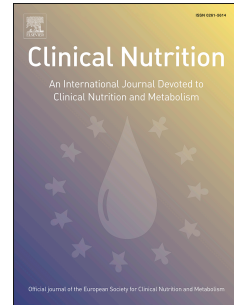


# Journal Pre-proof

ESPEN practical guideline: Clinical nutrition and hydration in geriatrics

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# 1 **ESPEN practical guideline: Clinical nutrition and hydration in geriatrics**

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5

6 *Based on*

## 7 ***ESPEN Guideline on Clinical Nutrition and Hydration in Geriatrics***

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11

12

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34

35

36 **Abstract**

37 Background: Malnutrition and dehydration are widespread in older people, and obesity  
38 is an increasing problem. In clinical practice, it is often unclear which strategies are  
39 suitable and effective in counteracting these key health threats.

40 Aim: To provide evidence-based recommendations for clinical nutrition and hydration in  
41 older persons in order to prevent and/or treat malnutrition and dehydration. Further, to  
42 address whether weight-reducing interventions are appropriate for overweight or obese  
43 older persons.

44 Methods: This guideline was developed according to the standard operating procedure  
45 for ESPEN guidelines and consensus papers. A systematic literature search for systematic  
46 reviews and primary studies was performed based on 33 clinical questions in PICO  
47 format. Existing evidence was graded according to the SIGN grading system.  
48 Recommendations were developed and agreed in a multistage consensus process.

49 Results: We provide eighty-two evidence-based recommendations for nutritional care in  
50 older persons, covering four main topics: Basic questions and general principles,  
51 recommendations for older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition,  
52 recommendations for older patients with specific diseases, and recommendations to  
53 prevent, identify and treat dehydration. Overall, we recommend that all older persons  
54 shall routinely be screened for malnutrition in order to identify an existing risk early. Oral  
55 nutrition can be supported by nursing interventions, education, nutritional counselling,  
56 food modification and oral nutritional supplements. Enteral nutrition should be initiated  
57 if oral, and parenteral if enteral nutrition is insufficient or impossible and the general  
58 prognosis is altogether favorable. Dietary restrictions should generally be avoided, and  
59 weight-reducing diets shall only be considered in obese older persons with weight-  
60 related health problems and combined with physical exercise. All older persons should be

61 considered to be at risk of low-intake dehydration and encouraged to consume adequate  
62 amounts of drinks. Generally, interventions shall be individualized, comprehensive and  
63 part of a multimodal and multidisciplinary team approach.

64 **Conclusion:** A range of effective interventions is available to support adequate nutrition  
65 and hydration in older persons in order to maintain or improve nutritional status and  
66 improve clinical course and quality of life. These interventions should be implemented in  
67 clinical practice and routinely used.

68

69 **Keywords:** Guideline, recommendations, geriatrics, nutritional care, malnutrition,  
70 dehydration, obesity

71

72 **Abbreviations:** BMI, body mass index; BW, body weight; EN, enteral nutrition; MNA, Mini  
73 Nutritional Assessment; ONS, oral nutritional supplements; PN, parenteral nutrition; RCT,  
74 randomized controlled trial; REE, resting energy expenditure; SLR, systematic literature  
75 review

76

## 77 **Introduction**

78 Older persons, usually defined by an age of 65 years or older, are at increased risk of  
79 **malnutrition** due to many factors. Anorexia of aging is crucial in this context. Particularly  
80 in advanced age and in the case of acute and chronic illness, nutritional problems are  
81 widespread, and a reduced dietary intake in combination with the effects of catabolic  
82 disease rapidly leads to malnutrition (1, 2). Malnutrition is related to poor outcome, e.g.  
83 increased rates of infections, length of hospital stay, duration of convalescence after acute  
84 illness as well as mortality risk (2), and is regarded as one important contributing factor  
85 in the complex etiology of sarcopenia and frailty (1, 3, 4). Reported prevalence rates are  
86 generally below 10% in independently living older persons and increase up to two thirds  
87 in hospitalized older patients (5, 6).

88 Besides malnutrition, older persons are at increased risk of **dehydration** for various  
89 reasons, which is also related to serious health consequences (7, 8). Prevalence rates are  
90 also low in independent, community-dwelling older persons but increase to more than  
91 one third in more frail and vulnerable older adults and those in need of care (9).

92 On the other hand, like in the general population, **obesity** with its well-known negative  
93 health consequences is an increasing problem also in older people, currently affecting  
94 between 18 and 30% of the worldwide population aged 65 years and older (10, 11).

95 Thus, supporting adequate nutrition including adequate amounts of food and fluid to  
96 prevent and treat malnutrition and dehydration as well as obesity is an important public  
97 health concern.

98 The present guideline aims to provide evidence-based recommendations in order to  
99 prevent and/or treat malnutrition and dehydration in older persons as far as possible.

100 Furthermore, the question of whether weight-reducing interventions are appropriate for  
101 overweight or obese older persons is addressed.

102

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**103 Methodology**

104 The present practical guideline consists of 82 recommendations and is based on the  
105 European Society for Clinical Nutrition and Metabolism (ESPEN) guideline on clinical  
106 nutrition and hydration in geriatrics (12). The original guideline was shortened by  
107 focusing the commentaries on the evidence and literature on which the recommendations are  
108 based on. The recommendations were not changed, but the presentation of the content was  
109 transformed into a graphical presentation. The original guideline was developed according  
110 to the standard operating procedure (SOP) for ESPEN guidelines and consensus papers  
111 (13).

112 A comprehensive, systematic literature search was performed on 4th July 2016 based on  
113 33 clinical questions in PICO (population of interest, interventions, comparisons,  
114 outcomes) format. Existing evidence was graded according to the SIGN (Scottish  
115 Intercollegiate Guidelines Network) grading system. Recommendations were developed  
116 and graded into four classes (A/B/0/GPP).

117 All recommendations were agreed in a multistage consensus process, which resulted in a  
118 percentage of agreement (%). In brackets, the original recommendation numbers (R1, R2,  
119 ...) and the grading is indicated. The guideline process was funded exclusively by the  
120 ESPEN society. The guideline shortage and dissemination was funded in part by the  
121 United European Gastroenterology (UEG) society, and also by the ESPEN society. For  
122 further details on methodology, see the full version of the ESPEN guideline (12) and the  
123 ESPEN SOP (13).

## 124 **Recommendations**

125 This practical guideline includes 82 recommendations structured in five main chapters  
126 and diverse subchapters (Fig. 1). Unless otherwise stated, the recommendations apply to  
127 all health-care settings.

### 128 **1. General principles (Fig. 2)**

#### 129 **1.1 Guidance for nutritional intake**

130 *1) Guiding value for energy intake in older persons is 30 kcal per kg body weight*  
131 *and day; this value should be individually adjusted regarding nutritional status,*  
132 *physical activity level, disease status, and tolerance.*

133 *(R1, Grade B, strong consensus 93%)*

#### 134 **Commentary**

135 With increasing age, resting energy expenditure (REE) is generally decreasing, mainly due  
136 to decreasing fat-free body mass. In healthy and sick elderly persons, measurements of  
137 REE resulted in about 20 kcal/kg body weight (BW) and day (14-16). Based on usual  
138 physical activity levels between 1.2 and 1.8, total energy expenditure amounts to 24 to 36  
139 kcal/kg. Due to their strong relation to fat-free mass, basal energy requirements are also  
140 influenced by gender and by nutritional status; in fact, REE/kg BW is higher for men than  
141 for women and increases with decreasing body mass index (BMI). For older persons with  
142 underweight (BMI  $\leq 21$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) energy requirements between 32 and 38 kcal/kg are  
143 assumed (16). In sick older people energy requirements may, on the one hand, be reduced  
144 due to reduced physical activity, and on the other hand be increased due to disease effects  
145 (e.g. inflammation, fever, drug effects). Minimal requirements of ill older persons are  
146 estimated to be between 27 and 30 kcal/kg (16).



147 Based on these figures, about 30 kcal/kg BW is suggested as a rough estimate and general  
148 orientation for energy requirements in older persons. This guiding value needs individual  
149 adjustment regarding all relevant factors. Adequacy of energy intake needs to be  
150 controlled by close monitoring of BW (taking water retention or losses into account), and  
151 intake adapted accordingly.

152  
153 **2) Protein intake in older persons should be at least 1 g protein per kg BW and day.**

154 ***The amount should be individually adjusted with regard to nutritional status,***  
155 ***physical activity level, disease status, and tolerance.***

156 ***(R2, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 157 **Commentary**

158 Growing evidence from experimental and epidemiological research suggests that older  
159 people might need higher amounts of protein than younger adults for optimal  
160 preservation of lean body mass, body functions, and health. Daily amounts of 1.0 - 1.2 g/kg  
161 BW have been suggested for healthy older persons by several expert groups (17-19). In  
162 case of illness, protein requirements may even be further increased, e.g. due to  
163 inflammation, infections and wounds, however, to which extent is difficult to assess. Very  
164 little is known about the protein needs of frail and ill older persons. Daily amounts of 1.2  
165 - 1.5 g/kg have been suggested for older persons with acute or chronic illness (17, 18) and  
166 up to 2.0 g/kg BW and day in case of severe illness, injury or malnutrition (17).

167 Until more evidence is available, intake of at least 1.0 g/kg should be ensured in all older  
168 persons, particularly in those at risk of malnutrition, e.g. frail and multimorbid persons,  
169 whose intake is often far below this amount (20-22). Increased requirements, e.g. for  
170 muscle growth with strength training, for tissue regeneration in malnutrition or wound

171 healing or for increased metabolic demands in case of critical illness, should be met by  
172 appropriately increased intake.

173 It is important to bear in mind that an insufficient intake of energy increases protein  
174 requirements. Thus, regarding protein status, it is important to ensure not only an  
175 adequate intake of protein but also an appropriate energy intake.

176

177 ***3) For EN, fiber-containing products should be used.***

178 ***(R3 Grade B, strong consensus 91%)***

179 **Commentary**

180 Older patients often suffer from gastrointestinal problems including constipation and  
181 diarrhea. Since dietary fiber may contribute to the normalization of bowel functions, and  
182 intake is usually low in geriatric patients, the importance of an adequate intake of dietary  
183 fiber is emphasized. Daily amounts of 25 g are considered adequate for normal laxation  
184 in adults of ages (23) and can be regarded as guiding value also for older patients.

185 Also, for enteral nutrition (EN), there is no reason to omit dietary fiber if bowel function  
186 is not compromised. Conversely, fiber-containing products for EN have been shown to  
187 contribute to normal bowel function (24-30) and are, thus, generally recommended. In  
188 addition, enterally nourished patients should not be deprived of the well-known  
189 beneficial metabolic effects of dietary fiber.

190

191 ***4) Provided that there is no specific deficiency, micronutrients should be delivered***  
192 ***according to the recommendation for healthy older persons.***

193 ***(R4, Grade GPP, strong consensus 91%)***

194 **Commentary**

195 Dietary recommendations for micronutrients for older persons do not differ from those  
196 for younger adults, however, our knowledge about requirements in very old, frail or ill  
197 persons is poor. Due to an increasing prevalence of gastrointestinal diseases, which are  
198 accompanied by reduced nutrient bioavailability (e.g. atrophic gastritis and impaired  
199 vitamin B12, calcium and iron absorption), older persons are at increased risk of  
200 micronutrient deficiencies, which should be corrected by supplementation. Provided that  
201 there is no specific deficiency, micronutrients should be delivered according to the  
202 recommendation of the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) or corresponding  
203 national nutrition societies for healthy older persons (31).

204

205 ***5) Older women should be offered at least 1.6 L of drinks each day, while older men***  
206 ***should be offered at least 2.0 L of drinks each day unless there is a clinical condition***  
207 ***that requires a different approach.***

208 ***(R61, Grade B, strong consensus 96% agreement)***

209 **Commentary**

210 Daily water intake is required to compensate daily losses by respiration, exudation, urine,  
211 and feces. An individual's minimum fluid requirement is 'the amount of water that equals  
212 losses and prevents adverse effects of insufficient water' (32). We take fluid from drinks  
213 and foods, but drinks or beverages account for 70 to 80% of fluid consumed (33).

214 The EFSA reviewed the literature and recommended an Adequate Intake (AI) of 2.0 L/day  
215 for women and 2.5 L/day for men of all ages (from a combination of drinking water,  
216 beverages, and food) (32). Assuming 80% of these fluid needs to come from drinks then  
217 women would require 1.6 L/d of drinks, and men 2.0 L/d. Minimal drinks

218 recommendations in women vary from 1.0 L/d in the Nordic countries to 2.2 L/d in the  
219 USA, while in men the range is 1.0 to 3.0 L/d of drinks or beverages (34-38). Given this  
220 variation, the use of the EFSA fluid recommendation seems appropriately cautious in  
221 older adults.

222 Individual fluid needs are related to energy consumption, water losses and kidney  
223 function, so larger people may require more fluid. Needs may also be higher in extreme  
224 temperatures (e.g. summer heat) or at times of greater physical activity. Excessive losses  
225 due to, fever, diarrhea, vomiting or severe hemorrhage must also be balanced by  
226 additional intake. On the other hand, specific clinical situations, namely heart, and renal  
227 failure may need a restriction of fluid intake.

228

## 229 **1.2 Basic principles of nutritional care**

230 ***6) In institutional settings, standard operating procedures for nutritional and***  
231 ***hydration care shall be established and responsibilities well regulated.***

232 ***(R7, Grade GPP, strong consensus)***

### 233 **Commentary**

234 In order to assure implementation in everyday practice, SOPs should be established.  
235 Nutritional strategies should be supported by the head of the institution, and  
236 responsibilities well-regulated. Desirably, each geriatric institution should constitute a  
237 multidisciplinary team, including all professions involved. Special attention should be  
238 drawn to the interface management, as important information concerning the nutritional  
239 situation is frequently lost in the situation of patients' transition to another healthcare  
240 sector.

241 In geriatric acute care and rehabilitation hospital units, nutritional assessment and  
242 implementation of a nutritional care plan have been shown to improve energy and protein  
243 intake, serum proteins and health-related quality of life of the patients (39).  
244 Implementation of a screening and treatment protocol at a geriatric hospital unit  
245 including regular team meetings improved BW and hospital-acquired infections  
246 compared to standard care (40). Multidisciplinary nutritional care concepts including  
247 regular team meetings increased dietary intake and improved quality of life in hip fracture  
248 patients (41), and improved nutritional status, wellbeing, and quality of mealtimes in  
249 demented nursing home residents (42).

250

251 ***7) Nutritional and hydration care for older persons shall be individualized and***  
252 ***comprehensive in order to ensure adequate nutritional intake, maintain or improve***  
253 ***nutritional status and improve the clinical course and quality of life.***

254 ***(R8, Grade A, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 255 **Commentary**

256 Five RCTs (all performed in the hospital setting) were identified providing evidence for  
257 comprehensive individualized nutritional interventions in older persons with  
258 malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition (43-47).

259 Three RCTs of low to acceptable quality investigated the effects of comprehensive  
260 individualized nutritional interventions in older hospitalized patients at nutritional risk  
261 with various diagnoses (43, 44) or after acute stroke (45), and reported positive effects  
262 on energy and protein intake (43, 44), BW (44, 45), complications, antibiotic use,  
263 readmissions (44) and functional measures (44, 45). Additionally, all three studies  
264 showed benefits concerning the quality of life in the group receiving individual nutritional

265 care compared to the group with usual care (43-45). No effect was found regarding the  
266 length of hospital stay (44, 45). In a further RCT of acceptable quality (46), the effect of  
267 additional individual nutritional support by dietetic assistants was investigated in older  
268 hospitalized patients with hip fractures. The study reported increased energy intake and  
269 decreased mortality in the trauma unit and within four months after discharge in the  
270 intervention group compared to the group with standard care. Bodyweight, grip strength,  
271 complications, and length of hospital stay were however unaffected. Feldblum et al. (47)  
272 extended an individualized nutritional intervention in older internal medical patients to  
273 six months after hospitalization and reported an improved Mini Nutritional Assessment  
274 (MNA) score and reduced mortality in the intervention compared to the control group,  
275 however, no intervention effects on energy or protein intake, BW, and functional  
276 measures.

277

278 ***8) Nutritional interventions for older persons should be part of a multimodal and***  
279 ***multidisciplinary team intervention in order to support adequate dietary intake,***  
280 ***maintain or increase BW and improve functional and clinical outcomes.***

281 ***(R9, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)***

## 282 **Commentary**

283 Nutritional care comprises different approaches (see recommendations 10, 15-17, 22-39,  
284 44), which can complement each other and may require expertise from multiple  
285 professions.

286 Four relevant RCTs with several sub-studies of low to acceptable quality focusing on  
287 multimodal and multidisciplinary interventions (combining more than two intervention  
288 strategies) were identified (48-57): a trial combining different components of nutritional

289 care in older patients from hospital admission up to three months after discharge (63), a  
290 multi-facet intervention consisting of home-made nutritional supplements, oral care and  
291 group exercise in nursing home residents (49, 50), a multidisciplinary intervention with  
292 nutritional support, physio- and occupational therapy in older malnourished people  
293 receiving home care or living in nursing homes (48, 51), and a comprehensive  
294 rehabilitation program including nutritional intervention in older patients with hip  
295 fracture. Positive effects on various outcome parameter were reported (e.g. dietary intake  
296 (49, 50, 53), nutritional status, the incidence of falls (53, 56), fall-related injuries (56),  
297 health status (55), physical performance (48-51, 57), social activity (49, 50), cost-  
298 effectiveness (52) and quality of life (48, 51)), results were however not always consistent.  
299 These studies illustrate the complexity of the situation and underline the importance of a  
300 comprehensive treatment approach in older patients. Because of partly inconsistent  
301 results, the evidence grade was reduced from A to B.

302

303 ***9) Potential causes of malnutrition and dehydration shall be identified and***  
304 ***eliminated as far as possible.***

305 ***(R10, Grade GPP, strong consensus 95%)***

### 306 **Commentary**

307 Potential causes of poor intake and/or poor nutritional status in older persons are  
308 manifold and should be explored systematically, e.g. by check-lists and subsequent  
309 assessment and diagnostic clarification. Swallowing evaluation, dental examination, oral  
310 and general health assessment and check-up of medications for potential side effects  
311 impeding adequate nutrition (e.g. by causing anorexia, xerostomia, dysgeusia,  
312 gastrointestinal disorders or somnolence), for example, may uncover eating obstacles and  
313 provide starting points for adequate interventions. In institutionalized older people,

314 eating and feeding problems are widespread and should also be identified, e.g. by informal  
315 observation during meals, and eliminated as far as possible by appropriate remedial  
316 actions (58).

