ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Diabetic Foot Ulcers: Insights into Management and Prevention

MUHAMMAD KASHIF RAFIQ¹, HAIDER KAMRAN², ASIF AYUB³, FOUZIA JAMEEL⁴

¹MBBS, FCPS surgery, Assistant professor Surgery, Ayub Medical College Abbottabad

²Associate prof of Surgery, Ayub Medical College Abbottabad

³Tmo Surgical -A unit, Ayub teaching hospital Abbottabad

⁴Nursing Instructor, College of Nursing, DHQ Hospital Mianwali

Corresponding author: Haider Kamran, Email: dhkamran@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Diabetic foot ulcer (DFU) is one of the greatest thoughtful difficulties of diabetes, negatively affecting the patient's health and socioeconomic status. Around the world, diabetes prevalence is increasing in both developing and developed countries. There are several measures in place in most countries to limit diabetes complications. This review summarizes the pathogenic mechanisms that lead to diabetic foot and focuses on prevention and management. It may be possible to prevent diabetic foot ulcers and thus amputation risk by increasing physicians' awareness and ability to identify risky feet. Diabetes neuropathy, peripheral artery disease, and immune dysfunction are the three major contributing factors. In order to treat diabetic foot disease, a detailed history and physical examination are necessary. Diabetic neuropathy and peripheral arterial disease should integrate a multidisciplinary method centered on patient education. Preventive efforts must, however, be sustained for a long time for them to be effective.

Keywords: Diabetic foot; Ulceration; Neuropathy; Pathogenesis; Peripheral arterial disease

INTRODUCTION

It is a growing problem in the diabetic community to suffer from diabetic foot ulcers. There is alarming concern among medical professionals about the rapid increase in diabetes, a serious lifelong disease. In recent years, it has estimated that 20.8% of the United States (US) population has diabetes problems. Diabetes mellitus persons can develop foot ulcers, ranging from 4% to 10% (Driver and Blume, 2014; Bus, 2012). The infection of diabetic foot ulcers is primary sources of hospital admissions in diabetics (Wu et al., 2007; Nain et al., 2011). DFU has a high mortality as well as morbidity rate (Mayfield et al., 2004; Reiber et al. 1995) regardless of a multidisciplinary methods. Infection of DFU is common (Iraj et al., 2013). The healing time of these ulcers is longer and amputation is more likely to result (Del Core et al. 2018). Diabetes foot management, therefore, is dependent on determining the presence of infection (Uzun et al., 2007; Noor et al., 2017).

Causes and types of FU: It is observe that Ill-fitting shoes are the most important and common cause of ulceration. Researchers have discussed many type of ulcers, but among them, the most common types of ulcers are ischaemic, neuro-ischaemic, and neuropathic. These ulcers are mainly caused by bacteria.

Site and depth, Signs of infection: Neuropathic, neuroischaemic, and Ischaemic ulcers frequently arise on the plantar superficial of the tips of toes, foot, and the lateral border of the foot. It is very difficult to determine the depth of ulcers.

Risk Factors: The quality of life can impair due to diabetic foot, demanding continued hospitalization, and having high prices. Diabetic disease accounts for 15% of diabetic foot-related problems, and diabetics who are uncontrolled are 15 times more likely to undergo amputations than their non-diabetic counterparts (Al-Bakri et al., 2021). The study found most patients to be male, probably because they have been exposed to the outside environment and have experienced trauma more often. Multicenter studies conducted in Germany, India, and Tanzania found that all 613 of the patients had neuropathy. Among our patients, 51% had a sensory loss. Studies conducted nationally and internationally have revealed wide variations in the prevalence of sensory neuropathy among diabetic foot ulcer patients. The prevalence of this condition is 20-40%10, but Ali et al. (2008) found that it occurred in 44% of their patients.

An amputation or a nonhealing ulcer caused by poorly controlled blood glucose levels had a direct impact on the disease's outcome. Germany had a 48% risk of foot ulcers due to PAD, whereas India and Tanzania had a 12% and 13% risk, respectively. Infection was observed in 85.7% of our patients, which is consistent with an Indian study (Viswanathan, 2010). Diabetic patients were most likely to develop foot ulcers from

pressure from their footwear. Similar risk factors have been reported by Ahmad et al. (2013) from Pakistan.

