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Published in:
Maturitas

DOI:
[10.1016/j.maturitas.2016.01.014](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.maturitas.2016.01.014)

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Recommended citation(APA):
Marshall, S. (2016). Protein-energy malnutrition in the rehabilitation setting: Evidence to improve identification. *Maturitas*, 86, 77-85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.maturitas.2016.01.014>

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1 **Protein-energy malnutrition in the rehabilitation setting: evidence to improve**
2 **identification**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Methods of identifying malnutrition in the rehabilitation setting require further examination
10 so that patient outcomes may be improved. The purpose of this narrative review was to: 1)
11 examine the defining characteristics of malnutrition, starvation, sarcopenia and cachexia; 2)
12 review the validity of nutrition screening **tools** and **nutrition** assessment tools in the
13 rehabilitation setting; and 3) determine the prevalence of malnutrition in the rehabilitation
14 setting **by geographical region and method of diagnosis**. A narrative review was conducted
15 drawing upon international literature. Starvation represents one form of malnutrition.
16 Inadequate energy and protein intake are the critical factor in the aetiology of malnutrition,
17 which is distinct from sarcopenia and cachexia. **Eight** nutrition screening **tools** and **two**
18 nutrition assessment tools have been evaluated for criterion validity in the rehabilitation
19 setting, and consideration must be given to the resources of the facility and the patient group
20 in order to select the appropriate tool. The prevalence of malnutrition in the rehabilitation
21 setting ranges from **14-65%** worldwide with the highest prevalence reported in rural,
22 European and Australian settings. Malnutrition is highly prevalent in the rehabilitation
23 setting, and consideration must be given to the patient group when determining the most
24 appropriate method of identification so that resources may be used efficaciously and the
25 chance of misdiagnosis minimised.

26 **Keywords:** Malnutrition, Subacute Care, Rehabilitation, Nutrition Assessment, Aged / Aged
27 80 and over.

28 **Abbreviations**

29 AND, Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics

30 BMI, Body Mass Index

31 Kg, kilogram

32 m, meter

33 MNA, Mini Nutritional Assessment

34 MNA-SF, Mini Nutritional Assessment – Short Form

35 MST, Malnutrition Screening Tool

36 PG-SGA, Patient-Generated Subjective Global Assessment

37 SGA, Subjective Global Assessment

38 UK, United Kingdom

39 USA, United States of America

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Ever since Dr Charles Edwin Butterworth Jr's seminal 1974 article "The Skeleton in the
42 Hospital Closet", there has been a positive movement in clinical health care to address
43 "hospital malnutrition" [1]. However, in highly developed countries, such as Australia and
44 the UK, malnutrition remains widespread in older adults, where prevalence is the highest in
45 rehabilitation wards (30 – 50% of inpatients) [2]. In addition, there has been confusion in the
46 literature and in clinical practice regarding malnutrition, starvation, sarcopenia and cachexia
47 in older adults, which are conditions characterised by involuntary loss of lean tissue [3].

48 Nutrition screening and **nutrition** assessment are essential parts of the nutrition care process,
49 as accurate identification and diagnosis of malnutrition is required in order for patients to be
50 adequately treated, and for nutrition resources to be used efficaciously [4]. However, it is
51 essential that the nutrition screening tools and nutrition assessment tools used to complete
52 these steps have undergone adequate evaluation for validity so that the most appropriate tool
53 can be selected for the patient group [2].

54 The prevalence of malnutrition in rehabilitation and the nutrition screening and assessment
55 tools appropriate for use in rehabilitation have not been reviewed since 2009 [2]. Examining
56 the validity of nutrition screening and assessment tools in rehabilitation will help practitioners
57 select the most appropriate tool for their facility. Additionally, understanding the limitations
58 of a particular tool in a particular setting is required so that appropriate steps can be taken to
59 minimise the risk of misdiagnosis. For this reason, the method of diagnosis should be
60 considered when reviewing the prevalence of malnutrition. The prevalence of malnutrition in
61 rehabilitation has not been evaluated with consideration given to the method of diagnosis, nor
62 the various settings in which it was measured, such as rural versus metropolitan prevalence or
63 **by country or region**. Understanding the prevalence of malnutrition in these various settings

64 will help health care workers to understand the risk of malnutrition for particular patient
65 groups and assist in the allocation of nutrition resources.

66 Therefore, the purpose of this narrative review was to: 1) examine the defining characteristics
67 of malnutrition, starvation, sarcopenia and cachexia; 2) review the validity of nutrition
68 screening tools and nutrition assessment tools in the rehabilitation setting; and 3) determine
69 the prevalence of malnutrition in the rehabilitation setting by geographical region and method
70 of diagnosis.