317

318 ***10) Dietary restrictions that may limit dietary intake are potentially harmful and***  
319 ***should be avoided.***

320 ***(R11, Grade GPP, strong consensus 91%)***

### 321 **Commentary**

322 Dietary restrictions are one potential cause of malnutrition since they may limit food  
323 choice and eating pleasure and thus bear the risk of limiting dietary intake. As recently  
324 reviewed by Darmon et al. (59), restrictive diets furthermore seem to be less effective  
325 with increasing age, albeit data about their effects in older persons are rare. In one study,  
326 ambulatory patients older than 75 years following a low salt, low cholesterol or diabetic  
327 diet for  $11 \pm 6$  years were found to be at increased risk of malnutrition compared to age-  
328 and gender-matched controls (60). In a position statement, the American Dietetic  
329 Association concludes that the liberalization of diet prescriptions for older adults in long-  
330 term care may enhance the nutritional status and quality of life (61). Due to the risk of  
331 malnutrition, future studies about the effects of restrictive diets in old age are unlikely,  
332 and it is good clinical practice to liberalize dietary restrictions in older persons in order to  
333 reduce the risk of malnutrition and related loss of fat-free mass and functional decline.

334

335 ***11) Health care professionals, as well as informal caregivers, should be offered***  
336 ***nutritional education in order to ensure awareness of and basic knowledge on***  
337 ***nutritional problems and thus promote adequate dietary intake of older persons***



338 ***with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition.***

339 ***(R17, Grade B, strong consensus 95%)***

340 **Commentary**

341 One of the barriers to proper nutritional support in hospitals is assumed to be a lack of  
342 sufficient education concerning nutrition among all staff groups (62).

343 Three relevant systematic literature reviews (SLRs) of high (63, 64) or average quality  
344 (65) were identified, which examined the effectiveness of training for staff in residential  
345 care (64), people with dementia and/or their formal or informal care-givers (63) and  
346 informal carers and community care workers (65). Study designs and results of included  
347 studies were heterogeneous with partly positive effects on dietary intake and nutritional  
348 status. Altogether, scientific evidence is presently poor, but education and support for  
349 formal and informal caregivers are rated as one promising strategy among others to  
350 support the adequate dietary intake of older persons with malnutrition or at risk of  
351 malnutrition. For quality assurance reasons, nutritional information and education  
352 should be given by a nutritional expert, e.g. a dietician.

353

## 354 **2. Prevention and treatment of malnutrition**

### 355 **2.1 Screening and assessment for malnutrition (Fig. 3)**

356 ***12) All older persons – independent of specific diagnosis and including also***  
357 ***overweight and obese persons – shall routinely be screened for malnutrition with a***  
358 ***validated tool in order to identify those with (risk of) malnutrition.***  
359 ***(R5, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

360

361 The process of nutritional care for older persons consists of several steps which are based  
362 on systematic screening for malnutrition. Independent of specific diagnosis and also in  
363 overweight and obese persons, malnutrition and its risk should be systematically and  
364 routinely screened at admission to a geriatric institution using a validated tool and  
365 thereafter in regular intervals, depending on the patient's condition (e.g. every three  
366 months in long-term care residents in stable condition, at least once a year in general  
367 practice) to identify affected individuals early.

368

### 369 **2.2 Assessment, intervention, and monitoring (Fig. 3)**

370 ***13) A positive malnutrition screening shall be followed by a systematic assessment,***  
371 ***individualized intervention, monitoring and corresponding adjustment of***  
372 ***interventions.***

373 ***(R6, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

### 374 **Commentary**

375 Assessment: In individuals who are identified as malnourished or at risk of malnutrition  
376 by screening, a comprehensive nutritional assessment should follow, providing

377 information on kind and severity of malnutrition and its underlying causes as well as on  
378 individual preferences (regarding food and beverages as well as enteral and parenteral  
379 nutrition (PN)) and resources (e.g. chewing and swallowing ability, eating dependence,  
380 gastrointestinal function, severity of disease, general prognosis) for nutritional therapy.  
381 Dietary intake monitoring (e.g. by plate diagrams) is recommended for several days in  
382 order to estimate the amount of food and fluid consumed (66) and relate dietary intake  
383 to individual requirements (see recommendation 1).

384 Nutritional intervention: Based on the screening and assessment results, individual goals  
385 regarding dietary intake and BW / BMI should be defined, and an individualized nutrition  
386 care plan developed and implemented in an interdisciplinary team approach. All aspects  
387 of the patient – physical and mental/psychic, social, clinical as well as ethical – should be  
388 considered, and all options used to ensure an adequate dietary intake. Dietetic, nursing  
389 and medical actions should be implemented in a coordinated manner (see  
390 recommendation 8).

391 Monitoring: The intervention process needs to be monitored, and reassessments should  
392 be performed at regular intervals, e.g. after several days, in order to check if goals are  
393 achieved. If this is not the case, goals and interventions have to be adjusted according to  
394 experienced problems and the new situation. In the case of EN or PN criteria for  
395 termination of the therapy must be defined (see recommendation 34). In the hospital  
396 setting, it is important to initiate adequate nutritional care after discharge at home and to  
397 ensure the continuation of the nutritional strategy started in the hospital (see  
398 recommendation 29).

399 All interventions should be coordinated and agreed with all parties involved (e.g. medical  
400 specialists, nurses, therapists) (see recommendation 9). Intensive communication with

401 the patient and his or her family should take place during the whole process, in order to  
402 learn and consider the wishes and expectations of the person concerned.

403 For implementation in daily routines, these general recommendations have to be  
404 concretized and adapted to the local conditions of each institution. Standard protocols for  
405 nutritional screening, assessment and therapy have to be developed and consistently put  
406 into practice (see recommendation 7).

407

## 408 **2.3 Prevention and treatment of malnutrition in general (Fig. 4-7)**

### 409 *2.3.1 Supportive interventions (Fig. 4)*

410 ***14) Older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition and with eating***  
411 ***dependency in institutions (A) as well as at home (GPP) shall be offered mealtime***  
412 ***assistance in order to support adequate dietary intake.***

413 ***(R12, Grade A/GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 414 **Commentary**

415 Many older persons are restricted in their ability to eat and drink independently due to  
416 functional and cognitive limitations. Support may be needed ranging from adequate  
417 positioning at a table and verbal prompting to direct physical assistance to bring foods  
418 and fluids into the mouth.

419 Two relevant SLRs of high quality were identified (64, 67, 68). One (68) examined the  
420 effects of mealtime assistance provided to hospitalized patients ( $\geq 65$  years) by nurses,  
421 trained staff or volunteers. Assistance provided at mealtimes included setting up meal  
422 trays, positioning patients in a comfortable position, opening food and beverages,  
423 removing lids, feeding patients, encouraging intake and providing social support at  
424 mealtime. A meta-analysis of four of the five studies included (including one RCT) resulted

425 in significantly improved daily energy and protein intake in patients with mealtime  
426 assistance. Abbott et al. (64) included six feeding assistance studies. Two RCTs and three  
427 pre-post comparisons described positive effects on dietary intake. Marginal, non-  
428 significant improvements in food intake were also reported from a pre-post trial of  
429 reminiscence therapy during mealtimes in a very small study including seven residents  
430 with dementia.

431 No intervention studies have been performed among old people in home-care where  
432 malnutrition and risk of malnutrition are also prevalent. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to  
433 assume that eating-dependent older persons living in private households may also benefit  
434 from mealtime assistance.

435

436 ***15) In institutional settings, food intake of older persons with malnutrition or at***  
437 ***risk of malnutrition shall be supported by a home-like, pleasant dining environment***  
438 ***in order to support adequate dietary intake and maintain quality of life.***

439 ***(R13, Grade A, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 440 **Commentary**

441 Environmental factors play an important role in the atmosphere during mealtimes and  
442 can be modified to support adequate dietary intake.

443 Two relevant SLRs of high quality were identified (63, 64). One (64) examined the  
444 effectiveness of mealtime interventions for older persons living in residential care. The  
445 effect of dining environment alteration was examined in eleven studies including three  
446 RCTs. All three combined environmental improvement with the introduction of family-  
447 style meals and greater staff assistance. Meta-analysis results were in favor of the  
448 intervention regarding BW (all three RCTs) and energy intake (two RCTs) but not

449 significant. One of the studies (69) reached individual significance. Findings from the non-  
450 randomized studies were also mixed, but the authors conclude that positive findings  
451 prevail. Quality of life was examined in two studies which both found beneficial effects.  
452 The other SLR (63) focused on interventions to indirectly promote dietary intake in  
453 persons with dementia across all settings and levels of care. Seventeen studies (no RCT)  
454 were found reporting the effects of various types of dining environment or food service  
455 interventions, however all with a high risk of bias. The authors conclude that family-style  
456 meals and soothing mealtime music are promising interventions, among others, to  
457 support eating and drinking in persons with dementia (63).

458

459 ***16) Older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition should be***  
460 ***encouraged to share their mealtimes with others in order to stimulate dietary***  
461 ***intake and improve quality of life.***

462 ***(R14, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 463 **Commentary**

464 Eating is a social act, and eating in company is known to stimulate dietary intake, also in  
465 older persons (70, 71). A literature search identified a systematic review of high-quality  
466 including mealtime interventions with a strong focus on the social elements of eating and  
467 drinking. No RCTs but four non-randomized trials were identified, assessing the effect of  
468 e.g. shared mealtimes with staff or implementation of a breakfast club on various outcome  
469 parameters. Although these studies were small and of low quality, they provided a  
470 consistent suggestion of improvements in aspects of quality of life. In one of these studies,  
471 a significant increase in BW is reported after three months compared to the control group  
472 (72). It is however stressed that in case of specific problems and desires, individual

473 approaches are needed, e.g. some older people may be agitated during meals causing  
474 disturbances in the dining room. Some older persons may find it disturbing when they  
475 have to eat with other people with inferior hygiene and eating habits. On the other hand,  
476 persons with severe eating problems may struggle to behave by their own standards, and  
477 it has been suggested that the lack of eating competences leads to small portions to  
478 decrease exposure to failures in the presence of others (73). As for all other interventions,  
479 decisions shall always be individualized according to the persons' needs and preferences.

480

481 ***17) Meals on wheels offered to home-dwelling older persons with malnutrition or at***  
482 ***risk of malnutrition should be energy-dense and/or include additional meals to***  
483 ***support adequate dietary intake.***

484 ***(R15, Grade B, strong consensus 97%)***

#### 485 **Commentary**

486 Home-delivered meals, also called meals on wheels, are a valuable option for older  
487 persons living in private households who are unable to shop and prepare their meals by  
488 themselves. A recent review about home-delivered meals admits that the effects of this  
489 service are difficult to evaluate (74), but it seems reasonable to assume that persons who  
490 are otherwise unable to obtain regular meals may benefit from this support. The question,  
491 however, arises if home-delivered meals should meet specific requirements for persons  
492 with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition.

493 Two RCTs comparing specific modes of meals on wheels were identified (75, 76). One of  
494 them found that enhancing the energy density of food items regularly served in a home-  
495 delivered meals program increased lunch and 24-hour energy and nutrient intakes in a 1-  
496 day intervention (76).

497 In the other RCT participants, who were malnourished or at risk of malnutrition, received  
498 either the traditional meals on wheels program of five hot meals per week (providing 33%  
499 of RDA) or the restorative, comprehensive new meals on wheels program of three meals  
500 and two snacks per day, seven days a week for six months (providing 100% of RDA). The  
501 new meals on wheels group gained significantly more weight than the traditional meals  
502 on wheels group (75).

503 Because of presently limited evidence regarding specific modes of home-delivered meals  
504 grade of recommendation was downgraded to B.

505

506 ***18) Older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition should be offered***  
507 ***nutritional information and education as part of a comprehensive intervention***  
508 ***concept in order to improve awareness of and knowledge about nutritional***  
509 ***problems and thus promote adequate dietary intake.***

510 ***(R16, Grade B, strong consensus 94%)***

#### 511 **Commentary**

512 Two SLRs on this topic were identified (63, 77), one (63) was rated as high quality and  
513 the other (77) as acceptable. Young et al. (77) reviewed the evidence regarding the  
514 effectiveness of nutritional education or advice in people over 65 years of age living at  
515 home. Five studies (of 23) had nutritional education as the sole constituent of the program,  
516 whilst the rest included it as part of a more complex intervention. There was very limited  
517 information about the nutritional status of the participants but few were probably  
518 malnourished or at risk of malnutrition. Based on the results presented in the SLR it is not  
519 possible to make any specific conclusions about this group. The SLR by Bunn et al. (63)  
520 included interventions with an educational and/or awareness component for persons



521 with dementia and/or their formal or informal care-givers. The overall effect on  
522 nutritional status in the three RCTs included was very limited.

523 Despite presently poor scientific evidence we recommend improving nutritional  
524 awareness and knowledge of older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition  
525 by information and education as one of several strategies to support adequate dietary  
526 intake. If care-givers are involved in nutritional matters, e.g. in case of cognitive  
527 impairment, they should also be addressed (see recommendation 12). For quality  
528 assurance reasons, nutritional information and education should be given by a nutritional  
529 expert, e.g. a dietician.

530

531 ***19) In addition to nutritional interventions, older persons with malnutrition or at***  
532 ***risk of malnutrition should be encouraged to be physically active and to exercise in***  
533 ***order to maintain or improve muscle mass and function.***  
534 ***(R41, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

### 535 **Commentary**

536 In older people weight loss occurs at the expense of muscle mass (78) and is associated  
537 with impaired physical function (79). Muscle disuse and periods of bed rest can further  
538 exacerbate the degradation of muscle mass and strength (80).

539 No RCT was found comparing a combined exercise and nutrition intervention with a  
540 singular nutritional intervention in older people with malnutrition or at risk of  
541 malnutrition using a two-factorial design. Seven RCTs (low/acceptable quality) were  
542 found using a four factorial design with an exercise group and a control group in addition  
543 to the two aforementioned intervention groups (81-88). Most of these RCTs showed  
544 neither a beneficial effect of the combined nor of the singular nutritional intervention on

545 body composition, strength, and functional outcomes. Only Rydwik et al. (81) reported  
546 improved muscle strength in the combined intervention group compared to the nutrition  
547 group, while other functional and nutritional measures did not differ. Possible reasons for  
548 failure might be an insufficient adjustment of interventions to individual nutritional needs  
549 and small sample sizes.

550 Despite poor evidence, older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition should  
551 be encouraged to be physically active in addition to nutritional treatment, as the older  
552 muscle is still able to react on anabolic stimuli of exercise training (89-91). Before starting  
553 the exercise intervention, health status and physical performance level of the patient need  
554 to be evaluated to exclude contraindications for exercise training and to identify the  
555 appropriate training type, intensity and starting level (92).

556

557 ***20) During periods of exercise interventions, adequate amounts of energy and***  
558 ***protein should be provided to older persons with malnutrition or at risk of***  
559 ***malnutrition in order to maintain BW and to maintain or improve muscle mass.***  
560 ***(R42, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 561 **Commentary**

562 Exercise increases energy expenditure. To avoid (further) weight loss and to maintain  
563 muscle mass a positive or at least zero energy balance is of particular importance during  
564 periods of exercise interventions. As energy needs may vary considerably between  
565 individuals, they need to be estimated before the start of an intervention (see  
566 recommendation 1). Adequate amounts of protein are at least as important to avoid  
567 muscle atrophy and to stimulate muscle protein synthesis (93) (see recommendation 2).

568 Five RCTs were identified comparing combined exercise and nutrition interventions to  
569 singular exercise interventions in older people with malnutrition or at risk of

570 malnutrition (83, 87, 94-96). Four of them – one in COPD patients (94), two in  
571 rehabilitation patients (95, 96), one in malnourished patients with lower limb fracture  
572 (87) – reported positive effects of oral nutritional supplementation in combination with  
573 exercise training on various outcome parameters, e.g. BW (87, 94, 95), MNA score (95),  
574 muscle mass (95, 96). One study in malnourished community-dwelling older adults failed  
575 to show any effect of individual nutritional advice and physical training (83). However, in  
576 this study independent of the interventions, participants who needed to increase their  
577 energy intake by  $\geq 20\%$  to reach their energy requirements but failed this goal lost weight  
578 and fat-free mass during the intervention period whereas no changes were observed in  
579 those reaching this goal (83).

580 Altogether, these studies support the need for adequate amounts of energy and protein  
581 during periods of exercise interventions.

582

583 *2.3.2 Nutritional counseling (Fig. 4)*

584 ***21) Older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition and/or their***  
585 ***caregivers should be offered individualized nutritional counseling in order to***  
586 ***support adequate dietary intake and improve or maintain nutritional status.***

587 ***(R18, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)***

588 **Commentary**

589 Nutritional counseling by a health care professional is regarded as the first line of  
590 nutrition therapy. It is a supportive process consisting of repeated personal talks and  
591 discussions with the patient to develop a sound understanding of nutritional topics and  
592 support favorable health-promoting eating habits (97, 98).

593 One guideline (99) and one SLR (100) were found which examined the effectiveness of  
594 individualized nutritional counseling in older persons with malnutrition or at risk of  
595 malnutrition.

596 The guideline (99) identified four relevant studies, which were very heterogeneous and  
597 all judged to be of low quality. The narrative summation and meta-analysis did not find  
598 any significant effects, but trends in favor of individualized dietary counseling were  
599 reported for most outcomes considered (99). Furthermore, a good practice point was  
600 made in favor of a longer intervention period (more than twelve weeks of nutritional  
601 counseling) (99).

602 The SLR focused on the effect of individualized dietary counseling in nutritionally at-risk  
603 older patients after discharge from an acute hospital. Four RCTs were included, which all  
604 were rated to be of a high risk of bias, and used very different intervention schemes (e.g.  
605 no or one counseling sessions during hospital stay, three to six counseling sessions after  
606 discharge, home visits or telephone calls, with or without prescription of oral nutritional  
607 supplements (ONS) and vitamins). Meta-analysis found positive effects on BW, energy,  
608 and protein intake but no effect on handgrip strength or mortality compared to brief  
609 dietary advice or no intervention (100).

610 Due to the limited quality of the original studies, restriction to hospital discharge in some  
611 of the studies and only rare involvement of caregivers, the recommendation was  
612 downgraded to B.

613

614 ***22) Individualized nutritional counseling should be offered by a qualified dietician***  
615 ***to affected persons and/or their caregivers, should consist of several (at least 2)***  
616 ***individual sessions that may be combined with group sessions, telephone contacts,***

617 ***and written advice and should be maintained over a longer period.***

618 ***(R19, Grade GPP, strong consensus)***

619 **Commentary**

620 Individual counseling should be performed by trained nutrition professionals  
621 (registered/accredited dietitians or nutritionists) and may be combined with educative  
622 group sessions, written advice and/or telephone contacts and all other forms of  
623 nutritional therapy. In order to be effective, the counseling should consist of several  
624 sessions over a longer period of time (at least eight weeks). As this aspect is not addressed  
625 in clinical trials, this recommendation is based on clinical experience.

