

Current landscape of nutrition within prehabilitation oncology research: A scoping review

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All authors have made substantial contributions to the following: CG, SD and MW designed the research; CG and SD carried out the data collection; all authors edited, read and approved the final manuscript.

Keywords

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Abstract

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Background: Prehabilitation aims to improve functional capacity prior to cancer treatment to achieve better psychosocial and clinical outcomes. Prehabilitation interventions vary considerably in design and delivery. In order to identify gaps in knowledge and facilitate the design of future studies, we undertook a scoping review of prehabilitation studies: to map the range of work on prehabilitation being carried out in any cancer type and with a particular focus on diet or nutrition interventions.

Objectives: Firstly, to describe the type of prehabilitation programs currently being conducted. Secondly, to describe the extent to which prehabilitation studies involved aspects of nutrition, including assessment, interventions, implementation, and outcomes.

Eligibility criteria: Any study of quantitative or qualitative design that employed a formal prehabilitation program before cancer treatment ("prehabilitation" listed in keywords, title, or abstract).

Sources of evidence: Search was conducted in July 2020 using MEDLINE, PubMed, EMBASE, EMCARE, CINAHL, and AMED.

Results: 550 unique articles were identified: 110 studies met inclusion criteria of a formal prehabilitation study in oncology.

Prehabilitation studies were mostly cohort studies (41%) or randomized-controlled trials (38%) of multi-modal (49%) or exercise-only (44%) interventions that were applied before surgery (94%). Nutrition assessment was inconsistently applied across these studies, and often conducted without validated tools (48%). Of the 110 studies, 37 (34%) included a nutrition intervention component. Only half of these studies stated the goal for the nutrition component of their prehabilitation program; only 43% referenced accepted nutrition guidelines in surgery or oncology. Nutrition interventions largely consisted of counselling and dietary supplementation. The nutrition intervention was indiscernible in 24% of studies. Two-thirds of studies did not monitor the nutrition intervention nor evaluate nutrition outcomes.

Conclusion: Prehabilitation literature lacks standardized and validated nutritional assessment, is frequently conducted without employing evidence-based nutrition interventions and is typically implemented without monitoring the nutrition intervention or evaluating the intervention's contribution to outcomes. We suggest the development of a core outcome set would improve the quality of the studies, enable pooling of evidence and address some of the research gaps identified.

Contribution to the field

The overarching goal of this scoping review was to provide an overview of current prehabilitation practices in oncology, to identify the extent to which prehabilitation programs involved nutrition, including assessment, interventions, implementation, and outcomes and to generate recommendations for future studies based on identified gaps. We found that prehabilitation literature lacks standardized and validated nutritional assessment, is frequently conducted without employing evidence-based nutrition interventions and is typically implemented without monitoring the nutrition intervention or evaluating the intervention's contribution to outcomes. We suggest the development of a core outcome set would improve the quality of the studies, enable pooling of evidence and address some of the research gaps identified. We believe it would appeal to the Frontiers readership as part of the Personalised Multimodal Prehabilitation in Cancer by facilitating the design of future studies that could help to improve coherence and evaluation of the nutritional aspects of prehabilitation in clinical practice.

Data availability statement

Generated Statement: The original contributions presented in the study are included in the article/supplementary material, further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding author/s.

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32 **Structured Abstract**

33 *Background:* Prehabilitation aims to improve functional capacity prior to cancer treatment to achieve
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35 and delivery. In order to identify gaps in knowledge and facilitate the design of future studies, we
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47 charted using a framework analysis that reflects the Nutrition Care Process Model: assessment,
48 intervention and monitoring/evaluation of the nutrition intervention.

