Review Article

Investig Clin Urol 2025;66:106-113. https://doi.org/10.4111/icu.20250004 pISSN 2466-0493 • eISSN 2466-054X



Carbon footprints in the urologic field: From diagnosis to surgery

Jongsoo Lee^{1,*}, Miho Song^{2,*}, Jae Heon Kim²

¹Department of Urology, Severance Hospital, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, ²Department of Urology, Soonchunhyang University Seoul Hospital, Soonchunhyang University College of Medicine, Seoul, Korea

Climate change and its effects on society represent an increasingly critical concern. The healthcare industry contributes substantially to carbon emissions and bears responsibility for managing its environmental impact. This review examines recent progress, challenges, and future prospects in reducing the carbon footprint of diagnostic urology without compromising patient care, with particular emphasis on imaging. We analyze the environmental effects of urological procedures and devices, along with practices that can minimize greenhouse gas emissions. Promoting sustainability in healthcare requires a comprehensive approach from manufacturing to disposal, including examination of sterilization-related carbon footprints. This work aims to analyze existing literature on urological carbon footprints, focusing on processes and practices within the field.

Keywords: Carbon footprint; Climate change; Environmental impact; Surgical procedures; Urology

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0) which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

INTRODUCTION

A carbon footprint is the total amount of greenhouse gases (GHGs), like carbon dioxide, released into the atmosphere by activities or products. It is measured by looking at all the steps involved, from making a product to throwing it away, or by calculating emissions directly using set guidelines. Knowing this helps doctors find ways to reduce harm to the environment while still providing good care (Fig. 1).

The healthcare industry stands as a primary contributor to carbon emissions and environmental degradation globally [1]. The global healthcare sector ranks as the fifth highest producer of GHGs, with its carbon footprint comprising approximately 5% of worldwide net emissions [2].

Operating theaters generate up to 28% of hospital waste

and consume more energy than any other hospital department, making them the largest source of hospital greenhouse gas emissions [3]. This primarily stems from heating, ventilation, and air conditioning requirements. Within the National Health Service (NHS), the supply chain accounts for 62% of its carbon footprint, while staff and patient transport contributes 10%, and healthcare delivery represents 24% [4]. In response, the NHS has initiated a campaign to achieve netzero carbon emissions by 2050.

Recent years have witnessed significant growth in awareness of climate change's predicted consequences and the imperative to address them. A global consensus acknowledges human-induced climate change through greenhouse gas production [2]. This presents both a challenge and an opportunity, as addressing climate change's trajectory re-

Received: January 2, 2025 • Revised: January 22, 2025 • Accepted: January 30, 2025 • Published online: February 27, 2025 Corresponding Author: Jae Heon Kim https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4490-3610

Department of Urology, Soonchunhyang University Seoul Hospital, Soonchunhyang University College of Medicine, 59 Daesagwan-ro, Yongsan-gu, Seoul 04401, Korea

TEL: +82-2-709-9378, E-mail: piacekjh@schmc.ac.kr

*These authors contributed equally to this study and should be considered co-first authors.

© The Korean Urological Association www.icurology.org



quires substantial coordinated global effort despite numerous available solutions [5]. Assessing contributions to climate change necessitates consideration of carbon footprints, which

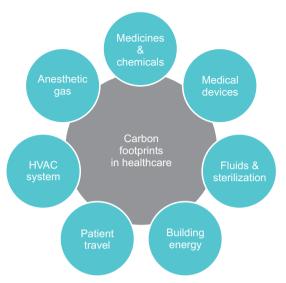


Fig. 1. Key contributors to carbon footprints in healthcare. HVAC, heating, ventilation, and air conditioning.

quantify greenhouse gas emissions from specific activities [1]. The healthcare sector's contribution of over 5% to global carbon emissions places it among the world's top five pollution sources [26], compelling the medical field to minimize its environmental impact.

The resource-intensive nature of urology makes carbon footprint reduction essential [7]. Multiple factors contribute to urological carbon footprints, including guidewires, disposable scopes, irrigation fluids, surgical equipment, anesthetics, diagnostic procedures, and healthcare-related transportation. This review (Table 1) [8-15] evaluates current sustainability practices in urology in an era of increasing urological diseases, emphasizing carbon footprint reduction strategies in urological processes [16,17].

