

1 **Title page**

2 **Title:** Concurrent and predictive validity of the Mini Nutritional Assessment Short-Form and
3 the Geriatric Nutritional Risk Index in elderly stroke rehabilitation patients

4

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25

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1 **Abstract**

2 *Background:* Malnutrition might worsen the clinical outcomes in stroke patients, although few
3 nutritional screening tools have assessed their validity.

4 *Methods:* We assessed clinical data of consecutive stroke patients aged ≥ 65 years in
5 rehabilitation hospital from 2015 to 2017 using the Mini Nutritional Assessment Short-Form
6 (MNA-SF) and the Geriatric Nutritional Risk Index (GNRI) for index testing. The European
7 Society for Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition diagnostic criteria for malnutrition (ESPEN-DCM)
8 was used as a reference standard. The receiver-operating characteristics curve was illustrated
9 by the sensitivity (Se) and specificity (Sp). The Youden index was used to define the cut-off
10 value for malnutrition detection or screening. The Functional Independence Measure (FIM)
11 and discharge destination were compared for verifying predictive validity.

12 *Results:* We enrolled 420 patients for the analysis. Of them, 125 patients were included in
13 malnutrition group (mean age: 80 years) and 295 in non-malnutrition group (mean age: 77
14 years) by the ESPEN-DCM. The area under the curve of the MNA-SF and the GNRI were
15 0.890 and 0.865, respectively. Se and Sp cut-off values to detect or screen malnutrition were 5
16 (Se: 0.78; Sp: 0.85) and 7 (Se: 0.96; Sp: 0.57) for the MNA-SF and 92 (Se: 0.74; Sp: 0.84) and
17 98 (Se: 0.93; Sp: 0.50) for the GNRI, respectively. The GNRI were associated with discharge
18 destination, whereas no correlation was observed between the MNA-SF and outcomes by
19 multivariable analysis.

20 *Conclusions:* The MNA-SF and GNRI have fair concurrent validity if appropriate cut-off
21 values were used. The GNRI exhibits good predictive validity in stroke patients.

22

23 **Introduction**

24 Individuals with stroke often experience malnutrition, with the prevalence of up
25 to 62% ⁽¹⁾. The prevalence of malnutrition in rehabilitation hospitals/facilities is three
26 times higher than that in acute care hospitals ⁽²⁾. Undernutrition accounts for decreased
27 survival rate, prolonged hospital stay, inflated healthcare cost and diminished recovery
28 of physical and swallowing function ⁽³⁻⁶⁾. In addition, nutritional improvement in stroke
29 patients with malnutrition correlates with the resumption of activities of daily living ^(7,8).
30 Thus, early screening and detecting of malnutrition in stroke rehabilitation patients are
31 imperative to regain the functional capacity, activities of daily living and quality of life.

32 Despite the growing awareness of malnutrition, screening tools have rarely been
33 validated in patients with stroke ⁽¹⁾. The Malnutrition Universal Screening Tool
34 (MUST) ⁽⁹⁾ is the only nutrition screening tool that has been used to assess the predictive
35 validity ⁽⁵⁾; thus, its use is recommended in recent clinical guidelines by the European
36 Society for Clinical Nutrition and Metabolism (ESPEN) ⁽¹⁰⁾. Although there is no gold
37 standard for determining malnutrition, the ESPEN has proposed operative, diagnostic
38 criteria for malnutrition ⁽¹¹⁾, which are in good agreement with the MUST ⁽¹²⁾. However,
39 none of the tools have been used to investigate the concurrent validity in stroke
40 survivors to date.

41 The Mini Nutritional Assessment (MNA) and its shortened form (MNA-SF) are
42 some of the leading tools for the assessment or screening in elderly older individuals
43 with or at risk of malnutrition ^(13, 14). Despite its efficacy and adequate concurrent and
44 predictive validity, the MNA-SF could potentially overestimate malnourished elderly
45 rehabilitation patients with the prevalence of 92%–99% ^(3, 15), possibly attributing to
46 stroke sequela, including hemiparesis, aphasia and muscle atrophy ⁽³⁾. Conversely, the
47 Geriatric Nutritional Risk Index (GNRI) could be useful to estimate the survival of or

48 complication in elderly patients⁽¹⁶⁾. In addition, the efficacy of the GNRI has been reported for
49 estimating activities of daily living, discharging to home and recovery of full oral intake in
50 patients with stroke^(6, 7, 17, 18), although it is inconsistent with the validated nutritional
51 assessment method⁽¹⁹⁾.

52 Thus, this study aims to confirm the concurrent and predictive validity of the MNA-SF
53 and GNRI in elderly individuals with stroke in the convalescent stage and evaluate the optimal
54 cut-off value for detecting or screening malnourished patients.

55

56 **Materials and Methods**

57 We conducted this retrospective, observational cohort study in three convalescent
58 rehabilitation wards of a single hospital in Japan. A multidisciplinary rehabilitation team
59 provided the comprehensive rehabilitation in the wards, which was covered by the public
60 healthcare insurance. The detail of the wards was provided elsewhere⁽²⁰⁾. This study protocol
61 complied with the principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki, and it was approved by
62 the Ethics Committee of the University of Nagasaki (approval number: 287) and Nagasaki
63 Rehabilitation Hospital. As we used only anonymous clinical data in the daily clinical practice
64 in this study, we supplied information about this study to all patients and explained the opt-out
65 option, allowing patients to withdraw from the study dataset at any time.

