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Table 1

Main components of a hospital's carbon footprint [4].

Hospital carbon footprint

- Electricity
- Heating and cooling
- Staff travel and products transportation
- Equipment and supplies production and disposal

23 impact on health, causing a significantly increasing level of disease
 24 and deaths; they therefore have an impact on the efficacy of national healthcare systems, potentially pushing hospitals and health
 25 services to collapse.

26 Raising awareness about environmental issues and the need to
 27 keep the Earth's temperature stable led 197 countries to sign the
 28 Glasgow Climate Pact at the 2021 United Nations Climate Change
 29 Conference (COP26), with each country promising to reduce CO₂
 30 emissions and strengthen the aims of their national decarbonisation
 31 plans.

32 In addition to transnational and government policy plans, individual citizens and organisations, such as healthcare systems, can
 33 also play a pivotal role in policy changes and social mobilisation to
 34 reduce CO₂ emissions and global warming.

35 The mission of the healthcare sector is to enhance and protect
 36 human health and well-being. However, a healthcare intervention
 37 must be evaluated through the 'triple bottom line' of financial, social, and environmental impact to avoid the paradox of harming
 38 the health of humans, which we aim to protect [2]. The clinical
 39 benefit of a healthcare service/intervention has to be considered in
 40 a long-term scenario and weighed against economic implications,
 41 social impact on patients and their caregivers, and environmental
 42 costs in terms of carbon footprint. In fact, it is estimated that 4.4%
 43 of global GHG emissions is produced by healthcare systems (equivalent
 44 to the annual emissions from 514 coal-fired power plants)
 45 [3]. As an important contributor to climate change, the healthcare
 46 sector must take responsibility for its carbon footprint and radically
 47 reduce the impact of its activities, while maintaining high
 48 standards of care (Table 1).

52 2. Effects of the climate crisis in digestive diseases

53 Climate changes have important implications for digestive diseases and public health: a shift in epidemiology of gastrointestinal (GI) and liver diseases can be predicted due to their close connection with the environment [4]. For example, there is high geographical variation, in part attributable to environmental factors, in the incidence of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) and colorectal cancer. Moreover, the climate crisis increases chronic and/or acute mental stress of populations, therefore fostering the onset and exacerbation of functional GI diseases, due to their connection with mental health [5]. Hampered access to medical assistance, uncontaminated water and food, alterations in humidity and temperature of endemic habitats, acute events like floods and storms are predicted to facilitate the spread of undernutrition and infections, such as diarrheal illnesses, in both developing and industrialised countries [6,7]. As a consequence, the climate crisis can increase the diffusion of viral liver diseases (mainly hepatitis A and E, but also B, C and Delta), hepatocellular carcinoma and metabolic liver disease due to the poor quality of the food consumed [8].

71 3. Contribution of digestive endoscopy to the climate crisis

72 Procedure-dominant fields, such as gastroenterology, and in particular, digestive endoscopy, by their intrinsic nature are bound to have a remarkable carbon footprint. In Italy, 45 endoscopic procedures per 1,000 persons are performed yearly, corresponding to

73 a total of 2.6 million per year, which is comparable to the total amount of procedures carried out in England [9]. The exact assessment of the carbon footprint of a product, process, or service can be performed through a life cycle assessment (LCA), which calculates GHG emissions at all the stages of a product's life, from raw material extraction through processing, manufacturing, distribution, use and disposal. Albeit this complex and rigorous assessment has not yet been applied to evaluate the carbon footprint of digestive endoscopy, studies that estimate the entity of the problem are increasing. About 3.1 kilograms in waste are produced for each digestive endoscopy bed-day, making gastroenterology the third largest contributor to waste production in healthcare [10]. In a recent study, Namburkar et al. estimated the environmental impact of a digestive endoscopy unit through the measurement of the volume and mass of trash in suites, pre-procedure and post-procedure areas [11]. In a high-volume endoscopic centre (13,000 procedures/year), the total waste generated during a 5-day routine was 546 kg, comprising direct landfill, biohazard and recycled waste. Conversely, in a low-volume centre (2,000 procedures/year), 73kg of total waste was generated during the same period. Considering the number of endoscopic procedures performed yearly in the USA (18 million), the authors estimated a production of disposable waste of 836,000 cubic meters per year, equivalent to covering approximately 117 soccer fields to a height of 1metre with trash. When also including the reprocessing of endoscopes in the analysis, the total waste volume would increase to 927,000 cubic meters. An emblematic difference between the two endoscopy units analysed emerged in the waste management process: while the high-volume hospital recycled approximately 29% of the total waste volume (16% of waste mass), no waste was recycled by the low-volume hospital. Regarding the main contributors to the current healthcare system's carbon footprint, surprisingly only 3% of hospital GHG emissions are due to waste, while the consumption of gas, electricity, heating and cooling are responsible for about 40% of total emissions [12]. It is estimated that the largest share of the healthcare system's emissions originates from the supply chain, while the direct delivery of care and personal travel are among the other main contributors [13].

