



Prevalence, incidence, and complications of malnutrition in severely injured patients

Esmee A. H. Verheul¹ · Suzan Dijkink^{1,2} · Pieta Krijnen^{1,3} · Jochem M. Hoogendoorn² · Sesmu Arbous⁴ · Ron Peters⁵ · George C. Velmahos⁶ · Ali Salim⁷ · Daniel D. Yeh⁸ · Inger B. Schipper¹

Received: 8 September 2024 / Accepted: 14 October 2024
© The Author(s) 2025

Abstract

Background Severely injured patients may suffer from acute disease-related or injury-related malnutrition involving a marked inflammatory response. This study investigated the prevalence and incidence of malnutrition and its relation with complications in severely injured patients admitted to the intensive care unit (ICU).

Methods This observational prospective cohort study included severely injured patients (Injury Severity Score ≥ 16), admitted to the ICU of five level-1 trauma centers in the Netherlands and United States. Malnutrition was defined as a Subjective Global Assessment score ≤ 5 . Complications included systemic-, surgery-, and fracture-related complications, pneumonia, urinary tract infection, deep venous thrombosis, and pulmonary embolism. In-ICU and in-hospital mortality were recorded separately. The complication rate was compared between patients who had or developed malnutrition and patients who remained well-nourished, using multivariable logistic regression analysis.

Results Of 100 included patients, twelve (12%) were malnourished at admission. Of the 88 well-nourished patients, 44 developed malnutrition during ICU admission, (ICU incidence 50%, 95% confidence interval [CI] 40–60%). Another 18 patients developed malnutrition at the ward (overall in-hospital incidence 70%, 95% CI 61–80%). The 62 patients who developed malnutrition and 12 patients who were malnourished upon admission had more complications than the 26 patients who remained well-nourished (58% vs. 50% vs. 27% respectively; $p=0.03$; Odds Ratio 3.4, 95% CI 1.2–9.6).

Conclusions 50% of severely injured patients developed malnutrition during ICU admission, increasing to 70% during hospital admission. Malnutrition was related to an increased risk of complications. Recognition of sub-optimally nourished severely injured patients and assessment of nutritional needs could be valuable in optimizing their clinical outcomes.

Level of evidence Level III, Prognostic/Epidemiological.

Key points

This observational prospective cohort study investigated the prevalence and incidence of malnutrition and its relation with complications and in-hospital outcomes in severely injured patients admitted to the ICU. The majority of severely injured patients developed malnutrition during ICU and hospital admission. Malnutrition is found to be correlated to an increased risk of complications, especially pneumonia, and a longer hospital stay.

Keywords Malnutrition · Severe injury · Complications · Severely injured · Intensive care unit

✉ Esmee A. H. Verheul
e.a.h.verheul@lumc.nl

¹ Department of Trauma Surgery, Leiden University Medical Center, Post zone K6-R, P.O. Box 9600, Leiden 2300 RC, The Netherlands

² Department of General Surgery, Haaglanden Medical Center, The Hague, The Netherlands

³ Acute Care Network West Netherlands, Leiden, The Netherlands

⁴ Department of Intensive Care, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands

⁵ Department of Intensive Care, Haaglanden Medical Center, The Hague, The Netherlands

⁶ Department of Trauma Surgery, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA

⁷ Department of Surgery, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, MA, USA

⁸ Department of Surgery, Denver Health Medical Center, Denver, CO, USA

Background

Malnutrition is a common but frequently unrecognized problem in hospitalized patients, despite its association with adverse outcomes, such as infections, prolonged hospital stay, impaired wound healing, and mortality [1–4]. According to the American Society for Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition (A.S.P.E.N.) three types of malnutrition are defined based on etiology, including social and environmental circumstances, chronic illness, and acute illness [4]. Severely injured patients may suffer from acute disease-related or injury-related malnutrition involving a marked inflammatory response [4]. Because of the stress response following traumatic injuries, severely injured patients often endure an altered metabolic state in order to preserve energy for vital tissues. This can cause a deterioration of the nutritional status, which again negatively influences the stress and metabolic response after trauma [5]. Due to this vicious circle of deterioration of the nutritional- and health status, severely injured patients are at risk for considerable additional harm from malnutrition. Current estimates of the in-hospital prevalence of malnutrition at admission in severely injured patients range from 7 to 76%, depending upon the setting, population, and nutritional assessment tool used [5].

Recognition of sub-optimally nourished severely injured patients and assessment of their nutritional needs is crucial in order to improve their clinical outcomes. Despite the increasing number of studies on malnutrition in hospitalized patients, little is known about the risk of developing malnutrition during hospital admission and its consequences in the severely injured patient population. The goal of this study was to determine the prevalence and incidence of malnutrition, and the relation with complications in severely injured patients who are admitted to the intensive care unit (ICU).

Methods

The Malnutrition in Polytrauma Patients (MaPP) study is an observational prospective cohort study that was performed at five Level-1 trauma centers, three in the United States and two in the Netherlands. All consecutive adult (≥ 18 years) patients with severe injuries (Injury Severity Score, $ISS \geq 16$), caused by blunt trauma, who were admitted to the ICU of one of the participating centers were eligible for inclusion. Patients must be admitted to the ICU for more than 48 h and should not be primarily managed in another hospital. Patients with burn wounds and penetrating injuries were excluded because the factors influencing prognosis and treatment differ significantly from those in blunt trauma patients, and it was anticipated that there would not be sufficient cases to conduct subanalyses. Written informed

consent was obtained from the patients or their legal representative on the day of ICU admission or as soon as possible after that day. The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the local Institutional Review Boards (protocol number: NL64016.058.17). The study is described in detail in the published study protocol [6]. Patient inclusion in the Netherlands began in July 2018 and concluded in April 2022, while in the United States, it started in May 2018 and ended in February 2020. This study has been reported in line with the Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) Statement [7].

Sample size

As described in the study protocol, the a priori sample size calculation showed that 195 patients were needed to show a difference in complication rate between the groups with and without malnutrition [6]. However, due to the low inclusion rate during the COVID-19 pandemic, it was decided to prematurely end the inclusion at 100 patients.