66

67 *Data source and selection criteria*

68 In this study, we analysed the clinical data of consecutive patients aged ≥ 65 years who
69 were admitted to the convalescent rehabilitation wards for post-stroke rehabilitation from 16
70 May 2015 to 16 May 2017. The exclusion criteria were as follows: missing data for the serum
71 albumin concentration (Alb) within 7 days on the admission day, no definitive diagnosis of the
72 stroke type and unclear data for the usual body weight (other than apparently non-

73 malnourished: individuals who had the body mass index [BMI] or fat-free mass index
74 [FFMI] above the reference standard). We extracted all data by a medical chart or the
75 facility's dataset that were entered by a registered dietitian or a medical secretary from
76 the medical chart. In addition, we collected the following basic characteristics of
77 patients: age, sex, days from stroke onset to admission, length of hospital stay, stroke
78 subtype (e.g. cerebral infarction, intracranial haemorrhage or subarachnoid
79 haemorrhage), disabilities, comorbidities, history of stroke onset and pre-stroke need
80 of long-term care. Notably, medical doctors in acute care hospitals or convalescent
81 rehabilitation wards diagnosed the stroke subtype, comorbidities and disabilities. In
82 addition, the need for long-term care was verified by the certification of the long-term
83 care insurance (LTCI) before a stroke. The LTCI is a public, universal, long-term care
84 system in Japan ⁽²¹⁾. Moreover, the height of patients was measured by a stadiometer or
85 tape measure by nursing staff. Of note, if their methods could not be applied because
86 of marked contracture of the limbs or humpback, the knee height was measured by a
87 knee-height calliper and, then, the height was calculated using a race-specific equation
88 ⁽²²⁾.

89

90 *Index tests*

91 We set the MNA-SF and GNRI as index tests. The MNA-SF was the
92 malnutrition screening tool that exhibited good validity and reliability in elderly
93 individuals ^(13, 23). The MNA-SF comprises the six following domains: appetite loss,
94 weight loss, mobility, stress/acute disease, neuropsychological problems and BMI. The
95 total score of the MNA-SF ranges from 0 to 14 points, where a score of 0–7 signifies
96 malnourished, 8–11 at risk of malnutrition and 12–14 denotes well-nourished ⁽¹³⁾.
97 Trained registered dietitians scored the MNA-SF at admission.

98 The GNRI is a nutritional risk indicator in elderly individuals who has been developed
99 from the Nutritional Risk Index ⁽²⁴⁾. The equation of the GNRI is as follows:

100

$$101 \quad \text{GNRI} = [14.89 \times \text{Alb (g/dL)}] + \{41.7 / [\text{body weight (kg)} / \text{ideal body weight (kg)}]\}$$

102

103 Although the Lorenz formula was used for evaluating the ideal body weight in the
104 original equation of GNRI, we used the BMI (22 kg/m²) for the ideal body weight in this
105 study because it exhibited a substantial correlation with the Lorenz formula ⁽²⁵⁾. If the body
106 weight exceeded the ideal body weight, the ratio of the body weight to the ideal body weight
107 was set as 1. The malnutrition risk can be defined by the GNRI as follows: <92,
108 severe/moderate risk; 92–98, low risk; >98, no risk ^(17, 26).

109

110 *Reference standard*

111 In the absence of a gold standard to diagnose malnutrition, this study used the ESPEN
112 diagnostic criteria for malnutrition (ESPEN-DCM) as a reference standard of malnutrition.
113 The ESPEN-DCM is consensus-based criteria proposed by the ESPEN to diagnose
114 malnutrition ⁽¹²⁾, is in good agreement with the MUST ⁽¹³⁾ and predicts the survival or
115 functional outcome ^(27, 28). The criteria comprise two alternative ways to define malnutrition in
116 patients at risk of malnutrition screened by a validated tool: (1) BMI <18.5 kg/m², (2)
117 unintentional body weight loss (>5% per 3 months or >10% indefinite of time) and low BMI
118 (<20 kg/m² for individuals aged <70 years or <22 kg/m² for those aged ≥70 years) or low
119 FFMI (<15 kg/m² for females; <17 kg/m² for males). As the instrumental assessment of body
120 composition was not used in the facilities during the study period, we used the estimated fat-
121 free mass (eFFM) based on the estimated creatinine excretion rate (eCER) by following
122 equations ^(29, 30):

123

124 $eCER = 879.89 + [12.51 \times \text{body weight (kg)}] + (6.19 \times \text{age}) + (34.51 \text{ if black}) -$

125 $(379.42 \text{ if female})$

126 $eFFM \text{ (kg)} = 13.0 + 0.03 \times eCER$

127 $\text{estimated FFMI (eFFMI, kg/m}^2\text{)} = eFFM/\text{height (m)}^2$

128

129 Of note, the MUST was used for malnutrition screening in the ESPEN-DCM

130 process to avoid incorporation bias. In addition, an independent, experienced

131 registered dietitian performed the MUST, defined malnutrition by the ESPEN-DCM

132 post hoc and was blinded to the results of the MNA-SF and GNRI or any other

133 outcome measures based on the medical chart. We enrolled all patients who had a

134 BMI or eFFMI above the ESPEN-DCM in the analysis irrespective of the availability

135 of the usual body weight and their result of the MUST was set as ‘uncertain’.