71 2. Methods

72 A narrative review was conducted which drew upon international literature published up
73 until 15 August 2015. A review was conducted as part of the narrative review to identify the
74 nutrition screening and assessment tools evaluated for validity in the inpatient rehabilitation
75 facilities, as well as determine the prevalence of malnutrition. For this review, published
76 English-language literature was searched on Google Scholar from 1980 – 15 August 2015.
77 The search terms were (“MNA” OR “SGA” OR “PG-SGA” OR “ICD-10-AM” OR
78 “Malnutrition Universal Screening Tool” OR “SNAQ” OR “NRS-2002” OR “nutrition
79 screening tool”) AND “Malnutrition” AND (“Rehabilitation” OR “Subacute”). The search
80 strategy was complemented by a snowball search of literature cited by identified papers.
81 Studies were included for the prevalence study only when malnutrition was diagnosed by a
82 validated method.

83 3. Defining malnutrition

84 Protein-energy undernutrition, also known as protein-energy malnutrition, and frequently
85 referred to simply as *malnutrition*, occurs when food and nutrient intake is unable to meet
86 protein, energy and nutrient requirements over time leading to a disruption of homeostasis in
87 lean tissues, body weight and physical function [5, 6]. Lean tissues include fat-free,

88 metabolically active tissues such as skeletal muscle, viscera, blood cells and the immune
89 system. Lean tissues are the largest body component, comprising 35 – 50% of the total body
90 weight of a healthy adult [6]. A decrease in lean tissue is the main cause of unintentional
91 weight loss in most cases of malnutrition, although loss of fat mass may also be a
92 contributing factor, and is caused by starvation or a combination of starvation and catabolic
93 stress [6].

94 3.1 Malnutrition, starvation, sarcopenia or cachexia?

95 It has been widely recognised that muscle mass frequently decreases with age. Malnutrition,
96 starvation, sarcopenia and cachexia are all conditions characterised by loss of lean tissue and
97 typically occur in older adults, leading to confusion in the literature and in clinical practice
98 [3].

99 Starvation is the loss of both fat-mass and fat-free mass as the result of a chronic inadequate
100 intake of protein and energy [3]. Therefore, starvation may be a cause of malnutrition, as
101 reflected by the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (AND) standardised set of diagnostic
102 characteristics for malnutrition: a) starvation-related malnutrition, b) chronic-disease related
103 malnutrition and c) acute disease or injury-related malnutrition [7]. The AND have defined
104 starvation-related malnutrition as protein-energy malnutrition due to pure chronic starvation
105 or anorexia nervosa [7]. Overall, starvation may be an important component of malnutrition
106 in some clinical situations, but should be used with caution when discussing malnutrition in
107 general.

108 Since being coined in 1989, the definition of “sarcopenia” has continued to evolve as the
109 condition is further explored [8]. However, in 2009 and 2010 three separate groups of experts
110 met to gain consensus for the definitions of sarcopenia. As each of these consensus
111 definitions were slightly different, no definition is yet universally accepted and there still

112 remains confusion and inconsistency in the literature when describing and diagnosing this
113 “geriatric syndrome” [9]. However, all three definitions agree that sarcopenia is characterised
114 by the progressive age-related loss of lean muscle mass, muscle strength and physical
115 function, and is associated with poor health outcomes [10-12]. One important development in
116 the consensus of sarcopenia is the recognition that inadequate dietary intake and/or nutrient
117 malabsorption is a possible factor in the aetiology of the syndrome (known as nutrition-
118 related sarcopenia) by the European Working Group on Sarcopenia [10]. However, both the
119 International Working Group on Sarcopenia and the Society for Sarcopenia, Cachexia and
120 Wasting Disorders have not recognised inadequate nutrition as a potential cause in the
121 multifactorial aetiology of the syndrome; though they did recognise that it has a role in the
122 pathophysiology of sarcopenia [11, 12]. This may reflect the lack of strong research in
123 exploring the nutritional mechanisms in sarcopenia along with the fact that it may be
124 uncommon to find an older adult with sarcopenia who meets estimated energy and protein
125 requirements [8]. However, there have not been enough well designed studies to conclude
126 whether the severity or progression of sarcopenia is affected by dietary intervention. In
127 addition, it may be possible for both malnutrition and sarcopenia to present as comorbidities,
128 known as the malnutrition-sarcopenia syndrome (MSS); though it must be acknowledged a
129 method of diagnosis for MSS has not yet been evaluated for validity or reliability [13].