GREENER ISSUES IN DIAGNOSTICS

Building modernization plays a critical role in reducing hospital energy consumption [18]. The optimization of on-site energy production facilities demonstrates significant potential for reducing harmful emissions in healthcare settings

Table 1. Clinical studies about carbon footprint in urologic procedures

Study	Origin of carbon footprint	Environmental impact	Quantification or estimation of CO ₂ per procedure
Davis et al. [8] (2018)	Single-use vs. reusable flexible ureteroscopes	Carbon footprint through life cycle analysis	The single-use flexible ureteroscope generates 4.43 kg of CO_2 per procedure; reusable ureteroscope generates of 4.47 kg of CO_2 per procedure.
Hogan et al. [9] (2022)	Single-use vs. reusable flexible cystoscopes	Carbon footprint through life cycle analysis	The single-use flexible cystoscope generates 2.41 kg of CO_2 ; reusable cystoscope generates 4.23 kg of CO_2 .
Baboudjian et al. [10] (2023)	Single-use vs. reusable flexible cystoscopes	Carbon footprint through life cycle analysis	The disposable flexible cystoscope generates 2.06 kg of CO ₂ ; reusable flexible cystoscope generates 3.08 kg of CO ₂ .
Kemble et al. [11] (2023)	Single-use vs. reusable flexible cystoscopes	Carbon footprint	The single-use devices generates 2.40 kg of CO ₂ ; reusable devices generates 0.53 kg of CO ₂ .
Tsang et al. [12] (2022)	Disposable and reusable items in urology procedure	Carbon footprint	Using disposable drapes and gowns, urology procedures generated 87.16 kg $\mathrm{CO_2}$ e per operation, which could be reduced by 18.2% to 71.30 kg $\mathrm{CO_2}$ e by switching to reusable items.
Leapman et al. [13] (2023)	Prostate MRI and prostate biopsy	Carbon footprint	The carbon footprint of a prostate biopsy protocol, including MRI, targeted and systematic biopsies, was calculated to be 80.7 kg $\mathrm{CO_2}$ e, with the MRI component accounting for more than half of the total emissions.
Misrai et al. [14] (2020)	New minimally invasive surgical technologies in urology	Carbon footprint	Comparing robotic-assisted laparoscopy (40.3 kg CO_2e/pt .) to open surgery (22.7 kg CO_2e/pt .), demonstrating a 77% higher carbon footprint for the robotic approach.
Fuschi et al. [15] (2024)	Radical prostatectomy	Carbon footprint through life cycle analysis	Robot-assisted radical prostatectomy generated approximately 47 kg $\rm CO_2$ per procedure, while LRP produced about 60 kg $\rm CO_2$ per procedure, with RALP resulting in 22% lower carbon emissions due to more reusable surgical supplies, shorter operative time, and reduced hospital stay.

CO₂e, carbon dioxide equivalent; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; pt., patient; LRP, laparoscopic radical prostatectomy; RALP, robotic-assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy.



[19.20] Healthcare facilities have increasingly adopted clean energy sources to enhance resilience against power outages. a growing concern in the context of climate change. This approach also offers the additional benefit of reducing pollution in surrounding communities through localized energy production [18,21].

Hospital carbon footprints can be significantly reduced through regular energy audits and systematic improvements in energy efficiency. These improvements particularly impact high-energy-consumption areas such as laundry facilities and ventilation systems. The implementation of waste reduction programs and transparent carbon footprint reporting further supports these initiatives [22].

Healthcare resources can be optimized across multiple domains to enhance sustainability. This includes improving cancer prevention and treatment protocols, developing targeted screening programs, implementing sustainable anesthetic gas practices in operating theaters, minimizing waste in systemic therapeutics, and advancing medical device efficiency [19,20]. The transition to renewable energy sources represents a crucial component of this optimization. Ureterorenoscopy provides an illustrative example in uro-oncology and stone disease management. When using standard energy sources, reusable flexible ureteroscopes generate a 432 kg CO₂ annual impact, compared to 6.25 kg CO₂e (carbon dioxide equivalent) for disposable alternatives [23]. These values decrease significantly when renewable energy sources are employed [8,23]. The implementation of climate-smart infrastructure, following models such as that proposed by MacNeill et al. [24], can accelerate emissions reduction while maintaining quality care and operational sustainability.