626

627 *2.3.3 Food modification (Fig. 4)*

628 ***23) Older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition should be offered***  
629 ***fortified food in order to support adequate dietary intake.***

630 ***(R20, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)***

631 **Commentary**

632 Food fortification (or dietary enrichment) by using natural foods (e.g. oil, cream, butter,  
633 eggs) or specific nutrient preparations (e.g. maltodextrin, protein powder) can increase  
634 energy and protein density of meals and beverages and thus enable an increased intake  
635 by eating similar amounts of food.

636 Two relevant SLRs of acceptable quality were identified (101, 102). One (102) examined  
637 the effects of dietary enrichment with conventional foods on energy and protein intake  
638 and included nine studies (including three RCTs and four cluster RCTs), four performed  
639 in nursing homes, four in hospitals and one at home. Energy intake increased in seven out  
640 of nine studies using energy enrichment and protein intake increased in three out of five

641 studies using protein enrichment. Reporting on other outcomes was scarce, and the  
642 quality of studies was described as heterogeneous, e.g. the amount of enrichment was  
643 often not clearly reported (102).

644 The other SLR (101) included seven studies (all RCTs) either using additional foods and  
645 snacks or increasing energy and nutrient density of the meals. Meta-analysis of four RCTs  
646 resulted in significant increases in energy and protein intake. Due to the heterogeneity of  
647 the studies, small numbers of participants and poor quality of some studies, the authors  
648 concluded that further high-quality studies are required to provide reliable evidence  
649 (101).

650 Literature about food fortification with micronutrients was recently summarized in a  
651 scoping review for residential care (103) but the evidence is presently insufficient to  
652 derive specific recommendations in this regard.

653

654 ***24) Older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition should be offered***  
655 ***additional snacks, and/or finger food, in order to facilitate dietary intake.***  
656 ***(R21, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 657 **Commentary**

658 Dietitians and other healthcare professionals traditionally use several dietary strategies  
659 to improve the energy and nutrient intake of older adults with malnutrition or at risk of  
660 malnutrition including the use of snacks between meals or finger foods, the latter in  
661 particular for persons who have difficulties using cutlery and remaining at the table for  
662 the entire duration of a meal.

663 A literature search identified four SLRs that included studies offering additional snacks  
664 and/or finger foods (63, 67, 101, 102). These interventions were however mostly

665 described as part of comprehensive mealtime interventions, where the effects cannot be  
666 separated from the other intervention components. Based on one before-after study,  
667 constantly accessible snacks in a glass-door refrigerator and additional time for meals are  
668 described as promising interventions needing high-quality reassessment (63). In an  
669 additional relevant trial in older long-term-care residents at risk of malnutrition, the  
670 offering of three snacks between main meals and before bed resulted in an increase in  
671 energy intake by about 30% after three and after six weeks (104). Due to little expense  
672 and no risk of harm we recommend additional snacks and/or finger food despite  
673 presently very limited scientific evidence.

674  
675 ***25) Older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition and signs of***  
676 ***oropharyngeal dysphagia and/or chewing problems shall be offered texture-***  
677 ***modified, enriched foods as a compensatory strategy to support adequate dietary***  
678 ***intake.***

679 ***(R22, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 680 **Commentary**

681 Chewing and swallowing problems limit the ability to eat foods of normal texture and thus  
682 increase the risk of malnutrition. Texture-modified foods intend to compensate for these  
683 widespread functional limitations and hence support an adequate dietary intake. Texture-  
684 modification can also make the swallowing process slower and thereby safer (105, 106).  
685 Nevertheless, insufficient dietary intake is described in older persons with dysphagia  
686 receiving texture-modified diets (20-22, 107).

687 A literature search identified one guideline of high quality giving evidence-based  
688 recommendations for the use of texture-modified diets for adults with oropharyngeal  
689 dysphagia (108), which was recently updated (109). In the underlying systematic search,

690 no literature assessing the effects of texture-modified food was found, and it was  
691 concluded that it is 'good clinical practice' to offer modified foods as a compensatory  
692 strategy to facilitate the intake of foods.

693 At present, also no studies about the effects of enrichment of texture-modified diets are  
694 available, but based on the positive effects of enrichment of regular texture diets (see  
695 recommendation 24) it is assumed that enrichment can have similar effects in texture-  
696 modified diets for patients with chewing and/or swallowing problems. As texture-  
697 modified diets are usually accompanied by reduced food and fluid intake, nutritional  
698 intake should be closely monitored. For more detailed recommendations for patients with  
699 dysphagia, we refer to the ESPEN Guideline Clinical Nutrition in Neurology (110).

700

701 *2.3.4 Oral nutritional supplements (Fig. 5)*

702 *2.3.4.1 Indication*

703 ***26) Older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition with chronic***  
704 ***conditions shall be offered ONS when dietary counseling and food fortification are***  
705 ***not sufficient to increase dietary intake and reach nutritional goals.***

706 ***(R23, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

707 **Commentary**

708 ONS are energy and nutrient-dense products designed to increase dietary intake when  
709 diet alone is insufficient to meet daily nutritional requirements. Only very few studies  
710 have compared the effectiveness of ONS to that of "normal food" support strategies in  
711 older persons. Greater weight gain (111), higher energy and protein intake (104, 112) and  
712 better quality of life (112) are reported in the ONS group than dietary counseling (111,  
713 112) or additional snack foods (113). However, dietary counseling and food modifications



714 may be better accepted for longer durations and are cheaper, so we suggest that in chronic  
715 clinical situations such as observed in the community or nursing homes, they may be  
716 proposed first and that ONS be offered when dietary counseling and food fortification are  
717 not sufficient to reach nutritional goals. It is important to mention, however, that these  
718 different options to support adequate intake should not be seen as mutually exclusive, but  
719 as complementing each other.

720

721 ***27) Hospitalized older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition shall be***  
722 ***offered ONS, in order to improve dietary intake and BW and to lower the risk of***  
723 ***complications and readmission.***

724 ***(R24, Grade A, strong consensus 100%)***

725 A systematic literature search found six high-quality SLRs that have assessed the efficacy  
726 of ONS versus usual care in older persons (114-121). The most comprehensive review  
727 included 62 randomized or quasi-randomized clinical trials in older persons in a variety  
728 of settings and varying nutritional states (119). One SLR examined the effects of ONS  
729 following hospital discharge in older patients who were malnourished or at risk of  
730 malnutrition (116), the others were not restricted to older persons and focused on high  
731 protein ONS (121), on effects on hospital (re)admissions (120), or addressed  
732 interventions to support dietary intake in adults (114) or medical inpatients (115). The  
733 majority of participants in the included trials were however also older persons.

734 Altogether, positive effects of ONS on dietary intake (115, 116, 119, 121) and BW (115,  
735 116, 119, 121), and reduced risk of complications (121) and readmissions (115, 120, 121)  
736 were reported, whereas the length of hospital stay (114, 115, 121) and mortality risk  
737 (114-116, 119, 121) were not significantly reduced. Results regarding functional outcome  
738 were conflicting in two meta-analyses of the effects on handgrip strength (119, 121), and

739 it was not possible to combine trials for meta-analyses of other functional outcome  
740 parameters.

741

742 **28) After discharge from the hospital, older persons with malnutrition or at risk of**  
743 **malnutrition shall be offered ONS in order to improve dietary intake and BW and to**  
744 **lower the risk of functional decline.**

745 **(R25, Grade A, strong consensus 100%)**

746 One SLR focusing on the time following hospital discharge (116) included six trials and  
747 found evidence for increased dietary intake and BW with ONS, but not concerning  
748 mortality or readmission risk. Two of the included studies found a positive effect on  
749 functional outcomes (handgrip (122) and activities of daily living (123)). Two other RCTs  
750 (not included in this systematic review) studied the effects of a combined dietary  
751 counseling and ONS intervention after hospital discharge and reported prevention of  
752 weight loss and improved activities of daily living functions (124) and decreased  
753 functional limitations (52, 125). Thus, individual RCTs suggest that nutritional  
754 interventions may support the improvement of functional status post-discharge.

755

756 2.3.4.2 Implementation

757 **29) ONS offered to an older person with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition, shall**  
758 **provide at least 400 kcal/day including 30 g or more of protein/day.**

759 **(R26, Grade A, strong consensus 97%)**

760 **Commentary**

761 Subgroup analyses in the largest available SLR including 62 RCTs (119) regarding  
762 mortality were consistently statistically significant when limited to trials where 400 kcal

763 or more was provided per day by ONS. Another SLR focusing on high protein ONS (121)  
764 demonstrated a range of effects across settings and patient groups including reduced risk  
765 of complications, reduced risk of readmissions to hospital, improved grip strength,  
766 increased intake of protein and energy with little reduction in normal food intake and  
767 improvements in BW. High protein ONS that provided > 400 kcal/day (16 trials)  
768 contained in mean 29% of protein (20 – 40%). Thus, we recommend that ONS shall  
769 provide at least 400 kcal with 30% of the energy as protein, corresponding to 30 g of  
770 protein.

771  
772 ***30) When offered to an older person with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition,***  
773 ***ONS shall be continued for at least one month. Efficacy and expected benefit of ONS***  
774 ***shall be assessed once a month.***

775 ***(R27, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 776 **Commentary**

777 Regarding the length of the intervention, subgroup analysis in the meta-analyses from  
778 Milne et al. from 2002 (117) and 2005 (118) showed a consistently statistically significant  
779 impact of ONS on mortality when supplementation was continued for 35 days or more  
780 compared to less than 35 days. This effect was no longer observed in the updated review  
781 in 2009 (119), and this issue was not addressed in other SLRs. However, it is important  
782 to note that in the 2009 update, the duration of the nutritional intervention was  $\geq 35$  days  
783 in 70% of the trials. Furthermore, older malnourished patients need a higher energy  
784 supply than younger adults to gain weight, and the increase in BW and fat-free mass in  
785 response to equal energy supply is slower in older patients (126). Thus, nutritional  
786 interventions are likely to need time to be effective on nutritional status and other clinical  
787 outcomes. So, we recommend consuming ONS for at least one month.

788 The frequency of reported nutritional assessment in clinical trials is usually limited to the  
789 baseline and final assessments, and information on more often and continued monitoring  
790 of the nutritional situation is lacking. There was however consensus among the experts  
791 that nutritional status (bodyweight), appetite and clinical situation should be assessed at  
792 least once a month, when ONS are offered to older persons, to monitor the effects and  
793 expected benefits of the intervention as a basis to decide on continuation or cessation of  
794 the therapy.

795

796 ***31) When offered to an older person with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition,***  
797 ***compliance in ONS consumption shall be regularly assessed. Type, flavor, texture***  
798 ***and time of consumption shall be adapted to the patient's taste and eating***  
799 ***capacities.***

800 ***(R28, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 801 **Commentary**

802 To achieve beneficial effects, compliance is crucial. Compliance with ONS is usually  
803 reported to be good in clinical trials. In 46 clinical trials in mostly older participants across  
804 healthcare settings (mean age 74 years), overall compliance was 78%, better in the  
805 community (81%) than in the hospital (67%) (127). Compliance was higher in older than  
806 in younger patients. A close correlation between the amount of energy from ONS  
807 prescribed and the amount consumed was reported. There was also a significant positive  
808 correlation between compliance and total energy intake (energy intake from food plus  
809 ONS energy intake), showing that ONS consumption has little effect on the usual food  
810 intake.

811 In order to support compliance, offered products shall be adapted to the patient's wishes  
812 and needs. A wide range of ONS styles (milk, juice, yogurt, savory), formats (liquid,  
813 powder, pudding, pre-thickened), volumes, types (high protein, fiber-containing), energy  
814 densities (one to three kcal/ml) and flavors are available to suit a wide range of needs and  
815 requirements. In particular, swallowing disorders may require texture adaptation of ONS.  
816 Because there is a risk that patients get tired of consuming the same ONS day after day,  
817 compliance shall be regularly assessed. A varied offer and options for change are  
818 proposed to enhance the consumption of the products.

819

820 *2.3.5 Enteral nutrition (Fig. 6)*

821 *2.3.5.1 Indication*

822 ***32) Older persons with reasonable prognosis shall be offered EN if oral intake is***  
823 ***expected to be impossible for more than three days or expected to be below half of***  
824 ***the energy requirements for more than one week, despite interventions to ensure***  
825 ***adequate oral intake, in order to meet nutritional requirements and maintain or***  
826 ***improve nutritional status.***

827 ***(R29, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

828 **Commentary**

829 The effect of EN is generally not well studied. Rigorous prospective RCTs comparing EN  
830 with no feeding are not feasible for ethical reasons. All we know about EN therefore  
831 mainly comes from observational trials. EN is frequently commenced late after substantial  
832 weight loss has already developed, which is in the stage of severe malnutrition (128, 129)  
833 and which hampers effective nutritional therapy (130). In general, the survival after  
834 insertion of a percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy (PEG) in geriatric patients is poor. A

835 meta-analysis demonstrated the survival of 81% after one month, 56% after six months  
836 and 38% after one year (131). However, survival very much depends on the indication  
837 and selection of patients (132-137). Several studies demonstrate some improvement of  
838 nutritional state after initiation of EN in older patients (129, 130, 138-143). Nevertheless,  
839 the effect on functionality, mortality, and quality of life remains unclear (144-155).

840  
841 ***33) The expected benefits and potential risks of EN shall be evaluated individually***  
842 ***and reassessed regularly and when the clinical condition changes.***  
843 ***(R30, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 844 **Commentary**

845 Several risk factors for early mortality after PEG insertion were identified, e.g. dementia,  
846 urinary tract infection, previous aspiration and diabetes (132-136, 149, 156-159). In an  
847 individual case, however, these factors can hardly lead the decision-making. Thus, each  
848 patient must be evaluated individually with regards to the following questions:

849 1. Is EN likely to improve or maintain the quality of life of this patient?

850 2. Is EN likely to improve or maintain the functionality of this patient?

851 3. Is EN likely to prolong survival in this patient?

852 4. Is prolongation of life desirable from the patient's perspective?

853 5. Are the risks of feeding tube insertion and EN lower than the expected benefit?

854 Complication rates of EN are reported to be generally low (160), but in individual patients,  
855 both nasogastric tube feeding and PEG feeding may be harmful (136, 161).

856 Since the condition of patients on EN may change very quickly, the expected benefits and  
857 potential risks of EN should be reassessed regularly. If the patient's ability to eat orally is  
858 regained, or conversely an advantage of EN is no longer expected, EN should be

859 discontinued. In situations where the effect of EN is difficult to anticipate, a treatment trial  
860 over a predefined period and with achievable and documented goals may be advisable  
861 (162). In patients with severe dementia, the risk-benefit ratio of EN is generally  
862 unfavorable and EN thus not recommended. In this situation, we refer to the specific  
863 dementia guidelines of ESPEN (163).

864  
865 ***34) Older persons with low nutritional intake in the terminal phase of illness shall***  
866 ***be offered comfort feeding instead of EN.***

867 ***(R31, Grade GPP, consensus 88%)***

#### 868 **Commentary**

869 EN is in principle a life-prolonging procedure. If the prolongation of life is no longer a  
870 desirable goal, the patients' quality of life should be considered exclusively. This is  
871 regularly the case in the palliative situation. In this situation, the patient should be offered  
872 whatever he or she likes to eat and drink orally, in the amount he or she likes to consume.  
873 This approach is mostly described by the term comfort feeding (164). In this situation,  
874 covering a patient's nutritional requirements is entirely irrelevant (162).

875

#### 876 2.3.5.2 Implementation

877 ***35) If EN is indicated, it shall be started without delay.***

878 ***(R32, Grade GPP, strong consensus 96%)***

#### 879 **Commentary**

880 Some studies show that a substantial weight loss has frequently occurred before the  
881 initiation of EN, i.e. on average 11.4 kg in the study by Loser et al. (128, 136). As weight  
882 loss and poor nutritional state are risk factors for mortality in general and particularly

883 poor survival after PEG insertion (157), weight loss before initiation of EN should be  
884 avoided as far as possible. In addition, in the FOOD trial, which was performed in patients  
885 with dysphagic stroke, early EN was associated with an absolute reduction in the risk of  
886 death of 5.8% ( $p=0.09$ ) (165). Although this result was not statistically significant, this  
887 trend is an additional argument for early initiation of EN, in the absence of evidence from  
888 other randomized trials. Therefore, EN, if indicated, should start without relevant delay.

889  
890 ***36) Older patients who require EN presumably for less than four weeks should***  
891 ***receive a nasogastric tube.***

892 ***(R33, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

### 893 **Commentary**

894 If there is an indication for EN, it must be decided which type of EN is adequate for the  
895 individual patient. From a practical point of view, it would be inadequate to undertake an  
896 invasive procedure like a PEG placement for a patient who will presumably need EN for  
897 only a few days. It is also assumed that EN sometimes may be continued for longer than  
898 necessary once a PEG tube has been inserted. In a systematic review that compared  
899 nasogastric tube feeding with PEG feeding in older patients with non-stroke dysphagia, a  
900 pooled analysis of nine studies involving 847 patients demonstrated no significant  
901 differences in the risk of pneumonia and overall complications (166). Within this review,  
902 a meta-analysis was not possible for mortality and nutritional outcomes, but three studies  
903 suggested improved mortality outcomes with PEG feeding while two out of three studies  
904 reported PEG feeding to be better from a nutritional perspective. Within the FOOD trial,  
905 which prospectively compared early versus delayed EN as well as PEG feeding with  
906 nasogastric feeding in dysphagic stroke patients, PEG feeding was associated with an  
907 increased risk of death or poor outcome of 7.8% ( $p=0.05$ ) (165). These data do not



908 support a policy of early initiation of PEG feeding in dysphagic stroke patients. However,  
909 sufficient data in patients without dysphagia are not available. The recommended time  
910 frame of four weeks is thus somehow arbitrary and is meant as advice from the experts'  
911 perspective.

912

913 ***37) Older patients expected to require EN for more than four weeks or who do not***  
914 ***want or tolerate a nasogastric tube should receive a percutaneous gastrostomy /***  
915 ***PEG.***  
916 ***(R34, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 917 **Commentary**

918 In addition to what has been recommended before, a gastrostomy should be undertaken  
919 in patients with reasonable prognosis who presumably require EN for a longer period. As  
920 mentioned in the commentary to recommendation 33, the time frame of four weeks is  
921 somehow arbitrary and mainly aims to prevent a too early gastrostomy. On the other hand,  
922 a nasogastric feeding-tube that is well tolerated may be utilized for more than four weeks.

923 In geriatric patients, nasogastric tubes are frequently not well tolerated but are also often  
924 not fixed adequately. In general, frequent dislodgement of nasogastric tubes is associated  
925 with poor EN, which is a concern when using nasogastric tubes. However, this should  
926 never lead to any physical or chemical restraints in order to avoid manual or accidental  
927 dislodgement. If a nasogastric tube is dislodged despite adequate skin fixation, a nasal  
928 loop may be an alternative. Two studies on nasal loops in tube-fed stroke patients  
929 demonstrated that nasal loops are safe, well-tolerated and effective in delivering full EN  
930 (167-169). A RCT observed an increase of 17% mean volume of fluid and tube feed given  
931 in the nasal loop group, without any differences in outcome after three months (169). As

932 a practical alternative to nasal loops, a PEG may be placed in those patients with frequent  
933 tube dislodgement who presumably require EN for more than a few days.