Study parameters

Nutritional status

The Subjective Global Assessment scale (Fig. 1) was used to assess the nutritional status and determine pre-existent and in-hospital developed malnutrition [8]. The SGA scale is a nutritional assessment tool that has been validated for the acute hospital setting, for surgical patients and for patients admitted to the ICU requiring mechanical ventilation [8–10]. The SGA evaluates weight change (over the past 2 weeks and 6 months), in-/adequate dietary intake change, gastrointestinal symptoms (less appetite, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea), and functional capacity (dysfunction, bedridden, difficulty with normal activities). Determining the SGA score also includes a physical examination of subcutaneous fat loss (eyes, triceps, biceps) and muscle wasting (e.g., clavicle, knee, shoulder, and quadriceps). The SGA is scored on a scale ranging from 1 to 7. Patients are classified as A (well-nourished; scores 6–7), B (mild to moderately malnourished; scores 3–5) or C (severely malnourished; scores 1–2) [11]. In this study, B and C were combined in one category (malnourished, defined by an SGA score ≤ 5) [6]. The SGA was scored by trained personnel at ICU admission, every five days during ICU admission, at ICU discharge, every week on the ward, and at hospital discharge. A recent systematic review indicated that the SGA score can be used to assess in-hospital acquired malnutrition [12].

SUBJECTIVE GLOBAL ASSESSMENT RATING FORM																				
Patient Name:	ID #:	Date:																		
HISTORY																				
WEIGHT/WEIGHT CHANGE: <i>(Included in K/DOQI SGA)</i> 1. Baseline Wt: _____ (Dry weight from 6 months ago) Current Wt: _____ (Dry weight today) Actual Wt loss/past 6 mo: _____ % loss: _____ (actual loss from baseline or last SGA) 2. Weight change over past two weeks: _____ No change _____ Increase _____ Decrease		Rate 1-7																		
DIETARY INTAKE No Change _____ (Adequate) No Change _____ (Inadequate) 1. Change: Sub optimal Intake: _____ Protein _____ Kcal _____ Duration _____ Full Liquid: _____ Hypocaloric Liquid _____ Starvation _____																				
GASTROINTESTINAL SYMPTOMS <i>(Included in K/DOQI SGA-anorexia or causes of anorexia)</i> <table border="0"> <thead> <tr> <th>Symptom:</th> <th>Frequency:^a</th> <th>Duration:^a</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>_____ None</td> <td>_____</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ Anorexia</td> <td>_____</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ Nausea</td> <td>_____</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ Vomiting</td> <td>_____</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ Diarrhea</td> <td>_____</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p style="text-align: center;">Never, daily, 2-3 times/wk, 1-2 times/wk > 2 weeks, < 2 weeks</p>			Symptom:	Frequency: ^a	Duration: ^a	_____ None	_____	_____	_____ Anorexia	_____	_____	_____ Nausea	_____	_____	_____ Vomiting	_____	_____	_____ Diarrhea	_____	_____
Symptom:	Frequency: ^a	Duration: ^a																		
_____ None	_____	_____																		
_____ Anorexia	_____	_____																		
_____ Nausea	_____	_____																		
_____ Vomiting	_____	_____																		
_____ Diarrhea	_____	_____																		
FUNCTIONAL CAPACITY <table border="0"> <thead> <tr> <th>Description</th> <th>Duration:</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>_____ No Dysfunction</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ Change in function</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ Difficulty with ambulation</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ Difficulty with activity (Patient specific "normal")</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ Light activity</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ Bed/chair ridden with little or no activity</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ Improvement in function</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Description	Duration:	_____ No Dysfunction	_____	_____ Change in function	_____	_____ Difficulty with ambulation	_____	_____ Difficulty with activity (Patient specific "normal")	_____	_____ Light activity	_____	_____ Bed/chair ridden with little or no activity	_____	_____ Improvement in function	_____	b		
Description	Duration:																			
_____ No Dysfunction	_____																			
_____ Change in function	_____																			
_____ Difficulty with ambulation	_____																			
_____ Difficulty with activity (Patient specific "normal")	_____																			
_____ Light activity	_____																			
_____ Bed/chair ridden with little or no activity	_____																			
_____ Improvement in function	_____																			
DISEASE STATE/COMORBIDITIES AS RELATED TO NUTRITIONAL NEEDS Primary Diagnosis _____ Comorbidities _____ Normal requirements _____ Increased requirements _____ Decreased requirements _____ Acute Metabolic Stress: _____ None _____ Low _____ Moderate _____ High																				
PHYSICAL EXAM																				
_____ Loss of subcutaneous fat (Below eye, triceps, _____ Some areas _____ All areas biceps, chest) <i>(Included in K/DOQI SGA)</i> _____ Muscle wasting (Temple, clavicle, scapula, ribs, _____ Some areas _____ All areas quadriceps, calf, knee, interosseous) <i>(Included in K/DOQI SGA)</i> _____ Edema (Related to undernutrition/use to evaluate weight change)																				
OVERALL SGA RATING																				
Very mild risk to well-nourished =6 or 7 most categories or significant, continued improvement. Mild-moderate = 3, 4, or 5 ratings. No clear sign of normal status or severe malnutrition. Severely Malnourished = 1 or 2 ratings in most categories/significant physical signs of malnutrition.																				

