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1 **Opinions and practices of healthcare professionals on assessment of disease associated**
2 **malnutrition in children: results from an international survey**

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26 **Short title:** Health professionals' practices on disease malnutrition

27 **Keywords:** Body mass index; Disease associated malnutrition; Nutrition screening tools;

28 Growth charts; Definition of malnutrition

29 **Abstract**

30 **Background and Aims:** Lack of consensus on clinical indicators for the assessment of
31 pediatric disease associated malnutrition (DAM) may explain its under-recognition in clinical
32 practice. This study surveyed the opinions of health professionals (HP) on clinical indicators
33 of DAM and barriers impeding routine nutritional screening in children.

34 **Methods:** Web-based questionnaire survey (April 2013 - August 2015) in Australia, Belgium,
35 Israel, Spain, The Netherlands, Turkey and UK.

36 **Results:** There were 937 questionnaires returned via local professional associations, of which
37 693 respondents fulfilled the inclusion criteria and were included in the final analysis; 315
38 pediatric gastroenterologists and 378 pediatric dieticians. The most important clinical
39 indicators of DAM were ongoing weight loss (80.4%), increased energy/nutrient losses
40 (73.0%), suboptimal energy/macronutrient intake (68.6%), a high nutritional risk condition
41 (67.2%) and increased energy/nutrient requirements (66.2%). These findings were consistent
42 across countries and professions. The most common approach to screen for DAM was
43 assessment of weight changes (85%), followed by the usage of growth charts (77-80%).
44 Common perceived barriers for routine nutritional screening/assessment were low staff
45 awareness (47.5%), no local policy or guidelines (33.4%) and lack of time to screen (33.4%).

46 **Conclusions:** HP who routinely assess and treat children with DAM identified ongoing
47 weight loss, increased losses, increased requirements, low intake and high nutritional risk
48 conditions as the most important clinical indicators of DAM. These clinical indicators should
49 now serve as a basis to form clinical-based criteria for the identification of DAM in routine
50 clinical practice. Low awareness, lack of guidelines or local policy and lack of resources were
51 the most important barriers of routine screening.

52 **Introduction**

53 Despite continuous efforts from health professional associations to increase nutrition
54 awareness and to improve early detection and management, a decrease in the prevalence of
55 disease associated malnutrition (DAM) in hospitalized children in developed countries, has
56 not been observed over the last decade¹. Although the reasons for lack of progression in this
57 area remain elusive, it is believed that the absence of a clinically and universally accepted
58 way to assess and screen DAM delays timely identification and treatment. It is also becoming
59 more recognized that the WHO criteria for screening of acute and chronic malnutrition in
60 communities of low-medium income countries, may be inappropriate for use in the context of
61 DAM, where its etiology is multifactorial and complicated by the background illness. In
62 health services of affluent countries, there is also increasing interest in the prevention of
63 DAM. Early management of patients whose nutritional status deteriorates is of utmost
64 importance in such settings.

65 Previous research proposed measurements and frameworks to define pediatric DAM;
66 with some focusing on the measurable consequences of DAM on body size² and composition
67 ³. Likewise, others incorporated information on etiology, chronicity and the effect of
68 inflammation and clinical outcomes⁴. The extent to which such proposals have been
69 integrated and apply in routine clinical practice remains unknown.

70 As evidence-based approaches or experts consensus do not often echo in clinical
71 practice, an alternative to these approaches, is to survey the opinions and practices of health
72 professionals (HP) who routinely identify and treat children with DAM. While such an
73 approach may not be considered evidence-based, it is a pragmatic one and has clinical
74 relevance.

75 The aims of this study were:

- 76 1. To survey the opinions of HP practitioners on clinical indicators of children who
77 suffer or are at risk of DAM.
- 78 2. To propose clinical measurements and indicators of DAM based on the preponderance
79 of HP responses.
- 80 3. To collect responders' perceptions on barriers of routine nutritional screening.