An experimental research or study was performed in Kenya in 2003 to conclude the risk factors for DFU (Nyamu et al., 2003). They investigated that diabetes peoples for a long period of time are more likely to grow DFU. There was a prevalence of neuroischaemic (30.5%), neuropathic (47.5%), and ischaemic (18%) ulcers. A significant difference in glycaemic control was observed for neuropathic ulcers related to further types, as well as the elongated interval (23.3 weeks). There was a significant increase in total cholesterol and diastolic blood pressure among patients with ischemic ulcers compared to other ulcer types. The most common type of Wagner ulcer was stage 2 (49.4%), but stage 4 ulcers were the best scorer (7.8/10) and lasted the longest (23.6 weeks). The ulcers contained 73.2% of aerobic pathogens.

Organisms isolated from ulcer: Several bacterial isolates have been isolated from diabetic foot ulcer patients. Different techniques and taxonomic identification keys have been used to isolate and identify these isolates. According to the findings of Girish et al. (2010), Al Benwan et al. (2012), and Hadadi et al. (2014), Gramnegative bacteria are the main causative agents of diabetic foot infections. Most organisms isolated were pseudomonas and klebsiella. Multi-drug resistance was high in Pseudomonas. The treatment of ulcers should be based on the sensitivity of the infection in order to reduce multidrug resistance. Organisms secluded from DFU are given in table 1.

	Table 1:	Organisms	secluded from	DFU	patients
--	----------	-----------	---------------	-----	----------

Isolates	Country	References
Staphylococcus	Africa	Sotto et al., 2008
aureus		
Streptococcus	Saudi Arabia	Alkhatieb et al. 2022
agalactiae		
Enterococcus	Saudi Arabia, India	Alkhatieb et al. 2022;
avium		Zubair et al. 2010
Staphylococcus	Saudi Arabia, India	Zubair et al. 2010;
epidermidis		Alkhatieb et al. 2022
Escherichia coli	Saudi Arabia	Alkhatieb et al. 2022
Klebsiella	Saudi Arabia,	Alkhatieb et al. 2022;
pneumoniae	Bangalore	Mukkunnath et al., 2015
Pseudomonas	Saudi Arabia	Alkhatieb et al. 2022
aeruginosa		
Proteus vulgaris	Saudi Arabia	Alkhatieb et al. 2022
Proteus mirabilis	Saudi Arabia, India	Alkhatieb et al. 2022;
		Zubair et al. 2010
Citrobacter freundii	Saudi Arabia	Alkhatieb et al. 2022
Serratia marches	Saudi Arabia, Ethiopia	Alkhatieb et al. 2022
Aeromonas	Saudi Arabia,	Alkhatieb et al. 2022;
hydrophilic	Bangalore	Mukkunnath et al., 2015

Morganella morganii	Saudi Arabia	Alkhatieb et al. 2022
Acinetobacter baumannii	Saudi Arabia	Alkhatieb et al. 2022
Enterococcus faecalis	Saudi Arabia, Egypt	Alkhatieb et al. 2022; Nabiel and Barakat, 2017
Candida albicans	Egypt, India	Aldhfyan et al. 2018; Zubair et al. 2010
Enterococcus avium	Egypt, Bangalore	Aldhfyan et al. 2018; Mukkunnath et al., 2015
Streptococcus pyogenes	Bangalore	Mukkunnath et al., 2015
Clostridium perfringens	India	Garg et al. 2014; Haldar et al. 2017

Factors affecting the DFU: Patients with foot ulcers, as well as patients with chronic conditions, should take into account and assess all the above-mentioned factors as well as disease-related factors as shown in figure 1 (Crews et al., 2009; Bus et al., 2011). All these features are very significant to determine the diabetic foot ulcer in patients as investigated by many researchers in the world (Al Kafrawy et al., 2014).