49 *Results:* 550 unique articles were identified: 110 studies met inclusion criteria of a formal
50 prehabilitation study in oncology. Prehabilitation studies were mostly cohort studies (41%) or
51 randomized-controlled trials (38%) of multi-modal (49%) or exercise-only (44%) interventions that
52 were applied before surgery (94%). Nutrition assessment was inconsistently applied across these
53 studies, and often conducted without validated tools (46%). Of the 110 studies, 37 (34%) included a
54 nutrition intervention component. Half of these studies stated the goal for the nutrition component of
55 their prehabilitation program; only 24% referenced accepted nutrition guidelines in surgery or
56 oncology. Nutrition interventions largely consisted of counselling and dietary supplementation. The
57 nutrition intervention was indiscernible in 24% of studies. Two-thirds of studies did not monitor the
58 nutrition intervention nor evaluate nutrition outcomes.

59 *Conclusion:* Prehabilitation literature lacks standardized and validated nutritional assessment, is
60 frequently conducted without evidence-based nutrition interventions and is typically implemented
61 without monitoring the nutrition intervention or evaluating the intervention’s contribution to
62 outcomes. We suggest the development of a core outcome set could improve the quality of the
63 studies, enable pooling of evidence and address some of the research gaps identified.

64 **Background**

65 Prehabilitation interventions can be applied prior to oncological treatments, including surgery,
66 to fortify functional reserve and enhance functional capacity to prepare patients to weather the
67 imminent physiological and psychological stresses of treatment(1). Preoperative functional capacity
68 is predictive of post-surgical outcomes, such as morbidity in colorectal surgery(2, 3). As an example,
69 frail patients who cannot attain a 400m six-minute walking distance before surgery suffer three times
70 as many post-surgical complications as those who can walk this distance(2). In the same way, there is
71 an extensive body of evidence that those who are undernourished, as marked by a history of weight
72 loss and symptoms indicative of poor nutritional state, have greater surgical morbidity and

73 mortality(4). Several prospective studies have identified that unimodal (e.g., exercise-only
74 interventions) and multimodal (e.g., exercise interventions with nutrition optimization and/or
75 psychological intervention) prehabilitation programs can be carried out successfully in the period
76 before surgery to improve preoperative functional capacity(5-8).

77 The findings of available systematic reviews of prehabilitation, however, are somewhat
78 inconsistent regarding effectiveness of the intervention on outcomes such as postoperative
79 complications(9, 10). These seeming contradictions are in part related to the heterogeneity of study
80 populations, study designs, and study interventions that often cannot be melded together into one
81 message for prehabilitation(11). Undernutrition, for instance, leads to adaptive mechanisms that tend
82 to reduce energy expenditure in part by reducing physical activity and basal metabolism with
83 conservation of reserves(12). As a result, malnourished patients participating in exercise-only
84 prehabilitation might not be able to engage with or adapt to exercise and improve their functional
85 capacity prior to surgery as well as those who are better nourished(2). The inconsistent findings of
86 these reviews may also be attributed to the scarcity of process measures/ implementation outcomes
87 reported in the prehabilitation literature. Synthesizing and reporting data on the effectiveness of an
88 intervention *only* limits conclusions: success or failure of any intervention is a combination of
89 treatment effectiveness (in terms of both improved functional endpoints e.g., nutrition/exercise and
90 the impact on clinical outcomes e.g., reduced postoperative complications) together with its
91 implementation factors(13). Few, if any, reviews of prehabilitation have reported implementation
92 factors that might influence the effectiveness of the program.

93 While systematic reviews summarize and assess the quality of the collective evidence of a
94 given topic, scoping reviews determine the coverage of a body of literature on a specific topic to
95 identify the available evidence, to examine how research in the field was conducted, and to identify
96 and assess knowledge gaps(14). We conducted a scoping review to determine *what* and *how*
97 interventions have been incorporated as part of prehabilitation in the oncology setting. That is, we
98 sought to identify the type of interventions currently being conducted within prehabilitation
99 programs, the patient populations being studied, and the study designs that have been used in
100 research specifically labeled as “prehabilitation” (i.e., “what”). Additionally, given the relationship
101 between nutrition and functional capacity, we sought to determine the extent to which prehabilitation
102 studies involved nutrition, including assessment, interventions, implementation, and outcomes (i.e.,
103 “how”). We aimed to identify any research limitations or omissions that could usefully inform future
104 research design, conduct and interpretation or that could help improve the coherence and delivery of
105 the nutritional aspects of prehabilitation in clinical practice.