934  
935 **38) Tube fed older patients shall be encouraged to maintain oral intake as far as**  
936 **safely possible.**

937 **(R35, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)**

#### 938 **Commentary**

939 Most patients on EN can consume some amount of food and drinks orally. In the case of  
940 dysphagia, the texture of food and drinks that can be swallowed safely has to be  
941 determined by a dysphagia specialist. Oral intake of the safe texture should be encouraged  
942 as far as safely possible because oral intake is associated with sensory input and training  
943 of swallowing, increased quality of life and enhances the cleaning of the oropharynx. It  
944 has to be kept in mind that even patients with dysphagia and nil-by-mouth have to  
945 swallow more than 500 ml of saliva per day which alone is a risk factor for aspiration  
946 pneumonia. Aspiration pneumonia is suggested to be mainly caused by the bacterial  
947 content of aspirated saliva and not by the saliva itself, or a minimal oral intake (170, 171).  
948 However, the ability to have safe oral intake has to be decided individually, depending on  
949 the degree of dysphagia, the presence or absence of protective cough reflex and the cough  
950 force. For details please see ESPEN Guideline Clinical Nutrition in Neurology (110).

951  
952 **39) EN and PN and hydration shall be considered as medical treatments rather than**  
953 **as basic care, and therefore should only be used if there is a realistic chance of**  
954 **improvement or maintenance of the patient's condition and quality of life.**

955 **(R37, Grade GPP, strong consensus 96%)**

956 **Commentary**

957 Any kind of medical treatment is contraindicated when it is obvious that it cannot be  
958 helpful for the patient. EN and PN are medical treatments because they require the  
959 insertion of a feeding tube or intravenous cannulation and a physician's prescription. The  
960 most important reason for the commencement of EN or PN or hydration should be the  
961 anticipated beneficial effects of such treatment for the individual. If EN, PN or hydration  
962 are initiated, the effect of such treatment should be controlled. Clinical improvement, as  
963 well as prevention of further clinical deterioration, can both be relevant goals for an  
964 individual patient. Conversely, as for any other medical treatment, EN and PN should not  
965 be initiated or are contraindicated in situations when no benefits for the patient are  
966 expected. Especially in patients where death is imminent, e.g. within the next four weeks,  
967 or in patients with an incurable disease which cannot be improved by any treatment  
968 including nutritional support (e.g. advanced dementia, terminal phase of malignant  
969 cancer disease), the patient's comfort is the highest priority (162). Any use of EN, PN or  
970 parenteral hydration should be in accord with other palliative treatments, and cessation  
971 is possible when the anticipated goals are not reached. Cultural background, economical  
972 resources, social facilities as well as ethical and religious motivations may play a  
973 substantial role in determining the nutritional treatment and its outcome in very old, frail  
974 and chronically ill patients.

975

976 ***40) Older patients should not receive pharmacological sedation or physical***977 ***restraints to make EN or PN or hydration possible.***978 ***(R38, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***979 **Commentary**

980 The goal of nutritional support is to improve or at least maintain the nutritional status of  
981 the patient, which should be connected with increased or maintained lean body and  
982 especially muscle mass. It was shown and it is obvious that immobilization of the subject  
983 leads to loss of fat-free mass and notably skeletal muscle mass, in particular in older  
984 persons (80). The loss of physical activity is a logical consequence of pharmacological  
985 sedation or physical restraints; consequently, it usually leads to muscle mass loss. As  
986 maintenance or gain of BW and muscle mass are the central goals of nutritional support,  
987 immobilization and sedation counteract planned goals of nutritional support. In addition,  
988 sedation and physical restraints may also lead to cognitive deterioration and should,  
989 therefore, be avoided. It has to be mentioned, however, that in rare exceptions, such as  
990 hyperactive delirium, it may be advantageous for the patient to use drugs with sedative  
991 effects or even physical restraints for a very limited period of time to prevent the patient  
992 from self-injury.

993  
994 ***41) In older patients with malnutrition, EN and PN shall start early; it shall be***  
995 ***gradually increased during the first three days in order to avoid the refeeding***  
996 ***syndrome.***

997 ***(R39, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 998 **Commentary**

999 Refeeding syndrome (RFS) is a condition of potential risk in malnourished patients with  
1000 electrolyte disturbances leading to clinical deterioration. Consequences include volume  
1001 overload, redistribution of phosphate, potassium, and magnesium, hypophosphatemia,  
1002 muscle weakness, anemia and finally organ failure. Possible cardiac sudden death is  
1003 described in up to 20%.

1004 Known risk factors for the RFS are a reduced BMI, significant unintended weight loss, no  
1005 nutritional intake for several days, low plasma concentrations of magnesium, potassium  
1006 or phosphate before feeding and a medical history of drug or alcohol abuse (172), and it  
1007 has recently been observed that these risk factors are very common in older hospitalized  
1008 patients (173). A large overlap between the risk of malnutrition according to common  
1009 screening tools and the risk of RFS was observed in the same patient group (174),  
1010 suggesting that in older persons with malnutrition or at risk of malnutrition a risk of RFS  
1011 should generally be taken into consideration.

1012 Particular attention has to be paid within the first 72 hours of nutritional support, which  
1013 should generally be started early but increased slowly, accompanied by close monitoring  
1014 of clinical signs and serum levels of phosphate, magnesium, potassium, and thiamine (see  
1015 also recommendation 43).

1016  
1017 ***42) During the first three days of EN and PN therapy in malnourished older persons,***  
1018 ***special attention shall be drawn to blood levels of phosphate, magnesium,***  
1019 ***potassium, and thiamine which shall be supplemented even in case of mild***  
1020 ***deficiency.***

1021 ***(R40, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

## 1022 **Commentary**

1023 Criteria to identify RFS vary from reduced phosphate or any electrolyte serum  
1024 concentration, the coexistence of electrolyte disturbances and clinical symptoms (e.g.  
1025 peripheral edema, acute circulatory fluid overload, disturbance to organ function) (175).

1026 A standardized definition is unfortunately lacking, and current knowledge about the  
1027 syndrome is altogether limited. Only two observational studies were performed in older  
1028 populations (176, 177). Kagansky et al. (176) reported significantly more weight loss,

1029 lower albumin levels, glucose-containing infusions and food supplements in older  
1030 patients who developed at least one episode of hypophosphatemia (serum phosphate  $\leq$   
1031 0.77 mmol/L), which was detected on average on day  $10.9 \pm 21.5$  of hospitalization.  
1032 Hypophosphatemia was also associated with an increased length of hospital stay and  
1033 mortality rate, which was however no longer significant in a multivariate analysis (176).  
1034 Lubart et al. (177) evaluated 40 frail older patients with prolonged feeding problems  
1035 before the insertion of a nasogastric tube. A high mortality rate was observed which was  
1036 mainly related to infectious complications, but in the light of a considerable number of  
1037 patients with hypophosphatemia, the authors suggested the RFS as a contributing factor  
1038 to mortality (177).

1039 Further studies would be particularly useful in older patients, given also the high  
1040 prevalence of kidney dysfunction in this specific population.

1041

#### 1042 2.3.6 Parenteral nutrition (Fig. 7)

##### 1043 2.3.6.1 Indication

1044 **43) Older persons with reasonable prognosis (expected benefit) shall be offered PN**  
1045 ***if oral and enteral intakes are expected to be impossible for more than three days or***  
1046 ***expected to be below half of the energy requirements for more than one week, in***  
1047 ***order to meet nutritional requirements and maintain or improve nutritional status.***  
1048 ***(R36, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

##### 1049 **Commentary**

1050 PN is a safe and effective therapeutic procedure, which is used for the delivery of all  
1051 macronutrients and micronutrients into the organism via a central or peripheral vein. It  
1052 is always indicated and may allow adequate nutrition in patients who need nutrition

1053 support and who cannot meet their nutritional requirements via the enteral route (when  
1054 EN is contraindicated or poorly tolerated). Age per se is not a reason to exclude patients  
1055 from PN. Several studies have documented that PN is a feasible and successful method of  
1056 nutritional support also in older people (130, 178-180), not only in the hospital but also  
1057 at home (181). It is however only rarely indicated as oral and enteral interventions are  
1058 generally the first choice for nutritional support (180). When indicated, PN should be  
1059 initiated immediately due to the risk of loss of independence in older patients and because  
1060 even short-term starvation in the acutely ill older person leads to loss of lean body mass  
1061 which can be critical especially in older patients. Indication criteria for PN are the same  
1062 as in middle-aged subject: older patients facing a period of starvation of more than three  
1063 days when oral nutrition or EN is impossible, and when oral or EN has been or is likely to  
1064 be insufficient for more than 7–10 days.

1065

#### 1066 2.3.6.2 Implementation

1067 The recommendations 40-43 in chapter 2.3.5.2 also apply to parenteral nutrition.

1068

### 1069 **2.4. Prevention and treatment of malnutrition in case of specific diseases (Fig. 8)**

#### 1070 *2.4.1 Hip fracture*

1071 ***44) Older patients with hip fracture shall be offered ONS postoperatively in order to***  
1072 ***improve dietary intake and reduce the risk of complications.***

1073 ***(R43, Grade A, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 1074 **Commentary**

1075 Older persons suffering from a hip fracture and undergoing orthopedic surgery are  
1076 generally at risk of malnutrition due to the acute trauma and surgery-associated anorexia

1077 and immobility. Voluntary oral intake in the postoperative phase is often markedly below  
1078 requirements. As a consequence, rapid deterioration of nutritional status and impairment  
1079 of recovery and rehabilitation are common. A recent high-quality Cochrane review and  
1080 meta-analysis included 41 randomized trials involving 3,881 patients with a hip fracture  
1081 (182). The methodological quality of all included trials was judged to be low to very low.  
1082 18 trials (16 RCTs and two quasi-randomized trials) provided standard ONS to hip  
1083 fracture patients, four RCTs tested ONS with high protein content for at least one up to six  
1084 months. The use of ONS mostly leads to a significant increase in energy and nutrient  
1085 intake. Adverse side effects were not increased (six RCTs). Combined analysis of eleven  
1086 trials using standard ONS indicated a reduced risk of postoperative complications,  
1087 whereas for high-protein ONS (two RCTs) no such effect was found (182). No effect on  
1088 mortality risk was found. A second meta-analysis (183) included a subset of ten of these  
1089 RCTs with a total of 986 patients and came to the same conclusions regarding mortality  
1090 and complications. Based on these results, we recommend offering ONS to geriatric hip  
1091 fracture patients, regardless of their nutritional state. To date, there is not sufficient  
1092 evidence that special ONS (e.g. high in protein) has additional beneficial effects for these  
1093 patients. ONS shall always be offered in combination with other interventions to increase  
1094 oral intake (e.g. fortified foods) as part of a multidisciplinary approach (see  
1095 recommendation 48).

1096  
1097 ***45) Supplementary overnight EN shall NOT be offered to older patients with hip***  
1098 ***fracture unless there is an indication for EN for other reasons.***  
1099 ***(R44, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

1100 **Commentary**



1101 The Cochrane analysis from Avenell et al. (182) found three RCTs and one quasi-  
1102 randomized trial that tested the effects of supplementary overnight EN alone and one  
1103 additional RCT that tested overnight EN followed by ONS. Sample sizes were small  
1104 (between 18 and 140 participants), the interventions were always started within five  
1105 days from surgery and usually continued until discharge or until oral intake was sufficient.  
1106 Supplementary overnight EN was overall poorly tolerated. Regarding mortality and  
1107 complication risk, the meta-analysis of EN only studies as well as the RCT using EN  
1108 followed by ONS showed no evidence of an effect. Effects on nutritional status, length of  
1109 hospital stay and functional status were inconsistent (182). Due to high patient burden,  
1110 poor tolerance and lack of clear beneficial effects, a negative recommendation is given.

1111  
1112 ***46) In older patients with hip fractures, postoperative ONS may be combined with***  
1113 ***perioperative PN in order to improve nutritional intake and reduce the risk of***  
1114 ***complications.***

1115 ***(R45, Grade 0, consensus 83%)***

#### 1116 **Commentary**

1117 Regarding the effects of PN, Avenell et al. (182) included one RCT of low quality that  
1118 evaluated three days of perioperative peripheral PN followed by seven days of ONS  
1119 compared with standard care in 80 patients with a fractured hip (184, 185). This short-  
1120 time combined intervention increased total fluid and energy intake to near-optimal levels  
1121 during the hospital stay. The risk of complications within four months was significantly  
1122 reduced (RR 0.21 (99% CI 0.08–0.59), while mortality risk, length of hospital stay and the  
1123 proportion of participants who were discharged to their own homes were unaffected  
1124 (185).

1125 Based on this positive result, and bearing the risk of complications associated with PN in  
1126 mind, it may be considered to offer supplementary PN during the acute perioperative  
1127 period, combined with ONS and early oral food intake postoperatively, in order to  
1128 increase nutritional intake and reduce the risk of complications. As presently only one  
1129 trial of low quality is available, the grade of evidence was reduced to “0”.

1130  
1131 ***47) Nutritional interventions in geriatric patients after hip fracture and orthopedic***  
1132 ***surgery shall be part of an individually tailored, multidimensional and***  
1133 ***multidisciplinary team intervention in order to ensure adequate dietary intake,***  
1134 ***improve clinical outcomes and maintain quality of life.***  
1135 ***(R46, Grade A, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 1136 **Commentary**

1137 Multicomponent interventions including nutritional measures were examined in three  
1138 RCTs in hip fracture patients in comparison to usual care. The interventions were complex  
1139 including e.g. interdisciplinary in-hospital care concepts (55-57, 186), discharge planning  
1140 and a home-based rehabilitation program (187-192) and high-intensity resistance  
1141 training (193). Nutritional interventions consisted of nutritional assessment, provision of  
1142 protein-enriched meals and additional protein drinks or dietetic advice. A range of  
1143 positive effects are reported after six to twelve months, e.g. reduced length of hospital  
1144 stay (55, 56), improved independence in activities of daily living (56, 192, 193), improved  
1145 mobility (56), reduced in-hospital falls and fall-related injuries (57), decreased  
1146 emergency department visits (192) significantly fewer days of delirium (55), fewer  
1147 pressure ulcers (55), reduced nursing home admissions (193) and reduced mortality  
1148 (193) compared with usual care.

1149 These studies illustrate the importance of a holistic view and comprehensive treatment  
1150 approach in orthogeriatric patients. Nutritional interventions should be continued after  
1151 hospitalization, as effects were seen as long as nutritional care was provided.

1152

1153 *2.4.2 Delirium*

1154 ***48) All older patients hospitalized to have urgent surgery shall receive a multi-***  
1155 ***component non-pharmacological intervention that includes hydration and nutrition***  
1156 ***management in order to prevent delirium.***

1157 ***(R47, Grade A, strong consensus 100%)***

1158 **Commentary**

1159 Delirium is common in older people, especially when admitted to the hospital for acute  
1160 medical or surgical care. Dehydration is a common precipitating factor and malnutrition  
1161 a common contributing factor to delirium (194, 195).

1162 Several systematic reviews on non-pharmacological approaches to prevent and treat  
1163 delirium in older patients have been published recently (194, 196, 197). Abraha et al.  
1164 (196) reviewed any non-pharmacological intervention aiming to prevent or treat  
1165 delirium in older patients in any setting. They found that multi-component non-  
1166 pharmacological interventions significantly reduced the incidence of delirium in surgical  
1167 wards (all except one study included participants in need of urgent surgery). The evidence  
1168 did not support the efficacy of any intervention in treating established delirium. Nutrition  
1169 intervention was part of many non-pharmacological interventions, but no trials on  
1170 nutrition as a single-component intervention to prevent or treat delirium were identified.  
1171 Other evidence-based recommendations support our recommendations on delirium  
1172 (196). A more recent Cochrane review focusing on hospitalized non-ICU patients reached  
1173 similar conclusions: multi-component interventions reduced the incidence of delirium

1174 compared to usual care in medical and surgical settings (197). Furthermore, this review  
1175 calls attention to the subgroup of patients with pre-existing dementia, where the effect of  
1176 multi-component interventions remains uncertain. An additional Cochrane review  
1177 addressed the prevention of delirium in people living in nursing homes. A single, small,  
1178 low-quality trial showed no significant effect of hydration on the incidence of delirium.  
1179 No trial that included any other nutrition intervention was identified (194).

1180 In summary, nutrition and hydration interventions have only shown efficacy in the  
1181 prevention of delirium when they are part of multidisciplinary interventions (10 of 19  
1182 trials on multidisciplinary interventions included at least one nutrition/hydration  
1183 intervention). However, interventions used are heterogeneous and no evidence-based  
1184 recommendations but common sense is needed to decide how to include nutrition and  
1185 hydration in local programs.

1186

1187 ***49) All older patients admitted to a medical ward and at moderate to high risk of***  
1188 ***delirium shall receive a multi-component non-pharmacological intervention that***  
1189 ***includes hydration and nutrition management in order to prevent delirium.***

1190 ***(R48, Grade A, strong consensus 95%)***

#### 1191 **Commentary**

1192 Delirium is common in older people, especially when admitted to the hospital for acute  
1193 medical or surgical care. Dehydration is a common precipitating factor and malnutrition  
1194 a common contributing factor to delirium (194, 195).

1195 Several systematic reviews on non-pharmacological approaches to prevent and treat  
1196 delirium in older patients have been published recently (194, 196, 197). Abraha et al.  
1197 (196) reviewed any non-pharmacological intervention aiming to prevent or treat

1198 delirium in older patients in any setting. They found that multi-component non-  
1199 pharmacological interventions significantly reduced the incidence of delirium in medical  
1200 wards in patients at moderate or high risk of delirium. The evidence did not support the  
1201 efficacy of any intervention in treating established delirium. Nutrition intervention was  
1202 part of many non-pharmacological interventions, but no trials on nutrition as a single-  
1203 component intervention to prevent or treat delirium were identified. Other evidence-  
1204 based recommendations support our recommendations on delirium (196). A more recent  
1205 Cochrane review focusing on hospitalized non-ICU patients reached similar conclusions:  
1206 multi-component interventions reduced the incidence of delirium compared to usual care  
1207 in medical and surgical settings (197). Furthermore, this review calls attention to the  
1208 subgroup of patients with pre-existing dementia, where the effect of multi-component  
1209 interventions remains uncertain. An additional Cochrane review addressed the  
1210 prevention of delirium in people living in nursing homes. A single, small, low-quality trial  
1211 showed no significant effect of hydration on the incidence of delirium. No trial that  
1212 included any other nutrition intervention was identified (194).