74 Personal protective equipment (PPE) is an important contributor to the production of waste in hospitals. Since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic, the use of PPE has markedly increased in digestive endoscopy suites, leading accordingly to significant environmental implications [14]. In addition, ancillary disposable supplies used during endoscopic examinations are numerous, often disposable and made in plastic: their use generates approximately 2kg of waste per procedure [11].

75 Furthermore, digestive endoscopy generates relevant quantities of highly polluting elements, such as synthetic polymers (polyethylene, polyurethanes, Teflon®), nickel and titanium, which are components of stents [15,16].

76 3.1. Single-use endoscopes and consumables

77 In recent years, the primary focus of research in single-use endoscopes has been restricted to reducing infectious complications, 78 principally linked to the contamination of duodenoscopes, and the 79 economic costs of the devices. A recent meta-analysis reported a 80 15% contamination rate of reusable duodenoscopes from 13,100 81 samples analysed, albeit the clinical impact of contaminated 82 endoscopes remains a matter of debate [17,18]. However, awareness 83 of the environmental and social impact of disposable devices is 84 increasing since their use has relevant implications [19]. To date, 85 recyclable metal represents only a smaller part of the endoscope 86 and, therefore, the main part of the device is incinerated, similar 87 to other waste [20]. It is estimated that if all endoscopic retrograde 88 cholangiopancreatographies (ERCP) and colonoscopies were per-

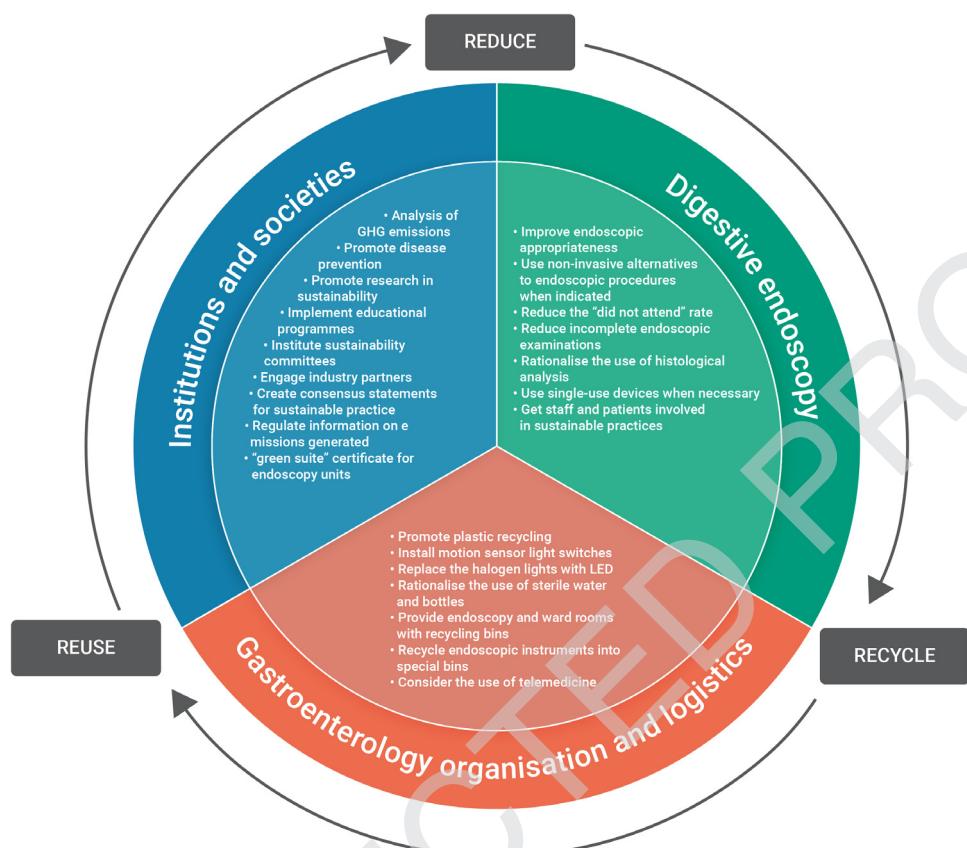


Fig. 1. Solutions to reduce the environmental impact of gastrointestinal endoscopy.