130 Similar to disease-related malnutrition, cachexia is a complex syndrome associated with
131 underlying illness, characterised by the loss of body weight, predominately skeletal muscle,
132 which increases the risk of misdiagnosis [14]. Conditions which predispose to cachexia also
133 increase the risk of malnutrition, including cancer, chronic infection, and chronic kidney
134 disease [14]. However, unlike malnutrition, the loss of skeletal muscle in cachexia is a result
135 of increased resting energy expenditure mediated by elevated levels of proinflammatory
136 cytokines and a prolonged acute phase protein response [15]. Therefore, cachexia is

137 purported to not respond to dietary intervention, and states of malnutrition and sarcopenia
138 have been described as a “pre-cachectic state”, where nutritional intervention may have the
139 most benefit [14]. However, emerging research has shown that nutrition intervention may
140 impact upon the pathogenesis of cachexia, although nutrition intervention alone is insufficient
141 to treat the condition [14, 16, 17].

142 Therefore, inadequate energy and protein intake leading to a loss of lean-tissues in older age
143 may play a role in the pathogenesis sarcopenia and cachexia, but is a critical factor in the
144 aetiology and prognosis of all forms of malnutrition, including starvation. **The diagnostic**
145 **criteria of malnutrition, sarcopenia and cachexia help to highlight both the unique**
146 **characteristics and similarities of each condition, and are compared in table 1.**

147 **4. Identifying and diagnosing malnutrition**

148 Due to the variable nature of the clinical presentation of malnutrition, there is no gold
149 standard for diagnosing the condition. However, in Australian health care facilities, the
150 *International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Health Related Problems 10th*
151 *Revision Australian Modification* (sixth edition, ICD-10-AM) criteria are used to identify and
152 code for malnutrition, and are therefore used to provide case-mix funding reimbursements
153 [18]. The ICD-10-AM classification of malnutrition incorporate multiple criteria, including
154 body mass index (BMI), weight loss, dietary intake and evidence of fat and/or muscle
155 wasting [18]. However, prior to coding for malnutrition, a patient undergoes nutrition
156 screening and nutrition assessment.

157 Nutrition screening acts as the trigger to engage a patient in the nutrition care process, which
158 begins with nutrition assessment. Nutrition screening and **nutrition** assessment are often
159 completed through the application of a nutrition screening tool and nutrition assessment tool
160 [4]. However, the nutrition screening and assessment tools chosen should be validated for the

161 population to which they are applied. As there is no gold standard for identifying or
162 diagnosing malnutrition, the criterion validity (comprising concurrent and predictive) must be
163 established for nutrition screening and assessment tools [19]. Concurrent validity is
164 determined by comparing the **results** of a new tool to the **results** of a well-established
165 measurement for the same construct. When considering the concurrent validity of a nutrition
166 screening or assessment tool, it is important to consider the well-established measurement
167 used as a benchmark (or reference standard), and if this is a relevant benchmark for a
168 particular patient group **and condition**. Predictive validity is established when the score of a
169 particular measurement makes an accurate prediction about an important and related
170 outcome.

171 4.1 Malnutrition screening tools

172 Nutrition screening tools should be quick and simple to implement and able to be used by any
173 trained person or the patient themselves. Nutrition screening tools determine risk of
174 malnutrition but cannot make a diagnosis of malnutrition. In the rehabilitation setting, **eight**
175 nutrition screening tools have been evaluated for their criterion validity: the Mini Nutrition
176 Assessment-Short Form (MNA-SF) [20], **Malnutrition Screening Tool (MST) [21, 22],**
177 **Malnutrition Universal Assessment Tool (MUST), Nutritional Form for the Elderly (NUFFE)**
178 **[23], Rapid Screen [24], Short Nutritional Assessment Questionnaire (SNAQ) [25, 26],**
179 **SNAQ Residential Care (SNAQ^{RC}) [25, 27] and the SNAQ for older adults (SNAQ⁶⁵⁺) [25,**
180 **28] . A description of their domains and criteria are described by Skipper et al. [29].** When
181 evaluating the concurrent validity of a nutrition screening tool, sensitivity (those at risk of
182 malnutrition correctly identified as such) is considered of higher importance than specificity
183 (those not at risk of malnutrition correctly identified as such) and *a-priori* values of $\geq 80\%$ for
184 sensitivity and $\geq 60\%$ for specificity are considered to indicate a good nutrition screening tool
185 [22]. Table 2 compares the concurrent validity of nutrition screening tools in rehabilitation.