The cumulative environmental impact of diagnostic testing warrants particular attention. Individual blood tests generate between 49-116 g of CO₂, which aggregates to a substantial environmental burden given the hundreds of millions of tests performed annually. However, research indicates that this impact can be mitigated through the implementation of appropriate guidelines without compromising patient care or disrupting clinical workflows [18,25].

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN **ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS AND UROLOGIC CANCERS**

1. Bladder cancer

Epidemiological research has extensively documented the relationship between environmental factors and urinary tract carcinoma. Several environmental risk factors have been identified in connection with urothelial carcinoma development, including tobacco use, occupational exposure to aromatic amines in chemical industries, and exposure to arsenic-contaminated drinking water exceeding 300 micrograms per liter (µg/L). The presence of arsenic contamination extends beyond drinking water to food sources, tobacco products, and in certain cases, atmospheric exposure [26]. Climate change is expected to exacerbate arsenic contamination in food and water sources [18]. The contamination of groundwater with arsenic presents a significant public health challenge, affecting millions globally. The prolonged exposure to arsenic has been established as a major environmental carcinogen, with substantial impacts on human health [27]. Despite these known risks, there remains a notable gap in research examining the relationship between arsenic exposure through drinking water and the demographic and clinicopathological characteristics of bladder cancer patients in arsenic-exposed regions [28].

2. Prostate cancer

The treatment of prostate cancer, a hormone-dependent malignancy, primarily focuses on disrupting androgen availability or androgen signaling pathways. In this context, endocrine-disrupting compounds (EDC) and other hormonally active substances are increasingly recognized as potential contributors to disease development [18,29]. EDCs are defined in scientific literature as "exogenous substances or mixtures that alter function(s) of the endocrine system and consequently cause adverse health effects in an intact organism, its progeny, or (sub)populations" [30]. Research has investigated prostate cancer's relationship with various EDC categories, encompassing phthalates, phytoestrogens, mycoestrogens, and bisphenols [31]. The environmental impact of different treatment approaches varies significantly in terms of carbon emissions [18,32], with evidence suggesting that invasive, CO₂-intensive treatments may not always be necessary [33].

Clinical research has demonstrated that mortality rates remain notably low in prostate cancer cases detected through prostate specific antigen elevation, regardless of the chosen treatment pathway—whether active surveillance, prostatectomy, or radiation therapy [34]. While disease progression rates were lower in patients receiving radical surgical or radiotherapeutic interventions compared to active surveillance, these more aggressive approaches did not translate to improved prostate cancer mortality outcomes [35]. This evidence underscores the importance of careful consideration of treatment options when diagnosing localized prostate cancer, requiring physicians and patients to weigh the relative benefits and drawbacks of various therapeutic approaches [33,35].



CARBON FOOTPRINTS IN DIAGNOSIS

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is a cornerstone in prostate cancer diagnosis [36]. Ensuring consistent, highquality imaging is critical to maximizing its diagnostic benefits. The recently developed PI-QUAL v2 scoring system offers a comprehensive framework for improving and standardizing MRI quality, thereby reducing variability and enhancing diagnostic accuracy [37]. Adherence to these standards minimizes the need for repeat scans, which not only optimizes resource utilization but also significantly reduces the environmental impact of diagnostic imaging. Furthermore, research shows that performing MRI prior to biopsy can eliminate the need for nearly 30% of biopsy procedures [38]. This reduction results in an estimated decrease of 1.4 million kilograms of carbon dioxide emissions per 100,000 patients, underscoring the environmental and clinical benefits of strategic MRI implementation within the diagnostic pathway.

Current discourse in the field centers on the comparative efficacy of multiparametric MRI versus non-contrast MRI protocols for detecting clinically significant prostate cancer. The environmental implications of this debate are significant, as contrast-enhanced protocols generate approximately 10% higher carbon-based emissions compared to non-contrast alternatives [13]. The potential verification that non-contrast MRI provides comparable diagnostic accuracy could facilitate a transition toward more environmentally sustainable imaging practices. To establish the viability of this environmentally advantageous approach, ongoing investigations such as the PRIME trial are evaluating whether healthcare centers can safely adopt these greener imaging protocols [39].