140 formed with disposable instead of reusable devices, the net waste
 141 mass per endoscopic procedure would increase by 25%, even if
 142 waste mass generated for reprocessing would decrease [11]. From
 143 a social standpoint, underprivileged and indigent communities and
 144 patients are more likely to bear the financial and environmental
 145 burdens of single-use endoscopes without enjoying the benefits of
 146 their use. In fact, the main part of endoscopic equipment is pro-
 147 duced in low-income countries, where territories might be at risk
 148 of excessive exploitation and unequal or unhealthy work conditions
 149 due to the high demand of these products. Further, disposable de-
 150 vices are cost prohibitive for smaller hospitals with a low volume
 151 of procedures [20].

152 **4. Carbon footprint reduction strategy in gastroenterology and** 153 **digestive endoscopy**

154 As gastroenterologists and healthcare providers in digestive
 155 health, we must consider our daily activities in a new light, give
 156 more consideration to issues of sustainability and work to create a
 157 "green endoscopy". Scientific societies, hospital executives and sin-
 158 gle endoscopic units can provide leadership to structure govern-
 159 ment and healthcare policy and practice. The general strategies for
 160 GHG emissions reduction can be summarised in the "3 Rs": "Re-
 161 duce, Reuse, Recycle" [21]. These principles can be applied in en-
 162 doscopy, with an approach oriented at all levels, from individuals
 163 to institutions (Fig. 1).

164 **4.1. Role of institutions and scientific societies**

165 At the institutional level, national governments should liaise
 166 closely with scientific societies advocating measures to achieve

167 net-zero carbon emissions by 2050. Following the virtuous exam-
 168 ple of the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE),
 169 sustainability and resource stewardship should be placed at the
 170 heart of quality improvement strategies in healthcare [2]. What
 171 does it really mean to be sustainable today? According to the Royal
 172 College of Physicians, sustainability is defined today as the ability
 173 of a healthcare service to deliver healthcare over time, while con-
 174 sidering future generations [22].

175 To make the healthcare sector more sustainable, institutions
 176 could adopt laws and allocate funds for eco-friendly projects,
 177 engage industry partners, implement educational programmes
 178 (articles, websites, webinars and meetings), develop analyses
 179 of GHG production of daily professional activities, and design
 180 strategies for minimising carbon footprints. Creating consensus
 181 statements for sustainable practice promotion and diagnostic
 182 and therapeutic care pathways (PDTA) will minimise the en-
 183 vironmental impacts of hospitals, institutions and their supply
 184 chain [22].

185 For this purpose, the World Gastroenterology Organisation
 186 (WGO), representing the gastroenterological societies of 108 coun-
 187 tries, has created the Working Group on Climate Change, with del-
 188 egates from 18 different countries reviewing the scientific litera-
 189 ture on climate changes and gastrointestinal health, encouraging
 190 educational models and promoting further research in the gas-
 191 troenterological community [4]. The National institute of health
 192 (NHS) has recently created the "NHS Sustainability Board": a team
 193 that will work with staff, hospitals and partners to empower sus-
 194 tainable measures to reach net-zero carbon emissions. Taking the
 195 virtuous example of the NHS as a model, national and international
 196 societies should institute "sustainability committees" to coordinate
 197 and support "greener" actions across the entire healthcare system.
 198 Cooperating with other national committees, industries and pa-

199 tients' societies, the committees would assure the production of
 200 dedicated guidelines, information campaigns and monitor progress
 201 across all healthcare levels.