186 In the rehabilitation setting, only the MST, MUST, SNAQ and SNAQ⁶⁵⁺ met *a-priori* values
187 for sensitivity and specificity; however, of these, only the MST met *a-priori* values compared
188 to a suitable multidimensional benchmark for malnutrition. The NUFFE did not report
189 sensitivity, specificity nor a kappa statistic, and therefore no conclusions could be drawn
190 about its suitability for the rehabilitation setting.

191 The moderate agreement of the MNA-SF with the full Mini Nutritional Assessment (MNA),
192 reported by Kaiser et al. [30], is expected as the MNA-SF was designed using the six
193 questions from the full MNA which had the strongest correlations with the total MNA score.
194 However, the **two subsequent** studies found the MNA-SF may not be appropriate for use in
195 geriatric rehabilitation, as it was found to significantly overestimate the risk of malnutrition
196 when compared to a benchmark unrelated to the MNA [18, 21, 25]. **The SNAQ^{RC} was also**
197 **found to overestimate the risk of malnutrition.** Overestimating risk of malnutrition may lead
198 to increased burden on nutrition resources, as all patients identified as at risk of malnutrition
199 will be referred to the dietitian for a nutrition assessment. Therefore, the MNA-SF may be
200 appropriate for a well-resourced rehabilitation facility focussed on prevention [32-34]. The
201 MNA-SF has displayed predictive validity for risk of institutionalisation and decreased
202 physical function and quality of life in one study [35] **and length of stay and poor**
203 **participation in rehabilitation activities in a second study** [36]. However, a **two further studies**
204 found it was not able to predict **length of stay, complications, physical function,**
205 **rehospitalisation, institutionalisation, discharge location or mortality** [21]. **Apart from the**
206 **MNA-SF, only the Rapid Screen displayed predictive validity, where it was able to predict**
207 **discharge location** [24]. The MST did not display predictive validity, whereas the MUST,
208 NUFFE, SNAQ, SNAQ^{RC} and SNAQ⁶⁵⁺ were not evaluated for predictive validity. Overall,
209 **although some nutrition screening tools are suitable for identifying risk of malnutrition, there**
210 **is insufficient evidence to determine if they are suitable predictors of patient outcomes in**

211 rehabilitation, which highlights the importance of following nutrition screening with a full
212 nutrition assessment.

213 4.2 Nutrition assessment tools

214 The accuracy and reliability of global nutrition assessment tools in diagnosing malnutrition
215 can be attributed to incorporating multiple criteria in their assessment, such as measures of
216 anthropometry, medical status, physical function and dietary intake. The MNA and the
217 Scored Patient-Generated Subjective Global Assessment (PG-SGA) have been evaluated for
218 criterion validity in the rehabilitation setting [2]. Table 3 compares the concurrent validity of
219 these nutrition assessment tools in rehabilitation facilities.

220 The two studies which evaluated the MNA as a continuous variable reported that it has good
221 discriminatory power [37, 38]; however, when using the recommended score of <17 to
222 identify malnutrition, the lower sensitivity indicates the MNA categories carry a risk of
223 labelling a patient “at risk of malnutrition” instead of “malnourished” in rehabilitation [38].

224 The two-tiered process employed by Visvanathan et al [24], described in table 3, has
225 improved the sensitivity of the MNA. This suggests that caution should be used when
226 employing the MNA in geriatric rehabilitation, and that patients found “at risk of
227 malnutrition” may require further evaluation. However, as the number of patients classified
228 as “at risk of malnutrition” by the MNA is usually high, this may have negative impacts on
229 nutrition resources [38]. These results suggest MNA may require further study to identify a
230 more appropriate cut-off value to diagnose malnutrition in geriatric rehabilitation.

231 One study reported that the Subjective Global Assessment (SGA) ratings of nutrition status
232 were associated with anthropometric measures and grip strength, and had good
233 reproducibility when used by medical officers in rehabilitation [40]. Although the criterion
234 validity of the SGA has not been evaluated, the Scored PG-SGA ratings of nutrition status are

235 analogous to the SGA ratings, and were found to have excellent concurrent validity when
236 compared to the ICD-10-AM classification of malnutrition [38]. The Scored PG-SGA
237 primarily differs from the SGA by including a continuous numerical score for intervention
238 triage. This score was found to be an “excellent test” [39] and also displayed strong
239 concurrent validity when using a score of 7 or higher to indicate malnutrition in this geriatric
240 population as opposed to 9 or higher currently recommended on the tool for adult populations
241 [38]. Both the MNA and Scored PG-SGA have shown strong predictive validity when
242 compared with institutionalisation, discharge location and rehospitalisation [38]. In addition,
243 the MNA and Scored PG-SGA scores have been found to be sensitive to change in nutrition
244 status during the course of rehabilitation admission [41, 42].