1213 In summary, nutrition and hydration interventions have only shown efficacy in the  
1214 prevention of delirium when they are part of multidisciplinary interventions (10 of 19  
1215 trials on multidisciplinary interventions included at least one nutrition/hydration  
1216 intervention). However, interventions used are heterogeneous and no evidence-based  
1217 recommendations but common sense is needed to decide how to include nutrition and  
1218 hydration in local programs.

1219

1220 ***50) Hospitalized older patients with present delirium shall be screened for***  
1221 ***dehydration and malnutrition as potential causes or consequences of delirium.***  
1222 ***(R49, Grade GPP, strong consensus 95%)***

1223 **Commentary**

1224 Delirium is common in older people, especially when admitted to the hospital for acute  
1225 medical or surgical care. Dehydration is a common precipitating factor and malnutrition  
1226 a common contributing factor to delirium (194, 195). Guidelines on delirium management  
1227 recommend checking nutrition and hydration in delirious patients in order to correct  
1228 existing problems (for example, see (198-200)).

1229

1230 *2.4.3 Depression*

1231 ***51) Depressed older patients shall be screened for malnutrition.***

1232 ***(R50, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

1233 **Commentary**

1234 Depression is a common cause of nutritional problems in old age. Having a significant  
1235 weight loss or weight gain (>5%) or a change in appetite is one of the nine specific  
1236 symptoms that define a major depressive disorder (201). Thus, detection of nutritional  
1237 problems is part of the assessment of depression. On the other hand, depression is  
1238 included in the differential diagnosis of the etiology of malnutrition, especially in older  
1239 patients, and is included in the comprehensive geriatric assessment. The association  
1240 between depressed mood and malnutrition is well established (202, 203).

1241

1242 ***52) Older patients with depression might NOT routinely receive nutritional***

1243 ***interventions unless they are malnourished or at risk of malnutrition.***

1244 ***(R51, Grade 0, strong consensus 100%)***

1245 **Commentary**

1246 Data on the impact of nutrition interventions on the outcomes of depression in older  
1247 subjects are lacking. Two trials have considered the effect of nutrition intervention on  
1248 depressive symptoms in older hospitalized patients. A first RCT studied the effect of a  
1249 high-energy (995 kcal/day) ONS used for six weeks in 225 hospitalized patients (roughly,  
1250 one third had depressive symptoms assessed with the 15-item Geriatric Depression Scale  
1251 (GDS), baseline nutritional status not described) (204). GDS was significantly better in the  
1252 intervention compared to the control group at six months, but not at six weeks. A second  
1253 RCT explored an individualized nutritional intervention in 259 hospitalized older patients  
1254 and found no changes in GDS scores at six months (47), the number of those with  
1255 depression is not stated. All these trials used GDS (a validated depression screening  
1256 instrument that measures depressive symptoms) as the main outcome measure, but the  
1257 minimum clinically significant difference has not been defined for GDS. No trial has used  
1258 the cure of depression as an outcome measure for nutritional interventions in older  
1259 persons. When depressed patients are malnourished or at risk, recommendations for  
1260 these conditions made elsewhere in this guideline will apply.

1261

#### 1262 *2.4.4 Pressure ulcer*

1263 ***53) Nutritional interventions should be offered to older patients at risk of pressure***  
1264 ***ulcers in order to prevent the development of pressure ulcers.***

1265 ***(R52, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 1266 **Commentary**

1267 Two relevant SLRs (205, 206) and two overviews of SLRs (207, 208) were identified. The  
1268 quality of these reviews was rated as moderate to high, the quality of studies included in  
1269 these reviews was however rated as low. One additional RCT of moderate quality  
1270 published later was also considered (209).

1271 Based on the same four RCTs, Stratton et al. (205) and Lozano-Montoya et al. (210)  
1272 concluded that nutritional intervention during acute hospital admission in patients with  
1273 no PUs at baseline may reduce the incidence of PUs when compared to standard care.  
1274 Langer and Fink (206) meta-analyzed eight trials comparing the effects of mixed  
1275 nutritional supplements with standard hospital diet and found borderline significance for  
1276 an effect on PU development.

1277 The benefits of nutritional interventions may depend on nutritional status and  
1278 concomitant relevant health problems causing the (risk of) pressure ulcers. Unfortunately,  
1279 the majority of trials considered did not distinguish between malnourished and non-  
1280 malnourished patients. In case of malnutrition, there is a clear need for nutritional  
1281 interventions, and an early screening of malnutrition should be performed at hospital and  
1282 nursing home admission independent of the risk or presence of PUs, as described  
1283 elsewhere in this guideline.

1284  
1285 ***54) Nutritional interventions should be offered to malnourished older patients with***  
1286 ***pressure ulcers to improve healing.***

1287 ***(R53, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 1288 **Commentary**

1289 Two relevant SLRs (205, 206) and two overviews of SLRs (207, 208) were identified. The  
1290 quality of these reviews was rated as moderate to high, the quality of studies included in  
1291 these reviews was however rated as low. One additional RCT of moderate quality  
1292 published later was also considered (209).

1293 Available trials on the healing of existing pressure ulcers were very heterogeneous  
1294 regarding the type of nutritional supplements, participants, comparisons and outcomes,



1295 therefore, a meta-analysis was not appropriate (205, 206). No clear evidence of an effect  
1296 was found in any of the individual studies (206).

1297 The benefits of nutritional interventions may depend on nutritional status and  
1298 concomitant relevant health problems causing the (risk of) pressure ulcers. Unfortunately,  
1299 the majority of trials considered did not distinguish between malnourished and non-  
1300 malnourished patients.

1301 Cereda et al. (209) restricted their randomized, controlled and blinded study to 200  
1302 malnourished persons with PUs (stage II, III and IV) in long term and home care services  
1303 and showed that supplementation with an oral nutritional formula enriched with arginine,  
1304 zinc, and antioxidants improved PU healing compared to an isocaloric isonitrogenous  
1305 formula (greater and more frequent reduction in PU area). Although the experimental  
1306 formula was more expensive, it proved to be cost-effective (211).

1307 In case of malnutrition, there is a clear need for nutritional interventions, and an early  
1308 screening of malnutrition should be performed at hospital and nursing home admission  
1309 independent of the presence of PUs, as described elsewhere in this guideline. Thus, also  
1310 in malnourished older patients with pressure ulcer nutritional interventions are  
1311 indicated; in these patients, they may support healing of PUs. As only one RCT is presently  
1312 documenting these benefits, the grade of recommendation is downgraded to B. The need  
1313 for high-quality studies in this specific topic is emphasized.

1314

1315 *2.4.5 Diabetes*

1316 ***55) Older patients with diabetes mellitus shall routinely be screened for***

1317 ***malnutrition with a validated tool in order to identify those with (risk of)***

1318 **malnutrition.**

1319 **(R58, Grade GPP, strong consensus 95%)**

1320 **Commentary**

1321 Our review of the literature disclosed no studies on the prevention or treatment of  
1322 malnutrition specifically in older persons with diabetes. Based on the few studies on the  
1323 prevalence of malnutrition in older diabetics it follows that the prevalence of (risk of)  
1324 malnutrition in older diabetics is as high or even higher than in their non-diabetic  
1325 counterparts (212). This risk is most likely related to the functional dependence and  
1326 multimorbidity in these older diabetics. In order to identify those diabetics with (risk of)  
1327 malnutrition, we recommend screening routinely for malnutrition (see the section on  
1328 screening and assessment of this guideline).

1329  
1330 **56) In older patients with diabetes mellitus, restrictive diets shall be avoided in**  
1331 **order to prevent malnutrition and accompanying functional decline.**

1332 **(R59, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)**

1333 **Commentary**

1334 To decrease the risk of malnutrition developing in older persons with diabetes we  
1335 recommend avoiding restrictive diets (see also recommendation 11). These diets have  
1336 limited benefits and can lead to nutrient deficiencies (59, 213). A balanced diet of about  
1337 30 kcal/kg BW/d providing 50-55% of the total energy contribution by carbohydrates,  
1338 rich in fiber (25-30 g/d) and which favors mono- and polyunsaturated fatty acids is  
1339 proposed as recommended for the general older population. In the case of obesity in older  
1340 diabetic patients, we refer to the respective recommendations provided elsewhere in this  
1341 guideline (see recommendations 80 - 82).

1342

1343 **57) Malnutrition and risk of malnutrition in older patients with diabetes mellitus**1344 ***shall be managed according to the recommendations for malnourished older***1345 ***persons without diabetes mellitus.***1346 ***(R60, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***1347 **Commentary**

1348 In the case of malnutrition in an older person with diabetes mellitus, we recommend

1349 following the same guidelines as for non-diabetic older adults. The use of ONS or EN can

1350 result in a rise in glucose levels. However, prevention and treatment of malnutrition with

1351 its probable negative short-term outcomes are regarded as more important than possible

1352 long-term complications of hyperglycemia.

1353

1354

### 1355 3. Prevention and treatment of low-intake dehydration

#### 1356 3.1 Screening for low-intake dehydration (Fig. 9)

1357 *58) All older persons should be screened for low-intake dehydration when they*  
1358 *contact the healthcare system if the clinical condition changes unexpectedly, and*  
1359 *periodically when malnourished or at risk of malnutrition.*  
1360 *(R64, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)*

#### 1361 Commentary

1362 A non-systematic review of studies reporting serum osmolality in older adults suggests  
1363 that, low intake dehydration is common in older adults (214), especially in those who are  
1364 more vulnerable and frail, living in residential or long-term care institutions or admitted  
1365 to hospital.

1366 There is some evidence that older adults with low-intake dehydration have poorer  
1367 outcomes than those who are well-hydrated (215). High-quality cohort studies which  
1368 have adjusted for key confounding factors have consistently found that older adults with  
1369 raised serum osmolality (>300 mOsm/kg or equivalent) have an increased risk of  
1370 mortality (216-218) and one showed an associated doubling in risk of 4-year disability  
1371 (217).

1372 Two systematic reviews (219, 220) have assessed RCTs and uncontrolled trials aiming to  
1373 increase fluid intake in older adults. Unfortunately, most trials assessed fluid intake  
1374 hydration status and health outcomes poorly, so success in increasing fluid intake is  
1375 unclear. Nevertheless, regarding the severe consequences of dehydration, we recommend  
1376 screening for low-intake dehydration to identify dehydration early allowing for timely  
1377 interventions to normalize hydration status and prevent poor outcomes. This might be of

1378 particular importance in situations of increased risk of dehydration e.g. in case of acute  
1379 deterioration of health or poor food intake.

1380

### 1381 **3.2 Diagnosis of low-intake dehydration**

#### 1382 *3.2.1 Recommended diagnostic tools*

1383 ***59) Directly measured serum or plasma osmolality should be used to identify low-***  
1384 ***intake dehydration in older adults.***

1385 ***(R65, Grade GPP, strong consensus 95%)***

#### 1386 **Commentary**

1387 When we take in too little fluid (drink too little) the fluid within and around our cells  
1388 becomes more concentrated, raising the osmolality of serum and plasma (221-224). The  
1389 raised osmolality is the key physiological trigger of protection mechanisms (such as thirst  
1390 and increased concentration of urine by the kidney). In older adults, renal function is often  
1391 poor so that renal parameters no longer accurately signal low-intake dehydration (7, 225,  
1392 226). Clinical judgment is also highly fallible in older adults (227). For these reasons, the  
1393 US Panel on Dietary Reference Intakes for Electrolytes and Water stated “The primary  
1394 indicator of hydration status is plasma or serum osmolality” (36). This statement sets the  
1395 reference standard for dehydration in older adults. It is based on physiology and  
1396 biochemistry and has been well agreed by hydration experts for many decades (222-224).  
1397 In contrast, extracellular water loss (volume depletion) due to diarrhea, vomiting or renal  
1398 sodium loss is connected with normal or low plasma osmolality.

1399

1400 **60) An action threshold of directly measured serum osmolality >300 mOsm/kg**  
1401 **should be used to identify low-intake dehydration in older adults.**  
1402 **(R66, Grade B, strong consensus 94%)**

1403 **Commentary**

1404 Threshold values of serum osmolality have been assessed in varied ways, but Cheuvront  
1405 et al. (221) appear to have developed these most rigorously. They assessed the range of  
1406 plasma osmolality in hydrated younger adults, then in the same persons who had been  
1407 dehydrated, identifying the cut-off that best separated the two states. Their suggested  
1408 threshold is that serum or plasma osmolality >300 mOsm/kg is classified as dehydrated.  
1409 This cut-off value concurs with observations from cohort studies assessing the effects of  
1410 raised serum osmolality in older people (216-218, 228).

1411 Serum osmolality is the sum of concentrations of osmotically active components  
1412 especially of sodium, chloride, bicarbonate, potassium glucose, and urea. Interpretation  
1413 of raised serum osmolality (>300 mOsm/kg) as a sign of dehydration depends on  
1414 checking that serum glucose, and to some extent urea are within normal range; if not these  
1415 should be normalized by adequate treatment. In low-intake dehydration, it is common  
1416 that despite raised serum osmolality none of the major components (sodium, potassium,  
1417 urea or glucose) is raised out of the normal range – but general fluid concentration leads  
1418 to small rises within the normal range in all these components (Hooper unpublished).

1419  
1420 **61) Where directly measured osmolality is not available then the osmolarity**  
1421 **equation ( $\text{osmolarity} = 1.86 \times (\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+) + 1.15 \times \text{glucose} + \text{urea} + 14$  (all measured**  
1422 **in mmol/L) with an action threshold of >295 mmol/L) should be used to screen for**  
1423 **low-intake dehydration in older persons.**  
1424 **(R67, Grade B, strong consensus 94%)**

1425 **Commentary**

1426 Work with a set of European cohorts of older adults has suggested that most existing  
1427 serum osmolarity equations are not diagnostically accurate to calculate serum osmolality  
1428 in older adults (225, 229). However, one equation ( $\text{osmolarity} = 1.86 \times (\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+) + 1.15$   
1429  $\times \text{glucose} + \text{urea} + 14$  (all measured in mmol/L)) usefully predicted serum osmolality in  
1430 people aged  $\geq 65$  years with and without diabetes, poor renal function, dehydration, in  
1431 men and women, in the community, residential care, and hospital, with a range of ages,  
1432 health, cognitive and functional status (225, 229). Given costs and prevalence of  
1433 dehydration in older people, a cut point of 295 mOsm/L will identify most adults with  
1434 low-intake dehydration (sensitivity 85%, specificity 59%) and should trigger advice and  
1435 support with drinking and fluid intake. A directly measured serum osmolality test a few  
1436 days later will identify older adults in need of more intensive support, intervention  
1437 and/or follow up. This equation has also been found to be useful in younger adults (230).  
1438 Note on terms: osmolality is directly measured osmolality, measured using freezing point  
1439 depression, while osmolarity aims to approximate osmolality and is an estimate based on  
1440 an equation of several components. The terms are often used incorrectly.

1441

1442 ***62) Older persons and their informal carers may use appropriate tools to assess***  
1443 ***fluid intake, but should also ask healthcare providers for assessment of serum***  
1444 ***osmolality periodically.***

1445 ***(R70, Grade GPP, strong consensus 94%)***

1446 **Commentary**

1447 Unfortunately, the assessment of fluid intake is often highly inaccurate in older adults. A  
1448 recent study in residential care compared staff-completed drinks intake assessment with

1449 direct observation over 24 hours for 22 older adults, finding a very low correlation  
1450 ( $r=0.122$ ) (231). The low correlation appeared to be due to many drinks being omitted  
1451 from the staff assessments, as well as the recording of drinks referring to the number of  
1452 drinks given rather than those consumed. On average, staff assessments were 700 ml/d  
1453 lower than direct observation would suggest. This poor ability to assess drink intake in  
1454 residential and nursing care facilities has been reported numerous times (232-235).  
1455 Measurement of serum osmolality is the method of choice (see recommendations 60 and  
1456 61).

1457 There is little evidence of the accuracy of assessment of fluid intake by informal carers,  
1458 but it may be better than for care staff, as informal carers may be more aware of the full  
1459 liquid intake of the older adult. We have evidence that when older adults record their own  
1460 drinks intake it is more accurate than that assessed by care staff (236). Older adults and  
1461 their informal carers may like to use a tool like the Drinks Diary (which explicitly assesses  
1462 amount consumed, rather than the amount provided (236)) to record fluid intake, but we  
1463 suggest that they also ask their health care providers to check serum or plasma osmolality.  
1464 Within health and social care settings, fluid intake or fluid balance should only be assessed  
1465 in specialist medical units with specifically trained personnel.

1466

1467 *3.2.2 Not recommended diagnostic tools*

1468 **63) Simple signs and tests commonly used to assess low-intake dehydration such as**  
1469 **skin turgor, mouth dryness, weight change, urine color or specific gravity, shall NOT**  
1470 **be used to assess hydration status in older adults.**  
1471 **(R68, Grade A, consensus 83%)**

1472 **Commentary**



1473 A Cochrane systematic review of diagnostic accuracy of simple signs and tests for  
1474 dehydration in older adults (aged at least 65 years old) has pooled diagnostic data from  
1475 studies assessing many single clinical signs and tests against serum osmolality, osmolarity  
1476 or weight change (237). It found that none was consistently useful in indicating hydration  
1477 status in older adults (237). The signs have either not been shown to be usefully  
1478 diagnostic or have been shown not to be usefully diagnostic. These findings have been  
1479 confirmed by more recent diagnostic accuracy studies in older adults (238-241).

1480

1481 ***64) Bioelectrical impedance shall NOT be used to assess hydration status in older***  
1482 ***adults as it is not usefully diagnostic.***

1483 ***(R69, Grade A, strong consensus 100%)***

1484 **Commentary**

1485 The Cochrane systematic review of diagnostic accuracy of simple signs and tests for  
1486 dehydration in older adults (aged at least 65 years old) described in recommendation 64  
1487 also found no evidence of the utility of bioelectrical impedance in the assessment of  
1488 hydration status in older adults in four included studies (237).

1489

1490 **3.3 Prevention of low-intake dehydration (Fig. 10)**

1491 ***65) All older persons should be considered to be at risk of low-intake dehydration***  
1492 ***and encouraged to consume adequate amounts of drinks.***

1493 ***(R63, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

1494 **Commentary**

1495 A non-systematic review of studies reporting serum osmolality in older adults suggests  
1496 that low-intake dehydration is common in this group (214), especially in older adults who

1497 are more vulnerable and frail, living in residential or long-term care institutions or  
1498 admitted to hospital.