This optimization of diagnostic pathways illustrates how evidence-based modifications to clinical protocols can simultaneously enhance environmental sustainability and maintain high standards of patient care [40]. Such approaches demonstrate the potential for reducing healthcare's environmental impact through thoughtful refinement of diagnostic strategies [41].

CARBON FOOTPRINTS IN SURGICAL **TREATMENTS**

1. Surgical field

Surgery represents a fundamental component in the treatment of localized disease within uro-oncology. Comprehensive analyses have identified three primary contributors to the surgical carbon footprint: energy consumption, anesthetic agents, and disposable surgical equipment [18,33]. The environmental impact of perioperative services is particularly influenced by ventilation energy requirements and anesthetic gas usage [22,42]. Within this context, multiple opportunities exist for enhancing sustainability in perioperative care. These improvements can be achieved through the standardization of instrument trays, transition from disposable to reusable equipment (including surgical gowns, drapes, trocars, and instruments), and systematic reduction of material waste [22].

Operating room environmental impact is predominantly driven by heating, air conditioning, and ventilation systems, which account for 90%–99% of energy consumption. Several technological and operational strategies have demonstrated effectiveness in reducing this carbon footprint, including optimized operating room design, renewable energy integration, implementation of occupancy-sensitive controls, reduced air exchange rates during non-operational hours, and development of energy-efficient facilities [33.43]. However, it is essential to note that certain infection prevention measures, particularly advanced air purification systems, may increase greenhouse gas emissions [18]. Research indicates that these systems do not consistently demonstrate improved infection prevention outcomes in the operating environment [44].

2. Endoscopy

The urological field has witnessed an increasing adoption of single-use endoscopic devices [39]. Environmental sustainability assessment in this context necessitates comprehensive life cycle evaluation to accurately measure environmental impact [10,45]. This approach is crucial for identifying and addressing all potential environmental consequences. The ongoing debate regarding single-use versus reusable endoscopic instruments centers on comparing the environmental impact of production and disposal cycles against the carbon footprint associated with sterilization processes for reusable equipment.

Analysis of cystoscopy practices has yielded interesting results, with three out of four studies favoring singleuse cystoscopes from an environmental perspective. While Kemble et al. [11] reported contrary findings, the research conducted by Baboudjian et al. [10], Hogan et al. [9], and Jahrreiss et al. [46] demonstrated lower carbon footprints for single-use cystoscopes compared to their reusable counterparts. The variability in these findings appears to correlate with differences in sterilization methods and their associated energy requirements [6]. The studies by Baboudjian et al. [10], Hogan et al. [9], and Jahrreiss et al. [46] evaluated more energy-intensive manual sterilization processes, while Kemble et al. [11] examined more energy-efficient automated

ICUROLOGY

systems.

In the context of ureteroscopy, Davis et al. [8] conducted the only known comparative analysis of environmental impact, finding comparable carbon footprints between singleuse and reusable devices. The higher susceptibility of ureteroscopes to damage compared to cystoscopes necessitates careful consideration of maintenance intervals and repair requirements when selecting reusable instruments [6].

Previous publications have indicated elevated total estimates for reusable flexible ureteroscopes, primarily attributed to the 3.95 kg CO₂e reprocessing load [8,23]. However, when examining the complete life cycle, the difference in carbon footprint between disposable and reusable ureteroscopes appears minimal [18], though disposable instruments demonstrate a notably higher production-related environmental impact [8]. Further research by Kemble et al. [11] has revealed significant differences between flexible disposable and reusable cystoscopes. When accounting for manufacturing, disposal, and reprocessing, the carbon footprint differs markedly: 2.4 kg CO₂ for disposable versus 0.53 kg CO₂ per use for reusable devices (Fig. 2) [6,8-11,18,47]. Additionally, reusable surgical equipment has demonstrated superior resilience to supply chain disruptions, an increasingly important consideration given climate change-related challenges [18].