245 4.3 Body Mass Index

246 The BMI was first described by Adolphe Quetelet, a Belgian astronomer, mathematician,
247 statistician and sociologist, between 1830 and 1850 [43]. The BMI, calculated by kg/m^2 , has
248 been classified into widely accepted categories of adiposity, where a BMI of $\leq 18.5 \text{kg/m}^2$ is
249 considered “underweight” and has been used to diagnose **chronic** malnutrition for individuals
250 [18]. However, there is strong emerging evidence to suggest that the BMI of $\leq 18.5 \text{kg/m}^2$ to
251 indicate underweight is too low for older adults. In 2014, Winter et. al [44] published a meta-
252 analysis which aimed to define BMI in community-dwelling older adults (≥ 65 years,
253 $n=197,940$ in total), and concluded that a BMI of $< 23 \text{kg/m}^2$ may be considered underweight
254 in community-dwelling older adults. However, it is important to acknowledge that
255 malnutrition can occur in healthy weight or overweight/obese individuals [45]. Therefore,
256 BMI may assist in the identification of chronic malnutrition in some patients, but should not
257 be used as a sole method of screening or diagnosis.

258 **5. Malnutrition prevalence in older adults admitted to rehabilitation**

259 As suggested in the revision of the concurrent validity of nutrition assessment tools, the
260 reporting of malnutrition prevalence can vary depending on the method used to diagnose the
261 condition. For example, is the nutrition assessment method known to under- or overestimate
262 malnutrition? Furthermore, prevalence of malnutrition in rehabilitation is likely to differ by
263 geographical location, such as by rurality or country, reflecting the access to resources and
264 the population profile of the particular patient group. Therefore, due to the importance of the
265 diagnosis method and the participant characteristics, prevalence was only considered when
266 reported by the MNA (score of <17 to indicate malnutrition), the SGA and Scored PG-SGA
267 (ratings B or C to indicate malnutrition) or the ICD-10-AM criteria (E43, E44.0 or E44.1 to
268 indicate malnutrition); and the patient group was described.

269 Seventeen studies were identified which reported the prevalence of malnutrition in the
270 rehabilitation setting; two of which were in stroke rehabilitation [46, 47], with the remaining
271 15 in general rehabilitation facilities (table 4).

272 All malnutrition prevalence studies undertaken in the rehabilitation setting have had an older
273 adult sample, however two studies did not describe the age of participants [55, 57]. No
274 studies were identified reporting the malnutrition prevalence in rehabilitation in South
275 America or Africa, and only one study reported the prevalence in North America [48]. Only
276 two studies, both Australian, reported the prevalence of malnutrition in a rural population,
277 where the prevalence was high but varied according to type of nutrition assessment
278 (SGA=65% in one sample; ICD-10-AM criteria=46%, Scored PG-SGA=53%, MNA=28% in
279 a second sample) [38, 56]. In two studies which also measured the prevalence of malnutrition
280 in other settings, rehabilitation consistently had the highest prevalence [49, 55]. The MNA
281 was the most popular choice internationally for the assessment of nutrition status (n=11 of 17
282 studies).

283 In metropolitan settings, the prevalence of malnutrition according to the MNA is inconsistent
284 (0.06-68%), however when viewed by geographical location appears more consistent (33-
285 53% in Europe and 14-24% in Asia and approximately 30% in Australia and North America).
286 However, two studies reported outliers, 0.06% in Australia [35] and 68% in Italy [50]. It is
287 unclear if these outliers in reported prevalence of malnutrition by the MNA are due to a real
288 difference in the severity of malnutrition in each study or due to possible differences in how
289 the tool was implemented. When considering the low sensitivity of the MNA to identify
290 malnutrition in geriatric rehabilitation (table 3), the prevalence reported by the MNA may be
291 underestimated generally [38]. The metropolitan prevalence of malnutrition according to the
292 SGA was generally consistent according to studies from Australia and Sweden (32 – 49%).