106 **Methods**

107 We performed a scoping review of the literature based on the framework outlined by Arksey
108 and O’Malley(15), recommendations of Levac et al(16), and in accordance with the Preferred
109 Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews
110 (PRISMA-ScR).The review included the following five key phases: (1) identifying the research
111 question, (2) identifying relevant studies, (3) study selection, (4) charting the data, and (5) collating,
112 summarizing, and reporting the results. A project team consisting of health researchers, physicians,
113 dietitians, an epidemiologist, and perioperative clinic managers were established to develop the
114 research question and oversee the study.

115 *Identifying the research question*

116 The overarching goal of this scoping review was to provide an overview of current
117 prehabilitation practices in oncology, to identify the extent to which prehabilitation programs
118 included nutrition, and to generate recommendations for future studies based on identified gaps. Our
119 research questions were as follows:

- 120 1. What are the study, patient, and intervention characteristics of published prehabilitation studies?
- 121 2. How many prehabilitation studies were conducted with a nutrition treatment component?
- 122 3. What are the specific i) nutrition assessments, ii) interventions, iii) process measures (monitoring
123 and evaluation), and iv) nutrition outcomes associated with the prehabilitation studies that included a
124 nutrition treatment component?

125 *Identifying relevant studies*

126 Given that our goal was to map current research practices in prehabilitation, we focused our
127 scoping review to studies of interventions applied prior to oncology treatment that were identified as
128 either unimodal or multimodal prehabilitation. That is, published work, including protocols, that
129 contained the term “prehabilitation” in the title, abstract, or keywords. We further refined our scoping
130 review to target studies that included oncological patients. We did not set a time limit to the search to
131 ensure as much evidence as possible was captured.

132 We used broad search terms that encompassed prehab* or pre-hab* or pre-rehab* AND
133 cancer* or oncolog* or malignan*. The final search was conducted in July 2020 using MEDLINE,
134 PubMed, EMBASE, EMCARE, CINAHL, and AMED. Hand searching the reference lists of key
135 papers, including all identified systematic reviews and meta-analyses of prehabilitation, were also
136 conducted.

137 *Study selection*

138 Two reviewers (CG and SD) independently reviewed titles and abstracts for inclusion.
139 Articles were considered for full-text review if inclusion criteria were met: 1) a quantitative or
140 qualitative study of a “prehabilitation” program; and, 2) ~~included the sample included more than 50%~~
141 adult patients (age >18 years) with cancer ~~(or where the majority of participants reported in the study~~
142 ~~have cancer)~~, treated with surgery or other oncological therapies. Studies were excluded if they were
143 narrative reviews, editorials, commentaries, conference abstracts, or were published in a language
144 other than English or French. Selected articles for full text review were then independently reviewed
145 by the two reviewers. Disagreements were addressed by discussion and consensus.

146 *Charting the data*

147 The data extraction template (Microsoft 2010, Redmond, WA) was developed in consultation
148 with the project team and included study design, cancer type, specification of the prehabilitation
149 program, primary outcome measure, and whether nutrition was part of the formal prehabilitation trial
150 by including the use of nutritional screening/assessment or nutrition treatment. Of the studies
151 identified as having a nutrition treatment or intervention component, quantitative and qualitative data
152 were collected on: (1) method of nutritional assessment, (2) validated nutrition screening or
153 assessment tool, (3) goal of the nutrition intervention including the reference standard or accepted
154 nutritional guideline, (4) characteristics of the nutrition intervention, (5) evaluation and monitoring of
155 the intervention, and (6) nutrition outcomes. Two researchers (CG and SD) independently extracted
156 data for the first ten studies to refine the data form and ensure consistent data extraction that
157 adequately reflected the research question.