1499 The causes of low-intake dehydration in older adults appear to be varied and inter-related  
1500 and have been examined in several non-systematic reviews (7, 8, 242). Among age-related  
1501 physiological changes, reduced thirst and reduced urine concentration by the kidney  
1502 increase dehydration risk (9, 243-246). In addition, total body water is reduced, and many  
1503 older adults use medications such as diuretics and laxatives which increase fluid losses  
1504 (247-251). Besides physiological changes, a range of other risk factors increases  
1505 vulnerability to dehydration with age. Memory problems may cause older adults to forget  
1506 to drink and forget that they haven't drunk (7-9, 252). Fluid intake may also be reduced  
1507 voluntarily, e.g. because of issues about getting to the toilet and continence (8, 226, 253).  
1508 Furthermore, social contact is a key trigger for drinking – but as social isolation becomes  
1509 more common, drinking routines are lost and drink intake is reduced (254). Physical  
1510 access to drinks can also be an issue (8, 255, 256), as can swallowing problems and  
1511 dysphagia. Thus, older adults are at high risk of dehydration due to drinking insufficient  
1512 amounts of fluids and should be encouraged to consume adequate amounts of drinks.

1513

1514 ***66) A range of appropriate (i.e. hydrating) drinks should be offered to older people***  
1515 ***according to their preferences.***

1516 ***(R62, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)***

1517 **Commentary**

1518 Drinks providing fluid with a hydrating effect on our bodies include water, sparkling  
1519 water, flavored water, hot or cold tea, coffee, milk and milky drinks, fruit juices, soups,  
1520 sports or soft drinks and smoothies (257). There is a common myth, which should be

1521 dispelled, that in order to be hydrated we need to drink plain water – this is not the case.  
1522 Beer and lager are hydrating and may also be appropriate for some older adults (not  
1523 needing to restrict alcohol for medical or social reasons). Drinks should be chosen  
1524 according to the preferences of the older person, as well as the drinks' fluid and  
1525 nutritional content – so that milky drinks, fruit juices and smoothies, high-calorie drinks  
1526 and fortified drinks all have particular benefits in specific circumstances. Despite worries  
1527 about “dehydrating” effects of caffeine and alcohol, there is good evidence that coffee does  
1528 not cause dehydration (257, 258), and nor do alcoholic drinks of up to 4% alcohol (257).  
1529 If continence is a concern, decaffeinated drinks (such as coffee, tea, and soft drinks) may  
1530 be tried, but are not necessary unless found helpful (259, 260).

1531 There is good evidence from two randomized controlled trials (RCTs) that the hydration  
1532 potential for most non-alcoholic drinks is very similar to those of water (257, 258).  
1533 Although these findings are based on studies in younger adults (257, 258), there is little  
1534 reason to believe that they would not apply to older adults.

1535

1536 ***67) To prevent dehydration in older persons living in residential care, institutions***  
1537 ***should implement multi-component strategies across their institutions for all***  
1538 ***residents.***

1539 ***(R74, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)***

1540 **Commentary**

1541 No interventions to support adequate drinks intake have been clearly shown to prevent  
1542 or treat low-intake dehydration in older adults. A recent systematic review assessed the  
1543 effectiveness of interventions and environmental factors to increase drinking and/or  
1544 reduce dehydration in older adults living in residential care, including randomized trials,

1545 non-randomized intervention studies and cohort studies (220). The review identified 19  
1546 intervention and four observational studies from seven countries but suggested that  
1547 overall the studies were at high risk of bias. The evidence suggests that multicomponent  
1548 interventions may be effective (220).

1549

1550 ***68) Multi-component strategies to prevent dehydration in older persons living in***  
1551 ***residential care should include high availability of drinks, varied choice of drinks,***  
1552 ***the frequent offering of drinks, staff awareness of the need for adequate fluid intake,***  
1553 ***staff support for drinking and staff support in taking older adults to the toilet***  
1554 ***quickly and when they need it.***

1555 ***(R75, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 1556 **Commentary**

1557 The systematic review described before/in recommendation 62 suggests that  
1558 multicomponent interventions including increased staff awareness, assistance with  
1559 drinking, support using the toilet and a greater variety of drinks on offer may be effective  
1560 (220). It was also suggested that the introduction of the US Resident Assessment  
1561 Instrument (which requires mandatory monitoring and reporting of hydration risks)  
1562 reduced dehydration in older adults (220, 261). A small single study implied that high  
1563 contrast red cups helped support drinking in nine men with dementia (220). Large cohort  
1564 studies in the US and Canada suggested different relationships between care  
1565 homeownership and dehydration – in Canada for-profit ownership was associated with  
1566 increased hospital admissions for dehydration while in the US dehydration prevalence  
1567 did not differ between for-profit and not-for-profit homes (220). No clear relationships  
1568 were observed between staffing levels and dehydration prevalence (220, 262, 263).

1569

1570 **69) Strategies to support adequate fluid intake should be developed including older**  
1571 **persons themselves, staff, management, and policymakers.**

1572 **(R76, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)**

1573 **Commentary**

1574 A recent systematic review (see recommendations 67, 68) suggested that multiple  
1575 strategies including involvement and input from older adults, staff, management, and  
1576 policymakers will be needed to address problems with drinking in residential care (220).

1577

1578 **70) Care plans for older adults in institutions should record individual preferences**  
1579 **for drinks, how and when they are served, as well as continence support, to promote**  
1580 **drinking. Assessment of individual barriers and promoters of drinking should lead**  
1581 **to tailored plans to support drinking for each older person.**

1582 **(R77, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)**

1583 **Commentary**

1584 A pair of systematic reviews assessed the effectiveness of interventions to support food  
1585 and drink intake in people with mild cognitive impairment or dementia, which included  
1586 cohorts of older adults not labeled as having dementia but where a cognitive assessment  
1587 showed that on average cognitive impairment was present (63, 219, 264), as it is in most  
1588 care home populations. Included studies were small and fluid intake and hydration status  
1589 were poorly assessed. No further strategies for supporting fluid intake were identified  
1590 within these reviews, but a key suggestion from assessments of nutrition more generally  
1591 was that studies with a strong social element, where socializing around food and drink  
1592 was supported, tended to improve quality of life, nutritional status and fluid intake (219).

1593 Observational data have suggested that the number of drinks offered to older adults in  
1594 residential care is strongly positively associated with their fluid intake (8, 231). We found  
1595 limited information on increasing fluid intake in hospital or community settings.

1596 Overall, it seems reasonable to identify individual preferences as well as barriers and  
1597 promoters for drinking and to consider these aspects in individualized care plans.

1598

1599 ***71) At a regulatory level, the strategy of mandatory monitoring and reporting by***  
1600 ***institutions of hydration risks in individual residents and patients should be***  
1601 ***considered.***

1602 ***(R78, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

1603

1604 ***72) Older adults who show signs of dysphagia should be assessed, treated and***  
1605 ***followed up by an experienced speech and language therapist. Their nutrition and***  
1606 ***hydration status should be carefully monitored in consultation with the speech and***  
1607 ***language therapist and a dietician.***

1608 ***(R79, Grade GPP, strong consensus 94%)***

1609 **Commentary**

1610 Patients with dysphagia are at specific high risk of dehydration and fluid intake has been  
1611 reported to be low, especially when thickened fluids are used to make swallowing safer  
1612 (360). A partner ESPEN guideline recommends that stroke patients receiving thickened  
1613 fluids should have their fluid balance monitored by trained professionals (110). A high-  
1614 quality systematic review, though not specific to older adults, has suggested that the use  
1615 of chin down swallowing and thin fluids should be the first choice of therapy in chronic  
1616 dysphagia (108). A small short term RCT in older adults with severe cognitive impairment

1617 suggested that cervical spine manipulation may increase dysphagia limit for those with  
1618 swallowing problems, but effects on hydration were not assessed (265).

1619 A recent systematic review and guidelines report RCTs showing that in people following  
1620 stroke, thickened fluids alongside access to free water (no other drinks) compared to  
1621 thickened liquids alone was effective at protecting against aspiration and increasing fluid  
1622 intake. The use of pre-thickened drinks rather than drinks thickened with powder at the  
1623 point of use was also better at supporting fluid intake post-stroke (110).

1624

### 1625 **3.4 Treatment of low-intake dehydration (Fig. 10)**

1626 ***73) Older adults with measured serum or plasma osmolality >300 mOsm/kg (or***  
1627 ***calculated osmolality >295 mmol/L) who appear well should be encouraged to***  
1628 ***increase their fluid intake in the form of drinks preferred by the older adult.***  
1629 ***(R71, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 1630 **Commentary**

1631 Treatment for low-intake dehydration involves the administration of hypotonic fluids  
1632 (222-224), which will help correct the fluid deficit while diluting down the raised  
1633 osmolality. In mild dehydration older persons should be encouraged to drink more fluid,  
1634 which can be in the form of drinks preferred by the older person, such as hot or iced tea,  
1635 coffee, fruit juice, sparkling water, carbonated beverages/soda, lager or water (257, 258).  
1636 Oral rehydration therapy (which aims to replace electrolytes lost in volume depletion by  
1637 diarrhea or vomiting) and sports drinks are NOT indicated. Hydration status should be  
1638 reassessed regularly until corrected, then monitored periodically alongside excellent  
1639 support for drinking.

1640

1641 **74) For older adults with measured serum or plasma osmolality >300 mOsm/kg (or**  
1642 **calculated osmolarity >295 mmol/L) who appear unwell, subcutaneous or**  
1643 **intravenous fluids shall be offered in parallel with encouraging oral fluid intake.**  
1644 **(R72, Grade A, strong consensus 95%)**

1645 **Commentary**

1646 Several systematic reviews of moderate quality have reviewed the evidence comparing  
1647 subcutaneous and intravenous fluid administration in older adults (291-292) or more  
1648 generally (266, 267), and guidelines for older adults have been produced (247, 268).

1649 The earlier systematic review assessing evidence for hypodermoclysis in older people,  
1650 mainly based on case reports (269) suggested adverse effects in 3% but noted that  
1651 electrolyte-containing solutions resulted in fewer and less severe side effects than  
1652 electrolyte-free or hypertonic. The later systematic review re-analyzed the earlier review  
1653 and included two small later RCTs and a cohort study (270). Overall, the review concluded  
1654 that the evidence suggests that “appropriate volumes of subcutaneous dextrose infusions  
1655 (in the form of half-normal saline-glucose 5%, 40 g/L dextrose and 30 mmol/L NaCl, or  
1656 5% dextrose solution and 4 g/L NaCl, or two-thirds 5% glucose and one-third normal  
1657 saline) can be used effectively for the treatment of dehydration, with similar rates of  
1658 adverse effects to intravenous infusion” (270).

1659 Another systematic review suggests that financial costs of subcutaneous rehydration are  
1660 probably lower than intravenous, but the systematic review is methodologically poor and  
1661 the evidence base it collates is of low quality – better-designed studies are needed (266).

1662

1663 **75) For older adults with measured serum or plasma osmolality >300 mOsm/kg (or**  
1664 **calculated osmolarity >295 mmol/L) and unable to drink, intravenous fluids shall**



1665 ***be considered.***

1666 ***(R73, Grade A, strong consensus 95%)***

1667 **Commentary**

1668 When dehydration is severe and greater fluid volumes are needed or intravenous access  
1669 is required for administration of medications or nutrition, then administration of  
1670 intravenous fluid is the method of choice (271, 272). Parenteral hydration should  
1671 however always be considered as a medical treatment rather than as basic care, and its  
1672 benefits and risks should be carefully balanced (see Chapter “Parenteral Nutrition”).

1673

1674 Please also refer to recommendation 68 in chapter 2.5.3.

1675

1676

1677 **4. Diagnosis and treatment of volume depletion (Fig. 11)**

1678 **4.1 Excessive blood loss**

1679 *4.1.1 Diagnosis of volume depletion*

1680 **76) In older adults, volume depletion following excessive blood loss should be**  
1681 **assessed using postural pulse change from lying to standing ( $\geq 30$  beats per minute)**  
1682 **or severe postural dizziness resulting in an inability to stand.**  
1683 **(R80, Grade B, strong consensus 100%)**

1684 Volume depletion (reduced volume of extracellular fluids only, due to loss of fluids and  
1685 electrolytes, also called salt loss or extracellular dehydration) occurs without raised  
1686 serum or plasma osmolality, and following medical conditions resulting in excessive  
1687 losses of fluid and electrolytes, such as excessive blood loss, vomiting, and diarrhea (221-  
1688 224).

1689 The clearest signs following excessive blood loss are a large postural pulse change ( $\geq 30$   
1690 beats per minute) or severe postural dizziness leading to lack of ability to stand (273),  
1691 which are 97% sensitive and 98% specific when blood loss is at least 630 mL, but much  
1692 less sensitive at lower levels of blood loss. However, these results were found in younger  
1693 adults not taking beta-blockers, so sensitivity and specificity may vary in older persons.  
1694 The authors report that postural hypotension has little additional predictive value.

1695

1696 *4.1.2 Treatment of volume depletion*

1697 **77) Older adults with mild/moderate/severe volume depletion should receive**  
1698 **isotonic fluids orally, nasogastrically, subcutaneously or intravenously.**  
1699 **(R82, Grade B, strong consensus 95%)**

1700 **Commentary**

1701 Treatment for volume depletion aims to replace lost water and electrolytes and involves  
1702 the administration of isotonic fluids (224, 271).

1703 NICE conducted a set of systematic reviews to assess the best protocol for assessment and  
1704 management of fluid and electrolyte status in hospitalized patients (271), including older  
1705 adults. Their evidence base was updated in 2017. Their resultant guidance and flowchart  
1706 suggest that where a patient is hypovolemic and needs fluid resuscitation then this should  
1707 occur immediately. Where fluid resuscitation is not needed then assessment of patients'  
1708 likely fluid and electrolyte needs should be met orally or enterally where possible, but if  
1709 not feasible then intravenous fluid should be considered. Where electrolyte levels are low  
1710 this would suggest replacement with isotonic fluids (fluids with sodium, potassium and  
1711 glucose concentrations similar to those within the body) such as oral rehydration therapy.  
1712 Isotonic or slightly hypotonic fluids are ideal (224). NICE provides a set of interrelated  
1713 algorithms for assessment, fluid resuscitation, routine intravenous maintenance and  
1714 replacement and redistribution of fluid and electrolytes.

1715

1716 **4.2 Vomiting, diarrhea**

1717 *4.2.1 Diagnosis of volume depletion*

1718 ***78) In older adults, volume depletion following fluid and salt loss with vomiting or***  
1719 ***diarrhea should be assessed by checking a set of signs. A person with at least four of***  
1720 ***the following seven signs is likely to have moderate to severe volume depletion:***  
1721 ***confusion, non-fluent speech, extremity weakness, dry mucous membranes, dry***  
1722 ***tongue, furrowed tongue, sunken eyes.***

1723 ***(R81, Grade B, strong consensus 95%)***

1724 **Commentary**

1725 Volume depletion (reduced volume of extracellular fluids only, due to loss of fluids and  
1726 electrolytes, also called salt loss or extracellular dehydration) occurs without raised  
1727 serum or plasma osmolality, and following medical conditions resulting in excessive  
1728 losses of fluid and electrolytes, such as bleeding, vomiting, and diarrhea (221-224).

1729 Signs following fluid and salt loss with vomiting or diarrhea are less clear. A systematic  
1730 review of signs associated with volume depletion after vomiting or diarrhea suggests that  
1731 no signs are individually very useful, but that a person having at least four of the following  
1732 seven signs is likely to have moderate to severe volume depletion: confusion, non-fluent  
1733 speech, extremity weakness, dry mucous membranes, dry tongue, furrowed tongue,  
1734 sunken eyes, However, the authors suggested that this form of diagnosis needs further  
1735 assessment (273). Decreased venous filling (empty veins) and low blood pressure may  
1736 also be good signs of hypovolemia.

1737

1738 *4.2.2 Treatment of volume depletion*

1739 Please refer to recommendation 77 in chapter 4.1.2.

1740

## 1741 **5. Treatment of obesity**

### 1742 **5.1 Indication of weight-reducing diets**

1743 **79) In overweight older persons, weight-reducing diets shall be avoided in order to**  
1744 **prevent loss of muscle mass and accompanying functional decline.**

1745 **(R54, Grade GPP, strong consensus 95%)**

#### 1746 **Commentary**

1747 Experts generally agree that there is usually no need for overweight older people to lose  
1748 weight (274-278) as meta-analyses indicate that the mortality risk of healthy older people  
1749 is lowest in the overweight range (279-281). Further, weight loss, whether intentional or  
1750 not, enhances the age-related loss of muscle mass and consequently increases the risk of  
1751 sarcopenia, frailty, functional decline, fractures, and malnutrition (276, 282, 283).  
1752 Moreover, the common weight-regain after a weight-reducing diet is predominantly a  
1753 regain in fat mass and not in lean mass (283). Thus, repeated phases of weight loss and  
1754 regain, called “weight cycling”, might contribute to the development of sarcopenic obesity  
1755 (the presence of reduced muscle mass together with excess fat mass) (283). Therefore,  
1756 and to avoid a progression to obesity, maintaining stable BW is considered desirable for  
1757 overweight older adults (11). A combination of a balanced, nutrient-rich diet providing  
1758 adequate amounts of energy and protein, and physical activity, if possible even exercise,  
1759 is a sound strategy to keep weight stable and to prevent obesity (284).

1760

1761 **80) In obese older persons with weight-related health problems, weight-reducing**  
1762 **diets shall only be considered after careful and individual weighing of benefits and**  
1763 **risks.**

1764 **(R55, Grade GPP, strong consensus 100%)**

1765 **Commentary**

1766 Obesity, especially severe obesity (BMI  $\geq 35$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>), increases metabolic and  
1767 cardiovascular risk as well as the risk of mobility limitations and frailty in older persons  
1768 (277, 278, 285), particularly when marked muscle loss has already occurred (283).  
1769 Current expert recommendations regarding weight reduction in older people primarily  
1770 refer to cases of obesity that are associated with comorbidities and obesity-related  
1771 adverse health effects (276-278, 282). In these cases, positive effects of intended weight  
1772 loss on orthopedic problems, cardiovascular and metabolic risk, insulin sensitivity,  
1773 chronic inflammation, and functional limitations have been reported, partly in  
1774 combination with physical exercise (11, 274, 276, 278, 285, 286). On the other hand, as  
1775 weight loss in older persons may have harmful effects due to the loss of lean mass (see  
1776 commentary to recommendation 54), the decision for or against weight reduction shall  
1777 always be taken at the individual level. It should be based on a careful weighing of possible  
1778 risks and benefits of the intervention considering functional resources, metabolic risk,  
1779 comorbidities, patients' perspective and priorities, and estimated effects on his or her  
1780 quality of life (274, 286). If a decision is made against weight reduction, it is advisable to  
1781 aim at weight stability and avoidance of further aggravation of obesity (11).