81

82 **Methods**

83 *Survey population*

84 As the objective of this survey was to collect opinions of HP who are the most likely to be
85 involved in nutritional care of pediatric patients, the survey targeted pediatric
86 gastroenterologists and pediatric dietitians with practicing experience in pediatric nutrition
87 care. Responders who did not meet these inclusion criteria were excluded. A questionnaire
88 survey was developed and distributed via the local professional associations of the
89 participating countries (Australia, Belgium, Israel, Spain, The Netherlands, Turkey and UK)
90 using the SurveyMonkey® website. As there is no formal Belgian professional group for
91 pediatric dietitians, no dietitians were included from this country. Two reminders were sent
92 with a two-week interval to all participants. The survey was anonymous and a prize draw of
93 £100 was used as an incentive.

94

95 *Survey design and data collection*

96 A draft questionnaire was collated by two experts in the field of pediatric malnutrition
97 screening (KG, JH). The questionnaire included a total of 16 multiple-choice and open-ended
98 questions to elicit additional responses. The questions were divided into three sections. The
99 first section collected information about the responders and their area of practice. Responses
100 on this section were used to filter out responders who did not meet the inclusion criteria
101 described above. The second section questioned the degree of importance of various features
102 as clinical indicators of DAM and nutritional risk. This section was split into three
103 subsections, each listing the following indicators of DAM: a) anthropometry and body
104 composition, b) dietary intake and requirements, and c) a miscellaneous group encompassing

105 features like inflammation, functional capacity and biomarkers of nutritional status. The third
106 section focused on nutritional screening methods, causes and long-term consequences of
107 DAM and main barriers perceived to routine evaluation of nutritional status. An English
108 version of the survey is available in **Supplementary file 1**.

109 Face-validity and readability of the questionnaire were tested by dietitians and
110 pediatric gastroenterologists at the Royal Hospital for Children in Glasgow. The original
111 questionnaire developed in English was translated to five different languages (Dutch, French,
112 Hebrew, Spanish and Turkish) and then translated back into English to avoid language bias.
113 The questionnaire was sent out between April 2013 and August 2015.

114

115 *Statistical analysis*

116 Statistical analysis was performed using R ⁵. Differences in proportions between groups were
117 analyzed using χ^2 -test or Fisher's exact test. In reporting of categorical data, weighted analysis
118 was applied in which each country received a weight of 1, regardless of the number of
119 respondents of that country. This avoided bias due to different number of responders per
120 country. A p-value of <0.050 was considered statistically significant.

121

122 **Results**

123 *Respondent characteristics and data cleaning*

124 From a total of 937 respondents, 693 (74.0%) were taken forward to the final analysis after
125 data curation. As 109 (11.6%) respondents (Australia: n=4, Israel: n=71, Spain: n=24 and
126 Turkey: n=1, The Netherlands: n=2 and UK: n=7) did not indicate to have clinical experience
127 in pediatric medicine; 12 (1.3%; Australia: n=1, Israel: n=1, UK: n=10) or had a different or
128 undisclosed profession than medical doctors (MD) or dieticians (RD), their responses were
129 removed. Another 123 (13.1%) respondents were filtered out as they were not pediatric
130 gastroenterologists or disclosed no expertise in nutrition (**Supplementary file 2**). Using the
131 weighed statistical analysis approach, cumulative responses for each question received a
132 relative weight of 1.1 for Australia; 2.9 for Belgium; 0.8 for Israel; 0.7 for Spain; 1.4 for The
133 Netherlands; 1.3 for Turkey and 0.6 for the UK.

134 Overall, 75.2% (521/693) of the respondents answered $\geq 95\%$ of the questions in the
135 questionnaire. None of the questions were systematically omitted by the respondents. An
136 overview of the characteristics of the respondents by country is displayed in **Table 1**.
137 Dieticians had significantly fewer years of clinical experience (p-values < 0.010) than MDs in
138 all countries, except for The Netherlands (p=0.379). A significantly (p<0.001) higher
139 proportion of MD (62.7%) than RD (40.4%) worked in a tertiary setting.

