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**NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR HEALTH AND CARE  
EXCELLENCE**

**Guideline**

**Diabetic foot problems: prevention and  
management**

**Draft for consultation, September 2022**

This is an update to NICE guideline NG19 (published August 2015). We have:

- reviewed the evidence on risk assessment tools for diabetic foot problems and frequency of diabetic foot reviews
- made no new recommendations
- updated the existing research recommendation on frequency of diabetic foot checks and made a new research recommendation on digital and emerging technologies for assessing the risk of diabetic foot problems.

**Who is it for?**

- Healthcare professionals
- Commissioners and providers
- People with diabetes, and their families and carers

**What does it include?**

- the recommendations covered by the evidence review
- related recommendations that were not part of the evidence review but are included here for context (shaded in grey and marked **[2015]**)
- recommendations for research

- rationale and impact sections that explain why the committee did not change the 2015 recommendations, and how this might affect practice
- the guideline context.

Information about how the guideline was developed is on the [guideline's webpage](#). This includes the evidence reviews, the scope, details of the committee and any declarations of interest.

### **Commenting on this update**

We have reviewed the evidence on risk assessment tools for diabetic foot problems and the frequency of diabetic foot reviews (we have not changed the recommendations). You are invited to comment on the recommendations. These are marked as **[2022]**.

We have not reviewed the evidence for the recommendations marked **[2015]** (shaded in grey) and cannot accept comments on them.

Sections of the guideline that have had no changes at all have been temporarily removed for this consultation and will be re-instated when the final guideline is published. See the [current version of the guideline](#).

See [update information](#) for a full explanation of what is being updated.

Full details of the evidence and the committee's discussion on the recommendations that were reviewed in 2022 are in the [evidence review](#). Evidence for the 2015 recommendations is in the [full version](#) of the 2015 guideline.

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# 1 Recommendations

People have the right to be involved in discussions and make informed decisions about their care, as described in [NICE's information on making decisions about your care](#).

[Making decisions using NICE guidelines](#) explains how we use words to show the strength (or certainty) of our recommendations, and has information about prescribing medicines (including off-label use), professional guidelines, standards and laws (including on consent and mental capacity), and safeguarding.

## 2 1.3 Assessing the risk of developing a diabetic foot 3 problem

### 4 Frequency of assessments

5 1.3.1 For children with diabetes who are under 12 years, give them, and  
6 their family members or carers (as appropriate), basic foot care  
7 advice. **[2015]**

8 1.3.2 For young people with diabetes who are 12 to 17 years, the  
9 paediatric care team or the transitional care team should assess  
10 the young person's feet as part of their annual assessment, and  
11 provide information about foot care. If a diabetic foot problem is  
12 found or suspected, the paediatric care team or the transitional  
13 care team should refer the young person to an appropriate  
14 specialist. **[2015]**

15 1.3.3 For adults with diabetes, assess their risk of developing a diabetic  
16 foot problem at the following times:

- 17 • When diabetes is diagnosed, and at least annually thereafter  
18 (see the [recommendation on carrying out reassessments at  
19 intervals, depending on the person's risk of developing a diabetic  
20 foot problem](#)).

- 1
- If any foot problems arise.
- 2
- On any admission to hospital, and if there is any change in their
- 3
- status while they are in hospital. **[2015]**

#### 4 **Assessing the risk of developing a diabetic foot problem**

5 1.3.4 When examining the feet of a person with diabetes, remove their

6 shoes, socks, bandages and dressings, and examine both feet for

7 evidence of the following risk factors:

- 8
- neuropathy (use a 10 g monofilament as part of a foot sensory
- 9 examination)
- 10
- limb ischaemia (see the [NICE guideline on peripheral arterial](#)
- 11 [disease](#))
- 12
- ulceration
- 13
- callus
- 14
- infection and/or inflammation
- 15
- deformity
- 16
- gangrene
- 17
- Charcot arthropathy. **[2022]**

18 1.3.5 Use ankle brachial pressure index in line with the [NICE guideline](#)

19 [on peripheral arterial disease](#). Interpret results carefully in people

20 with diabetes because calcified arteries may falsely elevate results.