136

137 *Sample size calculation*

138 We evaluated the sample size by using the following equation:

139

140 $\text{Sample size (N)} = 4 Z_{\alpha}^2 P (1 - P) / W^2$

141

142 Where Z_{α} is the standard normal deviate; P is the expected sensitivity of the MNA-SF and W

143 is the width of the confidence interval.

144

145 In this study, we set the sensitivity of the MNA-SF at 85%, which was

146 reported previously⁽¹³⁾. If the standard normal deviate was 1.96 (with a 95%

147 confidence level), the width of the confidence interval being ± 0.10 , the required

148 sample size of individuals with malnutrition was 196. Based on our previous study, the
149 expected prevalence of malnutrition was 42%⁽³⁾. Hence, we set 2 years of the study period to
150 collect a sample of 467 participants.

151

152 *Statistical analysis*

153 All statistical analyses were performed using the IBM Statistical Package for the Social
154 Sciences, version 21 (IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY). In this study, two dimensions of
155 validity (concurrent and predictive) were assessed. We divided all study participants into the
156 malnutrition group (M) and non-malnutrition group (non-M) based on the results of the
157 ESPEN-DCM to test the concurrent validity. Then, we plotted the receiver-operating
158 characteristics curves by using the MNA-SF and GNRI to define malnutrition and evaluated
159 area under the curve. We adopted the following two approaches to determine the optimal cut-
160 off value: (1) the value with the maximum Youden index (sensitivity [Se] + specificity [Sp] –
161 1)⁽³¹⁾, which might be optimal for detecting malnutrition and (2) the value with >90% of the
162 sensitivity and >50% of the specificity, which might be appropriate for screening malnutrition.
163 Furthermore, we used the criteria⁽³²⁾, good (both Se and Sp: >0.8), fair (either Se and Sp: <0.8;
164 both Se and Sp: >0.5) and poor (either Se and Sp: <0.5) to assess the overall capacity for
165 malnutrition screening of each tool. Furthermore, we evaluated the kappa value (κ) to confirm
166 the accuracy.

167 We used two outcome measures to test the predictive validity, ⁽¹⁾ the Functional
168 Independence Measure (FIM) at discharge, as an indicator of ADL and ⁽²⁾ discharging
169 destination (home, long-term care facilities or hospitals/acute care hospitals). The FIM is one
170 of the leading indicators of ADL⁽³³⁾, which comprises 18 domains (13 motor domains and 5
171 cognitive domains) and each domain is scored between 1 (total assistance) and 7 (complete
172 independence). The total FIM score ranges from 18 to 126. Furthermore, we classified the

173 individual data by using the ESPEN-DCM (M and non-M groups), MNA-SF and GNRI
174 (based on the predetermined cut-off value for detecting and screening malnutrition) and
175 compared the outcome measures between the groups.

176 In this study, the parametric data are expressed as mean (SD), whereas non-
177 parametric data are presented as the median and interquartile range (IQR). We
178 compared the basic characteristics and outcome measures between two groups by using
179 the unpaired *t*-test, χ^2 test, Fisher's exact test and Mann-Whitney U-test and Kruskal-
180 Wallis test appropriately, followed by Bonferroni correction or Dunn test for multiple
181 comparison (>2 groups). In addition, we performed multivariable regression analyses
182 to assess the impact of malnutrition on the outcomes by the linear regression analysis
183 and binary logistic regression analysis appropriately. Variables exhibited a marked
184 difference between the M and non-M groups in the univariate analysis and were
185 included for the multivariable analysis. We considered the statistical significance at *P*
186 < 0.05.

187

188 **Results**

189 Figure 1 outlines the flow diagram of the malnutrition diagnosis. During the
190 study period, data from 520 patients were obtained. Of these, we excluded 26 patients
191 because of no Alb data, 2 because of the uncertain diagnosis of stroke and 72 owing to
192 the unavailability of the usual body weight. Finally, we enrolled 420 patients for the
193 data analysis. Based on the ESPEN-DCM, 125 patients were assigned to the M group
194 and 295 to the non-M group.

195 Table 1 presents patients' demographic data. Patients in the M group were older,
196 had a higher proportion of females, subarachnoid haemorrhage, dysphagia and
197 certification of LTCI than those in the non-M group. In addition, the M group exhibited

198 longer onset-admission duration, less frequency of cerebral infarction and dyslipidaemia and
199 lowered FIM than those in the non-M group. The receiver-operating characteristics curves
200 suggested that the area under the curve of both the MNA-SF and GNRI were 0.890 and 0.865,
201 respectively (Figure 2). Based on the Youden index, the MNA-SF scores of 5 (Se: 0.784; Sp:
202 0.847) and 7 points (Se: 0.960; Sp: 0.570) were optimal to detect and screen malnutrition,
203 respectively. Conversely, the well-established cut-off value for ‘at risk of malnutrition’ (≤ 11
204 points) revealed the markedly low Sp (0.017; Table 2). Furthermore, the optimal cut-off value
205 of the GNRI to detect malnutrition was 92 (Se: 0.744; Sp: 0.841) and 98 (Se: 0.928; Sp: 0.502),
206 which were equal to the well-established cut-off value for moderate or severe and mild
207 malnutrition risk, respectively.

