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1 Why is the skeleton still in the hospital closet? A look at the complex aetiology of protein-

2 energy malnutrition and its implications for the nutrition care team

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14 Introduction

The acknowledgement of protein-energy malnutrition (PEM) as one of "...the most serious 15 nutritional problems of our time" was actually made by Dr Butterworth Jr in 1974 in his seminal 16 article, "the skeleton in the hospital closet" (1). In most cases, major health problems prevalent 17 18 in the 1970s have been addressed and improved, such as vast improvements in vaccination rates, 19 pain management and contraception efficacy (4-6). But when it comes to PEM, the continuing 20 high prevalence across all settings (10 - 65%) in our home-dwelling, hospitalised and 21 institutionalised elderly) (7-10) and hefty economic burden (>USD\$156 billion per annum) (11-22 13) at first appears to suggest that medicine and medical nutrition therapy may have failed to achieve any significant improvement in the past 40 years. However, PEM (the unintentional loss 23 of lean tissues caused by inadequate energy, protein and nutrient intake) is unique compared 24 25 with many other medical and nutritional problems, due to not only having a deeply complex 26 physiological cause, but also a multifactorial environmental, economic and psychosocial origin. 27 Furthermore, PEM is often underdiagnosed and/or overlooked in the presence of similar 28 conditions such as sarcopenia (age-related loss of muscle mass and physical function) and 29 cachexia (loss of muscle mass due to disease-related increases in proinflammatory cytokines and 30 a prolonged acute phase protein response) (9). Beyond the economic consequences of PEM, the high prevalence is significant for the individual, who may experience broad health problems 31 32 such as decreased cardiac, respiratory, hepatic, immune function; decreased quality of life; and a significantly increased risk of hospitalisation, institutionalisation and mortality (8, 14). 33

Therefore, a renewed examination of what we have learned about the complex aetiology of PEM over the past 40 years and its implications for practice may be useful in helping to prevent and manage this long-term geriatric syndrome across the continuum of care.

37 The physiological causes of protein-energy malnutrition

The physiological causes of PEM may be broadly categorised as a) impaired dietary intake, b) altered metabolic requirements, c) impaired digestion and/or absorption, and d) excessive nutrient losses. However, in most cases, a combination of factors reflecting the individual and the setting may be responsible (2). A simple example may be an individual with ill-fitting dentures (impairing dietary intake); where as a more complex example may be an individual with oesophageal cancer (impairing dietary intake; altering metabolic requirements), having undergone surgery (impairing dietary intake; altering metabolic requirements) and experiencing 45 nausea and vomiting due to chemotherapy (excessive nutrient losses; impairing dietary intake)
46 and also taking antibiotics (impairing digestion and absorption).

47 Impaired intake

48 Sometimes referred to as the 'anorexia of ageing', decreased appetite occurs as part of normal ageing (15). Appetite is controlled by interactions between the cortex, limbic system and 49 50 midbrain as well as peripheral inputs from the gut, adipose tissue and endocrine system (15). 51 These processes may work less efficiently with increasing age leading to the consumption of a 52 less varied and lower quality diet (15). PEM may occur in all age groups, but the physiological and psychosocial changes that occur in ageing, such as a decreased appetite and increased 53 comorbidities, place older adults at significantly higher risk (16). Although appetite loss is 54 common, PEM is not part of the normal ageing process and is preventable and treatable (17). 55 Overall, impaired dietary intake may be due to both poor appetite (figure 1) and/or an inability 56 to eat (figure 2), both of which have numerous and overlapping causes. Regarding dentition, 57 58 edentulousness, which is common in older adults, has been found to increase the risk of PEM 59 (18). When adjusting for confounders, the risk of PEM increased 1.15 times (95%CI 1.06-1.25) 60 for a decrease in masticatory percentage of 10 points (equivalent to the loss of two molars) (19).