140

141 *Clinical indicators of disease associated malnutrition*

142 *Overall results*

143 The degree of importance of anthropometry and body composition measurements, dietary
144 intake, nutritional requirements and other features, as clinical indicators of DAM and

145 nutritional risk, are presented per country in **Figure 1** and per profession in **Figure 2**. No
146 differences were found between weighted or unweighted statistical analysis. The top five
147 clinical indicators of DAM deemed the most important, were ongoing weight loss (80.4%
148 highly important), increased energy/nutrient losses (73.0% highly important), suboptimal
149 energy/macronutrient intake (68.6% highly important), a history of high nutritional risk
150 condition (67.2% highly important) and increased energy/nutrient requirements (66.2% highly
151 important). These results were largely consistent between the two professions and among the
152 different countries (**Figures 1 and 2**). Likewise, the three least important clinical indicators of
153 DAM were low fat but normal lean stores (31.3% not or slightly important), low activity
154 levels (16.6% not or slightly important) and the age of the patient (13.9% not or slightly
155 important). Less agreement was found for the least important clinical indicators between the
156 professional designation of responders and across countries (**Figures 1 and 2**).

157

158 *Anthropometric and body composition as clinical indicators of DAM*

159 On ranking the importance of anthropometry and body composition as clinical indicators of
160 DAM risk in children (**Panels A of Figures 1 and 2**), the top three ranked responses were
161 weight loss (80.4% highly important), a low BMI/weight-for-height measurement (47.3%
162 highly important) and low fat and lean stores (42.6% highly important). Likewise, the least
163 important indicator of DAM was low fat stores, in the presence of normal lean mass levels
164 (31.3% not or slightly important). The distribution of responses varied across countries (p-
165 values <0.001) for all indicators and between RD and MD for ongoing weight loss (p<0.001)
166 and low fat with normal lean body mass (p=0.025).

167 *Intake & requirements as clinical indicators of DAM*

168 The importance the respondents attributed to various intake & requirement aspects as
169 indicators of DAM is represented in **Panels B of Figures 1 and 2**. The three indicators of
170 DAM that ranked the highest were increased energy/nutrient losses (73.0% highly important),
171 suboptimal energy/macronutrient intake (68.6% highly important) and a history of high
172 nutritional risk condition (67.2% highly important). Suboptimal micronutrient intake ranked
173 the least important (39.9% highly important). Responses varied (all p-values <0.050) for all
174 indicators across countries and between RD and MD (except for altered requirements due to
175 impaired nutrient metabolism: p=0.560).

176

177 *Other clinical indicators of DAM*

178 **Panels C of Figures 1 and 2** display the importance of other features or measurements as
179 clinical indicators of DAM in sick children. Abnormal blood markers indicating poor
180 nutritional status was selected most frequently as a highly important indicator of DAM
181 (49.6%). This was followed by prematurity (32.9% highly important) and the presence of
182 systemic inflammatory response (24.9% highly important). Low activity (16.6% not or
183 slightly important) was the least important indicator of DAM. No significant differences (all
184 p-values >0.050) were found for all indicators between RD and MD (except for age of the
185 child and prematurity: p<0.001), but differences (p-values <0.010) across countries were
186 noted for all these indicators, except for the importance attributed to a child with low activity
187 (p=0.128).

188

189 *Etiology and consequences of DAM*

190 From the four available options, suboptimal intake ranked the most important cause (44.7% of
191 the responders) and inflammatory response the least important (42.8%) (**Supplementary files**

192 **3A&B**). Significant ($p<0.001$) differences in responses were observed across countries and
193 professions, although results were more consistent with regard to suboptimal intake which
194 ranked as the most important cause of DAM for all countries.