293 6. Conclusion

294 The pathogenesis of malnutrition, including starvation-related malnutrition, is distinct from
295 sarcopenia and cachexia; however, nutrition support may have a role in preventing or treating
296 all conditions characterised by the loss of lean tissues. The MST has strong criterion validity;
297 and the MUST, SNAQ and the SNAQ⁶⁵⁺ may also be appropriate for use as nutrition
298 screening tools in rehabilitation. However, the MNA-SF and SNAQ^{RC} may only be
299 appropriate for well-resourced settings focussed on prevention. The Rapid Screen and
300 NUFFE require further evaluation of their validity before being recommended as a screening
301 tool in the rehabilitation setting. Overall, nutrition screening tools require further
302 investigation regarding their predictive validity, reliability and accuracy when used in
303 practice. The Scored PG-SGA is appropriate for use as a nutrition assessment tool in
304 rehabilitation; however, the MNA and BMI carry a risk that a malnourished patient may not
305 be identified and may therefore not be appropriate as sole methods of diagnosis. Further
306 research examining the MNA is needed in geriatric rehabilitation, including the evaluation of
307 a new cut-off value for diagnosing malnutrition. Although the SGA can be considered

308 appropriate for use, further evidence is needed regarding its criterion validity. Malnutrition in
309 the rehabilitation setting is most prevalent in older adults, and ranges from <1 – 68%
310 worldwide and is influenced by method of diagnosis, country and rurality. The highest
311 prevalence of malnutrition has been reported in rural, European and Australian settings;
312 however, further studies investigating the prevalence of malnutrition in North and South
313 America and Africa, as well as studies reporting the prevalence in rural areas internationally,
314 is required.

315 **7. Acknowledgements**

316 I would like to thank Professor Elizabeth Isenring, Bond University, and Dr Adrienne
317 Young, Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital, for providing guidance for the current
318 manuscript and for their supervision and support throughout my PhD scholarship.

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Table 1: The diagnostic criteria of malnutrition, sarcopenia and cachexia

Malnutrition^a	Sarcopenia^e	Cachexia^g
Diagnosis based upon criterion 1 or (criterion 2 plus criterion 3 plus criterion 4)	Diagnosis based upon criterion 1 plus (criterion 2 or criterion 3)	Diagnosis based upon (criterion 1 or criterion 2) and (criterion 3, criterion 4 or criterion 5)
Criterion 1: BMI ^b <18.5 kg ^c /m ^{d2}	Criterion 1: Poor physical functioning (gait speed <1m·s ^{-1f})	Criterion 1: Unintentional weight loss (≥5%) in 12 months or less in presence of underlying illness
Criterion 2: Unintentional weight loss (≥5%)	Criterion 2: Whole body lean mass <20 th percentile	Criterion 2: BMI <20kg/m ²
Criterion 3: Suboptimal intake	Criterion 3: Appendicular fat free mass ≤7.23kg/m ² (men) or ≤5.67kg/m ² (women)	Criterion 3: Fatigue
Criterion 4: Loss of fat and/or muscle		Criterion 4: Low fat-free mass (MUAMC ^h <10 th percentile or appendicular skeletal muscle ≤7.25kg/m ² (men) or ≤5.45kg/m ² (women))
		Criterion 5: Abnormal biochemistry (albumin <32g ⁱ /L ^j (3.2 g/dL ^k), CRP ^l >5.0mg ^m /L or IL-6 ⁿ >4.0pg ^o /ml ^p , or Hb ^q <3.2g/dL)

^a Diagnosis of malnutrition according to the *International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Health Related Problems 10th Revision Australian Modification* (sixth edition, ICD-10-AM) [18].

^b BMI, body mass index

^c kg, kilogram

^d m, metre

^e Diagnosis of sarcopenia according to the International Working Group on Sarcopenia [11]

^f m·s⁻¹, meter per second

^g Diagnosis of cachexia according to the Cachexia Consensus Working Group [14]

^h MUAMC, mid upper arm muscle circumference

ⁱ g, gram

^j L, litre

^k dL, decilitre

^l CRP, C-reactive protein

^m mg, milligram

ⁿ IL-6, Interleukin-6

^o pg, pictogram

^p ml, millilitre

^q Hb, haemoglobin

Table 2: Comparison of the concurrent validity of nutrition screening tools evaluated in the rehabilitation setting

