced and reduced the bubble formation measured after the dive.

Recent studies have shown that moderate dehydration induced by pre-dive exercise (Blatteau and Boussuges 2007) or a sauna session (Blatteau and Gempp 2008), effected a reduction in stroke volume, related to hypovolemia. This reduction might influence the inert gas load, and consequently decrease circulating bubbles. Indeed, the gas uptake of a particular tissue depends on both the rate of blood flow to the tissue and the rate of gas diffusion into the tissue from the blood. It may be that if the blood flow decreases, the rate of inert gas uptake would be slower and consequently bubble formation would be reduced (Blatteau

and Boussuges 2007). We hypothesized that, in our study, blood flow might be reduced at the start and during the dive, thus limiting inert gas load and bubble formation afterwards. It also seems plausible that blood flow distribution to various tissues may affect uptake independently of total blood flow rate and such a response is likely after heat exposure and exercise.

On the other hand, if hypovolemia can decrease inert gas uptake, it can also reduce inert gas removal during the decompression phase. This is why we think that oral rehydration, just before immersions, has a complementary effect on attenuating bubble formation.

Effects of pre-dive exercise on oral rehydration before diving

Under the No-Ex condition in our study, the subjects recorded a significant fall in TBFV after the dive. This result matched the data in the literature indicating that immersion led to hypovolemia (Jimenez and Regnard 2009).

Because physical exercise induced a reduction in TBFV, and in order to prevent dehydration levels from rising too high, we allowed subjects under the Ex condition to rehydrate before diving (T1). Therefore, the dehydration linked to physical exercise was fully compensated by drinking water. We noted a relationship between the quantity of water drunk and delta TBFV values, implying that the subjects who were the most dehydrated by exercise were the ones who felt the most thirst and therefore drank the most water.

However, drinking water does not immediately alter volemia. It was demonstrated that, with plain water, the transfer of fluid from the stomach to the blood circulation takes place gradually over several tens of minutes (Gisolfi and Duchman 1992; Gisolfi and Summers 1992). Thus, under the Ex condition this extrinsic water compensation prevented the combined effects of exercise and immersion on dehydration. Indeed, during the 30 min dive, water in the stomach gradually passed into the bloodstream, progressively increasing TBFV values to the point where, at the end of the dive, they reached similar values between the two experimental conditions (Fig. 2).

We suggest that this oral hydration before diving influenced bubble formation. Gempp and Blatteau (2009) previously found that pre-dive oral hydration decreases circulatory bubbles, thus proposing a relatively simple means of reducing the risk of DCS. Prehydration slowed dehydration and prevented hypovolemia induced by the diving session. The authors speculated that fluid ingestion resulting in hypervolemia might impede the lowering of cardiac preload induced by the diving session. These findings are in agreement with a recent study reporting that the consumption of 400 ml of an isotonic beverage could

- 426 prevent dehydration and increased blood viscosity during
427 prolonged sitting in a dry environment, by attenuating
428 negative water balance and hypovolemia (Doi and Sakurai
429 2004). Previous observations have also shown that a supine
430 body position and other such interventions that increase
431 central blood volume and cardiac preload, significantly
432 increased the rate of inert gas washout (Balldin 1973).
433 Consequently, it is plausible that pre-dive oral hydration
434 might result in more rapid elimination of excess inert gas
435 dissolved in body tissues during decompression, thus
436 reducing circulating bubbles.
- 437 To summarize, under the Ex condition, the low hydra-
438 tion level during the first part of immersion would reduce
439 inert gas concentration during diving (by a fall in regional
440 tissue perfusion), while improvement of this hydration
441 level (by after-exercise water ingestion), specifically during
442 decompression, would promote inert gas elimination
443 through high quality tissue perfusion.
- 444 Effects of pre-dive exercise on heat production
- 445 Exercise is associated with metabolic heat production
446 (Adams and Fox 1975). In our study, mean T_{core} just
447 before immersion (T₁), under the Ex condition was sig-
448 nificantly higher [+1.9 (min 0.75; max 3.15)°C] than under
449 the No-Ex condition.
- 450 It is now generally accepted that the phase of the dive
451 determines the effect the thermal state has upon decom-
452 pression; but so far, the conclusions of scientific studies on
453 this subject are contradictory.
- 454 In the opinion of some authors, divers exposed to warm
455 conditions during the first part of immersion, absorb more
456 nitrogen at depth, and so increase their risk of decompres-
457 sion sickness compared with divers exposed to cold water
458 conditions (Balldin 1973). On the other hand, another study
459 concerning divers has demonstrated that the deleterious
460 effects of warm conditions during bottom time were less
461 pronounced than the beneficial effects of warm conditions
462 during decompression (Gerth and Ruterbusch 2007).
463 Finally, a recent animal experiment did not confirm this
464 data relative to the risk of DCS (Fahlman and Kayar 2006).
- 465 Since heat exposure at depth should increase bubble
466 formation, we believe that the thermal effects of pre-dive
467 exercise sessions are not directly involved in reducing
468 bubble formation in our study.
- 469 Pre-dive exercise and endothelial nitric oxide
470 production
- 471 Another possible mechanism by which aerobic exercise has
472 a protective effect is an increase in vascular shear stress
473 resulting from increased blood flow. This beneficial effect
474 seems essentially related to an increase in vascular
endothelial nitric oxide (NO) bioavailability (Higashi and
Yoshizumi 2004). According to the study by Roberts and
Barnard (1999), acute exercise increased nitric oxide syn-
thase activity immediately after 45 min of exercise.
Moreover, Wisloff and Richardson (2004) have previously
shown that nitric oxide administered immediately before a
dive reduces bubble formation.
- Limitations**
- For practical and technical reasons, our study focused on
measuring hydration status and did not study the effects of
endothelial NO or HSP (heat-shock proteins) values.
In future it would be interesting to monitor body tem-
perature throughout the dive and take ultrasound mea-
surements of cardiac output during decompression.
- Conclusion**
- A single 45 min session of sub-maximal exercise per-
formed immediately before immersion significantly redu-
ces venous gas emboli. Surprisingly, to the best of our
knowledge, our study is the first to note a significant
relationship between these two parameters and the reduc-
tion in circulating bubbles, thus revealing the protective
role of pre-dive exercise immediately before immersion.
This study has practical benefits because it confirms the
role of early hydration during or just after exercise in
potentiating the beneficial effects of exercise on
decompression.
Although it has classically not been recommended,
exercising before diving could be more secure for the
decompression stage, no matter what the delay is between
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