CARBON FOOTPRINTS IN RADIATION **THERAPY**

Radiation therapy maintains a central role in the interdisciplinary management of urological malignancies, encompassing both curative treatment approaches and palliative care for incurable urological conditions [48]. Within prostate

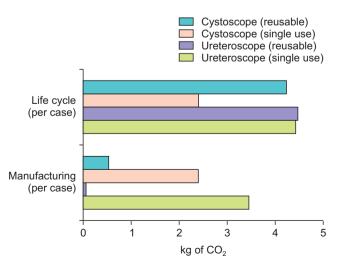


Fig. 2. Carbon footprints between single use and resuable endoscope $(kg of CO_2) [8-10,47].$

cancer treatment specifically, where local irradiation serves as an alternative to aggressive surgical intervention, the environmental impact of radiation therapy presents particular interest [35].

Research examining treatment modalities has provided valuable insights into their respective environmental impacts. Studies have demonstrated marked differences in carbon emissions between treatment protocols. Stereotactic body radiation treatment of the prostate, delivered in 5 fractions, generates the lowest average carbon emissions per treatment course at 2.18 kg CO₂ (interquartile range, 1.92–2.30). In contrast, traditional prostate cancer treatment protocols utilizing 28 fractions produce significantly higher emissions at 17.34 kg CO₂ (interquartile range, 10.26–23.79) [49]. To contextualize these figures, these emissions equate to the carbon output of vehicular travel spanning 5.4 miles (8.7 km) and 41.2 miles (66.3 km) respectively in a standard vehicle [18,49].

The environmental impact of radiation therapy equipment warrants particular attention, as a typical radiation device consumes between 64.8 kWh and 112.0 kWh of electricity daily in standby mode alone [49]. However, when compared to surgical interventions, radiation therapy demonstrates favorable environmental metrics. Robot-assisted surgery generates 40.3 kg CO₂e per patient, laparoscopic surgery produces 29.2 kg CO₂e per patient, and open surgery creates 22.7 kg CO₂e per patient. These figures indicate that radiation therapy generally results in lower direct carbon emissions than surgical alternatives [18,49]. Additionally, radiation therapy protocols typically generate substantially less medical waste (Fig. 3) [18,49-51].

The environmental implications of treatment selection underscore the importance of implementing environmentally conscious practices in urological care. Sustainable urology encompasses the adoption of environmentally responsible methods that minimize negative environmental impact while maintaining high standards of patient care and ethical practice [18]. Achieving meaningful reductions in clinical waste and carbon emissions requires systematic changes in operational practices, particularly within surgical settings. Key strategies include enhanced waste recycling programs, increased utilization of reusable equipment, appropriate implementation of local anesthesia when indicated, and optimization of testing and transportation protocols [52].

CONCLUSIONS

Healthcare providers maintain their primary focus on ensuring accurate and efficient patient care, while recognizing the growing imperative to address environmental



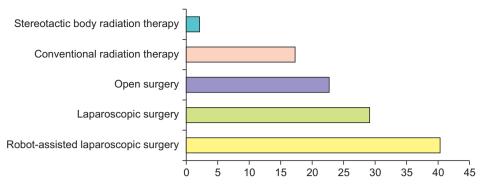


Fig. 3. Carbon footprints (CO₂ per patients) among treatment for urologic cancers (kg of CO₂) [18,51].

impact. The urological field, despite its resource-intensive nature, presents numerous opportunities for reducing carbon footprints without compromising care quality. Evidence demonstrates that implementing environmentally conscious practices across diagnostic, surgical, and therapeutic domains is both feasible and necessary. Through thoughtful consideration of treatment pathways and adoption of sustainable practices, urologists can significantly contribute to healthcare sustainability while maintaining optimal patient outcomes. This balanced approach ensures continued excellence in patient care while advancing environmental stewardship in medical practice.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors have nothing to disclose.

FUNDING

This work was supported by Soonchunhyang University Research Fund, new faculty research seed money grant of Yonsei University College of Medicine for 2024 (2024-32-0065) and National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) grant funded by the Korea government (MSIT) (2022R1A2C3005586).