Fig. 1 Subjective Global Assessment rating form [8]

Other parameters and in-hospital outcomes

Information on nutritional support was collected, and patients were categorized based on whether they received oral feeding or (par)enteral feeding. In the patients who received (par)enteral nutrition, it was documented whether nutrition was initiated within 48 h or after 48 h of admission. Target energy goals were calculated through a weight-based predictive Eq. (25 kcal/kg/day). In overweight patients ($\text{BMI} > 25 \text{ kg/m}^2$), the ideal body weight was used, which is calculated by the following equation: $0.9 \times \text{height in cm} - 100$ (male) (or -106 (female)) [13]. According to the ESPEN guidelines, target energy goals should be met after 3–7 days of admission. It was documented whether goals were met after <48 h, 3–7 days, and after >7 days of admission. Albumin and pre-albumin levels were measured within 24 h of admission. Surgical procedures that required patients to go to the operating room were documented. The following complications were included in the analysis: systemic complications (sepsis, Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome (ARDS), Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome (SIRS), multiple-organ failure), surgery-related complications (anastomotic leak, stoma surgical site infection deep and superficial, abscess, (re)bleeding, wound infection), pneumonia, urinary tract infection (UTI), deep venous thrombosis (DVT), pulmonary embolism (PE), and fracture-related complications (compartment syndrome, thromboembolic disease, fat embolism syndrome, reoperation due to non-union or mal-union). Pneumonia was defined as lung inflammation caused by a bacterial or viral infection. Consequently, COVID-19 pneumonia was also classified as pneumonia. Furthermore, in-ICU and in-hospital mortality were included in the analysis. Other in-hospital outcomes included hospital length of stay (LOS), ICU LOS, and ventilator days.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed with IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 25. P-values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. The baseline characteristics and outcomes of the patients who remained well-nourished throughout hospital admission (Group 1; Fig. 2), patients

who became malnourished during hospital admission (Group 2), and patients who had malnutrition at hospital admission (Group 3) were compared using the Chi-Square test for categorical variables and the one way ANOVA test for continuous variables. Furthermore, the baseline characteristics and outcomes of the patients who became malnourished during ICU admission (Group 2 A; Fig. 2) were compared to those of the patients who became malnourished during admission to the ward (Group 2B) using the Fisher's exact test for categorical variables and the independent samples T-test for continuous variables.

The *prevalence of pre-existing malnutrition* was calculated as the proportion (with 95% confidence interval [CI]) of patients who were malnourished at ICU admission. The *incidence of in-ICU malnutrition* was calculated as the proportion (with 95% CI) of patients who became malnourished during ICU stay. The *incidence of in-hospital malnutrition* was calculated as the proportion (with 95% CI) of patients that became malnourished during total hospital stay.

The complication rate was calculated as the proportion of patients with any of the included complications during hospital admission. The complication rate was compared between patient groups using the Chi-square test. The odds ratio (OR) (with 95% CI) of complications during hospital stay for patients with malnutrition (Groups 1 and 2; Fig. 2) compared to well-nourished patients (Group 3) was calculated. To correct for potential confounders a multivariate logistic regression analysis was performed including the baseline characteristics that differed between the well-nourished and malnourished groups with univariate $p < 0.10$.

Results

Prevalence and incidence of malnutrition

The mean age of the 100 included patients was 50 (± 21) years, 70 patients were male (Table 1). Seven patients died during their stay at the Intensive care unit (ICU), and four more patients died while being admitted to the ward. Twelve patients were considered malnourished at ICU admission (SGA score ≤ 5 ; Group 1; Fig. 2), the prevalence of pre-existing malnutrition being 12% (95% CI 5.6–18.4%). These

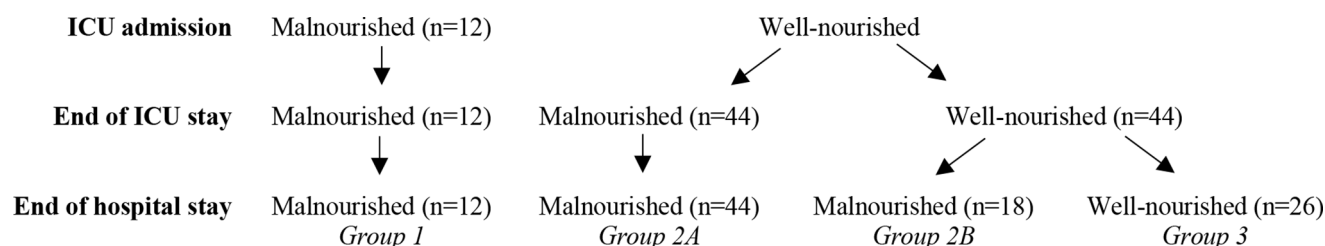


Fig. 2 Distribution of severely injured patients according to their nutritional status based on the Subjective Global Assessment (SGA)

Table 1 Patient characteristics according to their nutritional status

	Total (<i>n</i> = 100)	Malnourished at admission (<i>n</i> = 12; Group 1)	Become malnour- ished during hospital stay (<i>n</i> = 62; Group 2)	Well-nourished throughout hospital stay (<i>n</i> = 26; Group 3)	<i>P</i> value
Age in years, mean ± SD	50 ± 21	61 ± 25	47 ± 20	52 ± 21	0.09
Male sex, <i>n</i> (%)	70 (70)	10 (83)	40 (65)	20 (77)	0.29
BMI in kg/m ² , mean ± SD	26 ± 5	26 ± 4	26 ± 5	27 ± 6	0.57
Obesity (BMI ≥ 30 kg/m ²), <i>n</i> (%)	19 (19)	3 (25)	11 (18)	5 (19)	0.84
Severe injury (AIS ≥ 4), <i>n</i> (%)					
Head	44 (44)	3 (25)	32 (52)	9 (35)	0.13
Chest	29 (29)	2 (17)	19 (31)	8 (31)	0.60
Abdomen	9 (9)	1 (8)	6 (10)	2 (8)	0.95
Extremity	14 (14)	1 (8)	10 (16)	3 (12)	0.71
ISS ≥ 25, <i>n</i> (%)	67 (67)	5 (42)	48 (77)	14 (54)	0.01
GCS score ≤ 8, <i>n</i> (%)	42 (42)	3 (25)	29 (47)	10 (38)	0.34
Alcohol abuse, <i>n</i> (%)	15 (15)	2 (17)	10 (16)	3 (12)	0.85
Malignancy, <i>n</i> (%)	8 (8)	2 (17)	3 (5)	3 (12)	0.29
Nutrition, <i>n</i> (%)					0.19
Oral	29 (29)	5 (42)	14 (23)	10 (39)	
(Par)enteral	71 (71)	7 (58)	48 (77)	16 (62)	
Initiation of (par)enteral nutrition, <i>n</i> (%)					0.94
< 48 h	63 (89)	6 (86)	43 (90)	14 (88)	
≥ 48 h	8 (11)	1 (14)	5 (10)	2 (13)	
Time until target energy goals were met, <i>n</i> (%)					0.33
< 48 h	19 (19)	0 (0)	14 (23)	5 (19)	
3–7 days	67 (67)	10 (83)	38 (61)	19 (73)	
> 7 days	14 (14)	2 (17)	10 (16)	2 (8)	
Albumin level at admission in g/L, mean ± SD	34 ± 7 (<i>n</i> = 91)	35 ± 7 (<i>n</i> = 11)	33 ± 7 (<i>n</i> = 57)	34 ± 8 (<i>n</i> = 23)	0.69
Pre-albumin level at admission in g/L, mean ± SD	0.17 ± 0.06 (<i>n</i> = 64)	0.15 ± 0.05 (<i>n</i> = 6)	0.18 ± 0.06 (<i>n</i> = 41)	0.17 ± 0.06 (<i>n</i> = 17)	0.29
Surgery, <i>n</i> (%)	82 (82)	7 (58)	55 (89)	20 (77)	0.03

