¹ Iso-Risk Air No Decompression Limits after 2 Scoring Marginal Decompression Sickness 3₃</sub> Cases as Non-Events

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11 Abstract

12 Decompression sickness (DCS) in humans is associated with reductions in ambient pressure that 13 occur during diving, aviation, or certain manned spaceflight operations. Its signs and symptoms can 14 include, but are not limited to, joint pain, radiating abdominal pain, paresthesia, dyspnea, general malaise, 15 cognitive dysfunction, cardiopulmonary dysfunction, and death. Probabilistic models of DCS allow the 16 probability of DCS incidence and time of occurrence during or after a given hyperbaric or hypobaric 17 exposure to be predicted based on how the gas contents or gas bubble volumes vary in hypothetical tissue 18 compartments during the exposure. These models are calibrated using data containing the pressure and 19 respired gas histories of actual exposures, some of which resulted in DCS, some of which did not, and 20 others in which the diagnosis of DCS was not clear. The latter are referred to as marginal DCS cases. In 21 earlier works, a marginal DCS event was typically weighted as 0.1, with a full DCS event being weighted as 22 1.0, and a non-event being weighted as 0.0. Recent work has shown that marginal DCS events should be

23 weighted as 0.0 when calibrating gas content models. We confirm this indication in the present work by 24 showing that such models have improved performance when calibrated to data with marginal DCS events 25 coded as non-events. Further, we investigate the ramifications of derating marginal events on model-26 prescribed air diving no-stop limits.

27 Keywords

28 Hyperbaric, Deep Sea Diving, Marginal, Decompression Sickness, DCS, Gas Content, Inert Gas

29 Introduction

30 The signs and symptoms of decompression sickness (DCS) in humans, which is associated with 31 reductions in ambient pressure during diving, aviation, or certain manned spaceflight operations, can 32 include, but are not limited to joint pain, radiating abdominal pain, paresthesia, dyspnea, general malaise, 33 cognitive dysfunction, cardiopulmonary dysfunction, and death [1, 2]. DCS is typically categorized as 34 either type 1 pain only, or type 2 neurological [3, 4]. Our focus here is on the problem of DCS caused by 35 decompressions from hyperbaric exposures, not decompressions to hypobaric pressures, such as those 36 experienced by pilots on ascent to high altitudes and astronauts during extravehicular activities. Haldane 37 *et al.* [5] are commonly credited with developing the first effective strategy for preventing DCS in man. 38 The latter entailed tracking gas content in a series of independent compartments. Within each 39 compartment, the gas content was used to calculate the level of supersaturation that was not allowed to 40 exceed a maximum value by the algorithm. A decompression was considered unsafe with the inevitability 41 of DCS if the critical supersaturation was exceeded in any compartment, or safe with no possibility of DCS 42 if the critical supersaturation was not exceeded in any compartment. Although this approach has since 43 been extensively refined [6-10], it retains the shortcoming of being unable to explicitly control the risk of 44 DCS in the calculation of decompression schedules.

45 Recognizing that the occurrence of DCS has both deterministic and stochastic mechanisms, 46 workers at the United States Navy (USN) Naval Medical Research Institute (NMRI) developed models to 47 predict the probability of DCS occurrence during hyperbaric exposures and compute decompression 48 schedules that incur user-specified risks of DCS [11-23]. These models feature calibration against data 49 describing a collection of hyperbaric exposures and their binary outcomes: either DCS occurred or it did 50 not. There is currently no definitive diagnostic test for DCS. In the absence of a definitive test, the 51 outcomes of some dives are an ambiguous collection of signs and symptoms. These ambiguous outcomes 52 are termed marginal DCS events, do not require recompression therapy, and spontaneously resolve. 53 Examples of marginal DCS events are aches or mild pain in a single joint lasting less than 60 minutes or 54 pain in multiple joints lasting less than 30 minutes [24, 25]. Pain with any other manifestation, such as 55 visual disturbances, and difficulties with balance, speech, and/or comprehension, whether or not these 56 other manifestations self-resolve, would not be classified as a marginal DCS event.