21 **[2015]**

22 1.3.6 Assess the person's current risk of developing a diabetic foot

23 problem or needing an amputation using the following risk

24 stratification:

- 25
- Low risk:
- 26
- no risk factors present except callus alone.
- 27
- Moderate risk:
- 28
- deformity **or**
- 29
- neuropathy **or**
- 30
- non-critical limb ischaemia.

- 1           • High risk:
    - 2           – previous ulceration **or**
    - 3           – previous amputation **or**
    - 4           – on renal replacement therapy **or**
    - 5           – neuropathy and non-critical limb ischaemia together **or**
    - 6           – neuropathy in combination with callus and/or deformity **or**
    - 7           – non-critical limb ischaemia in combination with callus and/or
    - 8           deformity.
  - 9           • Active diabetic foot problem:
    - 10          – ulceration **or**
    - 11          – spreading infection **or**
    - 12          – critical limb ischaemia **or**
    - 13          – gangrene **or**
    - 14          – suspicion of an acute Charcot arthropathy, or an unexplained
    - 15          hot, red, swollen foot with or without pain. **[2022]**
- 16

For a short explanation of why the committee did not change the recommendations that were reviewed in 2022, and how this might affect practice, see the [rationale and impact section on assessing the risk of developing a diabetic foot problem](#).

Full details of the evidence and the committee’s discussion are in [evidence review B: risk assessment models and tools for predicting the development of diabetic foot problems and foot review frequency](#).

## 17 **Managing the risk of developing a diabetic foot problem**

18 1.3.7 For people who are at low risk of developing a diabetic foot  
19 problem:

- 20           • continue to carry out foot assessments at their annual diabetes  
21           review

- emphasise the importance of foot care (see the [section on patient information about the risk of developing a diabetic foot problem](#))
- advise them that they could progress to moderate or high risk. **[2022]**

1.3.8 Refer people who are at moderate or high risk of developing a diabetic foot problem to the foot protection service. **[2015]**

1.3.9 The foot protection service should assess newly referred people as follows:

- Within 2 to 4 weeks for people who are at high risk of developing a diabetic foot problem.
- Within 6 to 8 weeks for people who are at moderate risk of developing a diabetic foot problem. **[2015]**

1.3.10 For people at moderate or high risk of developing a diabetic foot problem, the foot protection service should:

- Assess the feet.
- Give advice about, and provide, skin and nail care of the feet.
- Assess the biomechanical status of the feet, including the need to provide specialist footwear and orthoses.
- Assess the vascular status of the lower limbs.
- Liaise with other healthcare professionals, for example, the person's GP, about the person's diabetes management and risk of cardiovascular disease. **[2015]**

1.3.11 Depending on the person's risk of developing a diabetic foot problem, carry out reassessments at the following intervals:

- Annually for people who are at low risk, as part of their annual diabetes review.
- Frequently (for example, every 3 to 6 months) for people who are at moderate risk.

- 1 • More frequently (for example, every 1 to 2 months) for people  
2 who are at high risk, if there is no immediate concern.
- 3 • Very frequently (for example, every 1 to 2 weeks) for people who  
4 are at high risk, if there is immediate concern.
- 5 • Consider more frequent reassessments for people who are at  
6 moderate or high risk, and for people who are unable to check  
7 their own feet. **[2022]**

8 1.3.12 People in hospital who are at moderate or high risk of developing a  
9 diabetic foot problem should be given a pressure redistribution  
10 device to offload heel pressure. On discharge they should be  
11 referred or notified to the foot protection service. **[2015]**

For a short explanation of why the committee did not change the recommendations that were reviewed in 2022, and how this might affect practice, see the [rationale and impact section on managing the risk of developing a diabetic foot problem](#).