61 Altered metabolic requirements

62 Trauma, sepsis, inflammation, fever and serious illnesses, such as cancer, respiratory disease and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, increase the body's metabolic rate and can result in 63 64 catabolic stress. During catabolic stress there is increased protein breakdown and disrupted 65 protein synthesis. This means the body's protein cycle is no longer in homeostasis and the net loss of protein in the post-absorptive state is not compensated for by net postprandial gain (3). 66 Net protein losses may be up to 20%, which is usually from the breakdown of skeletal muscle 67 but also from organs including the liver, gastrointestinal tract, kidneys and heart (3). These 68 69 hypermetabolic states increase the requirement for protein, energy and nutrient intake. Medications, polypharmacy and treatments such as haemodialysis can also alter the metabolic 70 71 requirements for nutrients (2).

72 Impaired digestion and/or absorption

The loss of gastrointestinal integrity as a result of protein catabolism can further exacerbate the protein-energy deficit due to mucosal atrophy and resulting malabsorption (3). In addition, there are multiple disease states which may prevent the digestion and/or absorption of nutrients in the gastrointestinal tract (2). Acute conditions include bacterial or parasitic infections which may
cause gastritis or impair the breakdown of ingested food as well as contribute to diarrhoea.
Chronic conditions include those that affect the stomach, intestine, pancreas and liver such as
cystic fibrosis, inflammatory bowel disease, short bowel syndrome, pancreatitis, hepatic
cirrhosis or bariatric surgery (20-25).

81 Excessive nutrient losses

Nutrient losses may occur during gastrointestinal dysfunction such as diarrhoea, steatorrhoea, vomiting and protein losing enteropathy, which may cause a loss of up to 60% of the albumin pool (26). Losses also occur through internal or gastrointestinal bleeding, stomas, fistulae or surgically placed drains for the removal of intra-abdominal fluid, which may contain up to 12g of protein per litre of fluid drained (2, 27).

87 Psychosocial and economic risk factors for protein-energy malnutrition

88 For most individuals, the physiological causes of malnutrition may be confounded by 89 psychosocial and economic risk factors for PEM (figure 1). For example, the individual with 90 poor fitting dentures may also be self-conscious of eating in front of others, which increases their 91 social isolation and may contribute to a decreased appetite. The individual with oesophageal 92 cancer may also be under financial stress due to the need to take extended leave from work, and 93 be unable to afford a suitable diet and/or prescribed oral nutrition supplements.

94 The influence of gender upon risk of PEM is unclear, due to the confounding effects of age, medical status and ethnicity (28). However, the characterisation of PEM in older hospitalised 95 96 patients has been found to differ based on gender. Nutritional risk in men has been found to be 97 more often associated with higher depression scores, increased length of stay and poor appetite; 98 whereas nutritional risk in women was found to be associated with lower functional status and higher number of disease states (29). The association between depression and nutritional status 99 is multifactorial and it is unclear if it is a cause and consequence of malnutrition in older adults 100 (30). As shown in figure 1, depression is associated with loss of appetite. Research has found 101 102 depression to be further associated with weight loss, and malnourished community-dwelling 103 older adults are significantly more likely to have higher depression scores (OR=4.38; 95%CI: 104 2.23-8.64) (31-34). Self-perceived health has also been found to influence nutritional risk, perhaps due to its influence on behaviours and attitudes (28). 105

106 Living alone, social isolation, financial strain and socio-economic disadvantage have been found 107 to increase the risk of PEM in older adults (28). Financial strain, represented by not having 108 enough money to make ends meet, was found to increase the risk of older women four-fold (OR: 109 4.08; 95% CI 1.95-8.52), accounting for income and education in a sample from Maryland, USA. 110 Using nationally representative data, communities in the USA with higher levels of social 111 isolation, such as lack of access to telephones and cars, socioeconomic disadvantage and higher levels of disability among the older adult population were found to have high rates of 112 Α 113 malnutrition-related mortality (35). one standard deviation increase in 114 socioeconomic/physical disadvantage was associated with a substantial 12% increase in the rate of malnutrition-related mortality in older adults (P < 0.001) (35). 115