57 Transient or ambiguous symptoms indicate potential occurrence of the sickness. In order to 58 incorporate marginal DCS events, these occurrences were originally treated as half of a DCS event 59 (weighted as 0.5) when included in the calibration data [13], though no statistical justification was given 60 for this decision. Later, the weight given to marginal events was reduced to one-tenth of a DCS event 61 based upon communications with USN dive medical officers, who indicated they were much less 62 concerned with marginal DCS than full DCS [19]. More rigorous methods for incorporating different 63 degrees of severity of DCS have since been published [26]. Recent work has found the inclusion of 64 marginal DCS events with fractional weights detrimental to the overall performance of probabilistic 65 models [27]. Rigorous statistical evaluation of marginal events has found that they are not combinable 66 with the rest of the data in the BIG292 calibration set used by the authors. This past study points to the 67 fact that while saturation data makes up 14.4% of the BIG292 calibration data set (discussed in more detail 68 below) and marginal DCS events account for 3.3% of BIG292, 55% of the marginal DCS events occurred

69 during saturation dives. This indicates that including marginal DCS events, even with a small fractional 70 weight, grants saturation exposures undue weight in the calibration data. In this work, we evaluate the 71 impact of treating marginal DCS events as non-events in the calibration data. We first determine if linear 72 kinetics, a threshold term, and oxygen as a participating gas are still beneficial to model performance; as 73 determined previously [12, 15, 17, 19]. After we establish which model features are statistically justified, 74 we investigate how the modified calibration data affects model performance.

⁷⁵Methods

76 Data

77 All data used in this study were taken from the USN N_2 - O_2 dive database which has been 78 previously published [12, 24, 25, 28] and does not require approval from an institutional review board for 79 use. The data are composed of time-series records for the pressure and gas inspired by the diver 80 throughout each recorded dive. Successive points or "nodes" are connected by straight lines in the time 81 domain to describe a dive as a series of segments, each of which is either an isobaric, compression, or 82 decompression segment that may include a breathing gas switch. The outcome of each exposure is 83 recorded as either 1.0 if DCS occurred, 0.0 if DCS did not occur, or 0.1 if marginal DCS occurred. If the 84 outcome was DCS or marginal DCS, the time the subject was last known to be symptom free and the time 85 at which the presence of DCS signs or symptoms were first confirmed are also recorded. Two subsets of 86 the USN N₂-O₂ dive database were used in this study. The first set, BIG292, consists of 3,322 exposures in 87 1,038 different time and depth profiles within which 190 DCS events and 110 marginal DCS events 88 occurred. BIG292 was used as the calibration data set for the LE1-USN93 model parameters [29]. The 89 second set, NMRI98, augments BIG292 with an additional 1,013 exposures in 266 additional profiles. 90 These additional exposures used gases with increased oxygen content during either or both the on-91 bottom and decompression (ascent) phases of the dives. The inclusion of more profiles using gases with

92 increased oxygen content makes the NMRI98 data set a more versatile calibration set than BIG292. The 93 NMRI98 data set has a total of 223 full DCS events and 127 marginal DCS events. NMR98 was used as the 94 calibration data set for a study of models incorporating oxygen as a participating gas [12, 17].

95 Models

96 The PLBX3 exponential-exponential model [30, 31], the linear-exponential model (LE1) [29], and 97 the linear exponential multigas model (LEM) [12, 17, 32] were chosen as the basis for this work. Features 98 of these models are summarized in Table 1. Each is a survival model in which the body is considered to 99 consist of three independent, well-stirred, perfusion-limited gas exchange compartments. These 100 compartments are not intended to represent distinct anatomical tissues, but are mathematical 101 abstractions with no direct relationship to the underlying physiology. In each model, the probability of 102 DCS for a given exposure, PDCS, is given as a function of the instantaneous risk of DCS, r_i , in each of $n=3$ 103 compartments:

104
$$
PDCS = 1 - e^{-\sum_{i=1}^{n} g_{ii} \int r_i dt},
$$
 (1)

105 \ldots where, g_i is a compartmental scaling term or gain. This equation does not include time of onset and is 106 integrated from the start of the dive to the right-censored time, the time at which observation ceased. 107 Time of symptom onset is incorporated by calculating a joint probability including the probability of being 108 symptom free (PS) until the last known time at which the subject was symptom free, T_1 , and the 109 probability of DCS occurring between T_1 and T_2 , the time at which the presence of symptoms was first 110 confirmed [33]