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

Research conception and design: Jae Heon Kim. Data acquisition: Jongsoo Lee and Miho Song. Data analysis and interpretation: Jongsoo Lee and Miho Song. Drafting of the manuscript: Jae Heon Kim. Critical revision of the manuscript: Jae Heon Kim. Obtaining funding: Jae Heon Kim and Jongsoo Lee. Administrative, technical, or material support: Jae Heon Kim. Supervision: Jae Heon Kim. Approval of the final manuscript: all authors.

REFERENCES

- 1. Pandey D, Agrawal M, Pandey JS. Carbon footprint: current methods of estimation. Environ Monit Assess 2011;178:135-60.
- 2. Brown M, Schoen JH, Gross J, Omary RA, Hanneman K. Climate change and radiology: impetus for change and a toolkit for action. Radiology 2023;307:e230229.
- 3. Kornberg Z, Wu J, Wilmot H, Duffina T, Shah JB. A leak in the system: addressing the environmental impact of urologic care. Eur Urol 2023;84:260-2.
- 4. Tennison I, Roschnik S, Ashby B, Boyd R, Hamilton I, Oreszczyn T, et al. Health care's response to climate change: a carbon footprint assessment of the NHS in England. Lancet Planet Health 2021;5:e84-92.
- 5. Romanello M, Napoli CD, Green C, Kennard H, Lampard P, Scamman D, et al. The 2023 report of the Lancet Countdown on health and climate change: the imperative for a healthcentred response in a world facing irreversible harms. Lancet 2023;402:2346-94.
- 6. Woernle A, Moore CM, Allen C, Giganti F. Footprints in the scan: reducing the carbon footprint of diagnostic tools in urology. Curr Opin Urol 2024;34:390-5.
- 7. Crew A. Sustainable healthcare: what steps can urologists take? [Internet]. Urology News: 2022 Nov 3 [cited 2024 Dec 1]. Available from: https://www.urologynews.uk.com/features/features/post/sustainable-healthcare-what-steps-can-urologiststake
- 8. Davis NF, McGrath S, Quinlan M, Jack G, Lawrentschuk N, Bolton DM. Carbon footprint in flexible ureteroscopy: a comparative study on the environmental impact of reusable and single-use ureteroscopes. J Endourol 2018;32:214-7.
- 9. Hogan D, Rauf H, Kinnear N, Hennessey DB. The carbon footprint of single-use flexible cystoscopes compared with reusable cystoscopes. J Endourol 2022;36:1460-4.
- 10. Baboudjian M, Pradere B, Martin N, Gondran-Tellier B, Angerri O, Boucheron T, et al. Life cycle assessment of reusable and disposable cystoscopes: a path to greener urological proce-



- dures. Eur Urol Focus 2023;9:681-7.
- 11. Kemble JP, Winoker JS, Patel SH, Su ZT, Matlaga BR, Potretzke AM, et al. Environmental impact of single-use and reusable flexible cystoscopes. BJU Int 2023;131:617-22.
- 12. Tsang D, Greengrass A, Sethia K. Evaluating and reducing carbon footprint in urological surgery. J Clin Urol 2022;15(1 Suppl):P9-9.
- 13. Leapman MS, Thiel CL, Gordon IO, Nolte AC, Perecman A, Loeb S, et al. Environmental impact of prostate magnetic resonance imaging and transrectal ultrasound guided prostate biopsy. Eur Urol 2023;83:463-71.
- 14. Misrai V, Taille A, Zorn KC, Marrauld L, Pon D, Shariat SF, et al. A plea for the evaluation of the carbon footprint of new mini-invasive surgical technologies in urology. Eur Urol 2020;78:474-6.
- 15. Fuschi A, Pastore AL, Al Salhi Y, Martoccia A, De Nunzio C, Tema G, et al. The impact of radical prostatectomy on global climate: a prospective multicentre study comparing laparoscopic versus robotic surgery. Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis 2024;27:272-8.
- 16. Ko YH, Kim BH, Kwon SY, Jung HJ, Hah YS, Kim YJ, et al.; Daegu-Kyungbook Urologic Oncology Study Group. Trends of stratified prostate cancer risk in a single Korean province from 2003 to 2021: a multicenter study conducted using regional training hospital data. Investig Clin Urol 2023;64:140-7.
- 17. Jeh S, Choi M, Kang C, Kim D, Choi J, Choi S, et al. The epidemiology of male lower urinary tract symptoms associated with benign prostatic hyperplasia: results of 20 years of Korean community care and surveys. Investig Clin Urol 2024;65:69-76.
- 18. Lawaczeck L, Rudolph J, Norz V, Tsaur I, Rausch S. The role of planetary health in urologic oncology. Expert Rev Anticancer Ther 2024;24:513-23.
- 19. Briggs S, Cavet J, Lamb C, Lightowlers S. Cancer and climate change: the environmental impact of cancer care. Lancet Oncol 2021;22:e38.
- 20. Nogueira LM, Yabroff KR, Bernstein A. Climate change and cancer. CA Cancer J Clin 2020;70:239-44.
- 21. Do V, McBrien H, Flores NM, Northrop AJ, Schlegelmilch J, Kiang MV, et al. Spatiotemporal distribution of power outages with climate events and social vulnerability in the USA. Nat Commun 2023;14:2470.
- 22. Moloo H. Surgeons have a duty to improve planetary health [Internet]. American College of Surgeons; 2023 Mar 8 [cited 2024 Dec 1]. Available from: https://www.facs.org/for-medical-professionals/news-publications/news-and-articles/bulle-tin/2023/march-2023-volume-108-issue-3/surgeons-have-aduty-to-improve-planetary-health/
- 23. Thöne M, Lask J, Hennenlotter J, Stenzl A, Rausch S. Environmental and human health impact of flexible ureterorenoscopy:

- analysis of intra-hospital factors for improved life cycle assessment [Internet]. Klinik für Urologie [cited 2024 Dec 1]. Available from: https://www.ebm-netzwerk.de/de/medien/pdf/posterplatz1_ureterorenoscopy-thoene.pdf
- 24. MacNeill AJ, McGain F, Sherman JD. Planetary health care: a framework for sustainable health systems. Lancet Planet Health 2021;5:e66-8.
- 25. McAlister S, Barratt AL, McGain F. The carbon footprint of pathology testing. Med J Aust 2020;213:477.e1.
- 26. Letašiová S, Medve'ová A, Šovčíková A, Dušinská M, Volkovová K, Mosoiu C, et al. Bladder cancer, a review of the environmental risk factors. Environ Health 2012;11 Suppl 1:S11.
- 27. Amini M, Abbaspour KC, Berg M, Winkel L, Hug SJ, Hoehn E, et al. Statistical modeling of global geogenic arsenic contamination in groundwater. Environ Sci Technol 2008;42:3669-75.
- 28. Fernández MI, Valdebenito P, Delgado I, Segebre J, Chaparro E, Fuentealba D, et al. Impact of arsenic exposure on clinicopathological characteristics of bladder cancer: a comparative study between patients from an arsenic-exposed region and nonexposed reference sites. Urol Oncol 2020;38:40.e1-7.
- 29. Chen Y, Clegg NJ, Scher HI. Anti-androgens and androgendepleting therapies in prostate cancer: new agents for an established target. Lancet Oncol 2009;10:981-91.
- 30. International Programme on Chemical Safety. Global assessment on the state of the science of endocrine disruptors. World Health Organization; 2002.
- 31. Lacouture A, Lafront C, Peillex C, Pelletier M, Audet-Walsh É. Impacts of endocrine-disrupting chemicals on prostate function and cancer. Environ Res 2022;204(Pt B):112085.
- 32. Barratt A, McGain F. Overdiagnosis is increasing the carbon footprint of healthcare. BMJ 2021;375:n2407.
- 33. Rizan C, Lillywhite R, Reed M, Bhutta MF. The carbon footprint of products used in five common surgical operations: identifying contributing products and processes. J R Soc Med 2023;116:199-213.
- 34. Jeon J, Kim JH, Ha JS, Yang WJ, Cho KS, Kim DK. Impact of family history of prostate cancer on disease progression for prostatic cancer patients undergoing active surveillance: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Investig Clin Urol 2024;65:315-25.
- Hamdy FC, Donovan JL, Lane JA, Metcalfe C, Davis M, Turner EL, et al.; ProtecT Study Group. Fifteen-year outcomes after monitoring, surgery, or radiotherapy for prostate cancer. N Engl J Med 2023;388:1547-58.
- Penzkofer T, Tempany-Afdhal CM. Prostate cancer detection and diagnosis: the role of MR and its comparison with other diagnostic modalities--a radiologist's perspective. NMR Biomed 2014;27:3-15.
- 37. de Rooij M, Allen C, Twilt JJ, Thijssen LCP, Asbach P, Barrett