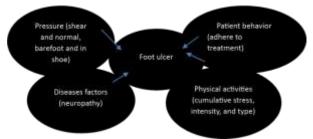


Figure 1: Factors affecting the healing and occurrence of DFU infections

Table 2: Factors to be measured for antibiotic medicament in diabetic foot contagion (Lipsky, 2004; Richard et al., 2011)

Contagion (Lipsky, 2004, Richan		
Criteria	Comments	
Renal dysfunction	Avoid hepatotoxic agents	
Poor therapeutic	IV route and/or hospitalization	
compliance		
Severity of infection	Broad-spectrum therapy via parenteral route for severe infection	
Hepatic dysfunction	Avoid nephrotoxic agents	
Impaired gastrointestinal	Favor parenteral route	
function (gastroparesis)		
History of new antibiotic	May need an extended coverage against	
handling	Enterococcus and gram-negative bacilli	
Chronicity of the wound	Give penchant to broad-spectrum	
	therapy initially	
Drug allergies	Review the patient's medical history	
	carefully	
Local antibiotic resistance	Cover MRSA if indicated	
patterns		

Pathophysiology and Pathogenesis: Diabetic foot disease has a multifactorial etiology that comprises vasculopathy, immunopathy, diabetic neuropathy, and poor glycemic control. Among these, diabetic neuropathy is the common most cause of DFU and causes motor, sensory, and autonomic nerve dysfunction. With proper screening, neuropathy can be detected in 75% of diabetic patients undergoing ankle and foot surgery (Wukich et al., 2015). In the diabetic population, PAD is frequently observed in conjunction that can contribute in foot complications. 50% of diabetic foot disease patients have some degree of PAD (Suder and Wukich, 2012). Furthermore, diabetes patients have a reduced capacity to support a seditious reaction to contagion (immunopathy). Diabetes patients have impaired chemotaxis, neutrophil function, phagocytosis, and a decreased t-cell response when compared to those who do not have diabetes (Richard et al., 2017).

As reported by many workers that the main risk factors for foot ulceration are PAD, foot trauma, and diabetic neuropathy. Diabetes patients are more likely to suffer from PAD because it begins at a younger age, grows faster, and is generally more prevalent. Ankle and knee areas are usually affected. Researchers have demonstrated that it can predict foot ulceration outcomes as well as cardiovascular disease risks. People with peripheral diabetic neuropathy often experience repetitive minor injuries to their feet that go undetected at the time due to reduced sensation in the feet (calluses, nails, foot deformities) or external causes (shoes, burns, foreign bodies). Especially in patients with peripheral arterial disease, this may lead to ulcer infection and foot amputation.

The most common cause of osteomyelitis is an infection of deep soft tissues that burst through the cortex and into the bone marrow. Almost all foot infections that last for a long time are caused by osteomyelitis. Diagnosing osteomyelitis in diabetic patients is often difficult. Differentiating infections from noninfectious conditions is one of the most challenging things to do, as well as differentiating soft tissue infections from bone infections.

Classification of diabetic foot: Diabetic feet are categories into two groups such as the Neuropathic Foot and Neuroischemic Foot. The system for classifying wounds is given in table 3.

Table 3: System for classifying wounds (Oyibo et al., 2001)

Stages	Description
А	No infection/ischemia
В	Infection present
С	Ischemia present
D	Both (Ischemia and infection) are present
Grading	
0	Epithelialized wound
1	Superficial wound
2	Wound penetrates to tendon or capsule
3	The wound penetrates to bones and joints

Prevention and management: There are three methods of prevention (Pendsey and Abbas, 2007) such as primary, secondary and tertiary. It also consists of the following measures. Modification in lifestyle, control of blood pressure and glycemic, Smoking cessation, and lipid management.

Offloading: The risk of ulceration increases with increased plantar foot pressure, but a pressure threshold above which ulceration commences or below which it heals has not yet been established. Among high-risk diabetic patients at high risk for foot ulceration, barefoot dynamic peak plantar pressure of 700 kPa showed 70% sensitivity and 65% specificity. According to another study, barefoot peak pressures of 875 kPa are 64% sensitive to foot ulcers and 46% specific to them (Armstrong et al., 1998). Patients develop foot ulcers when they have lower than threshold pressures while they don't have such disease when they have higher than threshold pressures. As a result, clinical outcomes cannot be accurately predicted based on barefoot peak pressure dat the ankle (Lavery et al., 2003).