111
$$
PDCS = PS_{T_1}PDCS_{T_1,T_2} = e^{-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{0}^{T_1} r_i dt} \left(1.0 - e^{-\sum_{i=1}^{n} g_i \int_{T_1}^{T_2} r_i dt}\right).
$$
 (2)

112 In the absence of gas bubbles, the rate of change of the compartmental inert gas tension is

113
$$
\frac{dP_{\tau}}{dt} = k(P_{N_2}^0 + R_{N_2}t) - kP_{\tau},
$$
 (3)

114 where k is a rate constant for the compartment and P_T is the tissue tension of the dissolved inert gas (nitrogen for this document), $P_{N_2}^0$ 0 115 Introgen for this document), $P_{N_2}^0$ is the nitrogen pressure at the beginning of the segment, R_{N_2} is the rate 116 of change of the arterial inert gas tension during the dive segment, and *t* is time. The arterial inert gas 117 tension is assumed to be in equilibrium with the alveolar gas. The solution to the differential Eq. (3) for 118 the duration of a dive segment is the familiar mono-exponential expression [11, 13, 27, 34] given by

$$
P_{\scriptscriptstyle T} = \alpha e^{-kt} + R_{\scriptscriptstyle N_2} + \beta \,, \tag{4}
$$

120 where the constants for the dive segment are

121
\n
$$
\alpha = P_{\tau}^{0} - P_{N_{2}}^{0} + \frac{R_{N_{2}}}{k},
$$
\n
$$
\beta = P_{N_{2}}^{0} - \frac{R_{N_{2}}}{k},
$$
\n(5)

122 and P_T^0 is the tissue tension at the beginning of the dive segment.

123 Both gas uptake and elimination are mono-exponential in the PLBX3 model compartments [30, 124 31]. Compartmental gas elimination in the LE1 and LEM models is allowed to be time linear in one 125 compartment after a crossover compartmental tension P_{XO} is exceeded. Linear kinetics were introduced 126 as a mechanism for modeling the reduced rate of inert gas elimination caused by the formation of gas 127 bubbles in that compartment [29, 35]. The linear gas kinetics are defined as

128
$$
P_{T} = P_{T}^{0} + k(P_{N_{2}}^{0} - P_{B}^{0} - P_{XO} - P_{FVG})t + \frac{k(R_{N_{2}} - R_{B})}{t^{2}}
$$
(6)

129 In where P^0_B is the ambient pressure at the start of the dive segment and R_B is the rate of change in ambient 130 pressure in the dive segment. This condition can only occur when supersaturation is present. Therefore, 131 the tissue tension (or inert gas burden) evolves as

132
\n
$$
P_{T} = \alpha e^{-kt} + R_{N_{2}} + \beta \qquad ; P_{T} < P_{B} + P_{xo} - P_{FVG}
$$
\n
$$
P_{T} = P_{T}^{0} + k(P_{N_{2}}^{0} - P_{B}^{0} - P_{xo} - P_{FVG})t + \frac{k(R_{N_{2}} - R_{B})}{t^{2}} \qquad ; P_{T} \ge P_{B} + P_{xo} - P_{FVG}
$$
\n(7)

133 where P_B is the ambient pressure and P_{FVG} is the total partial pressure of the metabolic gases; oxygen, 134 carbon dioxide, and water vapor; presumed constant and equal to 0.1917atm [36].

135 *In all three models, the instantaneous risk for the* ith *compartment (* r_i *) is given in terms of the* 136 prevailing compartmental gas supersaturation, $(P_{Ti} + P_{FVG} - P_B)$:

137
$$
r_{i} = \frac{P_{\bar{r}_{i}} - P_{B} - \text{Thr}_{i} + P_{\text{FVG}}}{P_{B}},
$$
 (8)

138 where *Thrⁱ* is a threshold supersaturation that must be exceeded before risk accumulates in the 139 compartment. For compartments which do not have a threshold, *Thr* is set to 0.