116 Conclusion and implications for practice

117 Examining the aetiology of PEM in a purely physiological way is critical in order to understand 118 nutrient requirements and develop appropriate strategies. However, examining the physiological 119 aetiology alone will fail to recognise the significant psychological, social and economic factors 120 that influence the risk of PEM. This may lead to an inability for older adults to follow the 121 prescribed recommendations, or prevent their long term efficacy, because they fail to address the complete picture for the individual. In addition, PEM, which is usually identified during 122 123 admissions to acute, subacute or residential care, must be recognised as a long-term condition requiring ongoing multidisciplinary treatment across the continuum of care (16, 36). Health 124 125 practitioners need to recognise and address all the causes of malnutrition in an individual, which may only be achieved through individualised assessment and ongoing and flexible nutrition 126 127 intervention. This may reveal why standardised nutritional interventions employed in many health facilities, such as oral nutrition supplement protocol programs, fail to make any significant 128 129 impact in the prevalence of malnutrition.

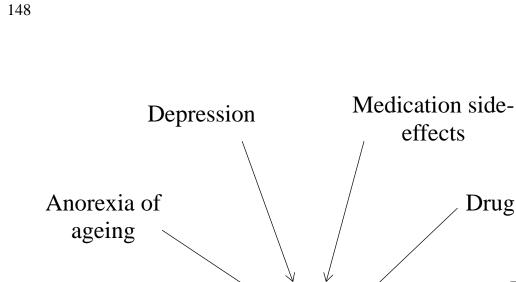
130 In order to provide suitable and proactive intervention, emerging research supports the 131 integration of multidisciplinary formal and informal care for malnourished patients (36-39). 132 Engaging the family and friends of malnourished persons as a critical part of the nutrition care 133 team may be a cost-effective way of ensuring patients receive highly individualised and cost-134 effective care across settings and in the long term (37, 40). Research has revealed that family of 135 malnourished patients may already see themselves as having the primary responsibility for 136 providing nutrition support, even during inpatient admissions (37), and when family are provided

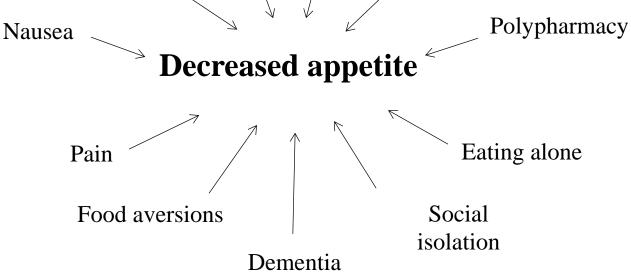
- 137 with education regarding malnutrition, they can improve the nutrition status, quality of life and
- 138 physical function of their care-recipients (38).
- 139 To support this emerging research, further intervention and feasibility studies are needed which
- 140 address diverse the physiological, psychosocial and economic risk factors, and which examine
- 141 the efficacy of integrating multidisciplinary formal and informal care across all settings.

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Drug addiction

Figure 1. Diverse factors which may lead to a decreased appetite and subsequent impaired dietary intake in older adults (2, 3)

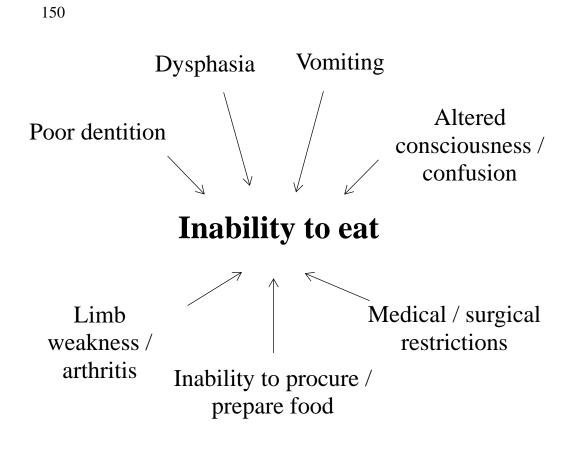


Figure 2. Diverse factors which may lead to an inability to eat and subsequent impaired dietary intake in older adults (2, 3).

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