208 At discharge, the M group exhibited a lower FIM (median: 80 vs. 114; $P < 0.001$),
209 higher frequency of discharge for acute care hospitals (26% vs. 14%; $P < 0.001$) and fewer
210 returning home (49% vs. 77%; $P < 0.001$). Likewise, individuals with the lowest score of the
211 MNA-SF and GNRI exhibited a markedly lower FIM and less opportunity to return to home
212 (Table 3). After adjustment for covariates, a GNRI score of < 92 was considerably associated
213 with the discharge to acute care hospitals (odds ratio [OR]: 3.12, 95% confidence interval [CI]:
214 1.09–8.92), whereas we observed no correlation between the MNA-SF or ESPEN-DCM and
215 the outcome measures (Table 4). In addition, we observed differences in the predictive capacity
216 between two criteria of the ESPEN-DCM on outcome measures; malnutrition defined by BMI
217 $< 18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$ markedly predicted a low FIM at discharge (B: -4.85, 95%CI: -9.61–0.08), high
218 tendency for a transfer to acute care hospitals (OR: 2.76, 95%CI: 1.29–5.89) and low possibility
219 for return to home (OR: 0.30, 95%CI: 0.15–0.58), whereas such predictive ability was not
220 found when malnutrition was confirmed by weight loss and low BMI or FFMI.

221

222 **Discussion**

223 This study presented two clinical findings. Firstly, when the cut-off values of 5
224 and 7 points were applied, the MNA-SF exhibits fair concurrent and predictive validity
225 for malnutrition and rehabilitation outcomes in patients with stroke in convalescent
226 rehabilitation wards, although its predictive nature disappeared after the multivariable
227 analysis. Secondly, the GNRI also exhibits fair concurrent validity and predictive
228 validity for a worsened clinical condition.

229 In this study, the MNA-SF exhibited high accuracy with malnutrition defined
230 by the ESPEN-DCM, whereas the appropriate cut-off value (5 or 7 points) was far from
231 the well-established one (7 or 11 points). A cross-sectional study reported that the
232 MNA-SF might pose a risk of overestimation of malnutrition when using a cut-off value
233 of 11 points because of markedly low specificity in elderly adults in a rehabilitation unit
234 ⁽¹⁵⁾ or geriatric care hospital ⁽³⁴⁾. In addition, we previously reported that 99% of
235 convalescent stroke patients assessed as ‘at risk of malnutrition’ if 11 points of the
236 MNA-SF was used for malnutrition screening ⁽³⁾. Perhaps, the lower cut-off score of
237 the MNA-SF might be appropriate for patients with stroke because some of the sub-
238 scores of this tool, such as mobility or neuropsychological problems, could also be
239 diminished by stroke sequela *per se* (i.e. hemiparesis or aphasia). From the perspective
240 of the clinical practice, we recommended that elderly adults after stroke during the
241 rehabilitation period should be screened by ≤ 7 points of the MNA-SF, whereas
242 malnutrition can be identified by ≤ 5 points in this population.

243 Initially, the GNRI was developed as the indicator for nutritional risk ⁽¹⁶⁾.
244 However, it is not assumed as an indicator of the nutritional status ^(16, 19) because of its
245 dependence on objective biomarkers and low accuracy for the reference standard of
246 malnutrition ⁽¹⁹⁾. Conversely, this study demonstrated that the GNRI with the
247 established criteria (92 and 98 points) is useful for detecting and screening malnutrition

248 in geriatric patients with stroke in the rehabilitation phase. Perhaps, characteristics of
249 malnutrition of stroke survivors and timing of the nutritional assessment partially explain this
250 explain this inconsistency. As malnutrition in patients with stroke is primarily caused by
251 dysphasia ⁽¹⁾, it is classified as ‘disease-related malnutrition without inflammation’ ⁽³⁵⁾. In
252 addition, this study enrolled only patients with stroke in the rehabilitation phase. Thus, the
253 effect of factors affecting the Alb (i.e. components of the GNRI), such as inflammation and
254 disease stress, in this population might be weaker than acute or inflammatory diseases.
255 However, cautious interpretation is warranted because the serum albumin does not represent
256 the nutritional status in elderly adults with low ADL ⁽³⁶⁾. Hence, comprehensive assessment of
257 the nutritional status, including inflammation and hydration status, must be followed when
258 applying the GNRI for nutritional screening.