1782

1783 **5.2 Implementation of weight-reducing diets**

1784 ***81) If weight reduction is considered in obese older persons, energy restriction shall***  
1785 ***be only moderate in order to achieve a slow weight reduction and preserve muscle***  
1786 ***mass.***

1787 ***(R56, Grade GPP, strong consensus 95%)***

1788 **Commentary**

1789 If weight reduction is considered to be beneficial, it has to be approached with great care  
1790 (274, 275). Interventions working in young adults cannot simply be extrapolated to older  
1791 populations with low muscle mass and frailty (282). To avoid loss of muscle mass and to  
1792 achieve a slow weight reduction in older persons, the dietary intervention should consist  
1793 of a balanced diet, as generally recommended for older adults, with a maximally moderate  
1794 caloric restriction (~500 kcal/d less than estimated needs and maintaining a minimum  
1795 intake of 1000-1200 kcal/d) targeting a weight loss of 0.25-1 kg/week (~5-10% of initial  
1796 BW after six months or more) and assuring a protein intake of at least 1 g/kg BW/d and  
1797 appropriate intake of micronutrients (276, 278, 287). Strict dietary regimens, like diets  
1798 with very low energy intake (<1000 kcal/day), are strongly discouraged in the older  
1799 population due to the risk of developing malnutrition and promoting functional decline  
1800 (60, 278, 283).

1801  
1802 ***82) If weight reduction is considered in obese older persons, dietary interventions***  
1803 ***shall be combined with physical exercise whenever possible in order to preserve***  
1804 ***muscle mass.***  
1805 ***(R57, Grade A, strong consensus 100%)***

#### 1806 **Commentary**

1807 Twelve RCTs were identified that compared the effects of a dietary weight loss  
1808 intervention alone to a combination of the same dietary intervention with an exercise  
1809 intervention in older persons (288-299). Three studies were restricted to obese persons  
1810 (289, 291, 292), the others included mixed samples of obese and overweight older  
1811 persons.

1812 In ten trials, a weight-reducing diet alone resulted in the desired weight loss, which  
1813 consisted of fat mass as well as lean mass (290-292, 294-299). The combination with

1814 exercise training had comparable if not greater effects than the singular weight-reducing  
1815 diets regarding the reduction of BW and fat mass, while often preserving lean mass better  
1816 than diet alone (289-291, 295-297, 299). Moreover, for several physical and strength-  
1817 performance measures, greater improvements were observed in the combined groups  
1818 than in the diet-only groups (288-291, 293-297, 299). In these studies, the weight-  
1819 reducing diets consisted of a balanced diet with a daily energy deficit of 300-1000 kcal,  
1820 aiming at a weight loss of 5-10% of initial BW and/or 0.25-1 kg per week (288-299).

1821 It should be considered that the participants of the above-mentioned RCTs were mostly  
1822 “young-old” (60-70 years) not representing a typical geriatric population. As very old and  
1823 frail persons are more vulnerable to any kind of stress, decisions for or against weight  
1824 loss require particular care in this population subgroup (see commentary to  
1825 Recommendation 55). Also, interventions need to be conducted with particular caution  
1826 and close monitoring (11, 275).

1827

1828

1829



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Fig. 1

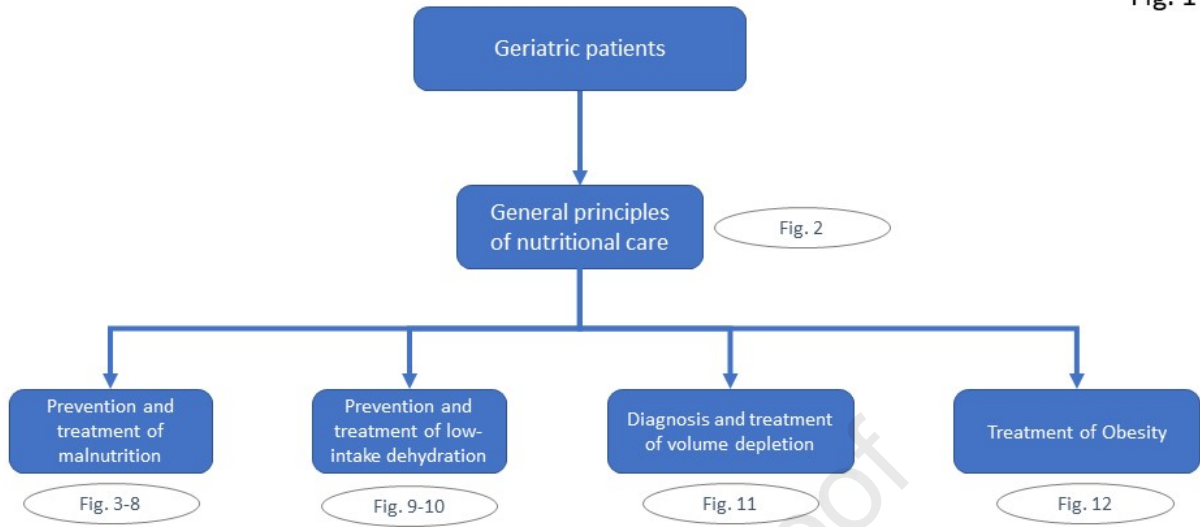


Fig. 2

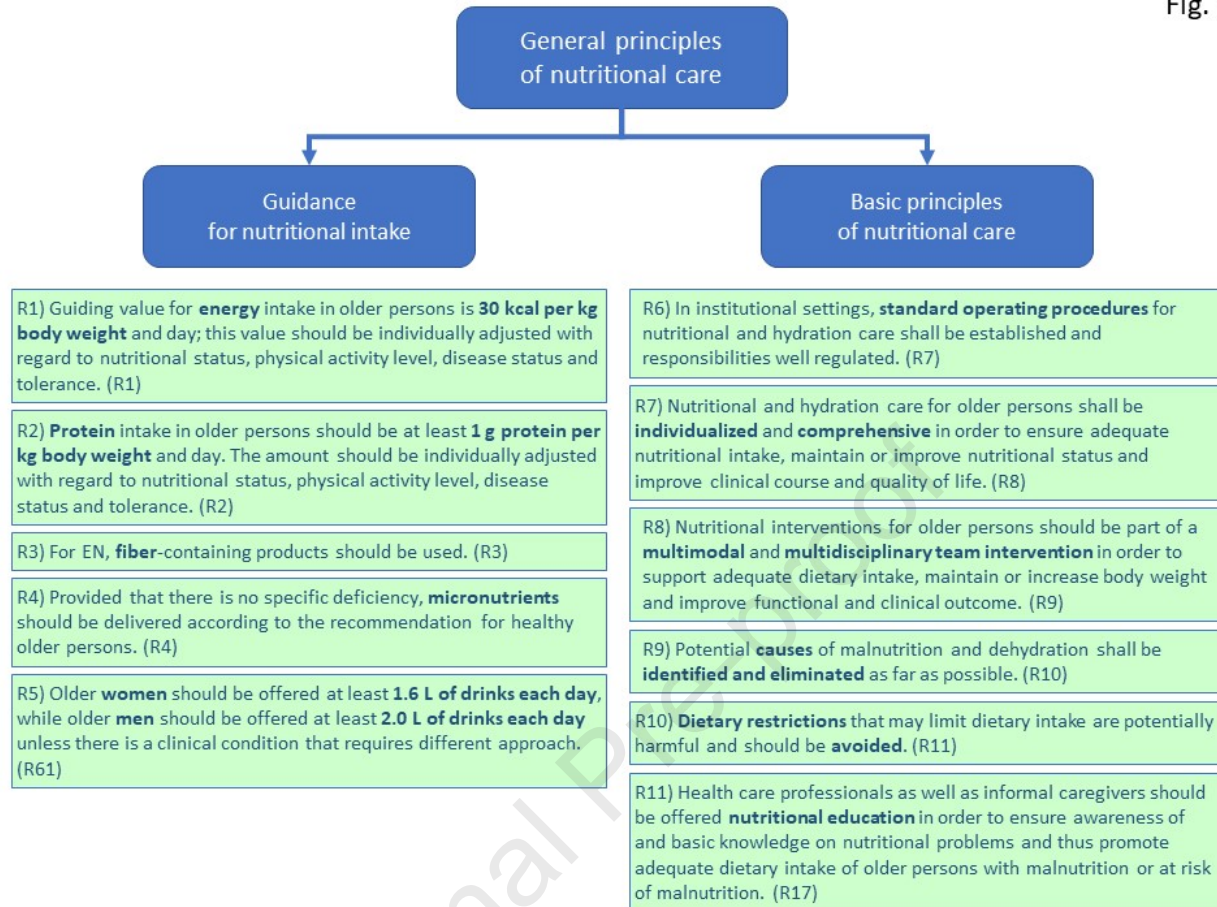
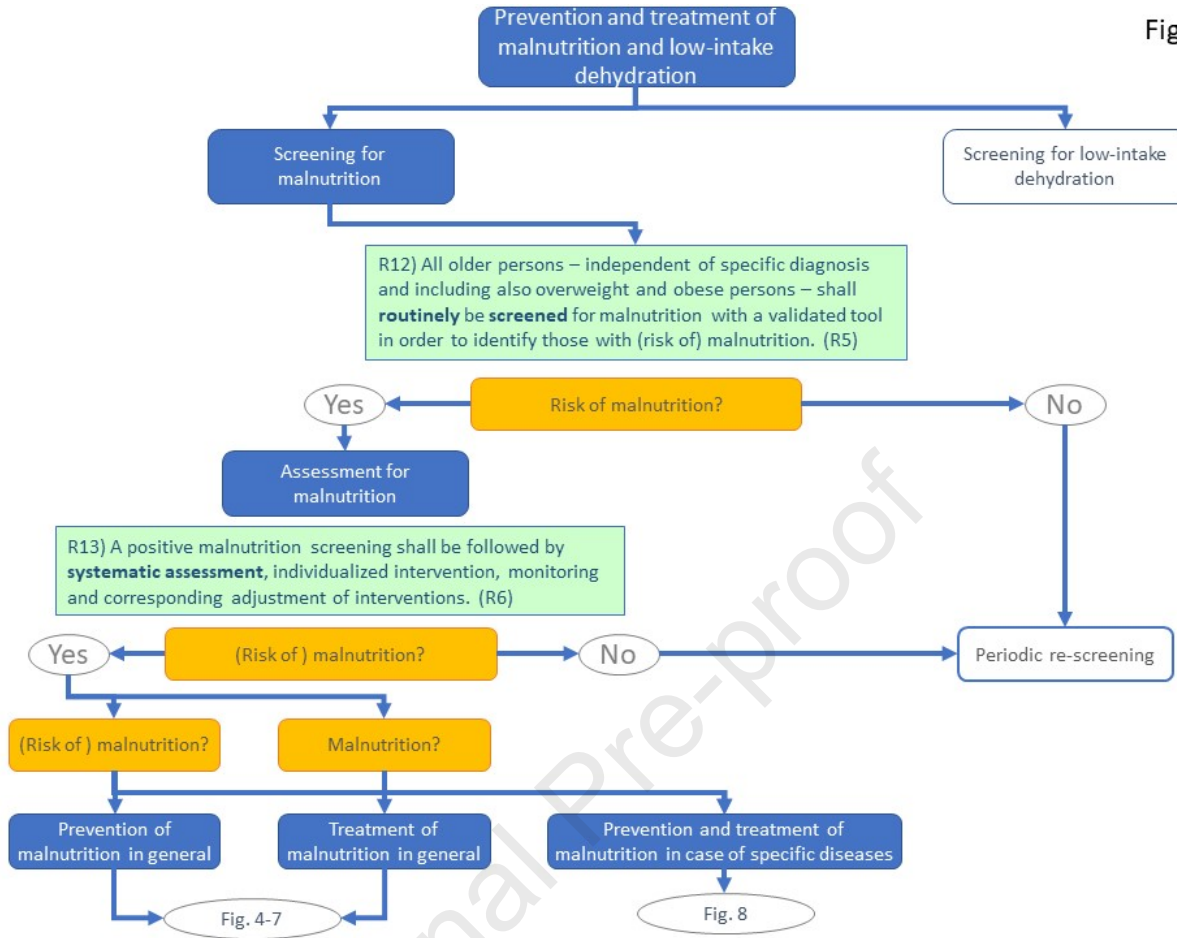
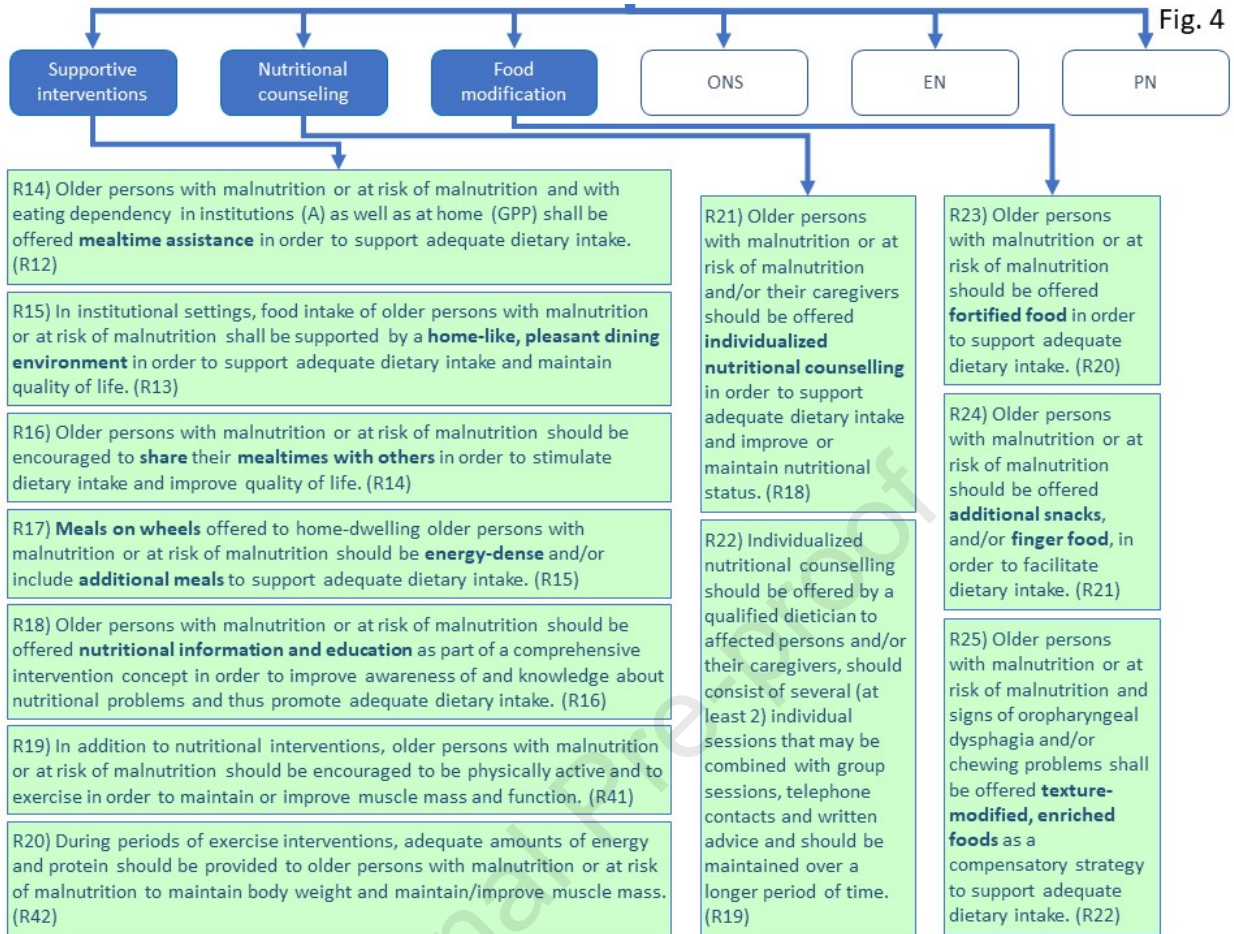
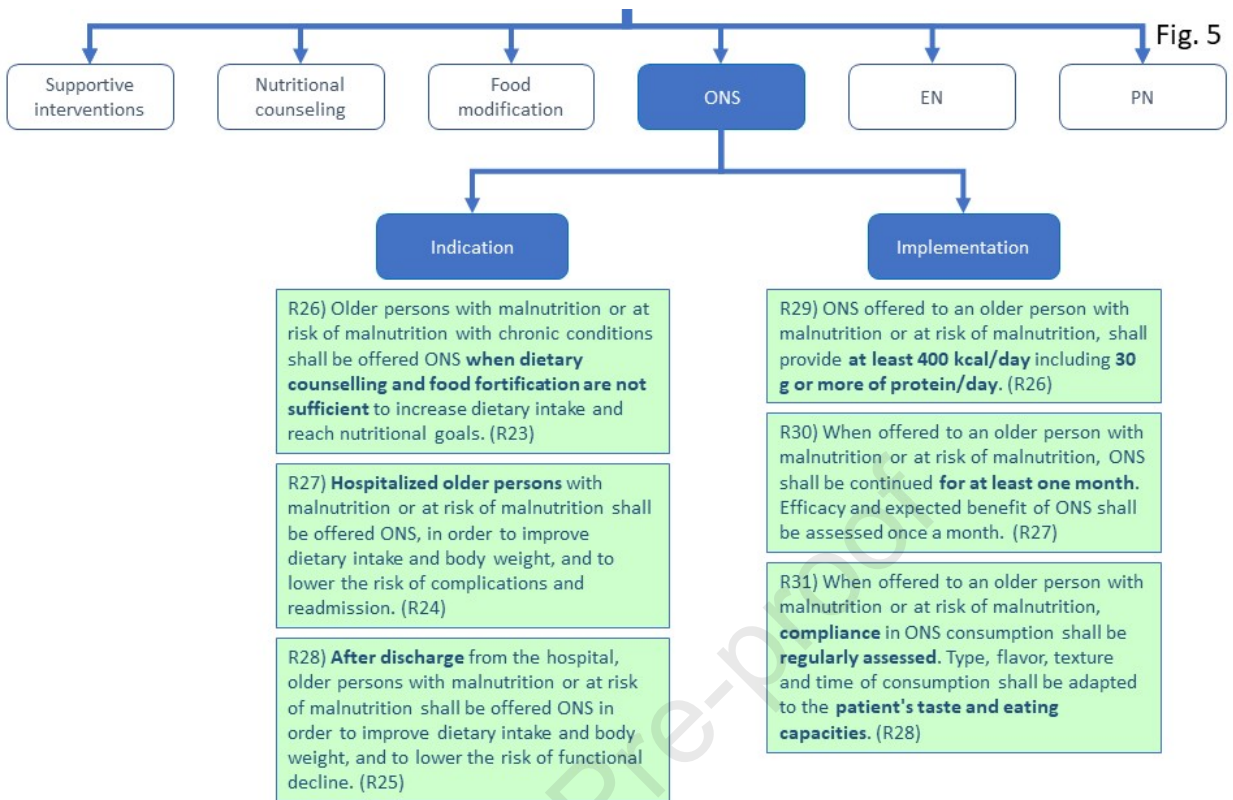
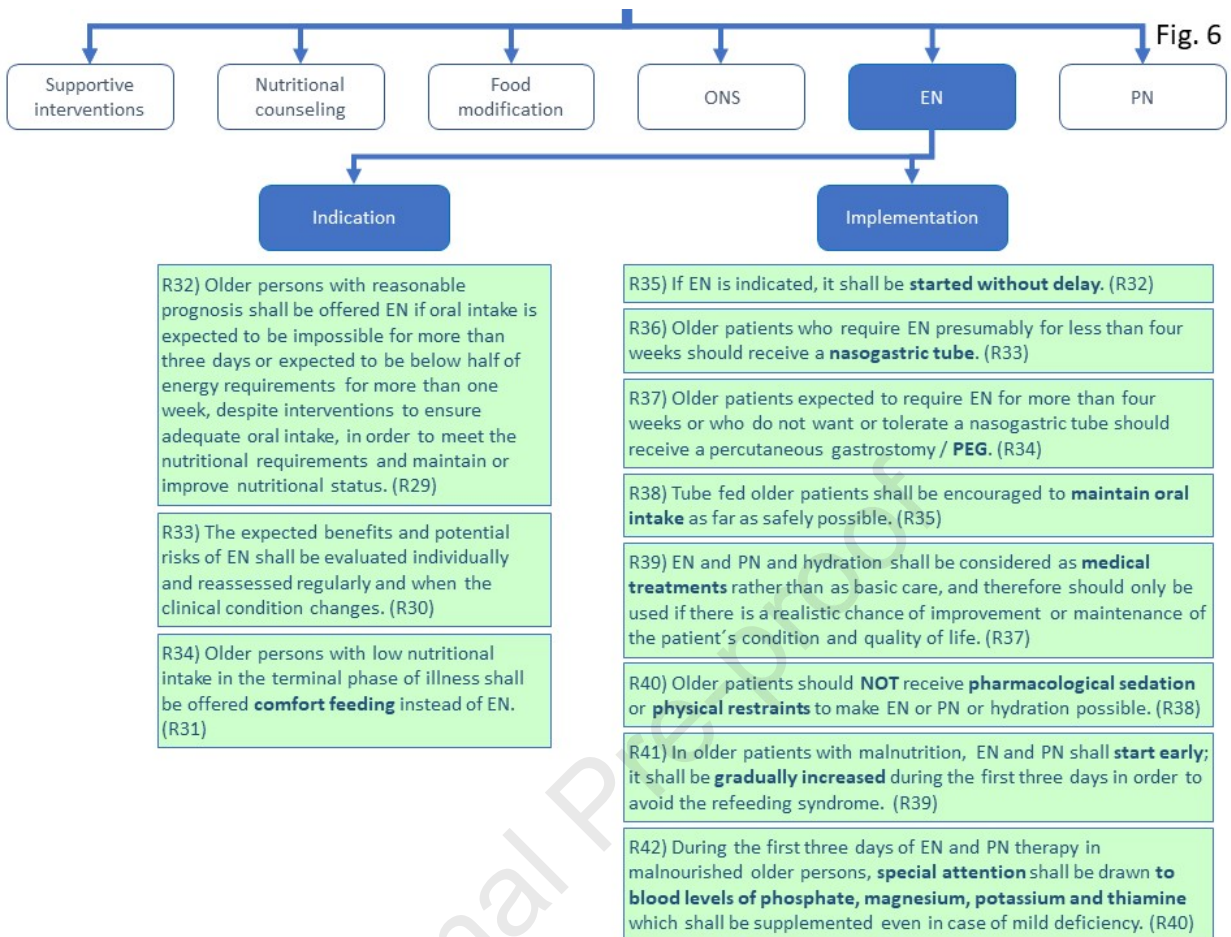