158 *Collating and summarizing results*

159 Quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequencies). Qualitative data
 160 were charted using a framework analysis that reflects the Nutrition Care Process Model:
 161 assessment/diagnosis, intervention, monitoring/evaluation of the nutrition intervention(17). The study
 162 team were consulted in the interpretation of the findings, identifying research gaps and creating
 163 suggestions for future research.

164 **Results**165 *Search results*

166 Our search identified 550 unique articles (Figure 1). After abstract screening, 121 articles
 167 were suitable for full-text review. Hand searching did not produce any further unique articles. Eleven
 168 articles were subsequently excluded because of language (n=1), a narrative review (n=3), a
 169 conference abstract (n=1), no preoperative intervention (n=1), or did not pertain to a prehabilitation
 170 program (n=5). The latter studies included qualitative studies of patient priorities for future
 171 prehabilitation programs, studies of preoperative risk, as well as a validation study for tools that
 172 could be used in prehabilitation research (i.e., a study of a prehabilitation program was not conducted
 173 in any of these studies). One-hundred and ten studies were included in the final review, of these, 34%
 174 (n= 37) included a nutrition intervention component.

175 *All prehabilitation studies*

176 Table 1 describes the findings for all of the prehabilitation studies. ~~These studies, which~~ were
 177 published between 2012 and 2020. Of these 110 studies, 56% (n=61) were identified as primary
 178 research studies; 57% of the prehabilitation studies arose from Europe (n=63) and 21% from Canada
 179 (n=23). The primary studies were largely conducted as cohort designs (n=25; 41%) and randomized
 180 controlled trials (RCTs) (n=23; 38%). Systematic reviews, meta-analyses, and pooled analyses
 181 comprised 23% (n=25) of the prehabilitation literature. Functional (n=40; 36%) and clinical (n=25;
 182 23%) measures were the most frequently reported primary outcomes.

183 Most of the prehabilitation literature described multi-modal (n=54, 49%) or exercise-only
 184 prehabilitation (n=48, 44%); two studies reported interventions that were exclusively nutrition-
 185 related (2%) whilst one study reported an intervention that was exclusively psychological (1%). We
 186 identified that surgical prehabilitation made up 94% of the literature, with the rest undergoing
 187 definitive non-surgical oncological treatments. The most studied patient populations were colorectal
 188 cancer (n=35; 32%) and mixed cancer types (n=33; 30%).

189 Screening or assessment for malnutrition was conducted in one third of prehabilitation studies
 190 (n=33); approximately half of these studies used a validated tool (n=17) and 39% of these studies
 191 (n=13) employed a registered dietitian to conduct the screening or assessment. The person who
 192 conducted the screening/assessment was not specified in 45% of these studies.

193 *Prehabilitation studies with a nutrition treatment component*

194 Tables 2 and 3 describe the quantitative and qualitative findings of the prehabilitation studies
 195 with a nutrition treatment component. Only 37 of the 110 studies of prehabilitation and cancer had a
 196 nutrition treatment component. The study designs were as follows: ~~10-27% (n=10)~~ were protocols
 197 (18-27), ~~5-14% (n=5)~~ were pilot studies (8, 28-31), ~~2-5% (n=2)~~ were descriptions of prehabilitation

198 programs (32, 33), ~~1~~ 3% (n=1) ~~was-were~~ a case reports (34), 3% (n=1) ~~was-were~~ feasibility studies
199 ~~y~~(35) and ~~1~~ 3% were was-a qualitative studies ~~y~~(36). Of these 37 studies, 30% (n=11) studies were
200 cohort studies(37-47) and 16% (n=6) were RCTs(48-53).