AIS, Abbreviated Injury Scale severity (last digit of the AIS code); BMI, Body Mass Index; GCS, Glasgow Coma Scale; ISS, Injury Severity Score; PEG, Percutaneous Endoscopic Gastrostomy; SD, Standard deviation

patients scored insufficient (i.e. ≤ 5 points in SGA item) on weight (loss) (*n* = 8), dietary intake (*n* = 12), gastrointestinal symptoms (*n* = 3), functional capacity (*n* = 1), disease state (*n* = 12), and/or physical exam (*n* = 5). All 12 malnourished patients remained malnourished throughout hospital admission. Of the 88 patients that were well-nourished at admission, 44 became malnourished during ICU stay (Group 2 A; Fig. 2) (incidence of in-ICU malnutrition 50.0%, 95% CI 39.6–60.4%). These 44 patients scored insufficient on weight (loss) (*n* = 32), dietary intake (*n* = 42), gastrointestinal symptoms (*n* = 2), functional capacity (*n* = 14), disease state (*n* = 44), and/or physical exam (*n* = 26). Additionally, 18 patients became malnourished during admission to the ward (Group 2B; Fig. 2). These 18 patients scored insufficient on weight (loss) (*n* = 16), dietary intake (*n* = 14), gastrointestinal symptoms (*n* = 5), functional capacity (*n* = 18), disease state (*n* = 18), and/or physical exam (*n* = 15). In total, 62 patients became malnourished during hospital stay

(Group 2; Fig. 2), with an incidence of in-hospital malnutrition of 70.5% (95% CI 60.9–80.0%).

Patient characteristics

Patients who became malnourished during their hospital stay (Group 2; Fig. 2) were significantly more likely to have very severe injuries (ISS ≥ 25), than the patients who were malnourished at admission (Group 1) or the patients who remained well-nourished throughout hospital stay (Group 3) (77% vs. 42% vs. 54% respectively; *p* < 0.01; Table 1). Furthermore, a higher percentage of these patients underwent surgery (89%) compared to the patients who were already malnourished (58%) or those who remained well-nourished (77%; *p* = 0.03; Table 1). Comparison between the 44 patients who became malnourished during ICU admission (Group 2 A; Fig. 2) and the 18 patients who became malnourished during admission to the ward (Group 2B) revealed no statistically significant differences (Table 2).

Table 2 Patient characteristics of the 62 patients who developed malnutrition during hospital admission

	Total (<i>n</i> =62)	Become malnourished during ICU stay (<i>n</i> =44; Group 2 A)	Become malnourished during admission to the ward (<i>n</i> =18; Group 2B)	<i>P</i> value
Age in years, mean±SD	47±20	47±20	46±19	0.85
Male sex, <i>n</i> (%)	40 (65)	26 (59)	14 (78)	0.24
BMI in kg/m ² , mean±SD	26±5	25±4	27±5	0.32
Obesity (BMI≥30 kg/m ²), <i>n</i> (%)	11 (18)	7 (16)	4 (22)	0.72
Severe injury (AIS≥4), <i>n</i> (%)				
Head	32 (52)	25 (57)	7 (39)	0.27
Chest	19 (31)	11 (25)	8 (44)	0.14
Abdomen	6 (10)	3 (7)	3 (17)	0.34
Extremity	10 (16)	7 (16)	3 (17)	1.00
ISS≥25, <i>n</i> (%)	48 (77)	32 (73)	16 (89)	0.20
GCS score≤8, <i>n</i> (%)	29 (47)	24 (55)	5 (28)	0.09
Alcohol abuse, <i>n</i> (%)	10 (16)	8 (18)	2 (11)	0.71
Malignancy, <i>n</i> (%)	3 (5)	2 (5)	1 (6)	1.00
Nutrition, <i>n</i> (%)				0.32
Oral	14 (23)	8 (18)	6 (33)	
(Par)enteral	48 (77)	36 (82)	12 (67)	
Initiation of (par)enteral nutrition, <i>n</i> (%)				0.31
< 48 h	43 (90)	31 (86)	12 (100)	
≥ 48 h	5 (10)	5 (14)	0 (0)	
Time until target energy goals were met, <i>n</i> (%)				0.71
< 48 h	14 (23)	9 (21)	5 (28)	
3–7 days	38 (61)	27 (61)	11 (61)	
> 7 days	10 (16)	8 (18)	2 (11)	
Albumin level at ICU discharge in g/L, mean±SD	33±7 (<i>n</i> =57)	32±7 (<i>n</i> =41)	36±5 (<i>n</i> =16)	0.05
Pre-albumin level at ICU discharge in g/L, mean±SD	0.18±0.06 (<i>n</i> =41)	0.18±0.06 (<i>n</i> =27)	0.19±0.05 (<i>n</i> =14)	0.38
Surgery, <i>n</i> (%)	55 (89)	39 (89)	16 (89)	1.00

AIS, Abbreviated Injury Scale severity (last digit of the AIS code); BMI, Body Mass Index; GCS, Glasgow Coma Scale; ISS, Injury Severity Score; PEG, Percutaneous Endoscopic Gastrostomy; SD, Standard deviation

Complications and other in-hospital outcomes

The complication rate during hospital admission was significantly higher in the 62 patients who developed malnutrition (Group 2; Fig. 2) and the 12 patients who were malnourished upon admission (Group 1) compared to the 26 patients who remained well-nourished throughout their hospital stay (Group 3) (58% vs. 50% vs. 27% resp.; $p=0.03$; Table 3). ICU LOS, number of ventilator days, and hospital LOS were not statistically different between the three groups. No significant difference in ICU-mortality and in-hospital mortality was seen between the patients who became malnourished, those who were already malnourished, and those who remained well-nourished.