140 LEM further enhances the LE1 model with the addition of oxygen as a participating gas in the 141 compartment with linear gas kinetics. In order to include oxygen as a participating gas, the tissue tension 142 is redefined as

143
$$
P_{T} = P_{T_{N_2}} + P_{T_{Q_2}}
$$
 (9)

144 subject to the conditions

145
\n
$$
P_{eff_{O_2}} = P_{O_2} - PSET; P_{O_2} > PSET
$$
\n
$$
P_{eff_{O_2}} = 0 \qquad ; P_{O_2} \leq PSET
$$
\n(10)

146 where *PSET* is a fitted parameter determining the concentration above which oxygen ceases to be treated 147 as completely metabolized and becomes part of the inert gas burden in the tissue. $P_{\text{eff}_{O_2}}$ is the partial 148 pressure of oxygen treated as an inert gas. Both conditions are implemented during gas uptake and 149 elimination.

150 Models were optimized using likelihood maximization [11, 37, 38]. Gain variables can be 151 calculated directly [39], but were left as fitted parameters in the present work due to the ease of 152 programming. Likelihood is defined as the probability of the observed outcome [11, 38]. The likelihood 153 L for each exposure *i* is given by

154
$$
L_i = PDCS_i^{\delta_i} (1 - PDCS_i)^{1-\delta_i}, \qquad (11)
$$

155 where δ is the outcome, δ = 0 indicates no DCS, δ = 1 indicates DCS occurred, and δ = W_m for marginal 156 events. Marginal DCS events were treated as non-events with an outcome of $W_m = 0.0$. The joint 157 probability of all *N* observed outcomes can be calculated as

158
$$
L = \prod_{i}^{N} PDCS_{i}^{\delta_{i}} (1 - PDCS_{i})^{1 - \delta_{i}},
$$
 (12)

159 by assuming that the outcome of each exposure is independent of all other observed outcomes. For ease 160 of computation, we work with the log of each likelihood value and negate the final sum to phrase the 161 problem as a maximization. We used the Nelder-Mead maximization algorithm [40], which is gradient-162 free and robust, to avoid numerical difficulties arising from discontinuities in the parameter space [34]. 163 32 solutions were obtained for each model tested; starting from different initial values of the free 164 parameters. The best (maximum log likelihood) parameter set was selected for each model for model 165 comparison. The LE1 and PLBX3 models were fit to the BIG292 data set for comparison with the LE1- 166 USN93 model and parameter set. All other models tested were fit to the NMRI98 data.

167 Model Selection

168 The LEM model is produced by the progressive addition of linear kinetics, a threshold term, and 169 oxygen to the most reduced model, PLBX3. All models tested were consequently nested within the least 170 reduced LEM model. The statistical justification for addition of each added model feature was tested with 171 MATLAB (MathWorks MATLAB 2015b) log likelihood difference tests with a significance level of 0.05 as 172 the selection criterion and with the Akaike Information Criterion (AICc) [41] defined in Eq. (13). In Eq. 173 (13), *K* is the number of free parameters and *N* is the sample size.

$$
AICc = -2(\ln(likelihood)) + 2K\left(\frac{N}{N-K-1}\right)
$$
 (13)

175 The weighted AIC index, defined in Eq. (14), provides an easier-to-interpret statistic in which each model 176 is assigned a number between 0.0 and 1.0. The model with value closest to 1.0 is the model that best 177 describes the data.

178 weightedAlCIndex =
$$
\frac{e^{-0.5\Delta A/CC}}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} e^{-0.5\Delta A/CC_i}}
$$
 (14)

179 Calculation of No-Stop Limits

180 The no-stop limit for a given dive depth is the maximum time that can be spent at that depth and 181 followed by a direct ascent to surface while producing a risk of DCS that reaches but does not exceed a 182 pre-specified limit. No-stop limit prescriptions of the present models optimized with marginal DCS events 183 weighted as 0.1 and 0.0 were compared to limits in the USN Diving Manual Revision 7 (VVAL-79 Thalmann 184 Algorithm [6, 42, 43]) and to limits prescribed by the LE1-USN93 and LEM-NMRI98 models. The no-stop 185 limits were calculated assuming air breathing throughout each exposure with descent and ascent rates of 186 75 fpm and 30 fpm, respectively [44]. Descent time was not included in the bottom time. A 2.3% 187 acceptable risk of DCS was used to be consistent with prior USN work [22]. Starting with a bottom time

188 of one minute, the no-stop limit at each dive depth was determined by incrementing the bottom time in 189 one minute intervals until the 2.3% risk level was reached.