202 Governments should enact laws that regulate information on
 203 emissions generated from the industry. Best practices in the sup-
 204 ply chain of hospital equipment can be enhanced to promote sus-
 205 tainability through their entire life cycle [23]. The carbon footprint
 206 of industrial products could be calculated through the life cycle as-
 207 sessment methodology and it should be indicated on labels and
 208 provided to key stakeholders favouring a conscious choice of in-
 209 struments and supplies. Encouraging relations with health indus-
 210 tries that adopt greener solutions (e.g., avoiding the print of sci-
 211 entific journals or high polluting, excess packaging for journals
 212 and devices) and rewarding the mitigation policies of companies
 213 that produce waste (e.g., reforestation, use of recyclable materials
 214 or recycled sources) represent other valuable efforts. Is important
 215 that governments and societies encourage industries to produce in
 216 countries where social equity and fair work conditions are guaran-
 217 teed.

218 Today, endoscopy services should be evaluated by the scientific
 219 gastroenterological societies, institutions, and hospital administra-
 220 tions not only in terms of their efficiency (outcome for patient
 221 and population), but also in terms of their economic, social and
 222 environmental costs. Four "principles of sustainable clinical prac-
 223 tice" were identified by the Campaign for Greener Healthcare with
 224 the aim of decreasing the need for healthcare interventions and
 225 the ecological footprint of necessary activities, while maintaining
 226 high standards of care [24]. These four sustainable principles are:
 227 disease prevention and health promotion, patient education and
 228 empowerment, lean systems and pathways and preferential use
 229 of technologies and interventions with lower environmental im-
 230 pact [22,24]. To embed sustainable principles into every day clin-
 231 ical practice, gastroenterological scientific societies should also cre-
 232 ate quality certificates for the accreditation of endoscopy services
 233 that also provide a "green suite" certificate, indicating the protocols
 234 and sustainability standards adopted. The "green suite" certificate
 235 would be easy to institute, inexpensive and would promote lower
 236 production levels and higher recycling levels of waste [10].

237 Another aspect to consider is the importance of prevention,
 238 which is the most effective measure to promote sustainability and
 239 health. Disease prevention is vital and must be promoted by insti-
 240 tutions and single physicians because it reduces the incidence of
 241 diseases and mortality and, as a consequence, leads to an effective
 242 reduction of costs for national health services, to the reduction of
 243 the social impact of diseases for patients and families and the re-
 244 duction of the environmental effects of medical care.

245 Scientific societies and pharmaceutical companies can also pro-
 246 mote hybrid conferences and meetings, giving the possibility of at-
 247 tending sessions also in remote modality, as already successfully
 248 experienced during the COVID-19 pandemic.

249 4.2. Telemedicine

250 A relevant number of patients travel long distances to at-
 251 tend their exams and visits, especially at large referral centres.
 252 Telemedicine is, therefore, a formidable tool for reducing the envi-
 253 ronmental impact of medical care [25,26]. Telemedicine represents
 254 a useful tool for follow-up visits in subjects with chronic diseases,
 255 for second-opinion visits of patients that live far from a tertiary
 256 hospital, to send commented reports or to evaluate instrumental
 257 examinations and lab tests in patients who have already been vis-
 258 ited [27]. An additional measure is to use electronic health records
 259 for prescriptions and the scheduling of endoscopic examinations,
 260 according to shared and verifiable criteria of appropriateness and
 261 priority. Electronic systems can also be used for tele-consultation
 262 (virtual consultation between physicians) and tele-cooperation (a

263 remote collaboration between health professionals in order to per-
 264 form a medical procedure) [27]. Similarly, the online availability of
 265 medical and histological reports and their virtual comment with
 266 the physician favours the reduction of both the risk of inappropri-
 267 ateness and the carbon footprint generated by the movement of
 268 people.

269 4.3. Role of gastroenterology and digestive endoscopy

270 Single endoscopy units play a crucial role in promoting sustain-
 271 able practice in gastroenterology: they have a consistent buying
 272 power with industries and, improving their organisation and ad-
 273 herence to guidelines, can counteract the referral for inappropriate
 274 examinations, the incorrect disposal of waste and the poor aware-
 275 ness of the carbon footprint concept among colleagues, staff, and
 276 patients.

277 Inappropriateness involves about 52% of upper GI tract exami-
 278 nations and between 23% and 52% of colonoscopies [28]. Interna-
 279 tional guidelines for improving endoscopic appropriateness and the
 280 "Choosing wisely" initiative should guide clinical practice on indi-
 281 cations for surveillance and diagnostic endoscopy (Tables 2 and 3)
 282 [29,30]. Reducing the number of low-yield procedures is the sin-
 283 gle measure with the greatest impact on GHG emissions (Table 2,
 284 Table 3).