Role of education in prevention of diabetic foot ulcers in patients: Education is an important step in preventing problems of DFU. Educating patients and caregivers should be the primary focus, but professionals must also become educated so they recognize the nature of patient instructions. Patients and caregivers can benefit from their training and education once they are trained and educated. Patients and caregivers should receive education, as well as professionals, so that patients and caregivers can be efficiently educated. Educated patients are taught how to manage diabetes mellitus, how to care for the foot, and how to use appropriate footwear. Foot hygiene is also a problem among patients. To provide education and screening on a national scale, however, sustained and continuous government intervention is required (Nather et al., 2018; Uzun et al., 2007; Dorresteijn et al., 2012). It has been reported that after six months of education, clinical parameters such as blood pressure, weight, and body

mass index showed a statistically significant positive change in patients (Nemcová and Hlinková, 2014).

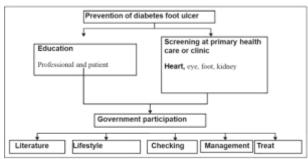


Figure 2: Algorithm for prevention of diabetic foot ulcer (Nather et al., 2018).

Restoration of skin perfusion: The best key factor manipulating the outcome of a diabetic foot ulcer is a peripheral arterial disease. If a diabetic patient has symptoms or signs of ischemia, an ankle brachial pressure index of 0.6, pressures of 50 mmHg, or TcPo2 of 30 mmHg, healing will be severely hampered (Bakker et al., 2012; Noor et al., 2017).

Treatment of infection: Treatment of infection is very important. Clean the necrotic tissues and debris surrounding the callus properly. Empiric oral antibiotic therapy should be started which targeted streptococci and S. aureus (Bakker et al., 2012; Noor et al., 2017). Foot ulcer infections are shown in figure 3.



Figure 3: Infection of foot ulcer on feet of patients (Del Core et al., 2018).

Wound care: Wound inspection and frequent wound debridement. Maintain the moist environment and negative pressure therapy can used (Bakker et al., 2012; Noor et al., 2017).

Keystones of foot management: Five different keystones for food management have been reported like inspection of feet on a daily basis. Education of family, health care, and patient, wearing footwear, and treatment of nonulcerative pathology. These are the keystones that need to be maintained throughout life to prevent infections. Sensory loss can be managed by using the following techniques such as vibration perception, pressure perception, reflexes, discrimination, and tactile sensation (Bakker et al., 2017).

Dressings and growth factors: It has observed that ulcers heal very fastly under moist conditions and are less likely to become infected. The exudate from a wound contains a high concentration of platelets, cytokines, white blood cells, matrix metalloproteinase (MMPs), growth factors, and many other enzymes. The healing process can promote with the keratinocyte proliferation, angiogenesis, and fibroblast whereas leukocytes and bacterial toxins stop the healing process which ultimately increase the healing period. All this can be done by the use of fibroblast as gel with weekly debridement (Wieman et al., 1998). Initial studies conducted by many researchers in the world (Yang et al., 2011; Uccioli et al., 2011) found becaplermin to have an important and optimistic influence on ulcer healing but many new studies reported negative impacts of high doses of becaplermin on cancers patients (Papanas and Maltezos, 2010; Steed, 1995; Moustafa et al., 2004; de Lalla et al., 2001).

Revascularization: Patients with apparent peripheral ischemia necessitate revascularization because the suitable arterial plasma resource is mandatory for wound curing and the determination of the underlying infection while surgical bypass is a method to treat the ischemic limbs (Pendsey, 2010; **F**aries et al., 2004; Shah et al., 1995).

Extracellular Matrix Proteins: A semisynthetic hyaluronic acid ester, Hyaff (Fidia Farmaceutici, Abano Terme, Italy) is used to promote movement, fibroblast growth, and regulate hydration in patients. According to Yo'nem et al. (2001), fibroblast is effective, and safe as adjunctive therapy in the ulcers treatment.