195 Considering the long-term consequences of DAM in sick children, increased
196 complication rate (71.5%), poor growth (71.5%), poor cognitive development (34.9%), slower
197 disease recovery (32.2%) and an impaired immune function (23.1%) were most commonly
198 selected as the “top three” consequences of DAM (**Supplementary files 3C&D**).

199

200 *Assessment and screening of DAM in routine clinical practice*

201 A total of 588 (84.8%) HP responded to the question regarding screening and assessment of
202 DAM in routine clinical practice (**Figure 3**). Of these, 7% did not routinely screen for
203 malnutrition (most frequent in Australia (16%) and the least frequent (0%) in The
204 Netherlands; difference across countries: $p=0.012$). The most common approach to screen for
205 DAM was assessment of weight changes (85%), followed by the usage of growth charts (77-
206 80%; the latter one done by a higher proportion of MDs than RDs (p -values <0.050). Usage of
207 nutritional screening tools was reported in 23% of responders (Belgium, the Netherlands and
208 UK: 40-50%, other countries $\leq 15\%$, $p<0.001$). Differences were noted between the countries
209 in the way DAM was screened in routine clinical practice (**Figure 3**). This was the case for all
210 available options, except for plotting of anthropometry on growth charts and classification of
211 DAM risk based on the underlying/chronic condition, which were consistent among countries.
212 Assessment of dietary intake as a screening method of DAM was performed significantly
213 ($p<0.001$) more often by RD (second most common approach) than MD (fifth most common
214 approach). MD performed more frequently laboratory testing as compared to RD ($p<0.001$) to

215 screen for DAM. Functional tests (e.g. grip strength) or energy levels were assessed only by a
216 minority of the respondents.

217

218 *Perceived barriers to the routine evaluation of DAM in clinical practice*

219 A minority of respondents (77/583, 13.2%) did not perceive barriers for routine evaluation of
220 DAM in routine clinical practice (most frequently in the UK: 22.9%); although differences
221 were found between countries ($p=0.003$). A detailed overview of barriers by country and by
222 profession is presented in **Table 2** and in **Supplementary file 4** respectively. The three most
223 commonly perceived barriers, were low staff awareness on the role of nutrition on patient care
224 (47.5%), absence of local policy or guidelines to screen (33.4%) and lack of time to screen
225 (33.4%) for DAM. Likewise, inadequate clinical management pathways to intervene on
226 undernourished children (14.6%) and a lower priority recognized to nutritional care as
227 opposed to other aspects of patients' care (13.4%) were least frequently selected. Barriers of
228 routine evaluation of DAM in clinical practice varied across countries (**Table 2**). MD were
229 more likely to experience the aforementioned barriers than RD, except for a lack of screening
230 method ($p=0.075$), inadequate management strategies to intervene ($p=0.074$) and a lack of
231 importance attributed to nutrition compared to other aspects of patients' care ($p=0.148$). In
232 contrast, a lack of a local policy to screen for DAM was more frequently ($p=0.010$) reported
233 as a barrier by RD (38.2%) than MD (28.2%).

234

235 **Discussion**

236 This study is the first to investigate the opinions and practices of an international cohort of HP
237 on aspects pertinent to pediatric DAM. Ongoing weight loss, increased losses, increased
238 requirements, low dietary intake and a high risk condition ranked as the most important
239 clinical indicators of children with DAM. These top five clinical indicators of a child at risk
240 of DAM were remarkably consistent across different countries. Evaluation of weight changes
241 also featured as the most common approach to screen for DAM in routine clinical practice.
242 Low staff awareness on the role of nutrition in patient care, lack of local policy or guidelines
243 to screen for DAM and lack of time to screen were the most commonly reported barriers for
244 routine nutritional screening.