190 Results and Discussion

191 Deleting the weight of marginal events (*Wm* = 0.0) for model calibration against BIG292 resulted 192 in LE1 remaining the best selected model. After reparameterization with *Wm* = 0.0 we compared LE1 193 against the less complex PLBX3 model and found that the additional complexity was justified with a p-194 value of 5.61E-06 by the log likelihood difference test. The weighted AICc index for LE1 was 0.99, 195 indicating that LE1 provided a much better description of BIG292 than PLBX3. Best-fit parameters along 196 with their 95% confidence intervals for both models are provided in Table 2. The confirmation that LE1 197 remains the best descriptor of BIG292 is unsurprising. Weighting marginal events as non-events (*Wm* = 198 0.0) within the training set does not change the dive profiles. Since all dive types (single air, single non-199 air, saturation, *et cetera*) are still present, all modifications which enhance the three independent, well-200 stirred, and perfusion-limited compartment class of models are still necessary.

201 Figure 1 graphs the probability of DCS for each profile predicted by the LE1-USN93 model (*Wm* = 202 0.1) versus the probabilities predicted by LE1 with refit parameters (W_m = 0.0). The predicted probabilities 203 were sorted from smallest to largest to more easily observe trends. The performance of the LE1 model 204 on saturation exposures is not significantly altered by reducing *Wm* to 0.0, despite marginal events 205 predominantly occurring during saturation exposures. In Figure 2, the predicted probabilities of all non-206 saturation exposures from BIG292 are plotted; again after sorting the probabilities from smallest to 207 largest. The PDCS predictions from the parameters optimized with *Wm* = 0.0 are the abscissa and the 208 predictions from LE1-USN93 (*Wm* = 0.1) are the ordinate. The PDCS predictions from the refit parameters 209 with *Wm* equal to 0.0 are consistently lower than the PDCS predictions of LE1-USN93 (*Wm* = 0.1). From 210 this we conclude that the bulk of the risk resulting from marginal DCS events is spread across the non211 saturation profiles, despite being predominantly associated with the saturation dives. This agrees with 212 our previous finding [27] that marginal DCS events weighted as *Wm* = 0.1 degrade model performance for 213 non-saturation dives. As shown in Figure 3 there is no significant change in the distribution of which 214 compartments contribute to the overall risk.

215 Occurrence density functions (ODFs) plot the number of DCS occurrences per hour centered on 216 the time of surfacing from the dive. Negative time values indicate DCS occurred prior to the diver 217 surfacing. Figure 4 shows the ODF for BIG292 along with the ODFs for the LE1-USN93 (*Wm* = 0.1) 218 parameters and our refit parameters for the LE1 model (*W^m* = 0.0). The true values from the BIG292 data 219 contain a bimodal peak near the time of surfacing. Neither version of LE1 reproduces this behavior and 220 the source of the bimodal peak. In our recent investigation into the source of the bimodality for the dive 221 trial data, we found that the bimodality was most likely caused by a change in DCS onset time reporting 222 protocol in 1984 and was not related to dive type or DCS event severity [45]. The reduction in value of 223 *Wm* from 0.1 to 0.0 results in a smaller peak near the time of surfacing, but does not significantly change 224 the shape or position of the peak.

225 For the larger NMRI98 data set, we tested all combinations of model enhancements nested within 226 the LEM model optimized with *Wm* assigned a value of 0.0. Optimization and test results for each of the 227 models are given in Table 3. LEM was the best descriptor of these data with a weighted AICc index of 228 0.97. It also performed the best by the log likelihood difference test. The best fit model parameters and 229 their 95% confidence intervals are given in Table 4. The best fit value of *PSET* in Model 5 was 25.9 atm, a 230 value which is far in excess of the highest oxygen partial pressure encountered in any dive in the training 231 data, and indeed of any oxygen partial pressure allowed during actual dive operations [46]. Thus, the 232 potential to use oxygen as a participating gas in Model 5 was not exercised and the model collapsed into 233 Model 3.