Hyperbaric Oxygen: Fibroblasts, endothelial cells. and keratinocytes reproduce more quickly in an oxygen-rich conditions (Veves et al., 2002; Broussard, 2004). By the applications of oxygen, body cells especially leukocytes kill bacteria more quickly and effectively than other cells. The lower cell turnover has reported due to fibroblasts from diabetic individuals than nondiabetic individuals. The administering high concentrations of oxygen could hasten wound healing in diabetics (Shahi, et al., 2012). It is resulted that hyperbaric oxygen therapy improves resulting in increased vascular reactivity, vascular function by modulating mechanisms of vascular responses to various dilator, constrictor agonists in cerebral resistance vessels. The production of vasoconstrictors, vasodilators as well as the sensitivity of vessels to these factors influenced by the therapy.

Negative-Pressure Wound Therapy: The negative-pressure wound therapy (NPWT) is newly launched technique for the treatment of DFU. To keep a sealed environment, recurrent or continuous sub atmospheric pressure is pragmatic via a special pump linked to a strong open-celled foam surface dressing covered with an adhesive drape (Yazdanpanah et al., 2018).

Why diabetic foot ulcer prevention is difficult?: The main reasons for it are: Diabetic patients have no sense and have peripheral neuropathy, high pressure, deformity, and even patient behavior. Patients do not visit the hospital or specialized health care. They take medicine irregularly. They can't wear footwear strongly.

CONCLUSION

Diabetic foot ulcers are expensive, debilitating diseases that have serious consequences for diabetics. All diabetes patients must be trained carefully and thoroughly in preventive measures and foot care. By using different ways such as sympathetic DF, appropriate foot examination, soundings for categorizing foot ulcers, and appropriate management systems with a team approach could use to the limb salvage and prevention of limb amputation for people with diabetes. There is an urgent need to review policies and treatments to achieve goals and lessen the burden of care effectively and efficiently. DFU management remains a main therapeutic challenge. In order to reduce the associated high mortality and morbidity rates, as well as amputation risks, DFU prevention is crucial.

REFERENCES

- Ahmad, W., Khan, I. A., Ghaffar, S., Al-Swailmi, F. K., & Khan, I. (2013). Risk factors for diabetic foot ulcer. Journal of Ayub Medical College Abbottabad, 25(1-2), 16-18.
- Al Berwan, K., Al Mulla, A., & Rotimi, V. O. (2012). A study of the microbiology of diabetic foot infections in a teaching hospital in Kuwait. Journal of infection and public health, 5(1), 1-8.
- Al Kafrawy, N. A. E. F., Mustafa, E. A. A. E. A., Abd El-Salam, A. E. D., Ebaid, O. M., & Zidane, O. M. A. (2014). Study of risk factors of diabetic foot ulcers. Menoufia Medical Journal, 27(1), 28.
- Al-Bakri, A. G., Bulatova, N. R., Younes, N. A., Othman, G., Jaber, D., Schleimer, N., ... & Becker, K. (2021). Characterization of staphylococci sampled from diabetic foot ulcer of Jordanian patients. Journal of Applied Microbiology, 131(5), 2552-2566.
- Aldhfyan, Y., Morgan, A., Alsubaie, M., & Alzahrani, A. (2018). Bacteria patterns in infected diabetic foot: is there a surgical implication?. The Egyptian Journal of Hospital Medicine, 70(10), 1842-1846.
- Ali SM, Basit A, Fawwad A, AhmdaniYA, Miyan Z, Malik RA. Presentation and outcome of diabetic foot at a tertiary care unit. Pak J Med Sci 2008;24:651–5.