259 Consistent with the concurrent validity, this study demonstrated the predictive validity
260 of the tools and definitive malnutrition for the ADL at discharge or discharge destination.
261 However, the predictive nature of malnutrition disappeared after adjusting confounding factors,
262 except for the GNRI against transfer to acute care hospital. In addition, only one criterion of
263 the ESPEN-DCM (BMI <18.5 kg/m²) was an independent explanatory factor for the discharge
264 FIM and return to home, although other criteria (weight loss and low BMI or FFMI) did not
265 exhibit the predictive capacity. Often, patients with stroke experience a reduction in their body
266 weight, with approximately 3 kg in the acute phase, particularly in those with higher than the
267 normal body weight ⁽³⁷⁾. A decreased body weight could be attributed to muscle atrophy that is
268 primarily caused in paretic limbs ⁽³⁸⁾ and the diminished nutritional intake because of dysphasia
269 ⁽³⁹⁾. Thus, it could be hypothesised that a combination of the loss of the body weight during the
270 acute phase and the current BMI or FFMI reflect not only the nutritional status but also the
271 severity of hemiparesis or a favourable loss of the body weight in overweight/obese patients,
272 which could often be caused unintentionally. Conversely, the malnourished status at the time

273 of onset can predict clinical outcomes ^(4,5). Probably, individuals with BMI <18.5 kg/m²
274 in this study included one who had developed malnutrition before the stroke onset; thus,
275 the ESPEN-DCM based on the low BMI solely exerted more impact on rehabilitation
276 outcomes.

277 This study has several limitations. Firstly, we did not acquire the measured
278 FFMI by the bioimpedance analysis or dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry in this study
279 because of its retrospective nature. Instead, we substituted the eFFMI for the measured
280 FFMI. Secondly, we could not adjust all potential confounders, such as the severity of
281 the stroke, in the multivariable analysis because these were not included in the original
282 dataset. However, we used the admission FIM, which correlates with the stroke
283 severity ⁽⁴⁰⁾.

284 In conclusion, the MNA-SF (using 5 points for detecting malnutrition and 7
285 points for malnutrition screening) and GNRI (using a score of 92 and 98, respectively)
286 exhibit fair concurrent validity in elderly patients with stroke during the rehabilitation
287 phase. Although the predictive validity of these tools was partially indicated, their
288 capacity might also be caused as a proxy of the confounders, such as the severity of a
289 functional limitation by stroke itself. Different characteristics of two criteria used in
290 the ESPEN-DCM might contribute to this inconsistent relationship. The findings of
291 this study can be generalised to all patients with stroke in the sub-acute or
292 rehabilitation setting; however, whether it can be applied to patients with acute stroke
293 or patients other than the Asian population remains unclear. Hence, further studies are
294 warranted to verify the cut-off value of the MNA-SF and GNRI derived from our study
295 for broader patients.

296

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301

302

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419 **Figure legends**

420 **Figure 1.** Flow diagram of study participants

421 **Figure 2.** The receiver-operating characteristics curve of two malnutrition screening tools for
422 malnutrition based on the reference standard. A, the Mini Nutritional Assessment Short-Form
423 (MNA-SF); B, the Geriatric Nutritional Risk Index (GNRI).

424

425 **Transparency Declaration**

426 The lead author affirms that this manuscript is an honest, accurate, and transparent account of
427 the study being reported. The reporting of this work is compliant with STARD guidelines.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of 420 elderly patients with stroke in the convalescent rehabilitation wards

	Overall	M	non-M	<i>P</i>
Number of subjects	420	125	295	
Age, years, mean (SD)	78.1 (7.9)	80.1 (8.0)	77.2 (7.6)	<0.001 ^b
Female, <i>n</i> (%)	171 (40.7)	61 (48.8)	110 (37.3)	0.028 ^c
Onset-admission duration, days, median (IQR)	24 (18–34)	28 (20–40.5)	23 (17–32)	<0.001 ^d
Stroke subtype, <i>n</i> (%)				0.019 ^c
Cerebral infarction	296 (70.5)	78 (62.4)*	218 (73.9)*	
Intracerebral hemorrhage	105 (25.0)	37 (29.6)	68 (23.1)	
Subarachnoid hemorrhage	19 (4.5)	10 (8.0)*	9 (3.1)*	
Stroke region, <i>n</i> (%)				0.095 ^c
Supratentorial	321 (76.4)	95 (76.0)	226 (76.6)	
Infratentorial	39 (9.3)	8 (6.4)	31 (10.5)	
Both	41 (9.8)	12 (9.6)	29 (9.8)	
Not classifiable	19 (4.5)	10 (8.0)	9 (3.1)	
Paralysis, <i>n</i> (%)				0.173 ^c
Hemiplegia	316 (75.2)	99 (79.2)	217 (73.6)	
Tetraplegia	18 (4.3)	7 (5.6)	11 (3.7)	
Absence	86 (20.5)	19 (15.2)	67 (22.7)	
Disabilities, <i>n</i> (%)				
Dysphagia	162 (38.6)	76 (60.8)	86 (29.2)	<0.001 ^c
Aphasia	94 (22.4)	34 (27.2)	60 (20.3)	0.123 ^c
Dysarthria	94 (22.4)	46 (36.8)	124 (42.0)	0.318 ^c
Comorbidities, <i>n</i> (%)				
Diabetes mellitus	104 (24.8)	26 (20.8)	78 (26.4)	0.221 ^c
Dyslipidemia	151 (36.0)	25 (20.0)	126 (42.7)	<0.001 ^c
Hypertension	347 (82.6)	98 (78.4)	249 (84.4)	0.137 ^c