245 DAM in children is the consequence of a complex interplay of various etiological
246 factors, making it a condition that is difficult to evaluate with a single measurement or
247 biomarker. While there is still debate about the optimal definition and measurement of DAM,
248 and until evidence from intervention studies become available, these top five clinical
249 indicators identified in this survey can serve as the basis to formulate universal, practice-
250 based, screening and assessment criteria for the identification of DAM in routine clinical
251 practice. It is noteworthy, that similar indicators were proposed by a recent consensus
252 statement published by the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics and the American Society for
253 Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition ⁶. A decline in weight velocity and unintentional weight loss,
254 were highlighted as the most important indicators and measurements of DAM and were
255 deemed more important than a static measurement of low BMI. Moreover, the importance
256 that was attributed to weight loss and a decline in weight velocity was consistent between
257 countries and type of HP and it suggests that weight loss has a stronger predictive value, than
258 low BMI alone, to indicate children at risk of DAM. While the exact cutoffs of growth
259 faltering are still under debate, a sustained unintentional weight loss or poor weight gain

260 should be a “never event” for children with illness ⁷. Low intake, increased losses and
261 increased requirements were selected as other important indicators of DAM in this survey and
262 these findings are in agreement with aspects of the etiological definition of DAM recently
263 proposed by Mehta *et al* ⁴. Assessing the origins of DAM is imperative to implement
264 appropriate nutritional interventions and distinguish poor linear growth due to genetic
265 disorders, from insufficient caloric intake, the independent effect of inflammatory response or
266 an interaction of all. Against our expectations and consensus recommendations and
267 guidelines, little importance has been placed by the responders to the assessment of body
268 composition as an indicator of DAM. There is good research evidence to suggest that children
269 with chronic inflammatory conditions have altered body composition characteristics ⁸ but as it
270 is yet unclear what the implications of this are, with regard to patients outcomes and direct
271 clinical management, it is not surprising that clinical practitioners do not value its importance
272 in routine practice. Availability of equipment to assess body composition could also play a
273 role, which is something we did not assess in our survey. Incorporation of inflammatory
274 process in the assessment framework of DAM is currently debated ⁹. In this regard, only a
275 quarter of our responders attributed high importance to the role of inflammation as indicator
276 and measurement of DAM; a finding which challenges the proposal of Mehta based on the
277 available peer-reviewed literature ⁴. This is likely to suggest a lack of translation of research
278 evidence to bedside practice or that HP do not value the effect of inflammatory response on
279 DAM as important, particularly when the latter is often difficult to ascertain or measure. It
280 might also be that the effect of inflammation on DAM overlaps with the effect of presence of
281 a high nutritional risk condition that our participants valued among the top indicators of
282 DAM; although not all conditions which lead to malnutrition are associated with
283 inflammation.

284 A quarter of the respondents used validated nutritional screening tools as a method of
285 choice to screen for DAM, even though their use has been supported by several health
286 professional bodies ^{4, 10, 11}. Neither a large European study nor a systematic review of other,
287 smaller studies provided sufficient evidence to recommend one screening tool over another
288 which may explain these findings ^{12, 13}.

289 Low staff awareness on nutrition, lack of time and lack of local guidelines for nutrition
290 screening were the most important barriers to the routine evaluation of DAM. These results
291 are very similar to the findings of a Belgian survey in secondary care hospitals ¹⁴. The
292 differences across countries in the perceived barriers of routine evaluation of DAM may
293 reflect variation in health practices, resources and agreed health priorities across countries.
294 For example, a lack of personnel and/or dieticians was more of an issue in Spain, Turkey,
295 Belgium and the UK, whereas inadequate equipment was of concern mainly in Spain and
296 Israel. Whether this is true, or rather a perception is impossible to address and it is beyond the
297 scope of this survey. Jointly these findings prove that even though the scientific community
298 has raised awareness on pediatric DAM, more evidence is required to prove the clinical
299 benefit of nutritional screening in clinical practice. More and better quality evidence, deriving
300 from intervention studies, are needed to demonstrate that implementation of nutritional
301 screening at hospital routine can improve patients' outcomes and reduce health expenditure.