- 7. Alkhatieb M, Alrayiqi R, Alsulami OA, et al. Common Pathogens Isolated from Infected Diabetic Foot Ulcers at King Abdulaziz University Hospital, Saudi Arabia: A Retrospective Study. J Med Res Surg. 2022; 3(4): 71-78. doi: 10.52916/imrs224084
- 8. Armstrong DG, Peters EJ, Athanasiou KA, Lavery LA. Is there a critical level of plantar foot pressure to identify patients at risk for neuropathic foot ulceration? J Foot Ankle Surg 1998; 37: 303-307.
- Bakker, K., Apelqvist, J., Schaper, N. C., & International Working Group on the Diabetic Foot Editorial Board. (2012). Practical guidelines on the 9. diabetic management and prevention of the foot 2011. Diabetes/metabolism research and reviews, 28, 225-231.
- Broussard CL. Hyperbaric oxygenation and wound healing. J Vasc Nurs. 10. 2004;22:42-8.
- Bus SA, Haspels R, Busch-Westbroek TE. Evaluation and optimization of 11. therapeutic footwear for neuropathic diabetic foot patients using in-shoe plantar pressure analysis. Diabetes Care 2011; 34: 1595-1600.
- 12. Bus, S. Α. (2012). Priorities in offloading the diabetic foot. Diabetes/metabolism research and reviews, 28, 54-59.
- 13. Crews RT, Armstrong DG, Boulton AJ. A method for assessing off-loading compliance. J Am Podiatr Med Assoc 2009; 99: 100-103
- de Lalla F, Pellizzer G, Strazzabosco M, et al. Randomized prospective 14. controlled trial of recombinant granulocyte colony-stimulating factor as adjunctive therapy for limb-threatening diabetic foot infection. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2001;45:1094-8.
- Del Core, M. A., Ahn, J., Lewis III, R. B., Raspovic, K. M., Lalli, T. A., & 15. Wukich, D. K. (2018). The evaluation and treatment of diabetic foot ulcers and diabetic foot infections. Foot & Ankle Orthopaedics, 3(3), 2473011418788864.
- 16. Del Core, M. A., Ahn, J., Lewis III, R. B., Raspovic, K. M., Lalli, T. A., & Wukich, D. K. (2018). The evaluation and treatment of diabetic foot ulcers and diabetic foot infections. Foot & Ankle Orthopaedics, 3(3), 2473011418788864
- Dorresteijn, J. A., Kriegsman, D. M., Assendelft, W. J., & Valk, G. D. 17. (2012). Patient education for preventing diabetic foot ulceration. Cochrane database of systematic reviews, (10).
- Driver, V. R., & Blume, P. A. (2014). Evaluation of wound care and health-18. care use costs in patients with diabetic foot ulcers treated with negative pressure wound therapy versus advanced moist wound therapy. Journal of the American Podiatric Medical Association, 104(2), 147-153.
- Faries PL, Teodorescu VJ, Morrissey NJ, Hollier LH, Marin ML. The role of 19. surgical revascularization in the management of diabetic foot wounds. Am J Surg. 2004;187:34S-7.
- 20. Garg, R., Kaistha, N., Gupta, V., & Chander, J. (2014). Isolation, identification and antimicrobial susceptibility of anaerobic bacteria: A study re-emphasizing its role Journal of Clinical and Diagnostic Research: JCDR, 8(11), DL01.
- Girish, M. B., Kumar, T. N., & Srinivas, R. (2010). Pattern of antimicrobials 21. used to treat infected diabetic foot in a tertiary care hospital in Kolar. Int J Pharm Biomed Res, 1(2), 48-52. Hadadi, A., Ghiasi, H. O., Hajiabdolbaghi, M., Zandekarimi, M., &
- 22. Hamidian, R. (2014). Diabetic foot: infections and outcomes in Iranian admitted patients. Jundishapur Journal of Microbiology, 7(7).
- 23. Haldar, J., Mukherjee, P., Mukhopadhyay, S., & Maiti, P. K. (2017). Isolation of bacteria from diabetic foot ulcers with special reference to anaerobe isolation by simple two-step combustion technique in candle jar. The Indian Journal of Medical Research, 145(1), 97. Iraj, B., Khorvash, F., Ebneshahidi, A., & Askari, G. (2013). Prevention of
- 24. diabetic foot ulcer. International journal of preventive medicine, 4(3), 373.
- 25. Lavery LA, Armstrong DG, Wunderlich RP, Tredwell J, Boulton AJ. Predictive value of foot pressure assessment as part of a population-based diabetes disease management program. Diabetes Care 2003; 26: 1069-1073
- 26. Lipsky BA. A report from the international consensus on diagnosing and treating the infected diabetic foot. Diabetes Metab Res Rev 2004; 20 Suppl 1: S68-S77
- Mayfi eld, J.A., Reiber, G.E., Maynard, C., Czerniecki, J. & Sangeorzan, B. 27. (2004) The epidemiology of lower-extremity disease in veterans with diabetes. Diabetes Care, 27, B39-B44. Moustafa M, Simpson C, Glover M, et al. A new autologous keratinocyte
- 28. dressing treatment for non-healing diabetic neuropathic foot ulcers. Diabet Med. 2004;21:786-9.
- Mukkunnath, S. N., Manjunath, R., & Desai, M. (2015). A study of the 29 bacteriological profile of diabetic foot ulcer and antibiotic sensitivity pattern. Journal of Evolution of Medical and Dental Sciences, 4(39), 6832 6841.
- 30. Nabiel, Y., & Barakat, G. (2017). Correlation of Virulence Determinants of Staphylococcus aureus to the Severity of Diabetic Foot Ulcers in a Tertiary Care Centre, Egypt. Microbiol Res J Inter, 20(6), 1-8.
- Nain, P. S., Uppal, S. K., Garg, R., Bajaj, K., & Garg, S. (2011). Role of 31. negative pressure wound therapy in healing of diabetic foot ulcers. Journal of surgical technique and case report, 3(1).
- Nather, A., Cao, S., Chen, J. L. W., & Low, A. Y. (2018). Prevention of 32. diabetic foot complications. Singapore medical journal, 59(6), 291.
- 33. Nemcová, J., & Hlinková, E. (2014). The efficacy of diabetic foot care education. Journal of clinical nursing, 23(5-6), 877-882.