Artificial fibrillation	130 (31.0)	39 (31.2)	91 (30.8)	0.943 ^c
Chronic kidney disease	48 (11.4)	9 (7.2)	39 (13.2)	0.076 ^c
Recurrent stroke, <i>n</i> (%)	113 (26.9)	31 (24.8)	82 (27.8)	0.527 ^c
Pre-stroke ADL, dependent, <i>n</i> (%) ^a	82 (19.5)	33 (26.4)	49 (16.6)	0.021 ^c
Total-FIM, median (IQR)	70 (40.3–93)	45 (25–75)	79 (54–101)	<0.001 ^d
BMI, kg/m ² , mean (SD)	22.1 (3.6)	18.2 (2.1)	24.0 (2.6)	<0.001 ^b
eFFMI, kg/m ² , median (IQR)	16.6 (14.7–18.3)	14.9 (12.3–16.3)	17.6 (15.4–18.8)	<0.001 ^d

M, malnutrition group; non-M, non-malnutrition group; SD, standard deviation; IQR, interquartile range; ADL, activities of daily living; FIM, the Functional Independence Measure; BMI, body mass index; eFFMI, estimated fat-free mass index.

^aDefined by the pre-stroke certification for the public long-term care insurance ‘care level 1’ or more.

^bUnpaired *t*-test, ^cChi-square test, ^dMann–Whitney *U*-test.

**P* <0.05 for other group by Bonferroni correction

Table 2. The accuracy of the MNA-SF and GNRI using various cut-off values against the diagnostic criteria for malnutrition

	Se	Sp	The Youden index
MNA-SF			
≤5 ^a	0.784	0.847	0.631
≤7 ^b	0.960	0.573	0.533
≤11	1.000	0.017	0.017
GNRI			
<92 ^a	0.744	0.841	0.585
<98 ^b	0.928	0.502	0.430

MNA-SF, Mini Nutritional Assessment Short-Form; GNRI, Geriatric Nutritional Risk Index; Se, sensitivity; Sp, specificity.

^aOptimal cut-off value for definitive malnutrition determined by the Yonden index.

^bOptimal cut-off value for malnutrition screening determined by Se > 90% and Sp >50%.

Table 3. The predictive capacity of the MNA-SF and GNRI based on the new cut-off value

	MNA-SF				GNRI	
	0–5	6–7	8–14	< 92	92– < 98	> 98
Number of subject	143	103	174	139	124	157
Discharge FIM	71 (36–105)*	105 (69–119)*	119.5 (109.8–123)*	71 (35–102)*	109 (79.3–120)*	120 (110.5–123)*
Discharge destination, <i>N</i> (%)						
Home	66 (46.1) [†]	71 (68.9) [†]	152 (87.4) [†]	62 (44.6) [†]	91 (73.4) [†]	136 (86.6) [†]
Long-term care	40 (28.0) [†]	13 (12.6) [†]	6 (3.4) [†]	34 (24.5) [†]	15 (12.1)	10 (6.4)
Acute care hospital	37 (25.9) [‡]	19 (18.4)	16 (9.2)	43 (30.9) [†]	18 (14.5)	11 (7.0)

MNA-SF, Mini Nutritional Assessment Short-Form; GNRI, Geriatric Nutritional Risk Index; FIM, Functional Independence Measure.

* $P < 0.001$ for other groups by Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn test

[†] $P < 0.05$ for other groups by chi-squared test and Bonferroni correction

[‡] $P < 0.05$ for the group with a score of 8–14 by chi-squared test and Bonferroni correction

Table 4. The multivariable analysis for the various outcome measures using the ESPEN-DCM, MNA-SF and GNRI

Outcome measures	ESPEN-DCM		MNA-SF ^b		GNRI ^c		
	Overall	Criterion 1 ^a	Criterion 2 ^a	0–5	6–7	<92	92–<98
FIM at discharge (Continuous)							
B	–2.20 (–6.22 to 1.81)	–4.85 (–9.61 to –0.08)*	2.12 (–3.19 to 7.43)	–0.48 (–5.57 to 4.61)	0.15 (–4.42 to 4.72)	–3.56 (–8.66 to 1.54)	2.11 (–2.26 to 6.47)
Discharge destination							
Home							
OR ^d	0.63 (0.37–1.09)	0.30 (0.15– 0.58)*	2.12 (0.98–4.60)	0.68 (0.33–1.40)	0.80 (0.40–1.63)	0.59 (0.29–1.22)	0.92 (0.46–1.87)
Long-term care							
OR ^d	1.58 (0.81–3.08)	1.39 (0.67–2.88)	1.41 (0.59–3.39)	2.04 (0.69–6.04)	1.47 (0.49–4.42)	0.80 (0.30–2.12)	0.86 (0.33–2.28)
Acute care							
OR ^d	1.46 (0.73–2.93)	2.76 (1.29– 5.89)*	0.37 (0.11–1.28)	1.16 (0.44–3.05)	1.48 (0.59–3.70)	3.12 (1.09– 8.92)*	1.89 (0.69–5.14)

ESPEN-DCM, European Society for Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition diagnostic criteria for malnutrition; MNA-SF, Mini Nutritional Assessment Short-Form; GNRI, Geriatric Nutritional Risk Index; FIM, Functional Independence Measure; OR, odds ratio; BMI, body mass index.