234 Plotting the change in predicted probability of DCS for the LEM model optimized with the NMRI98 235 data as depicted in Figure 5 shows that unlike the LE1 model, reducing the value of *Wm* from 0.1 to 0.0 236 reduces the risks of saturation dives. The same saturation dive subsets; ASATARE, ASATEDU, ASATNMR, 237 and ASATNSM described by Temple et al [24, 25]; are contained in both BIG292 and NMRI98. Unlike LE1, 238 LEM did not predict higher probabilities of DCS for non-saturation dives when marginal DCS events are 239 weighted as 0.1. The predicted number of full DCS cases for the saturation dives with *Wm* = 0.1 is 59.39 240 and the predicted number of cases with *Wm* = 0.0 is 52.94 while the actual number is 52. Thus, interpreting 241 marginals as no DCS yields a LEM model that does a better job of predicting the actual number of cases. 242 Figure 6 shows that only a small number of non-saturation dives had their risks significantly lowered by 243 the reduction of W_m from 0.1 to 0.0; most non-saturation exposures had very little change. The risk 244 contributions from each compartment normalized by the total risk are plotted in Figure 7. Each 245 compartment's risk contribution did shift, but there were no significant qualitative changes. For the 246 models optimized with and without marginal DCS events given fractional weight, the majority of the dives 247 in the data set accumulate risk in at most two compartments. This may be inferred from the fact that the 248 majority of the points fall on or close to the outer boundaries of the plot. If an exposure accumulated risk 249 in all three compartments, then that point would fall closer to the center of the plot. The clustering of 250 points on or close to the outer boundaries shows that exposures tend to accumulate risk either in the fast 251 and intermediate compartments or in the intermediate and slow compartments.

252 The ODF for the NMRI98 data is qualitatively the same as that of the BIG292 data, at least partly 253 because NMRI98 is a superset of BIG292. Weighting marginal DCS events as non-events (*Wm* = 0.0) in the 254 LEM model's training set did not significantly impact the large peak centered at the time of surfacing as is 255 evident in Figure 8. This is consistent with non-saturation dives being relatively unchanged by the 256 classification of marginals as non-events. DCS associated with non-saturation dives typically occurs within 257 two hours after reaching the surface, whereas during saturation dives DCS is not uncommon during the 258 ascent phase of the dive [24, 25]. Reducing *Wm* to 0.0 results principally in a reduction of the small 259 numbers of events in the tail of the distribution associated with DCS occurrences before the divers 260 surfaced.

261 The air diving no-stop limits prescribed by our LE1 and LEM models fit to their respective training 262 datasets with *Wm* = 0.0 are compared to the current USN guidance [44] in Table 5. The LE1 prescriptions 263 are consistently longer than those of LE1-USN93 (*Wm* = 0.1), which is expected since decreasing *Wm* to 0.0 264 reduces the bulk probability of DCS by reducing the number of DCS events in the training data. LEM 265 prescriptions for dives to shallow depths (70 fsw and less) are shorter than the corresponding air no-stop 266 limits, while the prescriptions for dives to greater depths are consistently longer. In Figure 9, we plot our 267 new no-stop prescriptions along with the VVal-79 Thalmann algorithm prescriptions. As depicted in the 268 graph, there is good agreement between all three algorithms except for shallow depths. Four of the 269 proposed no-stop limits have been man-tested in previous work [47, 48]: 20 minutes at 130 FSW, 15 270 minutes at 150 FSW, 12 minutes at 150 FSW, and 9 minutes at 190 FSW. The rate of DCS occurrence in 271 these trials was less than 2.3%, but there was an unacceptably high number of Type 2 DCS events.

272 Conclusions

273 Models for estimating the probabilities of DCS in diving have conventionally considered the 274 occurrence of DCS to be a binary event with an outcome weighting of unity if it occurs or a weighting of 275 zero if it does not occur in a given dive. Desire to include information for dives in which the DCS outcome 276 is not clear has motivated consideration of such outcomes as marginal DCS events with *ad-hoc* fractional 277 weighting. Previous work has shown that they should be treated as non-events with weights of *Wm* = 0.0 278 for model optimization [27]. LE1 and LEM remained the best descriptors of BIG292 and NMRI98, 279 respectively, after their parameters were reoptimized with *Wm* = 0.0. The risk distributions for each of 280 the refit models were affected very differently by reducing *Wm* from 0.1 to 0.0. LE1 placed the bulk of the 281 risk associated with marginal weights of *Wm* = 0.1 on the non-saturation dives despite a disproportionately 282 large portion of marginal DCS events occurring during saturation dives. In contrast, LEM correctly placed 283 the bulk of the risk associated with marginal weights of *Wm* = 0.1 on the saturation dives indicating that it 284 is a better descriptor of the NMRI98 data set.