302 The major strengths of this study are the large number and international representation
303 of respondents and the fact that we only surveyed participants with clinical experience in
304 pediatric nutrition care. Even though the survey was distributed via local professional
305 associations of participating countries, we were unable to ensure the representation of our
306 population. Although the number of respondents was unevenly distributed over the different
307 countries, we overcame this potential limitation by performing weighted analyses. Lastly,
308 while this study helps us in identifying the most important clinical indicators of DAM, it does

309 not answer the question which screening or assessment thresholds should be applied for
310 further nutritional assessment or intervention. This is an aspect which needs to be explored in
311 future research. As this survey was conducted in developed countries, it may not represent the
312 HP opinions of DAM in low-medium income countries.

313 **Conclusion**

314 This survey identified ongoing weight loss, increased nutrient losses, increased requirements,
315 low intake and a high risk condition as the most valued clinical indicators of DAM by HP
316 who routinely assess and treat children with DAM. These indicators should serve as a basis to
317 form consensus, clinical-based criteria for screening and assessment of DAM. Low
318 awareness, lack of guidelines or local policy and lack of resources were the most important
319 barriers of routine screening. More and better quality of evidence is required to inform the
320 benefit of nutritional screening and overcome barriers in its routine implementation.

321

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325

326 **Statement of Authorship**

327 J Hulst and K Gerasimidis conceptualized and designed the study, reviewed and revised the
328 manuscript, and approved the final manuscript as submitted.

329 K Huysentruyt carried out the initial analysis, drafted the initial manuscript, revised and
330 approved the final manuscript as submitted.

331 F Bian, R Shamir, M White, R Galera-Martinez, A Morais-Lopez and A Kansu collected or
332 supervised data collection at different sites, critically reviewed the manuscript, and approved
333 the final manuscript as submitted.

334

335

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339

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379 **Figure 1. Importance of various clinical indicators of disease associated malnutrition**
380 **across different countries**

381 *N/A: not answered*

382

383 **Figure 2. Importance of various clinical indicators of disease associated malnutrition**
384 **across different professions**

385 *N/A: not answered; RD: dieticians; MD: medical doctor*

386

387 **Figure 3. Assessment of disease associated malnutrition and nutritional risk in clinical**
388 **practice**

389 *N/A: not answered; RD: dieticians; MD: medical doctor*

390

391 **Table 1. Respondent characteristics**

392

393 **Table 2. Barriers to the routine evaluation of nutritional status by country**

394

Table 1. Respondent characteristics

	Total	Australia	Belgium	Israel	The Netherlands	Spain	Turkey	UK	p-value
	n	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	
Profession									<0.001
MD	315	9 (2.9)	34 (10.8)	17 (5.4)	45 (14.3)	119 (37.8)	57 (18.1)	34 (10.8)	
RD	378	80 (21.2)	-	109 (28.8)	28 (7.4)	20 (5.3)	22 (5.8)	119 (31.5)	
Paediatric experience (years)*	693	6.0 (1-40)	13.0 (3-41)	7.0 (1-46)	15 (1-40)	12.0 (1-45)	14.0 (1-45)	11.0 (1-35)	<0.001
Health care setting**	690								
General Hospital	460	29 (12.6)	18 (7.8)	40 (17.4)	28 (12.2)	46 (20.0)	15 (6.5)	54 (23.5)	0.026
Specialist Hospital	349	51 (14.6)	19 (5.4)	28 (8.0)	44 (12.6)	76 (21.8)	58 (16.6)	73 (20.9)	<0.001
Community	126	10 (7.9)	0 (0)	79 (62.7)	0 (0)	7 (5.6)	2 (1.6)	28 (22.2)	<0.001
Private care	73	3 (4.1)	0 (0)	35 (47.9)	0 (0)	29 (39.7)	4 (5.5)	2 (2.7)	<0.001
Primary care	20	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	5 (25.0)	0 (0)	2 (10.0)	0 (0)	8 (40.0)	0.116
N/A	3	0	0	0	1 (33.3)	0	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	
Highest educational degree	669								<0.001
BSc	240	53 (22.1)	0 (0)	64 (26.7)	19 (7.9)	1 (0.4)	4 (1.7)	99 (41.3)	