- Noor, S., Khan, R. U., & Ahmad, J. (2017). Understanding diabetic foot 34. infection and its management. Diabetes & Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research & Reviews, 11(2), 149-156.
- Noor, S., Khan, R. U., & Ahmad, J. (2017). Understanding diabetic foot 35 infection and its management. Diabetes & Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research & Reviews, 11(2), 149-156.
- Nyamu, P. N., Otieno, C. F., Amayo, E. O., & McLigeyo, S. O. (2003). Risk 36. factors and prevalence of diabetic foot ulcers at Kenyatta National Hospital, Nairobi. East African medical journal, 80(1), 36-43.
- Ovibo SO, Jude EB, Tarawneh I, Nguyen HC, Harkless LB, Boulton AJ, A 37. comparison of two diabetic foot ulcer classification systems: The Wagner and the University of Texas. Diabetes Care. 2001;24:84-8.
- 38. Papanas N, Maltezos E. Benefit-risk assessment of becaplermin in the treatment of diabetic foot ulcers. Drug Saf. 2010;33:455-61.
- Pendsey S, Abbas ZG. The Step by step program for reducing diabetic 39. foot problems: A model for the developing world. Curr Diab Rep. 2007;7:425-8.
- Pendsey, S. P. (2010). Understanding diabetic foot. International journal of 40. diabetes in developing countries, 30(2), 75
- 41. Reiber, G.E., Boyko, E.J. & Smith, D.G. (1995) Lower extremity foot ulcers and amputations in diabetes. In: Diabetes in America, 2nd ed., National Diabetes Data Group, National Institutes of Health Publication No. 95-1468, Bethesda, MD, pp. 409-428.
- Richard C, Wadowski M, Goruk S, et al. Individuals with obesity and type 2 42. diabetes have additional immune dysfunction compared with obese individuals who are metabolically healthy. BMJ Open Diabetes Res Care. 2017:5(1):e000379
- Richard, J. L., Sotto, A., & Lavigne, J. P. (2011). New insights in diabetic 43. foot infection. World journal of diabetes, 2(2), 24.
- Shah DM, Darling RC, 3rd, Chang BB, Fitzgerald KM, Paty PS, Leather 44. RP. Long-term results of in situ saphenous vein bypass: Analysis of 2,058 cases. Ann Surg. 1995;222:38-448
- Shahi, S. K., Kumar, A., Kumar, S., Singh, S. K., Gupta, S. K., & Singh, T. 45. B. (2012). Prevalence of diabetic foot ulcer and associated risk factors in diabetic patients from North India. The journal of diabetic foot complications, 4(3), 83-91.
- Sotto, A., Lina, G., Richard, J. L., Combescure, C., Bourg, G., Vidal, L., .. 46. & Lavigne, J. P. (2008). Virulence potential of Staphylococcus aureus strains isolated from diabetic foot ulcers: a new paradigm. Diabetes Care, 31(12), 2318-2324.
- Steed DL. Clinical evaluation of recombinant human platelet-derived 47. growth factor for the treatment of lower extremity diabetic ulcers. Diabetic Ulcer Study Group. J Vasc Surg. 1995;21:71-8 (discussion 79-81).