Concerning the 62 patients who developed malnutrition during hospital admission, the 44 patients who became malnourished during ICU stay (Group 2 A; Fig. 2) suffered significantly more from pneumonia than the 18 patients who developed malnutrition during admission to the ward (Group 2B; Fig. 2) (59% vs. 22%; $p=0.01$; Table 4). Furthermore, ICU LOS and ventilator days were significantly

higher in the patients who became malnourished during ICU stay than the patients who developed malnutrition during admission to the ward.

The crude odds ratio (OR) for complications in malnourished compared to well-nourished patients was 3.3 (95% CI 1.3–8.4). After correction for age, injury severity, and surgery, the increased risk of complications in malnourished patients remained statistically significant (OR 3.4, 95% CI 1.2–9.6).

Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first study that analyzed the relationship between in-hospital developed malnutrition and complications in severely injured patients. 12% of all severely injured patients admitted to the ICU were already malnourished at admission. The incidence of in-ICU malnutrition was 50.0% and the incidence of in-hospital malnutrition was 70.5%. Complications occurred significantly

Table 3 Patient outcomes according to their nutritional status

	Total (<i>n</i> = 100)	Malnourished at admission (<i>n</i> = 12; Group 1)	Become malnour- ished during hos- pital stay (<i>n</i> = 62; Group 2)	Well-nourished throughout hos- pital stay (<i>n</i> = 26; Group 3)	<i>P</i> value
Complication, <i>n</i> (%)	49 (49)	6 (50)	36 (58)	7 (27)	0.03
ICU-mortality, <i>n</i> (%)	7 (7)	0 (0)	3 (5)	4 (15)	0.13
In-hospital mortality, <i>n</i> (%)	11 (11)	1 (8)	5 (8)	5 (19)	0.30
Systemic complications, <i>n</i> (%)	10 (10)	2 (17)	7 (11)	1 (4)	0.41
Surgical complications, <i>n</i> (%)	9 (9)	1 (8)	6 (10)	2 (8)	0.95
Fracture-related complications, <i>n</i> (%)	2 (2)	1 (8)	1 (2)	0 (0)	0.22
Pneumonia, <i>n</i> (%)	40 (40)	4 (33)	30 (48)	6 (23)	0.08
Urinary tract infection, <i>n</i> (%)	11 (11)	1 (8)	8 (13)	2 (8)	0.74
Venous thromboembolism, <i>n</i> (%)	7 (7)	0 (0)	7 (11)	0 (0)	0.10
ICU LOS in days *, mean ± SD	13 ± 18	11 ± 8	14 ± 18	11 ± 23	0.73
Ventilator days *, mean ± SD	8 ± 14	7 ± 8	9 ± 10	9 ± 24	0.91
Hospital LOS in days **, mean ± SD	29 ± 24	25 ± 17	33 ± 26	19 ± 22	0.05

ICU, Intensive care unit; LOS, Length of stay; *n*, number; SD, standard deviation;

* Patients who died during ICU admission were excluded (*n* = 7)

** Patients who died during hospital admission (*n* = 11) or were transferred to another hospital (*n* = 2) were excluded

Table 4 Patient outcomes of the 62 patients who developed malnutrition during hospital admission

	Total (<i>n</i> = 62)	Become malnour- ished during ICU stay (<i>n</i> = 44; Group 2 A)	Become malnour- ished during admis- sion to the ward (<i>n</i> = 18; Group 2B)	<i>P</i> value
Complication, <i>n</i> (%)	36 (58)	28 (64)	8 (44)	0.26
ICU-mortality, <i>n</i> (%)	3 (5)	3 (7)	0 (0)	0.55
In-hospital mortality, <i>n</i> (%)	5 (8)	5 (11)	0 (0)	0.31
Systemic complications, <i>n</i> (%)	7 (11)	5 (11)	2 (11)	1.00
Surgery-related complications, <i>n</i> (%)	6 (10)	5 (11)	1 (6)	0.66
Fracture-related complications, <i>n</i> (%)	1 (2)	1 (2)	0 (0)	1.00
Pneumonia, <i>n</i> (%)	30 (48)	26 (59)	4 (22)	0.01
Urinary tract infection, <i>n</i> (%)	8 (13)	6 (14)	2 (11)	1.00
Venous thromboembolism, <i>n</i> (%)	7 (11)	5 (11)	2 (11)	1.00
ICU LOS in days *, mean ± SD	14 ± 18	17 ± 20	8 ± 5	0.01
Ventilator days *, mean ± SD	9 ± 10	10 ± 11	5 ± 5	0.01
Hospital LOS in days **, mean ± SD	33 ± 26	35 ± 29	31 ± 18	0.67

ICU, Intensive care unit; LOS, Length of stay; *n*, number; SD, standard deviation;

* Patients who died during ICU admission were excluded (*n* = 3)

** Patients who died during hospital admission (*n* = 5) or were transferred to another hospital (*n* = 2) were excluded

more often in malnourished patients than in well-nourished patients.