Full details of the evidence and the committee's discussion are in [evidence review B: risk assessment models and tools for predicting the development of diabetic foot problems and foot review frequency](#).

## 12 **Recommendations for research**

13 The guideline committee has made the following recommendations for  
14 research.

### 15 **Key recommendations for research**

#### 16 **1 Frequency of diabetic foot checks**

17 Based on clinical trial data and routinely collected real-world data, what is the  
18 clinical and cost effectiveness of annual foot checks for people categorised as  
19 low-risk, compared with checks every 2 years, in reducing diabetic foot  
20 problems (including ulcer, amputation and death)? **[2022]**

1 **2 Digital and emerging technologies for assessing the risk of**  
2 **developing diabetic foot problems**

3 What is the effectiveness, cost-effectiveness and acceptability of digital and  
4 emerging technologies for assessing the risk of developing a diabetic foot  
5 problem (for example laser Doppler flowmetry, infrared thermography, and  
6 devices to assess plantar pressure)? **[2022]**

7 **3 Referral criteria for the foot protection service and the**  
8 **multidisciplinary foot care service**

9 When and with what criteria should people with diabetes be referred to the  
10 foot protection service or the multidisciplinary foot care service? **[2015]**

11 **4 Education and psycho-behavioural interventions for prevention**

12 What is the role of educational models and psycho-behavioural interventions  
13 in prevention of diabetic foot complications? **[2015]**

14 **5 Prevention strategies for Charcot arthropathy**

15 What strategies may be useful in the prevention of Charcot arthropathy?  
16 **[2015]**

17 **6 Diabetic ulcer dressings**

18 What is the clinical effectiveness of different dressing types in treating diabetic  
19 foot problems? **[2015]**

20 **Other recommendations for research**

21 **Referral of people who have diabetic foot problems**

22 Within the hospital multidisciplinary team, when is it appropriate and effective  
23 to refer people with diabetes who have foot problems to specialist services  
24 such as investigative or interventional radiology, orthopaedic or vascular  
25 services, specialist pain management and specialist orthotics? **[2015]**

26 **Prevention of diabetic foot problems**

27 What is the effectiveness of different footwear, insoles and orthoses in the  
28 prevention of foot problems? **[2015]**

1 **Review of people with diabetic foot problems**

2 How often should people with diabetic foot problems (foot ulcers, soft tissue  
3 infections, osteomyelitis or gangrene) be reviewed? [2022]

4 **Negative pressure wound therapy for treating diabetic foot ulcers**

5 What is the clinical effectiveness of negative pressure wound therapy in the  
6 treatment of diabetic foot ulcers? [2015]

7 **Maggot debridement therapy for treating diabetic foot ulcers**

8 What is the clinical effectiveness of maggot debridement therapy in the  
9 debridement of diabetic foot ulcers? [2015]

10 **Risk stratification tools for predicting Charcot arthropathy**

11 Which risk stratification tools can be used to predict the likelihood of Charcot  
12 arthropathy? [2015]

13 **When to stop contact casting for acute Charcot arthropathy**

14 When is it safe to stop contact casting in the treatment of acute Charcot  
15 arthropathy? [2015]

16 **Rationale and impact**

17 These sections briefly explain why the committee kept the existing  
18 recommendations, and how this might affect practice.

19 **Assessing the risk of a diabetic foot problem**

20 Recommendations 1.3.4 and 1.3.6

21 **Why the committee made the recommendations**

22 All the risk assessment tools reviewed by the committee were able to predict  
23 ulcer occurrence with acceptable accuracy. There were no significant  
24 differences in classification accuracy (assessed using c-statistics) between  
25 the different risk assessment tools. The PODUS and SIGN systems showed  
26 the best overall sensitivity and specificity.