285 Interest is growing in non-invasive alternatives to endoscopic
 286 procedures and screening tools that enhance endoscopic diagnostic
 287 yield when invasive procedures are indicated. Faecal calprotectin is
 288 useful to avoid colonoscopy in IBD monitoring and in symptomatic
 289 patients with functional gastrointestinal diseases referred for sus-
 290 pected organic disease [31]. Faecal immunochemical test (FIT) is
 291 useful in colorectal cancer screening to reduce the number of inva-
 292 sive and expensive procedures and indicated only for this purpose
 293 [32,33]. Concerning oesophageal diseases, Cytosponge, though not
 294 yet validated in clinical practice, has a lower environmental impact
 295 than upper endoscopy and is showing efficacy for prioritising inva-
 296 sive surveillance in non-dysplastic Barrett's disease [34,35].

297 Endoscopy units must reduce as much as possible their "did
 298 not attend" rates and incomplete endoscopic examinations, which
 299 therefore need to be reprogrammed. This goal can be achieved by
 300 improving communication with patients and the scheduling of ap-
 301 pointment times, providing precise information on bowel prepa-
 302 ration for colonoscopy and the management of antiplatelet and/or
 303 anticoagulant drugs.

304 Histological analysis is one of the components of the high "car-
 305 bon footprint" of digestive endoscopy. Processing a biopsy involves
 306 about 11 steps. The contributors to GHG emissions are the produc-
 307 tion of supplies, which is the largest contributor; the production
 308 of chemicals and reagents; electrical energy consumption for the
 309 laboratory; staff travels; and waste management. Emissions from
 310 biopsy processing are estimated to be about 0.28 kg CO₂ when 1
 311 jar is used for multiple samples and 0.79 kg CO₂ when 3 jars are
 312 used, one for each sample [36]. These GHG levels are equivalent to
 313 those produced driving a passenger car for 1.1 kilometres (0.28 kg
 314 CO₂) and 3.2 kilometres (0.79 kg CO₂), respectively. In this regard,
 315 adherence to guidelines on the adequate collection and handling of
 316 endoscopic tissue sampling allows for the reduction in the num-
 317 ber of endoscopic procedures performed and unnecessary biopsies
 318 [37,38].

319 The use of advanced endoscopic imaging (e.g., traditional or vir-
 320 tual chemoendoscopy, magnification) improves mucosal visualisa-
 321 tion and endoscopic diagnosis and, as a consequence, allows for
 322 the more accurate selection of the sites to sample. This is useful to
 323 identify lesions without developmental risk (e.g., small rectal hy-
 324 perplastic polyps), which do not require resection, and diminutive
 325 (≤ 5 mm) colorectal polyps which, under strictly controlled con-

Table 2

Measures to improve endoscopic appropriateness.

- Avoid the prescription of EGDS in young subjects (<45 years) in the absence of risk factors or alarm symptoms
- Avoid routine "second-look" endoscopy after previous EGDS performed for digestive haemorrhage
- Avoid EGDS for variceal screening and surveillance patients with cirrhosis and a very low risk of varices requiring treatment
- Avoid the prescription of screening colonoscopies in low-risk subjects or in subjects of advanced age and poor general health status
- Identify digestive findings that do not require endoscopic surveillance (Table 3)
- Use non-invasive tests when indicated in place of endoscopic examinations

Table 3

Digestive findings that do not require endoscopic surveillance.

Oesophagus	Inlet patches Los Angeles grade A or B erosive oesophagitis < 1 cm Barrett's oesophagus
Stomach	Intestinal metaplasia at a single location (i.e. antrum or corpus only) without additional risk factors Fundic gland polyps Antral pancreatic rests
Subepithelial lesions	Leiomyomas, lipomas
Duodenum	Duodenal peptic ulcer
Pancreas	Serous cystic neoplasms
Colon	Low-risk colorectal polyps

Adapted from Rodríguez-de-Santiago et al. [26].

326 ditions, can be removed without histological analysis ("resect-and-
327 discard" technique) [39].

328 The environmental impact of disposable and reusable devices
329 should be taken into consideration when planning an endoscopic
330 procedure. Furthermore, when purchasing medical accessories, en-
331 doscopic instruments and washing machines, those with a lower
332 carbon footprint (which should be therefore clearly indicated by
333 the manufacturer on product labels) or those made with recyclable
334 materials should be preferred.