Several studies have been published concerning the prevalence of malnutrition in trauma patients, as assessed by the SGA at hospital admission. In two studies including trauma patients admitted to the ICU, the prevalence of malnutrition at admission was 11 and 12% [14, 15]. In patients with a moderate-to-severe traumatic brain injury (TBI) admitted to the ICU, 14% were found to be malnourished [16]. These results are comparable to our results. When looking at all trauma patients, both ICU and non-ICU patients, this prevalence ranged up to 48% at admission [17–19]. In studies including geriatric trauma patients, 30–66% were malnourished at hospital admission [20–22]. Since malnutrition is more common in the elderly population, this probably

explains the higher prevalence of malnutrition in these study groups [23].

Studies reporting the changes in the nutritional status of trauma patients also found a significant increase in malnutrition during hospital admission. In acute care surgery patients, 27% were malnourished at admission and 41% was malnourished after one week of admission [24]. In a study by Chapple et al. concerning ICU patients with moderate TBI (GCS 9–12) or severe TBI (GCS 3–8), malnutrition increased from 14% at admission to 44% at hospital discharge [16]. We found that the incidence of in-hospital malnutrition was 70.5%, with a prevalence of malnutrition of 74% at hospital discharge. A higher Injury Severity Score (ISS) is found to be related to higher levels of proinflammatory cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α)

and interleukin-6 (IL-6) [25]. These proinflammatory cytokines can cause the body to be in a hypermetabolic state and therefore lead to a loss of body resources [5]. In addition, severely injured patients might suffer more from gastrointestinal problems such as an ileus, or have to undergo surgery more frequently than TBI patients, which could cause a deterioration in the nutritional status. This might explain the higher incidence of in-hospital malnutrition in our severely injured patient study group compared to the isolated TBI population of Chapple et al. [16].

The high incidence of malnutrition is not simply a matter of insufficient emphasis on nutritional support in the five included hospitals, as the ICU protocols of the five included hospitals align with the ESPEN recommendations [13]. According to these guidelines, (par)enteral nutrition ((P)EN) should be initiated within 48 h if oral intake is not possible. In our patient group, 89% of the (P)EN was initiated within 48 h. Reasons for not starting (P)EN within 48 h were: septic shock ($n=1$), gastric retention ($n=2$), or fasting before multiple surgeries ($n=5$). In these 8 patients, (P)EN was initiated between 48 and 96 h after admission. Furthermore, ESPEN recommends that full (P)EN (i.e. meeting 100% of caloric needs) shall be prescribed within three to seven days to prevent overfeeding. However, 19 patients (19%) received full (P)EN within 48 h and 14 patients (14%) did not meet caloric needs within 7 days. This was not statistically significant between the patients who were malnourished or developed malnutrition and the patients who remained well-nourished. Possibly, the hypermetabolic catabolic state following severe trauma cannot be sufficiently compensated so that a deterioration in nutritional status can be prevented in all cases, even with adequate nutritional therapy. Additionally, the unavoidable fasting period before surgery and the resulting acute phase response after surgery make polytrauma patients exceptionally susceptible to malnutrition. Studies on developments related to peri-operative management are regularly published, such as the Enhanced Recovery After Surgery (ERAS) protocol [26]. One component of the ERAS protocol is early oral feeding after surgery (starting 4 h post-surgery). This approach can lead to faster intestinal recovery, shorter postoperative hospital stays, and fewer complications for patients undergoing gastrointestinal surgery [27]. Since polytrauma patients frequently have multiple surgeries within the initial days of ICU admission, careful monitoring of enteral nutrition and close collaboration with a dietitian is essential for managing both the timing and quantity of enteral feeding.

However, providing more nutrition is not always beneficial, as overfeeding is known to pose risks for ICU patients [28]. Overfeeding can lead to complications such as hyperglycemia, increased carbon dioxide production (leading to respiratory complications), and fat accumulation in the liver,

especially in critically ill patients [29]. The endogenous glucose production is elevated in the early phases of critical illness due to stress-induced metabolic changes, which makes patients particularly vulnerable to overfeeding during this time [30]. Indirect calorimetry is a tool that measures oxygen consumption (VO_2) and carbon dioxide production (VCO_2) to calculate a patient's actual energy expenditure [31]. This allows healthcare providers to tailor nutritional interventions more precisely, avoiding the potential risks of both underfeeding and overfeeding, especially during ICU admission. On the other hand, following ICU admission, calorie and protein requirements typically rise as patients become more physically active and mobilized during their transition to the ward [32]. However, nutritional intake during this phase may fall short of meeting the increased demands, leaving severely injured patients vulnerable to malnutrition, even while admitted to the ward. Personalized nutrition plans, based on each patient's metabolic needs, can improve recovery outcomes and reduce complications associated with improper feeding strategies.

In earlier publications, malnutrition, defined as $\text{SGA} \leq 5$, was found to be related to increased mortality, complications, and prolonged hospital LOS in trauma patients [17, 18, 24]. In critically ill patients, a significant association was demonstrated between SGA and mortality, pressure injuries, length of stay, and ICU readmission rates [10, 33, 34]. Our study found a relationship between malnutrition and complications (Table 3). Surprisingly, ICU mortality and in-hospital mortality seemed higher in the well-nourished patients compared to the patients who were malnourished or developed malnutrition (15% vs. 0% vs. 5%, $p=0.13$; 19% vs. 8% vs. 8%, $p=0.30$, resp.), although both differences were not statistically significant (Table 3). This apparent contradictory result may be due to the fact that deterioration in nutritional status occurs gradually and can take several days. Of the 11 patients who died during hospital admission, 6 died within the first week of admission. It seems unlikely that their nutritional status could have deteriorated that much during the short period until their passing, resulting in a higher percentage of patients who were still well-nourished at the time of death. Concerning other in-hospital outcomes among patients who survived their admission, such as ICU LOS, ventilator days, and hospital LOS, no difference was found in the patients that were malnourished or developed malnutrition during admission and the patients who were well-nourished (Table 3). Although the hospital LOS seemed longer for the patients who became malnourished (Table 3), this difference was not statistically significant ($p=0.05$), possibly due to a lack of statistical power. Lastly, patients who developed malnutrition during their ICU stay experienced significantly higher rates of pneumonia, had a longer ICU length of stay, and required

more ventilator days compared to those who became malnourished during ward admission (Table 4). Thus, malnutrition seems to be evidently correlated with complications and in-hospital outcomes. However, the causal relationship between malnutrition and these outcomes remains ambiguous, as both have the potential to influence the other. For example, malnutrition can make a person more susceptible to infection, and infection also contributes to a deterioration of the nutritional status [35]. In addition, malnutrition at admission is known to be associated with prolonged hospital LOS [36]. Furthermore, the longer a patient stays in a hospital, the higher the probability of acquiring an infection [37]. In conclusion, malnutrition seems to be evidently correlated with complications and in-hospital outcomes, but the causal correlation cannot be established.