285 The models refit with *Wm* = 0.0 prescribed no-stop limits for air diving similar to those published 286 in the USN Dive Manual Revision 7 [46]. No-stop limits prescribed by the LE1 model were consistently 287 longer, consistent with the ascription of less risk to the non-saturation dives. The LEM model had small 288 adjustments to its no-stop prescriptions. The close agreement of all three algorithms' prescriptions 289 provide further evidence that *Wm* should equal 0.0 when optimizing models for predicting the occurrence 290 of DCS. The confirmation of *Wm* = 0.0 indicates that the information contained in marginal DCS events 291 must be incorporated by an entirely different mechanism than what has been used thus far. We propose 292 that treating marginal DCS events as a different type of severity instead of a weighted binary outcome is 293 a more appropriate way of incorporating the information from these events. This can be accomplished 294 using existing techniques for incorporating severity information [26] as no DCS, marginal DCS, and full DCS 295 instead of differentiating by type 1 and type 2; or by extending existing techniques to include four 296 severities: no DCS, marginal DCS, type 1, and type 2. Finally, it is worth pointing out that probabilistic DCS 297 models are inexact and the conclusions drawn in this paper might be dependent upon the probabilistic 298 models used for this study.

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414 Table 1: Summary of features in the models investigated. All models are composed of three parallel, 415 uncoupled, well-stirred compartments. Exponential gas uptake and elimination prevailed in each 416 compartment unless otherwise noted by an "X" in the Linear Kinetics column. For the models which 417 allowed linear gas kinetics, they were only allowed in the second compartment. Oxygen only participated 418 in the second compartment when present. The threshold term was only applied to the third 419 compartment.

420

422 Table 2: Best-fit parameters with $W_m = 0.0$ for the BIG292 data. Gains are represented by g, tissue rates

423 by k, crossover pressure to linear kinetics by PXO, and threshold for risk accumulation as THR. Subscripts

424 indicate the compartment index to which the parameter corresponds. The 95% confidence intervals are

425 displayed parenthetically below each parameter value.

427 Table 3: Model optimization and selection results from the NMRI98 data set with $W_m = 0.0$. Bulk PDCS is

428 the total number of cases of DCS that each model predicts for the NMRI98 data set. The observed number 429 of DCS events was 223. Log likelihood difference testing found that the LEM model was statistically

430 justified as the best choice with 95% certainty as the selection criterion. The actual P-values from each

431 log likelihood difference test comparing the model to LEM are provided above. Weighted AICc index

432 values with a closer value to 1.0 indicate better agreement with the data. The weighted AICc values do

433 not sum to 1.0 because of rounding error.

436 Table 4: Best-fit model parameters against the NMRI98 data set with marginal DCS events weighted as 437 0.0. Gains are represented by g, tissue rates by k, crossover pressure to linear kinetics by PXO, and 438 threshold for risk accumulation as THR. Subscripts indicate to which compartment each parameter 439 belongs. The 95% confidence intervals are listed below each parameter in parenthesis. The parameters 440 used for PLBX3 have been previously reported elsewhere [30, 31].

441

442 Table 5: Comparison of the no-stop limits prescribed for air dives by each model studied. The prescriptions

443 from the U.S. Navy Diving Manual Revision 7 are provided for reference [46]. The left most column is 444 depth in feet of sea water (fsw). No-stop times are calculated with a 2.3% target risk of DCS assuming a

445 75 fpm descent rate and 30 fpm ascent rate. Descent and ascent time is not included in the bottom time.

446 Bottom times are only allowed to increase in one-minute increments with the largest time not resulting 447 in a risk higher than 2.3% being accepted as the provisionally recommended no stop time.

448

449 Figure 1: Shift of risk in saturation dives from the BIG292 data set. The risk of DCS was predicted for each 450 saturation dive in the BIG292 data set. After sorting the risks from smallest to largest they were plotted 451 with the risk predicted by our refit parameters for LE1 (derated marginal events) as the abscissa and the 452 USN93 parameters as the ordinate.