- Suder NC, Wukich DK. Prevalence of diabetic neuropathy in patients 48. undergoing foot and ankle surgery. Foot Ankle Spec. 2012;5(2):97-101. Uccioli L, Giurato L, Ruotolo V, et al. Two-step autologous grafting using
- 49. HYAFF scaffolds in treating difficult diabetic foot ulcers: results of a multicenter, randomized controlled clinical trial with long-term follow-up. Int J Low Extrem Wounds. 2011;10:80-5.
- Uzun, G., Solmazgul, E., Curuksulu, H., Turhan, V., Ardic, N., Top, C., . 50. Cimsit, M. (2007). Procalcitonin as a diagnostic aid in diabetic foot infections. The Tohoku journal of experimental medicine, 213(4), 305-312.
- 51. Uzun, G., Solmazgul, E., Curuksulu, H., Turhan, V., Ardic, N., Top, C., ... & Cimsit, M. (2007). Procalcitonin as a diagnostic aid in diabetic foot infections. The Tohoku journal of experimental medicine, 213(4), 305-312.
- 52. Veves A, Sheehan P, Pham HT. A randomized, controlled trial of Promogran (a collagen/oxidized regenerated cellulose dressing) vs standard treatment in the management of diabetic foot ulcers. Arch Surg. 2002:137:822-7
- Viswanathan V. Epidemiology of diabetic foot and management of foot 53.
- problems in India. Int J Lower Extrem Wounds. 2010;9:122-6. Wieman TJ, Smiell JM, Su Y. Efficacy and safety of a topical gel formulation of recombinant human platelet-derived growth factor-BB 54 (becaplermin) in patients with chronic neuropathic diabetic ulcers. A phase III randomized placebo-controlled doubleblind study. Diabetes Care. 1998;21:822-7.
- 55. Wu, S. C., Driver, V. R., Wrobel, J. S., & Armstrong, D. G. (2007). Foot ulcers in the diabetic patient, prevention and treatment. Vascular health and risk management, 3(1), 65.
- 56. Wukich DK, Shen W, Raspovic KM, et al. Noninvasive arterial testing in patients with diabetes: a guide for foot and ankle surgeons. Foot Ankle Int. 2015;36(12):1391-1399.
- 57. Yang HS, Shin J, Bhang SH, et al. Enhanced skin wound healing by a sustained release of growth factors contained in platelet-rich plasma. Exp Mol Med. 2011;43:622-9.
- 58. Yazdanpanah, L., Shahbazian, H., Nazari, I., Arti, H. R., Ahmadi, F., Mohammadianinejad, S. E., ... & Hesam, S. (2018). Incidence and risk factors of diabetic foot ulcer: a population-based diabetic foot cohort (ADFC study)-two-year follow-up study. International journal of endocrinology, 2018. Yo'nem A, Cakir B, Gu'ler S, Azal OO, Corakc,i A. Effects of granulocyte-
- 59. colony stimulating factor in the treatment of diabetic foot infection. Diabetes Obes Metab. 2001;3:332-7.
- 60. Zubair, M., Malik, A., & Ahmad, J. (2010). Clinico-bacteriology and risk factors for the diabetic foot infection with multidrug resistant microorganisms in north India. Biol Med, 2(4), 22-34.