201 *Nutritional assessment within prehabilitation*

202 Seventy-eight percent (n=29) of the 37 identified studies included a statement regarding the
203 conduct of nutritional assessment (n=8 studies did not include a nutritional assessment statement(20,
204 26, 32, 36, 39, 43, 45, 47)); however, the application of assessment was inconsistent across studies.
205 Each study used a different method for nutritional assessment, with mMost studies using ed a
206 combination of various nutritional assessment tools, parameters and indicators; however, no two
207 studies employed the same method for nutritional assessment. The most commonly used tools to
208 screen or assess for malnutrition were Subjective Global Assessment /Patient-Generated- Subjective
209 Global Assessment(8, 27, 31, 35, 51), Nutrition Risk Screening-2002(8, 19, 51, 52), Mini Nutritional
210 Assessment(23, 28, 40, 41), Simplified Nutritional Appetite Questionnaire(23, 37, 41), and
211 Malnutrition Universal Screening Tool(22, 46). The most common nutritional parameters were
212 prealbumin or albumin(18, 19, 23, 34, 38, 41, 46), which were reported by 19% (n=7) of studies as a
213 nutritional parameter (although, it is not considered to robustly reflect nutritional status in patients
214 with cancer(54)), and 27% (n=10) reported use of food records or recalls(8, 18, 27, 34, 35, 48-51,
215 53). Forty-three percent (n=16) of studies included nutritional indicators, such as weight, body mass
216 index (BMI) or body composition(18, 19, 23, 27-30, 33, 35, 38, 40, 41, 44, 46, 50, 53). Body
217 composition analysis included computed tomography (CT)(18) and bioimpedance(19), and skinfold
218 assessments(24, 27, 35) as an element of the assessment.

219 Eight percent (n=3) of Three studies stated that an assessment was conducted without
220 providing details of the method or tool used(21, 25, 42). As examples, “Complete nutritional
221 assessment undertaken by a registered dietitian”(42) and “A nutritionist performed a medical
222 examination running appropriate biological tests to evaluate the nutritional status”(25). Another study
223 provided only vague details of the nutritional parameters used – “the dietitian assessed nutritional
224 status using...and blood vitamin B [the B-vitamin assessed was not specified]”(41). In most cases,
225 the cut-points or criteria for nutritional risk or diagnosis of a nutrition problem requiring treatment
226 (e.g., malnutrition) were not specified. Only 16% (n=6) of studies specified cut-points(22, 23, 28, 40,
227 44, 46). Five percent (n=2) of Two studies(24, 29) used only indirect measures of nutritional status,
228 such as muscle mass or function through measurement of anthropometry, bioimpedance, or
229 sarcopenia assessment via CT.

230 *Nutrition interventions within prehabilitation*

231 Eleven percent (n=4) of Four studies specified that a nutrition intervention was provided to
232 patients “in need” without defining the mechanism for identifying these patients(18, 20, 32, 47). As
233 an example, “Usual care for all participants included review by specialist dietitians if they were
234 struggling nutritionally(20).” Little more than half -(n=21) of the prehabilitation studies with a
235 nutrition treatment component specified a goal for the nutrition intervention; of these, 38% (n=14)
236 fourteen studies referenced the stated goals and only 24% (n=9) studies used a reference standard or
237 accepted guideline, including European Society for Clinical Nutrition and Metabolism (ESPEN)
238 guidelines(8, 21, 25, 35, 48-51, 53). Most goals were related to meeting estimated protein needs(8,
239 22, 25, 27, 28, 31, 35, 37, 48, 51, 53) or meeting estimated energy and protein needs(19, 21, 23, 39,
240 41, 49, 50). Protein needs were estimated at 1.2-2.0 g/kg per day and energy needs were estimated
241 using 25-30 kcal/kg per day, indirect calorimetry, Harris Benedict equation, or WHO formula. Other