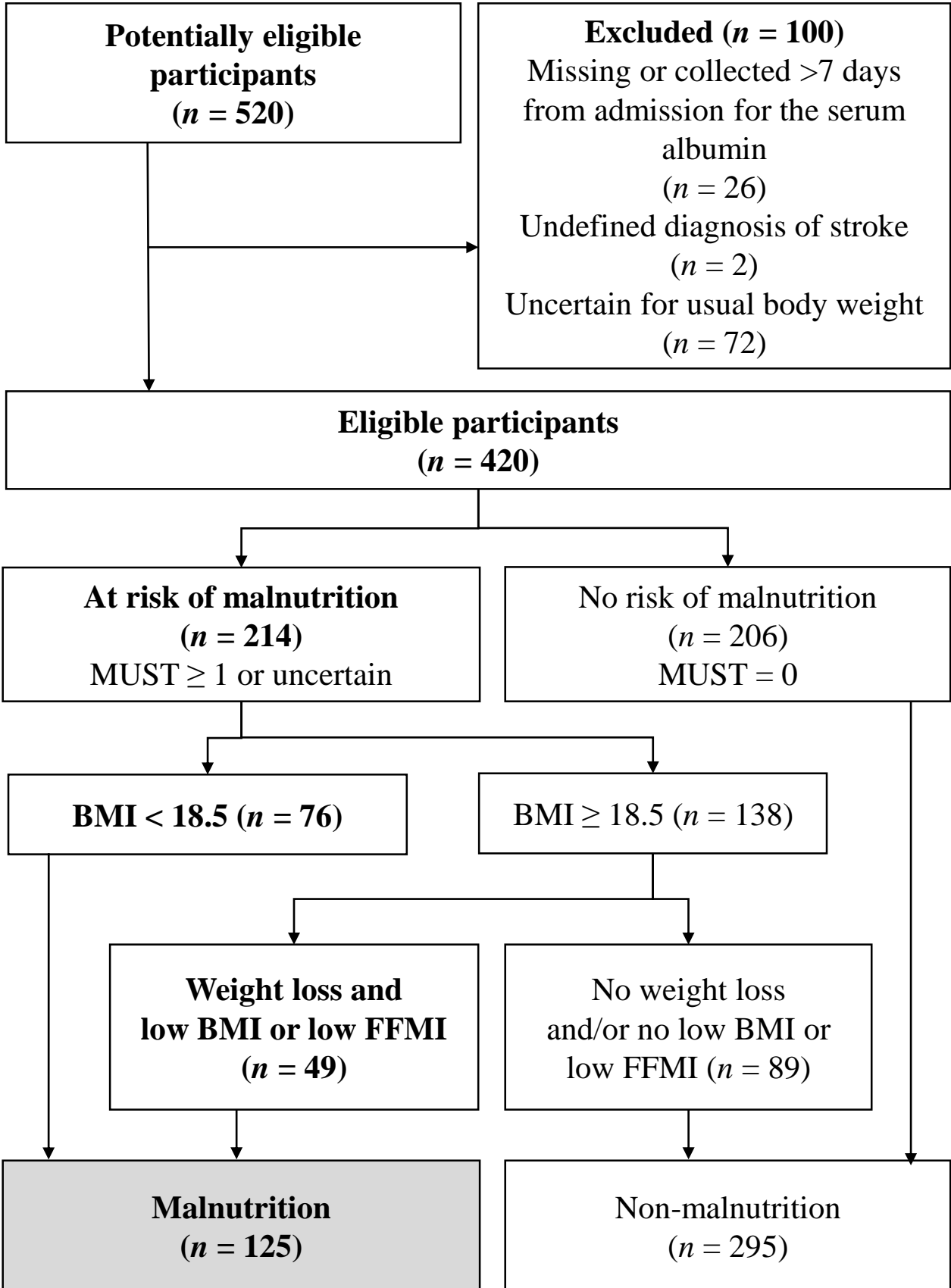
^aAlternative ways for identifying malnutrition by the ESPEN-DCM: criterion 1, BMI < 18.5 kg/m²; criterion 2, unintentional weight loss (>5% per 3 months or >10% for undefined time) and low BMI (<20 kg/m² for individuals aged <70 years or < 22 kg/m² for those aged ≥70 years) or low fat-free mass index (<15 kg/m² for females or <17 kg/m² for males).

^bReference value: 8–14 points, ^cReference value: ≥98.

^dAdjusted for age, sex, onset-admission duration, stroke type (reference: cerebral infarction) dysphagia, dyslipidemia and FIM at admission.