MSc	109	23 (21.1)	1 (0.9)	41 (37.6)	2 (1.8)	24 (22.0)	0 (0)	18 (16.5)
MD	273	8 (2.9)	26 (9.5)	12 (4.4)	25 (9.2)	109 (39.9)	62 (22.7)	31 (11.4)
PhD	47	4 (8.5)	7 (14.9)	4 (8.5)	22 (46.8)	4 (8.5)	1 (2.1)	5 (10.6)
N/A	24	1 (4.2)	0 (0)	5 (20.8)	5 (20.8)	1 (4.2)	12 (50.0)	0 (0)

**median (range); **multiple answers possible per respondent; N/A: not answered; BSc: Bachelor in Science; MSc: Master in Science; MD:*

medical doctor; RD: Registered dietitians; PhD: doctor of philosophy

Table 2. Barriers to the routine evaluation of nutritional status by country

	Total	Australia	Belgium	Israel	Netherlands	Spain	Turkey	UK	p-value
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	
No barriers	77 (13.2)	7 (9.5)	5 (17.2)	11 (12.1)	10 (16.4)	7 (5.8)	7 (9.2)	30 (22.9)	0.003
Low staff awareness	277 (47.5)	39 (52.7)	6 (20.7)	28 (30.8)	22 (36.1)	87 (71.9)	47 (61.8)	48 (36.6)	<0.001
No local policy or guidelines	195 (33.4)	39 (52.7)	10 (34.5)	41 (45.1)	9 (14.8)	39 (32.2)	26 (34.2)	31 (23.7)	<0.001
Lack of time	195 (33.4)	19 (25.7)	12 (41.4)	29 (31.9)	12 (19.7)	48 (39.7)	37 (48.7)	38 (29.0)	0.004
Not many dieticians to intervene	191 (32.8)	13 (17.6)	8 (27.6)	12 (13.2)	13 (21.3)	75 (62.0)	39 (51.3)	31 (23.7)	<0.001
No training	181 (31.0)	21 (28.4)	14 (48.3)	30 (33.0)	15 (24.6)	54 (44.6)	22 (28.9)	25 (19.1)	<0.001
No method in place for screening	137 (23.5)	32 (43.2)	4 (13.8)	27 (29.7)	4 (6.6)	47 (38.8)	4 (5.3)	19 (14.5)	<0.001
Lack of staff	137 (23.5)	18 (24.3)	4 (13.8)	16 (17.6)	8 (13.1)	48 (39.7)	17 (22.4)	26 (19.8)	<0.001
Lack of nutrition support teams	128 (22.0)	19 (25.7)	9 (31.0)	14 (15.4)	7 (11.5)	33 (27.3)	22 (28.9)	24 (18.3)	0.038
Inadequate equipment	125 (21.4)	15 (20.3)	3 (10.3)	25 (27.5)	3 (4.9)	50 (41.3)	11 (14.5)	18 (13.7)	<0.001
Inadequate strategies to intervene	85 (14.6)	6 (8.1)	0 (0)	15 (16.5)	3 (4.9)	26 (21.5)	22 (28.9)	13 (9.9)	<0.001

Nutrition less important than other aspects of patient care	78 (13.4)	5 (6.8)	6 (20.7)	4 (4.4)	23 (37.7)	6 (5.0)	18 (23.7)	16 (12.2)	<0.001
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Not answered: n= 110