242 stated nutrition goals included optimizing nutritional status(30), protein supplementation(32), and
 243 caloric and protein supplementation(18). Fifty-one percent (n= 19) of the interventions applied to
 244 meet these goals included a combination of both nutrition counselling (personalized or generalized)
 245 and supplementation(8, 18, 19, 22, 23, 25, 27, 31, 34, 35, 39, 41, 42, 48-53). Eight percent (n=3) of
 246 studies used counselling alone(30, 44, 45), 5% (n=2) used a leaflet(26, 36), and 8% (n=3) used
 247 supplementation alone(32, 38, 46). Of the studies that used a nutrition supplement, “protein
 248 supplements” or a combination of vitamin/mineral supplements with protein supplements(8, 22, 25,
 249 27, 31, 32, 34, 35, 38, 41, 48-51, 53) were used most often. Other supplements included high energy
 250 oral nutrition supplements(19) and immunonutrition(46). Whey protein supplements(8, 22, 27, 31,
 251 48-51, 53) were among the most prevalent of the protein-only supplements used in prehabilitation
 252 studies. Fourteen percent (n=5) of studies reported use of a supplement but did not provide any detail
 253 on the type of supplement used(18, 23, 39, 42, 52).

254 Many interventions appeared to be “personalized” to meet individual patient needs(8, 18, 19,
 255 22, 24, 25, 32, 34, 39, 53). For some of the studies it was clear that the nutrition assessment directed
 256 the nutrition care plan, including the need for specialized nutrition support(20, 40, 46), provision of a
 257 supplement or the supplemental dose(19, 23, 41, 49-51, 53), weight loss/gain(8, 27, 42, 53), or
 258 dietary advice based on food recalls, dietary patterns, and nutrition-impact symptoms(8, 22, 30, 31,
 259 39, 51, 53). It was unclear how the nutritional assessment influenced the treatment plan in the
 260 remaining studies. Standardized instructions revolved around consuming protein supplements or
 261 snacks post-exercise(25, 27, 31, 35, 39, 45, 48-51, 53), increasing dietary protein intake(22, 27, 28,
 262 34, 36, 50-52) and tips on consuming balanced meals(22, 44, 48, 53). Twenty-four percent (n=9) of
 263 studies did not provide enough information for us to discern the specific nutrition intervention(20, 21,
 264 24, 29, 33, 37, 40, 43, 47). Examples include, “aimed to incorporate nutrition support(33)”,
 265 “appropriate supplementation(18)” or leaflets or seminars that “included nutrition(29, 43)”.

266 *Monitoring and evaluation of nutrition impact within prehabilitation*

267 Finally, a third (n=11) of studies monitored adherence to the nutrition intervention(8, 19, 22,
 268 25, 28, 30, 35, 45, 49, 52, 53). Self-reported adherence using logbooks/dairies(8, 19, 50, 52, 53) and
 269 a mobile app(22) were reported. Twenty-four percent (n=9) of studies monitored adherence and
 270 provided ongoing support through telephone calls(8, 19, 24, 28, 35, 45, 49, 50, 53). However,
 271 tailoring of the nutrition intervention based on a follow-up appointment or telephone call was
 272 reported in only ~~three~~ 8% (n=3) of studies (24, 25, 50). An objective evaluation of whether the
 273 nutrition prescription was meeting patient needs preoperatively, was reported in only one study
 274 where weight was measured(30). Forty-one percent (n=15) of the studies reported some form of
 275 nutrition outcome, such as weight(18, 24, 29, 30, 33, 35, 38, 44, 51), food records or
 276 questionnaire(18, 21, 27, 44), nutrition screening or assessment tools(19, 27, 35), body
 277 composition(8, 18-22, 24, 29, 51) and handgrip strength(8, 20, 24, 33, 35). Although food
 278 recalls/records were stated to be used in several studies, only 1 study reported intake data (fibre and
 279 fat) (44). Of note, only 5% (n=2) of studies examined outcomes by sex (38, 51).