335 4.4. Sustainable waste disposal and logistic

336 According to the World Health Organization (WHO), a safe, sus-
337 tainable and affordable management of health-care waste should
338 be guided by the 'waste hierarchy' (Fig. 2) [40]. The best sustain-
339 able waste management strategy will be therefore mainly based
340 on the 3Rs (reduce, reuse and recycle). The most preferable ap-
341 proach, when feasible, consists in disease prevention and waste
342 minimization. It is estimated that safe management strategies for
343 medical waste disposal are lacking in most healthcare facilities
344 worldwide [41,42]; the subsequent COVID-19 pandemic has, un-
345 fortunately, greatly increased the amount of medical waste which
346 needs to be disposed of, significantly aggravating the problem [14].
347 In fact, it is estimated that the pandemic has led to a doubling of
348 plastic used in healthcare, with short-term (impact on water and
349 air quality) and long-term (nanoplastic production) consequences.
350 Globally, around 3.4 billion disposable face masks are consumed
351 per day and these are mostly made of plastic [43]. To counter-
352 act this surge in discarded waste, endoscopy examination rooms
353 and gastroenterology wards should be equipped with different bins
354 for the separate collection of rubbish (plastic, paper and glass); in
355 addition, traceability and the correct separation of different kinds
356 of waste by the hospital must be guaranteed to improve dynamic
357 waste management strategies. Correct waste stream management
358 is fundamental to empowering recycling, to reduce the amount of
359 waste unnecessary incinerated or sent to landfill, and to help im-
360 prove hospital sustainability and production of less harmful air and
361 toxic chemicals.

362 Other measures to reduce the environmental impact of en-
363 doscopy and the amount of disposed waste could be:

- use of lower volume packaging for hospital supplies

- development of easy to disinfect and reusable PPE or PPE made with biodegradable or recyclable material
- investment in structured waste recycling systems
- reduction of the impact of global transport through local production of PPE

4.5. Reorganisation of hospital and endoscopic rooms

In endoscopic suites, the implementation of simple changes can
371 rapidly make our examination rooms "greener" and reduce energy
372 use:

Structural measures:

- replace halogen with LED lights and use soft lighting during en-
375 doscopic procedures
- increase renewable energy sources (e.g., solar or photovoltaic
376 panels)
- install sensors for automatic switching on and off of the lights
378

Organisational measures:

- turn the lights off during extended breaks
- collect instruments (biopsy forceps, snares, and spray catheters)
382 into special bins for both metals and hard plastics. Equip the
383 breakroom with compost bins for food and organic waste.
- rationalise the use of water (sinks, taps, flushing systems with
384 flow meters) and sterile bottles. It is estimated that 100 bot-
385 tles per day are used in an endoscopy unit, are all these bottles
386 really necessary? The use of reusable bottles and filtration sys-
387 tems would reduce the use of unnecessary sterile plastic bot-
388 tles, especially for intraprocedural water supply in nonsterile
389 procedures like colonoscopy [44]. Evidence from clinical trials
390 has demonstrated the safety of tap water, compared with ster-
391 ile water, during endoscopy [45,46]. The use of reusable wa-
392 ter bottles and filtered tap water instead of sterile water in
393 the irrigation bottle for colonoscopies would lead to consid-
394 erable cost savings [47]. Hence, the current American Society
395 for Gastrointestinal Endoscopy (ASGE) guidelines support the
396 safety of tap water in the irrigation bottle and specifically rec-
397 ommend the use of sterile water when endoscopy is performed
398 on subjects vulnerable to infections (e.g. immunocompromised
399 patients) [48].

Most preferable

Prevent

Reduce

Reuse

Recycle

Recover

Treat

Dispose

Least preferable

Fig. 2. The waste-management hierarchy.

402 **5. Conclusions**

403 The climate crisis is, perhaps, the biggest global health threat of
 404 the 21st century. Growing awareness about climate change and the
 405 carbon footprint of digestive endoscopy will help identify strategies
 406 to increase the sustainability of gastroenterology and endoscopy
 407 services across the world. Industries, scientific societies, national
 408 health services, single hospitals and health care providers should
 409 work together and take steps towards carbon neutrality. Sustainability
 410 should be now considered a central domain of quality in
 411 healthcare, extending the responsibility of health services to both
 412 the patients of today and those of the future. In summary, we are
 413 facing an enormous challenge, but the path leading to potential so-
 414 lutions is starting to be drawn.

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