455 Figure 2: The risk shifts all non-saturation profiles in BIG292. The predicted risks of DCS occurring for each 456 profile are sorted from smallest to largest and plotted with the predictions from the USN93 parameters 457 as the ordinate and the predictions from our parameters optimized with derated marginal events as the 458 abscissa. Risk predictions from the parameters without marginal events in the training set are often much

459 lower than the predictions of the USN93 parameters.

461

462 Figure 3: Ternary plot of integrated risks from all profiles in BIG292 as predicted by the LE1 model after 463 optimization with marginal events weighted ($W_m = 0.1$) and with marginal events unweighted ($W_m = 0.0$) 464 in the training set. Integrated risks for each compartment are normalized by the total integrated risk for 465 the profile. The profile is then plotted on the ternary plot in which each corner represents the situation 466 where all risk came for the compartment whose axis indicates 1.0 in the corner. As each isocline is crossed 467 moving away from a corner the amount of risk contributed by the compartment the 1.0 belongs to 468 decreases by 10%. While profile risks shifted positions, there was no discernable qualitative change in the 469 overall distribution of profile risks.

472 Figure 4: The occurrence density function (ODF) for the BIG292 data set. The occurrence density function 473 plots the number of DCS events that either occurred (for the true data) or were expected (model 474 predicted) per hour. The function is centered on the time of surfacing with negative times indicating that 475 DCS occurred prior to the diver reaching the surface. A zoomed in view of the center of the graph is 476 provided in the top left due to this being where the bulk of the DCS events occur. In the true data, there 477 is a bimodal peak which is not replicated by either of the models. As expected, the number of occurrences 478 per hour is decreased in the absence of marginal DCS events.

481 Figure 5: Shift in risk of the saturation dives in the NMRI98 data set. The risk of DCS was predicted for 482 each saturation dive in the NMRI98 data set. After sorting the risks from smallest to largest they were 483 plotted with the risk predicted by our refit parameters for LEM (W_m = 0.0) as the abscissa and the LEM-484 NMRI98 (W_m = 0.1) parameters as the ordinate.

486 Figure 6: The risk shifts all non-saturation profiles in NMRI98. The predicted risk of DCS occurring for each 487 profile was sorted from smallest to largest and plotted with the predictions from the LEM-NMRI98 (W_m = 488 0.1) parameters as the ordinate and the predictions from our parameters optimized with W_m = 0.0 as the 489 abscissa.

490

491 Figure 7: Ternary plot of integrated risks from all profiles in NMRI98 as predicted by the LEM model after 492 optimization with marginal events weighted (W_m = 0.1) and marginal events unweighted (W_m = 0.0) in the 493 training set. Integrated risks for each compartment are normalized by the total integrated risk for the 494 profile. The profile is then plotted on the ternary plot in which each corner represents the situation where 495 all risk came for the compartment whose axis indicates 1.0 in the corner. As each isocline is crossed 496 moving away from a corner the amount of risk contributed by the compartment the 1.0 belongs to 497 decreases by 10%. While profile risks shifted positions, there was no discernable qualitative change in the 498 overall distribution of profile risks.

499

500 Figure 8: The occurrence density function (ODF) for the NMRI98 data set. The occurrence density function 501 plots the number of DCS events that either occurred (for the true data) or were expected (model 502 predicted) per hour. The function is centered on the time of surfacing with negative times for DCS 503 occurrences prior to the diver reaching the surface. A zoomed in view of the center of the graph is 504 provided in the top left due to this being where the bulk of the DCS events occur. In the true data, there 505 is a bimodal peak which is not replicated by either of the model parameter sets. The ODFs for LEM 506 optimized with W_m = 0.1 and W_m = 0.0 are indistinguishable at this resolution.

509 Figure 9: Air dive no-stop limits published in the USN Dive Manual Revision 7 [46] and the LE1 and LEM 510 models after being refit with W_m = 0.0. All calculations were made assuming air is the inspired gas with a 511 descent rate of 75 fpm and an ascent rate of 30 fpm. Ascent and descent times were not included in the 512 bottom time. Bottom times were increased in increments of 1 minute until a target risk of 2.3% probability

513 of DCS occurring was reached. If 2.3% risk was exceeded the next shorter time was accepted as the limit.