280 **Discussion**

281 We conducted a scoping review to map the formal prehabilitation literature and identify
 282 opportunities to improve future research with particular emphasis on nutritional support. Currently,
 283 much of the available prehabilitation evidence, which could be used to inform practice and policy, is
 284 in the form of cohort studies. The majority of prehabilitation studies were conducted as multi-modal
 285 or exercise-only studies and were applied before surgery. Only one-third of these studies included a

286 dietary/nutrition treatment component. Yet, nutrition assessment was inconsistently applied across
287 these studies. In many studies it was unclear how the nutrition assessment was used to identify
288 nutrition problems or influence the treatment plan. Nearly one-quarter of these studies stated a
289 nutrition intervention was applied without describing the intervention. Approximately half of the
290 studies reported a nutrition treatment goal; yet, of those studies that reported a goal, two-thirds were
291 not referenced at all and only a quarter referenced accepted nutrition guidelines in surgery or
292 oncology. Finally, approximately two-thirds of studies did not monitor the nutrition intervention or
293 evaluate nutrition outcomes.

294 This review identified several important research gaps. Firstly, two-thirds of the published
295 literature on prehabilitation did not include malnutrition screening or assessment. Given that
296 nutritional status can exert a modifying effect on nutritional(55), clinical(56, 57) and functional(58)
297 outcomes, a failure to examine treatment effects at different levels of nutritional status limits research
298 conclusions and clinical decision making(59-61). Effect modification is considered a natural
299 phenomenon that should be reported and described; therefore, pooling of data should only be
300 considered when the effect of treatment is identified to be homogenous across the strata of a potential
301 modifying variable (e.g., nutritional status)(62). Considering a single treatment effect for
302 prehabilitation on the impact of outcomes, independent of nutritional status, could result in a finding
303 of a null effect (if sub-groups respond to treatment in opposing ways), an overestimated, or an
304 underestimated effect of prehabilitation treatment depending on the prevalence of malnutrition in the
305 sample. Similarly, many studies were conducted in mixed cancer types, yet the treatment effect for
306 prehabilitation might differ based on cancer status. While small sample sizes often preclude
307 modification analysis, a failure to investigate heterogeneous effects could also be a contributing
308 factor to the conflicting, contradictory reports of the effect of prehabilitation on outcomes.

309 Overall, nutritional screening and assessment across published prehabilitation studies was
310 heterogenous and often completed without validated tools. Informal assessments, including clinical
311 parameters and subjective measures result in under recognition of malnutrition(63). Valid nutritional
312 assessment is required to identify malnutrition and any other nutrition-related problems that
313 contribute to adverse outcomes. This finding has three important implications for prehabilitation
314 research: 1) using non-validated tools to identify malnutrition produces findings that are subject to
315 misclassification bias; 2) using a variety of tools to identify malnourished patients limits cross-study
316 comparisons and synthesis of findings for meta-analysis; and, 3) even validated tools cannot diagnose
317 malnutrition with 100% sensitivity and specificity, so it is unlikely that the studies employing non-
318 validated tools identified all the nutritionally compromised patients. The latter point is particularly
319 problematic given that the primary outcome for most prehabilitation trials was identified to be
320 functional and/or clinical. Malnourished patients have lower functional capacity(58, 64) and a
321 reduced capacity to gain function through exercise alone (without first correcting malnutrition,
322 which, for malnourished patients, could be the underlying etiology for the compromised
323 function(65)(58, 66). A failure to correctly identify malnutrition for treatment has the potential to
324 produce misleading findings for the effect of prehabilitation.

325 Of the published prehabilitation studies with a nutrition treatment component, approximately
326 two-thirds of these studies did not monitor or evaluate the nutrition intervention. According to
327 Proctor(13), when an intervention fails to deliver, it is critical that we are able to attribute failure to
328 either the intervention itself, the factors associated with its implementation, or a combination of the
329 two. Inferring success or failure of the prehabilitation program using only functional and clinical
330 endpoints is problematic as it is impossible to discern where the success or failure lies(13). As an
331 example, we identified that 41% of nutrition prehabilitation interventions supplemented protein. Yet,

332 it is difficult to discern whether positive or negative findings can be attributed to this intervention, or
333 to another component of the multimodal prehabilitation, given implementation was poorly
334 documented. If we have failed to monitor whether the nutrition prescription met patient needs (e.g.,
335 the intervention was acceptable to the patient, it was feasible to meet estimated therapeutic targets
336 with the given intervention), assess implementation outcomes (e.g., fidelity of the intervention
337 against protocol or patient adherence to the prescribed intervention) or evaluate nutrition outcomes
338 (e.g., weight stabilization for malnourished patients), we cannot conclude with confidence that the
339 intervention itself was (un)successful. Studies that do not monitor the nutrition prescription and
340 evaluate the outcomes, do not contribute to our collective understanding of which interventions work
341 best, how do they work, and for whom do they work best.