1 The committee agreed that the most important factor for an assessment tool  
2 was the ability to accurately identify people who are at high risk of developing  
3 a diabetic foot ulcer. Accurate identification allows people to be referred to  
4 appropriate services, where monitoring and preventative treatment can be  
5 started. A focus on high sensitivity over high specificity may lead to more false  
6 positives, with more people incorrectly receiving increased monitoring and  
7 referral to specialist services. However, the committee believe that this is  
8 preferable to using a system with lower sensitivity, because an increased risk  
9 of ulcer, infection and amputation is much worse than wasted resources from  
10 unnecessary monitoring or referrals. Overall, the SIGN system showed the  
11 highest sensitivity for both high-risk and combined high- and moderate-risk  
12 groups.

13 The committee considered recommending the PODUS clinical prediction rule  
14 because:

- 15 • it has higher classification accuracy than the SIGN system, and
- 16 • it is a short and simple assessment with only 3 items, and it could be  
17 completed by healthcare assistants or practice nurses in primary care.

18 Despite the good evidence for the PODUS system, the committee decided not  
19 to change the 2015 recommendations, because:

- 20 • SIGN had higher sensitivity than PODUS (although this assessment was  
21 based on a study with a high risk of bias).
- 22 • PODUS did not include an assessment of foot deformity. Based on their  
23 experience and knowledge of established research, the committee believe  
24 that this is an important clinical risk factor.
- 25 • The SIGN system is also relatively simple. It uses the same 3 items as  
26 PODUS, but also includes an assessment of foot deformity. The committee  
27 do not think it will take any longer to complete than the PODUS system.
- 28 • SIGN is recommended by the 2015 guideline and is well established in  
29 clinical practice. Switching to PODUS would be a potentially disruptive  
30 change to practice, and the committee did not believe that PODUS had  
31 enough advantages over SIGN to justify this.

1 The 2015 guideline recommended a modified version of SIGN that includes a  
2 check for renal disease. The committee agreed that this modification is useful  
3 and should be retained, because renal disease is a known risk factor for  
4 diabetic foot problems.

### 5 **How the recommendations might affect practice**

6 The recommendations have not changed, so no resource impact is expected.

7 [Return to recommendations](#)

### 8 **Managing the risk of developing a diabetic foot problem**

9 Recommendations 1.3.7 and 1.3.11

### 10 **Why the committee made the recommendations**

11 The evidence showed that 95.5% of people assessed as low risk at their first  
12 clinical assessment remained in the low-risk group at their final assessment 8  
13 years later. The ulceration rate in the low-risk group is also very low. Given  
14 this evidence, the committee discussed reducing the frequency of foot risk  
15 assessments to once every 2 years. However, they were concerned about the  
16 impact this may have on patient care.

17 The annual foot assessment is not just a foot examination and risk  
18 assessment. It is also a chance to teach people how to look after their feet,  
19 and to emphasise the importance of doing so. Many people with diabetes do  
20 not have good foot care routines, or do not have foot care routines at all. They  
21 may not know what to do if they have a foot problem, or who to contact. And  
22 they may benefit from regular advice about risk factors for foot problems.  
23 Reducing the frequency of foot assessments would mean reducing the  
24 number of chances to encourage good foot care and direct people to sources  
25 of support.

26 The committee discussed options for providing education and support outside  
27 of foot assessments (for example remote appointments). However, it was not  
28 clear how feasible it would be to run these extra appointments in practice.  
29 Foot assessments are currently part of the annual diabetes review, so it

1 makes sense to continue to include the foot check and risk assessment in that  
2 appointment. There are also Quality and Outcomes Framework (QOF)  
3 indicators for annual foot examination and risk classification, which further  
4 justify retaining the current system.

5 Given the risk of reducing access to education and support, the committee  
6 agreed to continue recommending annual foot assessments. They agreed  
7 that, for the recommendations to change, better evidence would be needed  
8 comparing annual and 2-yearly foot assessments. The committee therefore  
9 made research recommendations on:

- 10 • [frequency of diabetic foot checks](#)
- 11 • [frequency of review for people with diabetic foot problems](#)
- 12 • [whether access to new technologies can improve diabetic foot checks](#).