Limitations

Since not much nutritional research has been done on severely injured patients, this study can be considered one of the largest studies on the subject. The sample size was limited to 100 patients for pragmatic reasons. Not all patients who were considered eligible for the study were included. The primary reasons for this were organizational challenges as the study demanded significant time from ICU staff, and difficulties in obtaining informed consent (which can be considered burdensome for families of critically ill patients). However, we do not believe that this has led to selection bias in the included patient group. Although the difference in the overall complication rate between the patient groups was statistically significant, the statistical power was too low to detect clinically relevant differences for specific complications, for instance for in-hospital mortality, pneumonia, and venous thromboembolism. Another limitation is presented by the fact that there is no 'gold standard' for assessing nutritional status. We used the SGA, as it has been validated for ICU patients and is proven to be the most predictive for outcomes. The SGA score itself, however, is not very discriminative, since the difference between an SGA score of 5 (malnourished) or 6 (well-nourished) can be very minimal. To increase reliability and reduce interobserver variability, the SGA scores were verified by one investigator at the end of data collection. Unfortunately, not enough patients with severe malnutrition ($SGA \leq 2$) were included to perform a separate analysis for SGA groups. Therefore, no distinction was made in the severity of malnutrition; SGA scores of 1 to 5 all reflected a malnourished status. Lastly, as already stated in the discussion section, the causal correlation between malnutrition and both complications and in-hospital outcomes cannot be established, since these components are interdependent.

Conclusion

Over 50% of all well-nourished severely injured patients develop malnutrition during ICU admission, increasing to 70% during their total hospital stay. Malnutrition in severely injured patients developed during ICU and hospital admission is found to be related to an increased risk of complications. Therefore, awareness of the importance of nutritional strategies needs to become a common ground for all clinicians treating severely injured patients. Recognition of sub-optimally nourished severely injured patients and assessment of their nutritional needs is crucial in order to improve their clinical outcome.

Acknowledgements We thank the ICU physicians, nurses, and other staff in the Leiden University Medical Center, Haaglanden Medical Center Westeinde, Massachusetts General Hospital, Brigham and Women's Hospital, and Ryder Trauma Center, for helping us include patients and assess the nutritional status of these patients. We also thank the research students who helped us with data collection.

Author contributions E.A.H. Verheul, S. Dijkink, P. Krijnen, and I.B. Schipper contributed to the conception and design of the research; E.A.H. Verheul and S. Dijkink contributed to the acquisition of the data; E.A.H. Verheul, S. Dijkink, P. Krijnen, and I.B. Schipper contributed to the analysis and interpretation of the data and drafted the manuscript; All authors critically revised the manuscript, approved the final manuscript, and agree to be fully accountable for ensuring the integrity and accuracy of the work.

Funding Our study received funding from the LUMC Research Foundation, The Netherlands.

Data availability Data is provided within the manuscript.

Declarations

Competing interests The authors declare no competing interests.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

References

1. Osooli F, Abbas S, Farsaei S, Adibi P. Identifying critically ill patients at risk of malnutrition and underfeeding: a prospective study at an academic hospital. *Adv Pharm Bull.* 2019;9(2):314–20.