Nutrition screening tool	Benchmark used	Population	Sensitivity	Specificity	Kappa statistic	Kappa statistic classification^a
MNA-SF ^b - Kaiser et al. 2011 [30]	Full MNA ^c	n=99, μ 74.9 \pm 6.2 years Rome, Italy	Not reported	Not reported	0.626	Substantial agreement
MNA-SF - Marshall et al. 2015 [21]	ICD-10-AM ^d classification	n=57, μ 79.1 \pm 7.3 years NSW ^e , Australia	100%	22.6%	0.210	Fair agreement
MNA-SF - Hertroijs et al. 2012 [25]	Low BMI ^f or weight-loss	n=366, μ 55 years Netherlands	92%	37%	Not reported	Not reported
MST ^g - Marshall et al. 2015 [21]	ICD-10-AM	n=57, μ 79.1 \pm 7.3 years NSW, Australia	80.8%	67.7%	0.478	Moderate agreement
MUST ^h - Hertroijs et al. 2012 [25]	Low BMI or weight-loss	n=366, μ 55 years Netherlands	100%	97%	Not reported	Not reported
NUFFE ⁱ - Söderhamn & Söderhamn, 2002 [23]	BMI, MAC ^j , CC ^k and MNA	n=114, μ 78.0 \pm 6.3 years Western Sweden	Not reported	Not reported	Not reported	Not reported
Rapid Screen - Visvanathan et al. 2004 [24]	Standardised nutrition assessment	n=65, μ 76.5-79.8 years SA ^l , Australia	78.6%	97.3%	Not reported	Not reported
SNAQ ^m						

- Hertroijs et al. 2012 [25]	Low BMI or weight-loss	n=366, μ 55 years Netherlands	96%	71%	Not reported	Not reported
SNAQ ^{RC,n} - Hertroijs et al. 2012 [25]	Low BMI or weight-loss	n=366, μ 55 years Netherlands	99%	48%	Not reported	Not reported
SNAQ ^{65+,o} - Hertroijs et al. 2012 [25]	Low BMI or weight-loss	n=366, μ 55 years Netherlands	96%	77%	Not reported	Not reported

a Landis and Koch kappa statistic classification [31]

b MNA-SF, Mini Nutritional Assessment – Short Form

c MNA, Mini Nutritional Assessment

d ICD-10-AM, International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Health Related Problems 10th Revision Australian Modification (sixth edition) classifications for protein-energy malnutrition in adults

e NSW, New South Wales

f BMI, body mass index

g MST, Malnutrition Screening Tool

h MUST, Malnutrition Universal Assessment Tool

i NUFFE, Nutritional Form for the Elderly; Spearman rank correlations used to determine concurrent validity with the BMI at admission (r_s -0.25, $P=0.008$), BMI at discharge (r_s -0.23, $P=0.014$), MAC (r_s -0.23, $P=0.014$), CC (r_s -0.25, $P=0.008$) and the MNA (r_s -0.74, $P=0.000$)

j MAC, mid arm circumference

k CC, calf circumference

l SA, South Australia

m SNAQ, Short Nutritional Assessment Questionnaire

n SNAQ^{RC}, Short Nutritional Assessment Questionnaire Residential Care

o SNAQ⁶⁵⁺, Short Nutritional Assessment Questionnaire for older adults

Table 3: Comparison of concurrent validity of nutrition assessment tools evaluated in the rehabilitation setting

Nutrition screening tool	Benchmark used	Population	ROC AUC^a	ROC AUC classification^b	Sensitivity	Specificity	Kappa statistic	Kappa statistic classification^c
MNA ^d - Neumann et al. 2007 [37]	Body fat	n=34, median 84 (IQR ^e , 78-88) years SA ^f , Australia	0.74	Good test	Not reported	Not reported	Not reported	Not reported
MNA - Marshall et al. 2015 [38]	ICD-10-AM ^g	n=57, μ 79.1 \pm 7.3 years NSW ^h , Australia	0.85	Very good test	57.7%	96.8%	0.562	Moderate agreement
MNA ⁱ - Visvanathan et al. 2004 [24]	Standardised nutrition assessment	n=65, μ 76.5-79.8 years SA, Australia	N/A ^{j,k}	N/A	89.5%	87.5%	Not reported	Not reported
Scored PG-SGA ^l ratings - Marshall, et al. 2015 [38]	ICD-10-AM	n=57, μ 79.1 \pm 7.3 years NSW, Australia	N/A ^k	N/A	100%	87.1%	0.860	Almost perfect agreement
Scored PG-SGA score ^m - Marshall, et al. 2015 [38]	ICD-10-AM	n=57, μ 79.1 \pm 7.3 years NSW, Australia	0.910	Excellent test	92.3%	83.9%	0.7555	Substantial agreement

a ROC AUC, Receiver Operating Characteristic Area Under the Curve

b ROC AUC classification for the discriminative power of a test [39]

c Landis and Koch kappa statistic classification [31]

d MNA, Mini Nutritional Assessment

e IQR, Interquartile range

f SA, South Australia

g ICD-10-AM, International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Health Related Problems 10th Revision Australian Modification (sixth edition) classifications for protein-energy malnutrition in adults

h NSW, New South Wales

i Non-standard calculation of the MNA. A two-step process was used, where participants which were identified as “at risk of malnutrition” (score 17 – 23.5) underwent further nutritional assessment to re-classify as “malnourished” or “well-nourished”. Traditional scoring of the MNA considers a participant “malnourished” if they scored <17, and “well-nourished” if they scored 17 - 30, which includes participants “at risk of malnutrition”.