### 13 **How the recommendations might affect practice**

14 The recommendations have not changed, so no resource impact is expected.

15 [Return to recommendations](#)

### 16 **Context**

17 Diabetes is one of the most common chronic diseases in the UK and its  
18 prevalence is increasing. More than 4.9 million people in the UK have  
19 diabetes. Around 90% of these people have type 2 diabetes, around 8% have  
20 type 1 diabetes, and about 2% have rarer types of diabetes. By 2030, it is  
21 estimated that more than 5.5 million people in the UK will have diabetes. In  
22 England, the number of people diagnosed with diabetes increased between  
23 2006 and 2019 from 1.9 million to 3.3 million. The life expectancy of people  
24 with diabetes is shortened by up to 15 years, and 75% die of macrovascular  
25 complications.

26 The risk of foot problems in people with diabetes is increased, largely because  
27 of either diabetic neuropathy (nerve damage or degeneration) or peripheral  
28 arterial disease (poor blood supply due to diseased large- and medium-sized  
29 blood vessels in the legs), or both. Peripheral arterial disease affects 1 in

1 3 people with diabetes over the age of 50 and can also increase the risk of  
2 heart attack and stroke. For more information, see the [NICE guideline on](#)  
3 [peripheral arterial disease](#).

4 Foot complications are common in people with diabetes. It is estimated that  
5 10% of people with diabetes will have a diabetic foot ulcer at some point in  
6 their lives. A foot ulcer can be defined as a localised injury to the skin and/or  
7 underlying tissue, below the ankle, in a person with diabetes.

8 Diabetes is the most common cause of non-traumatic limb amputation, with  
9 diabetic foot ulcers preceding more than 80% of amputations in people with  
10 diabetes. More than 7000 diabetes-related amputations are reported in the UK  
11 per year. People are at higher risk of diabetes-related major and minor limb  
12 amputations if they are male, from the most deprived areas, aged over 65, or  
13 of white European family background. After a first amputation, people with  
14 diabetes are twice as likely to have a subsequent amputation as people  
15 without diabetes. Mortality rates after diabetic foot ulceration and amputation  
16 are high, with up to 70% of people dying within 5 years of having an  
17 amputation and around 50% dying within 5 years of developing a diabetic foot  
18 ulcer. This high mortality rate is believed to be associated with cardiovascular  
19 disease, and emphasises the importance of good diabetic and cardiovascular  
20 risk management. Although people of South Asian, African and African  
21 Caribbean family origin are more at risk of diabetes, there is no evidence that  
22 the prevalence of diabetic foot ulceration and amputation is higher in these  
23 subgroups than in the general population of people with diabetes in the UK.

24 Foot problems in people with diabetes have a significant financial impact on  
25 the NHS through primary care, community care, outpatient costs, increased  
26 bed occupancy and prolonged stays in hospital. The NHS spends at least £10  
27 billion a year on diabetes, equivalent to 10% of its budget. 80% of this is spent  
28 on treating complications, and diabetic foot care is estimated to cost the NHS  
29 in England over £1 billion per year. Diabetic foot care accounts for more  
30 healthcare costs in England than breast, prostate and lung cancer combined.  
31 Much of these costs come from treating prolonged and severe ulceration.

1 **Finding more information and committee details**

2 To find NICE guidance on related topics, including guidance in development,  
3 see the [NICE webpage on diabetes](#).

4 For details of the guideline committee see the [committee member list](#).

5 **Update information**

6 **October 2022:** This guideline is an update of NICE guideline NG19  
7 (published August 2015) and will replace it. We have reviewed the evidence  
8 on risk assessment tools for diabetic foot problems and frequency of diabetic  
9 foot reviews. We have made no new recommendations.

10 Recommendations are marked **[2022]** if the evidence has been reviewed.

11

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