- T, et al. PI-QUAL version 2: an update of a standardised scoring system for the assessment of image quality of prostate MRI. Eur Radiol 2024;34:7068-79.
- 38. Kasivisvanathan V, Rannikko AS, Borghi M, Panebianco V, Mynderse LA, Vaarala MH, et al.; PRECISION Study Group Collaborators. MRI-targeted or standard biopsy for prostatecancer diagnosis. N Engl J Med 2018;378:1767-77.
- 39. Asif A, Nathan A, Ng A, Khetrapal P, Chan VW, Giganti F, et al.; PRIME Trial Group. Comparing biparametric to multiparametric MRI in the diagnosis of clinically significant prostate cancer in biopsy-naive men (PRIME): a prospective, international, multicentre, non-inferiority within-patient, diagnostic yield trial protocol. BMJ Open 2023;13:e070280.
- 40. Kang K, Park CR, Heo JE, Lee KS, Jang WS, Ham WS, et al. Usefulness of free PSA ratio to enhance detection of clinically significant prostate cancer in patients with PIRADS <3 and PSA ≤10. J Urol 2024;211(5S):e785.
- 41. Chung Y, Hong SK. Shifting to transperineal prostate biopsy: a narrative review. Prostate Int 2024;12:10-4.
- 42. Sherman JD, Chesebro BB. Inhaled anaesthesia and analgesia contribute to climate change. BMJ 2022;377:o1301.
- 43. MacNeill AJ, Lillywhite R, Brown CJ. The impact of surgery on global climate: a carbon footprinting study of operating theatres in three health systems. Lancet Planet Health 2017;1:e381-8.
- 44. Bolten A, Kringos DS, Spijkerman IJB, Sperna Weiland NH. The carbon footprint of the operating room related to infection prevention measures: a scoping review. J Hosp Infect 2022;128:64-73.
- 45. Finnveden G, Hauschild MZ, Ekvall T, Guinée J, Heijungs R,

- Hellweg S, et al. Recent developments in life cycle assessment. J Environ Manage 2009;91:1-21.
- 46. Jahrreiss V, Sarrot P, Davis NF, Somani B. Environmental impact of flexible cystoscopy: a comparative analysis between carbon footprint of Isiris® single-use cystoscope and reusable flexible cystoscope and a systematic review of literature. J Endourol 2024;38:386-94.
- 47. Al-Balushi K, Martin N, Loubon H, Baboudjian M, Michel F, Sichez PC, et al. Comparative medico-economic study of reusable vs. single-use flexible ureteroscopes. Int Urol Nephrol 2019;51:1735-41.
- 48. Ahmad S, Zakikhani P, Gietzman W, Macdonald G, Royle JS. Radiation therapy for urological cancers. J Clin Urol 2016;9:142-50.
- 49. Shenker RF, Johnson TL, Ribeiro M, Rodrigues A, Chino J. Estimating carbon dioxide emissions and direct power consumption of linear accelerator-based external beam radiation therapy. Adv Radiat Oncol 2022;8:101170.
- 50. Abdulrasheed H, Adenipekun A, Elsayed W, Mohsin MS, Madarshahian D, Almedej H, et al. Uncovering the evidence for sustainability in urology: a scoping review. Urol Res Pract 2024;50:160-6.
- 51. Woods DL, McAndrew T, Nevadunsky N, Hou JY, Goldberg G, Yi-Shin Kuo D, et al. Carbon footprint of robotically-assisted laparoscopy, laparoscopy and laparotomy: a comparison. Int J Med Robot 2015;11:406-12.
- 52. Kodumuri P. Sustainable surgery: how can it be implemented? [Internet]. Top Doctors; 2022 Nov 2 [cited 2024 Dec 1]. Available from: https://www.topdoctors.co.uk/medical-articles/ sustainable-surgery-how-can-it-be-implemented#