j N/A, Not applicable

k ROC AUC applies to continuous variables only

l PG-SGA, Patient-Generated Subjective Global Assessment

m A score of 7 or more used to indicate “malnutrition” in geriatric rehabilitation [38]

Table 4: International prevalence of malnutrition in the rehabilitation setting according nutrition assessment tools validated for the rehabilitation setting.

Study	Setting	Diagnosis method	Prevalence
MNA in North America			
Thomas et al. 2002 [48]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • St Louis, USA • n=104, μ75.8 years 	MNA	29%
MNA in Europe			
Compan et al. 2000 [49]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nîmes, France • n=196, μ83.4\pm6.8 years 	MNA	33% ^a
Donini et al. 2002 [50]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rome, Italy • n=167, μ79 – 83 years 	MNA	68%
Kaiser et al. 2011 [30]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rome, Italy • n=99, μ74.9\pm6.2 years 	MNA	41%
MNA in Asia			
Shum et al. 2005 [51]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional Hong Kong • n=120, μ80.3\pm7.4 years 	Chinese MNA ^b	17%
Tsai et al. 2009 [46]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wen-Hua District, Taiwan^c • n=74, 82% were \geq60 years 	MNA, MNA-TI (population specific) ^d	24% (MNA), 14% (MNA-TI)
MNA in Australia			
Visvanathan et al. 2004 [24]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adelaide, SA • n=65, μ76.5 – 79.8 years 	MNA	29%
Neumann et al. 2005 [35]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 3 Hospitals across SA • n=167, μ81\pm6 years 	MNA	0.06%
Charlton et al. 2010 [52]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sydney, NSW • n=2076, μ80.6\pm27.7 years 	MNA	33%
McDougall et al. 2015 [42]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Melbourne, Victoria • n=114, 83\pm7 years 	MNA	32%

Marshall et al. 2015 [38]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rural NSW • n=57, μ79.1\pm7.3 years 	MNA	28%
SGA in Europe			
Westergren et al. 2001 [47]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Metropolitan Sweden^e • n=162, μ78.62 years 	SGA ^f	32%
Westergren et al. 2002 [53]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Metropolitan Sweden • n=520, μ81.0 years 	SGA ^f	46%
Andersson et al. 2002 [54]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • South Sweden • n=237, μ78.5 – 78.6 years 	SGA ^f	34%
SGA in Australia			
Beck et al. 2001 [55]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wollongong, NSW • n=344, age not described 	SGA	49% ^g
Thomas, et al. 2014 [56]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ballarat, Victoria • n=20, “geriatric”, age not described 	SGA	65%
Breik, et al. 2015 [57]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Metropolitan Victoria • n=69, age not described 	SGA	49%
Scored PG-SGA in Australia			
Marshall et al. 2015 [38]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rural NSW • n=57, μ79.1\pm7.3 years 	Scored PG-SGA	53%
ICD-10-AM classification of protein-energy malnutrition in Australia			
Marshall et al. 2015 [38]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rural NSW • n=57, μ79.1\pm7.3 years 	ICD-10-AM	46%

CI, Confidence interval; ICD-10-AM, International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Health Related Problems, 10th Revision, Australian Modification; MNA, Mini Nutritional Assessment; SA, South Australia; PG-SGA, Patient-Generated Subjective Global Assessment; SGA, Subjective Global Assessment.

a Compan et al. [49] found that rehabilitation had a higher prevalence than acute care than those in acute care (24.5%) or long-term residential care (24.7%).

b Malnutrition is considered at an MNA score of <18.5 as opposed to the usual <17 in the modified Chinese MNA.

c Result reported from a combined community and inpatient stroke rehabilitation study sample as opposed to a general rehabilitation inpatient sample

d Cut-points for the modified MNA-TI not described by the authors.

e Results reported from a stroke rehabilitation study sample as opposed to a general rehabilitation inpatient sample

f The SGA used in Sweden has four ratings of nutrition status, A, B, C and D instead of the usual A, B or C. The authors report malnutrition prevalence comprising ratings B, C and D.

g Beck et al. [55] found that rehabilitation had the highest prevalence of malnutrition compared to other inpatient medical wards