Fig. 3









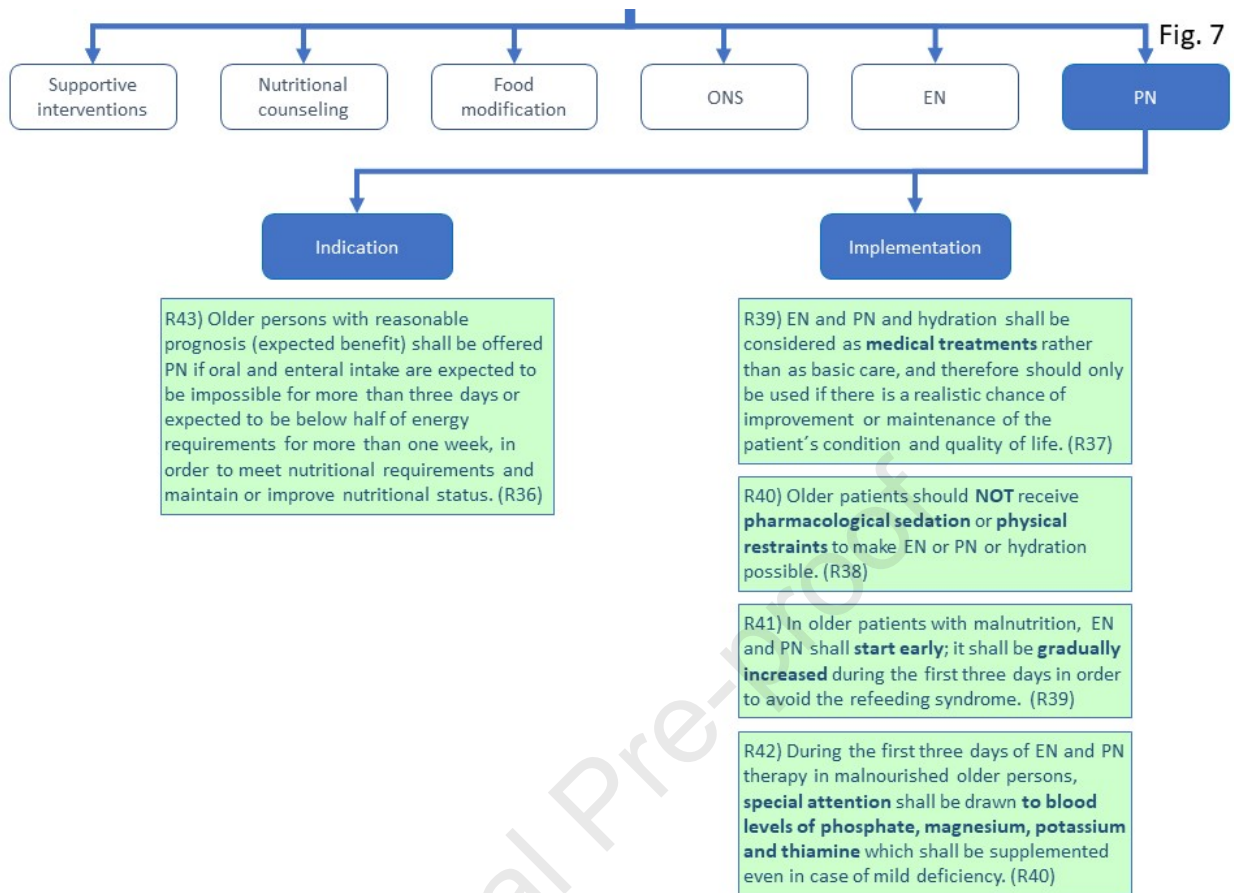


Fig. 8

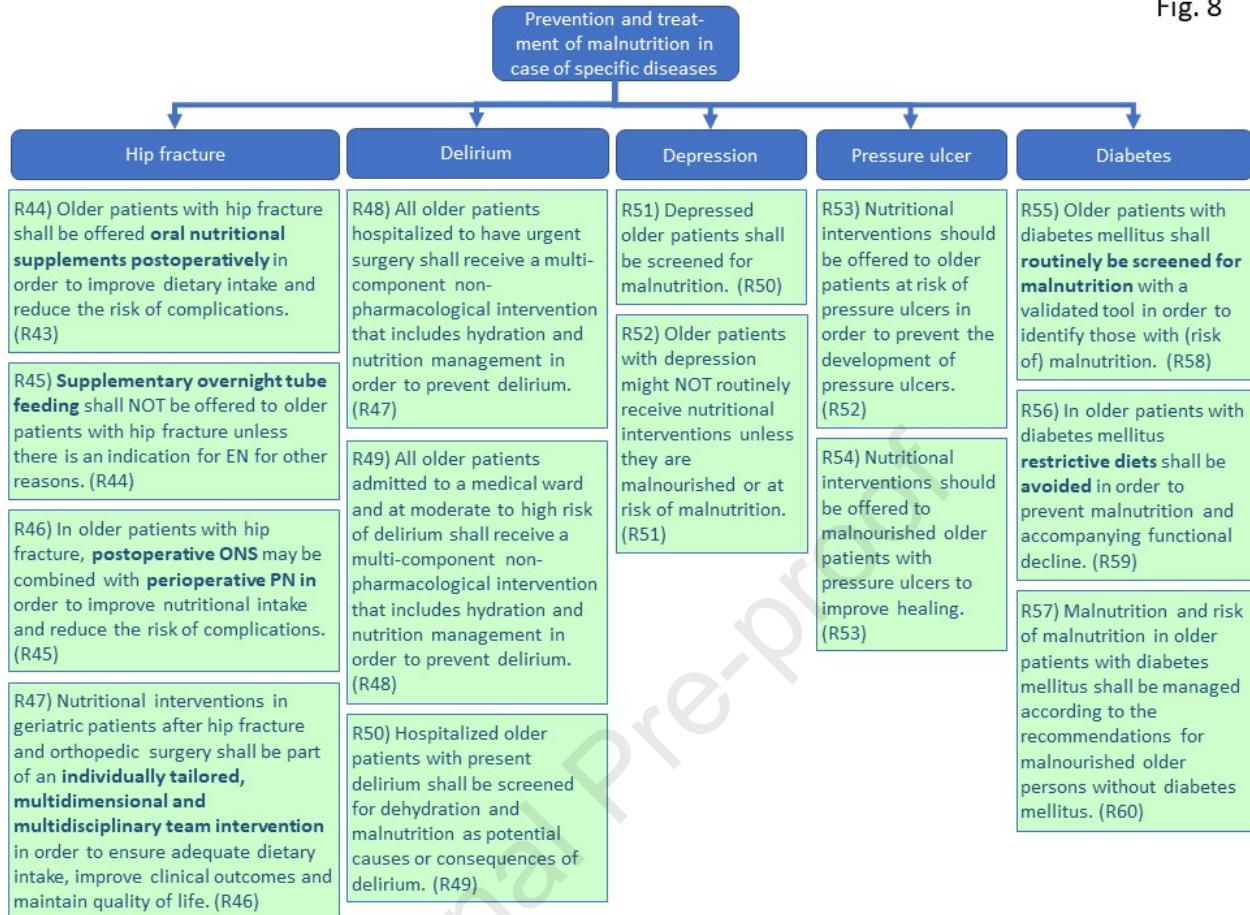




Fig. 9

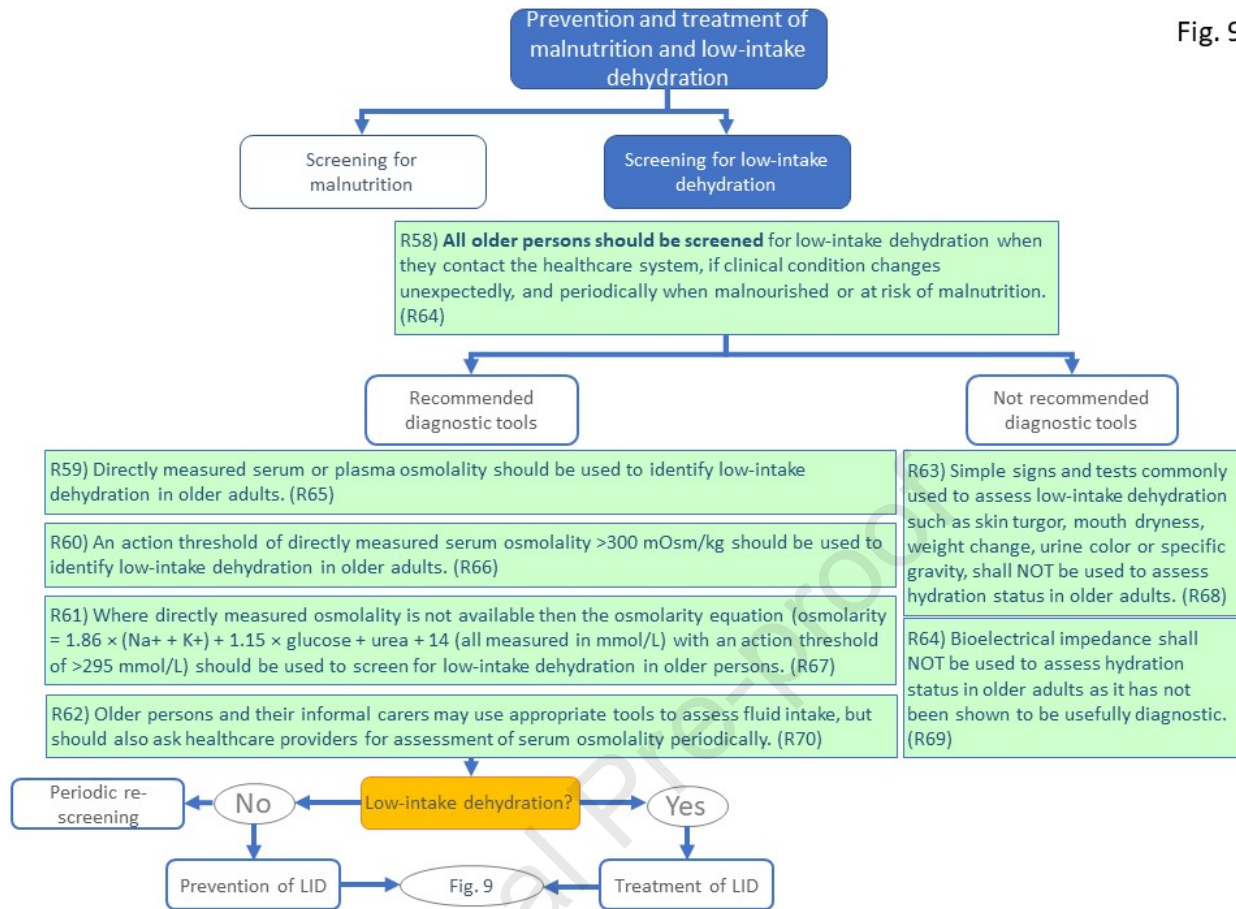


Fig. 10

Prevention of LID	Treatment of LID
R65) <b>All older persons</b> should be considered to be <b>at risk</b> of low-intake dehydration and encouraged to consume adequate amounts of drinks. (R63)	R73) Older adults with measured serum or plasma osmolality >300 mOsm/kg (or calculated osmolality >295 mmol/L) who appear well should be encouraged to increase their fluid intake in the form of drinks preferred by the older adult. (R71)
R66) A <b>range of appropriate</b> (i.e. hydrating) <b>drinks</b> should be offered to older people according to their preferences. (R62)	R74) For older adults with measured serum or plasma osmolality >300 mOsm/kg (or calculated osmolality >295 mmol/L) who appear unwell, subcutaneous or intravenous fluids shall be offered in parallel with encouraging oral fluid intake. (R72)
R67) To prevent dehydration in older persons living in residential care, institutions should implement multicomponent strategies across their institutions for all residents. (R74)	R75) For older adults with measured serum or plasma osmolality >300 mOsm/kg (or calculated osmolality >295 mmol/L) and unable to drink, intravenous fluids shall be considered. (R73)
R68) Multi-component strategies to prevent dehydration in older persons living in residential care should include high availability of drinks, varied choice of drinks, frequent offering of drinks, staff awareness of the need for adequate fluid intake, staff support for drinking and staff support in taking older adults to the toilet quickly and when they need it. (R75)	
R69) Strategies to support adequate fluid intake should be developed including older persons themselves, staff, management and policymakers. (R76)	
R70) Care plans for older adults in institutions should record individual preferences for drinks, how and when they are served, as well as continence support, to promote drinking. Assessment of individual barriers and promoters of drinking should lead to plans for supporting drinking specific to each older person. (R77)	
R71) At a regulatory level, the strategy of mandatory monitoring and reporting by institutions of hydration risks in individual residents and patients should be considered. (R78)	
R72) Older adults who show signs of dysphagia should be assessed, treated and followed up by an experienced speech and language therapist. Their nutrition and hydration status should be carefully monitored in consultation with the speech and language therapist and a dietician. (R79)	

Fig. 11

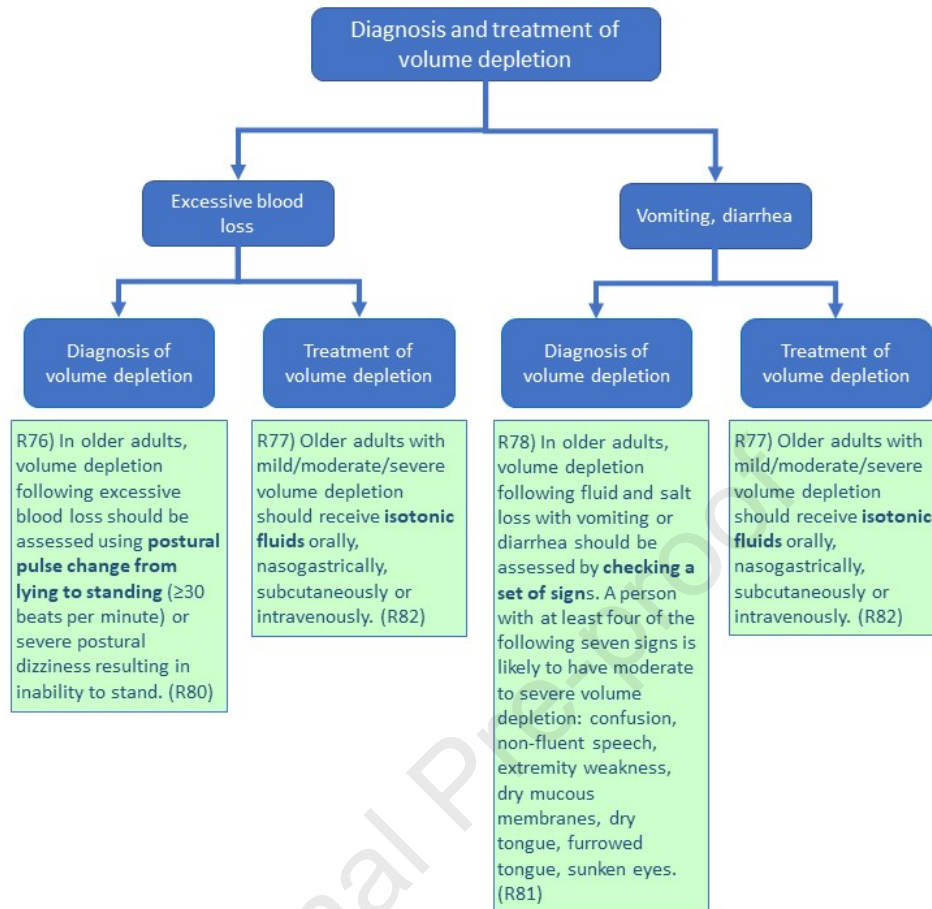


Fig. 12