342 Finally, almost half of the published prehabilitation studies with a nutrition treatment
343 component did not report the goal of the nutrition intervention. Several accepted standards exist to
344 form the basis of nutrition goals in surgery(4) or oncology(67, 68) care. This finding has two major
345 implications for prehabilitation research. First, when the goal of an intervention is unknown, critical
346 appraisal of the study design and study's finding is difficult. Second, it is expected that evidence-
347 based interventions that represent accepted standards are most likely to meet patient needs
348 consistently. Treating patients without taking cognizance of and seeking to achieve these standards
349 increases the risk of inadequate nutritional care with the associated inferior outcomes. Again,
350 potentially contributing to conflicting findings for multimodal or nutrition prehabilitation.

351 In order to effectively address the research gaps identified we recommend that a core outcome
352 set (COS) be developed and adopted for prehabilitation studies. A COS is a standardized set of
353 outcomes to be reported by all trials within a research field(69). Additional outcomes may be
354 reported at the discretion of the researcher, but a minimum standardized set of outcomes would be
355 reported, permitting cross-study comparisons and enabling data synthesis for systematic reviews or
356 meta-analyses that inform clinical practice(70). This need is illustrated by the fact that we identified
357 that within the 23% of the formal prehabilitation literature that constitutes systematic reviews and
358 meta-analyses that many of these reviews were found to be inconclusive, citing heterogeneity as the
359 rationale. Clearly, addressing the extent of heterogeneity would enhance data synthesis and should be
360 seen as a priority for prehabilitation research. For nutrition, the development of a COS that includes
361 standards for nutritional assessment, a requirement to state the goal of the intervention in relation to
362 an appropriate reference standard, along with a standard set of measurements to monitor and evaluate
363 the intervention, could greatly advance the literature.

364 We would like to acknowledge a few limitations. First, we did not register this trial; although,
365 this is not a prerequisite for scoping reviews. ~~Firs~~Second, this review was limited to prehabilitation
366 interventions for patients with cancer. As a result, our findings should not be generalized to all
367 prehabilitation research. ~~Secon~~Third, our search was limited to six databases and languages of
368 English and French; these criteria may have biased our findings. Finally, we limited our review to
369 formal prehabilitation studies (articles with the term prehabilitation in the title, abstract or key
370 words); this strategy may have introduced misclassification bias. That said, there is no accepted
371 definition of prehabilitation, and our goal was to map the range of studies currently being conducted
372 as a form of "prehabilitation". We also acknowledge the large body of evidence of nutritional-only
373 interventions such as preoperative nutritional support that have been reported previously that would
374 not be included using our search strategy focusing on prehabilitation.

375 **Conclusion**

376 The prehabilitation literature is lacking standardized and validated nutritional assessment, is
377 frequently conducted without employing evidence-based nutrition interventions and is typically
378 conducted without monitoring the nutrition intervention or evaluating the intervention's contribution
379 to outcomes. In order to advance our understanding of prehabilitation, the nutrition component of
380 prehabilitation interventions should be based on validated tools of assessment, accepted standards,
381 monitored and evaluated. We suggest that the development, adoption and application of a core
382 outcome set would be a first step in addressing the research gaps identified and result in studies that
383 are more likely to inform clinical practice and improve patient outcomes.

384 **Conflict of Interest**

385 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
386 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

387 **Author Contributions**

388 All authors have made substantial contributions to the following: CG, SD and MW designed the
389 research; CG and SD carried out the data collection; all authors edited, read and approved the final
390 manuscript.

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