2. Norman K, Pichard C, Lochs H, Pirlich M. Prognostic impact of disease-related malnutrition. *Clin Nutr*. 2008;27(1):5–15.
3. Barker LA, Gout BS, Crowe TC. Hospital malnutrition: prevalence, identification and impact on patients and the healthcare system. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2011;8(2):514–27.
4. White JV, Guenter P, Jensen G, Malone A, Schofield M, Academy Malnutrition Work Group. Consensus statement: Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics and American Society for Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition: characteristics recommended for the identification and documentation of adult malnutrition (undernutrition). *J Parenter Enter Nutr*. 2012;36(3):275–83.
5. Dijkink S, Meier K, Krijnen P, Yeh DD, Velmahos GC, Schipper IB. Malnutrition and its effects in severely injured trauma patients. *Eur J Trauma Emerg Surg* Oct. 2020;46(5):993–1004.
6. Dijkink S, Meier K, Krijnen P, Yeh DD, Velmahos GC, Arbous MS, et al. The malnutrition in polytrauma patients (MaPP) study: Research protocol. *Nutr Health*. 2019;25(4):291–301.
7. von Elm E, Altman DG, Egger M, Pocock SJ, Gøtzsche PC, Vandenbroucke JP. STROBE Initiative. The strengthening the reporting of Observational studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) statement: guidelines for reporting observational studies. *Ann Intern Med*. 2007;147(8):573–7.
8. Detsky AS, McLaughlin JR, Baker JP, Johnston N, Whittaker S, Mendelson RA, et al. What is subjective global assessment of nutritional status? *J Parenter Enter Nutr*. 1987;11(1):8–13.
9. Sheean PM, Peterson SJ, Gurka DP, Braunschweig CA. Nutrition assessment: the reproducibility of Subjective Global Assessment in patients requiring mechanical ventilation. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2010;64(11):1358–64.
10. Bector S, Vagianos K, Suh M, Duerksen DR. Does the subjective global assessment predict outcome in critically ill medical patients? *J Intensive Care Med* Aug. 2016;31(7):485–9.
11. Baker JP, Detsky AS, Wesson DE, Wolman SL, Stewart S, Whitewell J, et al. Nutritional assessment: a comparison of clinical judgement and objective measurements. *N Engl J Med*. 1982;306(16):969–72.
12. Cass AR, Charlton KE. Prevalence of hospital-acquired malnutrition and modifiable determinants of nutritional deterioration during inpatient admissions: a systematic review of the evidence. *J Hum Nutr Diet*. 2022;35(6):1043–58.
13. Singer P, Blaser AR, Berger MM, Calder PC, Casaer M, Hiesmayr M, et al. ESPEN practical and partially revised guideline: clinical nutrition in the intensive care unit. *Clin Nutr*. 2023;42(9):1671–89.
14. Chakravarty C, Hazarika B, Goswami L, Ramasubban S. Prevalence of malnutrition in a tertiary care hospital in India. *Indian J Crit Care Med*. 2013;17(3):170–3.
15. Javid Mishamandani Z, Norouzy A, Hashemian SM, Khoundabi B, Rezaeisadrabadi M, Safarian M, et al. Nutritional status of patients hospitalized in the intensive care unit: a comprehensive report from Iranian hospitals, 2018. *J Crit Care*. 2019;54:151–8.
16. Chapple LS, Deane AM, Williams LT, Strickland R, Schultz C, Lange K, et al. Longitudinal changes in anthropometrics and impact on self-reported physical function after traumatic brain injury. *Crit Care Resusc*. 2017;19(1):29–36.
17. Goiburu ME, Goiburu MM, Bianco H, Díaz JR, Alderete F, Palacios MC, et al. The impact of malnutrition on morbidity, mortality and length of hospital stay in trauma patients. *Nutr Hosp*. 2006;21(5):604–10.
18. Kushwaha NS, Rana DB, Singh A, Saxena S, Srivastava S, Sharma V. Assessment of Nutrition Status and its effect on outcomes in patients with limb injuries using the Subjective Global Assessment as a Screening Tool. *Cureus*. 2023;15(9):e44953.
19. Subwongcharoen S, Areesawangvong P, Chompoosang T. Impact of nutritional status on surgical patients. *Clin Nutr ESPEN*. 2019;32:135–9.
20. Sánchez-Torralvo FJ, Pérez-Del-Río V, García-Olivares M, Porras N, Abuíñ-Fernández J, Bravo-Bardají MF, et al. Global Subjective Assessment and Mini Nutritional Assessment Short Form Better Predict Mortality Than GLIM Malnutrition Criteria in Elderly patients with hip fracture. *Nutrients*. 2023;15(8):1828.
21. Wong AM, Xu BY, Low LL, Allen JC. Impact of malnutrition in surgically repaired hip fracture patients admitted for rehabilitation in a community hospital: a cohort prospective study. *Clin Nutr ESPEN*. 2023;44:188–93.
22. Goost H, Vidakovic E, Deborre C, Randau T, Wirtz DC, Burger C, et al. Malnutrition in geriatric trauma patients: screening methods in comparison. *Technol Health Care*. 2016;24(2):225–39.
23. Norman K, Haß U, Pirlich M. Malnutrition in older adults-recent advances and remaining challenges. *Nutrients*. 2021;13(8):2764.
24. Abahuje E, Niyongombwa I, Karenzi D, Bisimwa JA, Tuyishime E, Ntiringanya F, et al. Malnutrition in Acute Care surgery patients in Rwanda. *World J Surg*. 2020;44(5):1361–7.
25. Cai J, McKinley T, Billiar I, Zenati MS, Gaski G, Vodovotz Y, et al. Protective/reparative cytokines are suppressed at high injury severity in human trauma. *Trauma Surg Acute Care Open*. 2021;6(1):e000619.
26. Melnyk M, Casey RG, Black P, Koupparis AJ. Enhanced recovery after surgery (ERAS) protocols: time to change practice? *Can Urol Assoc J*. 2011;5(5):342–8.
27. Canzan F, Longhini J, Caliaro A, Cavada ML, Mezzalana E, Paiella S, et al. The effect of early oral postoperative feeding on the recovery of intestinal motility after gastrointestinal surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. *Front Nutr*. 2024;11:1369141.
28. Hermans A, Laarhuis B, Kow I, van Zanten A. Current insights in ICU nutrition: tailored nutrition. *Curr Opin Crit Care*. 2023;29(2):101–7.
29. Cade JF, Jones DA, Bellomo R. Nutrition in the intensive care unit - you must breathe what you eat. *Crit Care Resusc*. 2016;18(4):224–7.
30. Wischmeyer PE, Bear DE, Berger MM, De Waele E, Gunst J, McClave SA, et al. Personalized nutrition therapy in critical care: 10 expert recommendations. *Crit Care*. 2023;27(1):261.
31. Haugen HA, Chan LN, Li F. Indirect calorimetry: a practical guide for clinicians. *Nutr Clin Pract*. 2007;22(4):377–88.
32. De Waele E, Jonckheer J, Wischmeyer PE. Indirect calorimetry in critical illness: a new standard of care? *Curr Opin Crit Care*. 2021;27(4):334–43.
33. Ferrie S, Weiss NB, Chau HY, Torkel S, Stepniewski ME. Association of Subjective Global Assessment with outcomes in the intensive care unit: a retrospective cohort study. *Nutr Diet*. 2022;79(5):572–81.
34. Fontes D, de Vasconcelos Generoso S, Toulson Davisson Correia MI. Subjective global assessment: a reliable nutritional assessment tool to predict outcomes in critically ill patients. *Clin Nutr*. 2014;33(2):291–5.
35. Katona P, Katona-Apte J. The interaction between nutrition and infection. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2008;46(10):1582–8.
36. Nigatu YD, Gebreyesus SH, Allard JP, Endris BS. The effect of malnutrition at admission on length of hospital stay among adult patients in developing country: a prospective cohort study. *Clin Nutr ESPEN*. 2021;41:217–24.
37. Hassan M, Tuckman HP, Patrick RH, Kountz D, Kohn J. Hospital length of Stay and Probability of acquiring infection. *Int J Pharm Healthc Mark*. 2010;4(4):324–38.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.