**P* < 0.05

Figure 1



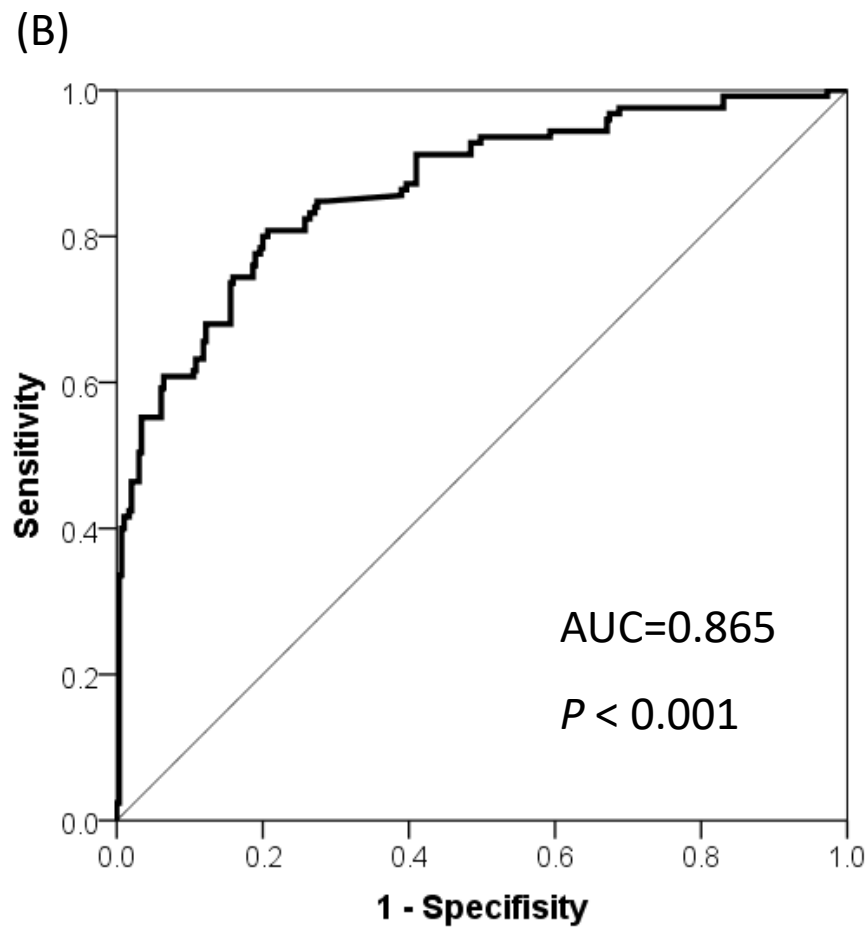
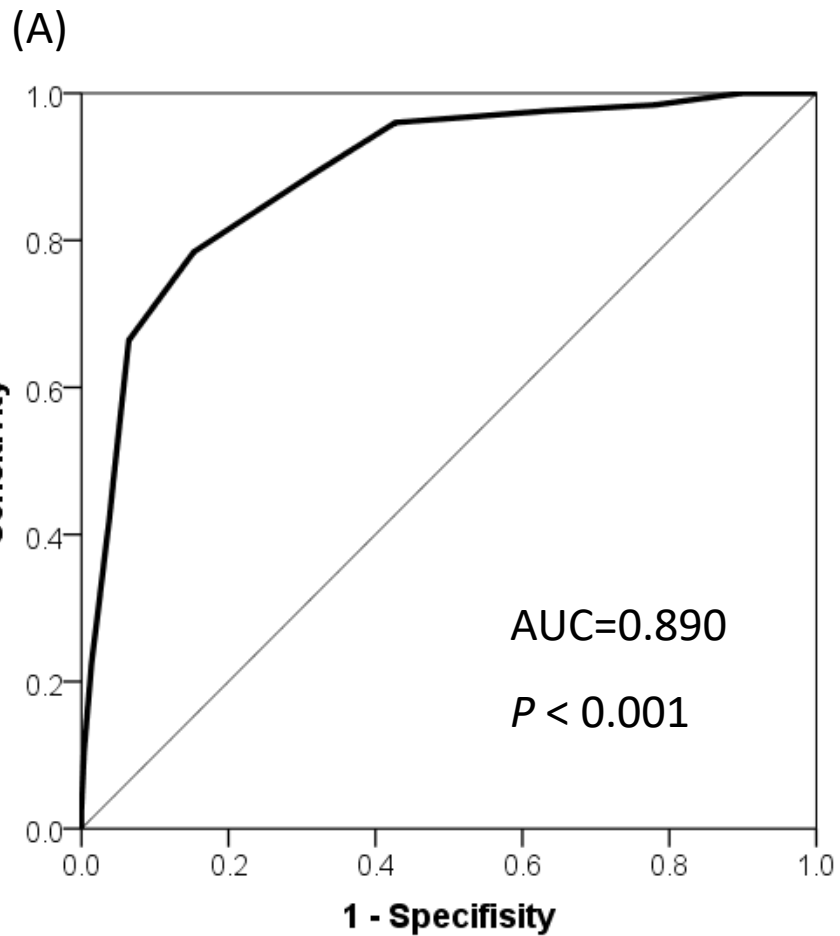


Figure 2