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Do single-use medical devices containing biopolymers reduce the environmental impacts of surgical procedures compared with their plastic equivalents?

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27 INVESTIGATING INNOVATIVE MATERIAL SHIFTS IN MEDICAL PRODUCTS TO
28 REDUCE ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS: FOCUS ON BIOPOLYMERS
29

30 **Abstract**

31 While petroleum-based plastics are extensively used in healthcare settings, recent developments
32 in biopolymer manufacturing processes have created new avenues and opportunities for
33 increased integration of biopolymers into medical products, devices, and services. This paper
34 assessed opportunities for using three different biopolymers in healthcare and the resultant
35 comparative environmental impacts of single use disposable devices with increased biopolymer
36 content vs. typically manufactured devices in hysterectomy procedures. This study performed a
37 comparative life cycle assessment of single-use-disposable medical products containing
38 plastic(s) versus the same single-use medical devices with biopolymers substituted for plastic(s).
39 The context of this life cycle assessment (LCA) was that of Magee-Womens Hospital (Magee) in
40 Pittsburgh, PA, and the products used in four types of hysterectomies performed at Magee that
41 contained plastics potentially suitable for biopolymer substitution. Magee is a 360-bed teaching
42 hospital, which performs approximately 1400 hysterectomies annually. Individual participants
43 were not applicable to this study. Rather, medical products used in the hysterectomies were the
44 focus of this study. There are life-cycle environmental impact tradeoffs when substituting
45 bioplastics for petroplastics in operating room procedures such as hysterectomies. The
46 substitution of biopolymers for petroleum-based plastics increased smog-related impacts by
47 approximately 900% for laparoscopic and robotic hysterectomies, and increased ozone
48 depletion-related impacts by approximately 125% for laparoscopic and robotic hysterectomies.
49 Conversely, biopolymers reduced life-cycle human health impacts, acidification and cumulative
50 energy demand for the four hysterectomy procedures. The integration of biopolymers into

51 medical products is correlated with reductions in carcinogenic impacts, non-carcinogenic
52 impacts, and respiratory effects. However, the significant agricultural inputs associated with
53 manufacturing biopolymers exacerbates environmental impacts of products and devices made
54 out of biopolymers.

55

56 **Method**

57

58 **a. Background**

59

60 It was not until the 1960s that plastics became so pervasively used in healthcare (Greene,
61 1986). At this time, the healthcare industry learned how to substitute polyvinyls, polycarbonates,
62 and polystyrenes for materials originally made out of glass, rubber, metal, and woven textiles
63 (Greene, 1986). The substitution occurred primarily because medical device manufacturing
64 companies learned to make devices with plastics efficiently and cheaply. These factors led to
65 increases in healthcare plastic use, which consequentially led to fundamental changes in the
66 processes that governed medical device manufacturing, use, and disposal. For example, before
67 the substitution of petroleum-based plastics, medical products made of woven-cotton would
68 undergo cleaning on-site at the hospital once they were used (Greene, 1986). Following the
69 substitution of petroleum-based plastics, devices made of plastic that fulfilled the same function
70 would be disposed after being used only one instance; which consequently led to increased
71 quantities of waste created by hospitals.

72

73 Over the past half-century, plastics have become a ubiquitous material in the medical
74 device industry. In a study analyzing environmental impact of seven single-use medical devices
75 undergoing reprocessing, all had some form of polyethylene in each of their respective bill of
76 materials (Unger & Landis, 2015). Total polyethylene weight ranged anywhere from 7% to 88%
77 of total weight for individual devices, and made up 52% of total weight for the combined
78 average of the seven devices (Unger & Landis, 2015). In another study of four types of
79 hysterectomy (abdominal, vaginal, laparoscopic, robotic), plastics were again found to be a
80 significant portion of the operating room (OR) waste stream. The study concluded that the
81 plastics used (e.g., thin film packaging wrappers, hard plastic trays) accounted for a minimum of
82 36% of material solid waste (MSW) by weight for vaginal hysterectomies and a maximum of
83 46% of MSW by weight for robotic procedures (Thiel et al., 2014).

84

85 While petroleum-based plastics are extensively used in healthcare settings, bio-plastics
86 for the past several decades have also formed their own niche market in the healthcare industry.
87 As opposed to petroleum-based plastics that obtain their carbon from non-renewable resources
88 (e.g., petroleum), bio-plastics (a.k.a. biopolymers) are plastics in which some or all of the
89 polymer is derived from renewable feedstocks. With regards to healthcare applications, recent
90 developments in biopolymer manufacturing processes have created new avenues and
91 opportunities for increased integration of biopolymers into medical products, devices, and
92 services (Auras, Lim, Selke, & Tsuji, 2011). One factor that has contributed to these
93 opportunities is that newly developed biopolymers are able to retain similar physical
94 characteristics of synthetic plastics. For example, emerging studies show that guayule-derived
95 latex rubber is a suitable substitute for flexible plastics and traditional rubber products (Cornish,

96 Williams, Hall, & III, 2008; Rasutis, Soratana, McMahan, & Landis, 2015). Another study
97 shows that the biopolymer polylactide (PLA) is a suitable substitute for different forms of plastic
98 (Madhavan Nampoothiri, Nair, & John, 2010). Based on the material and chemical properties of
99 PLA, the study concluded that PLA has many potential applications, including upholstery,
100 disposable garments, awnings, feminine hygiene products, and diapers (Madhavan Nampoothiri
101 et al., 2010). One of the benefits of PLA is that it is compostable, and might allow hospitals to
102 decrease the amount of plastics in their respective waste streams (Ghorpade, Gennadios, &
103 Hanna, 2001).

104

105 Given recent development in the field of biopolymers and their potential to replace
106 commonly used plastics, there is the possibility to use biopolymers in a variety of medical
107 products. Replacing petroleum-based plastics with biopolymers would not only reduce depletion
108 of non-renewable resources, but could also reduce hospital-generated material solid waste
109 (MSW) and regulated medical waste (RMW) if the biopolymers are composted; however, a
110 systems approach is needed to discern any potential net gain (or losses) from a life cycle
111 perspective. Such a replacement would contribute to the trend of hospitals placing a higher
112 emphasis on sustainability initiatives. The foci of these sustainability initiatives include (but are
113 not limited to) a hospital's efficient use of materials, energy efficiency, water efficiency, green
114 purchasing, and waste diversion strategies (Janet, 2013; Kaplan et al., 2012; Kwakye, Brat, &
115 Makary, 2011). Moreover, an assessment of the environmental impacts of increased biopolymer
116 use in favor of petroleum-based plastics in medical devices and products has not yet been
117 performed. *This study addresses this knowledge gap by comparing the environmental impacts of*
118 *medical devices composed of plastics versus the same medical devices made with biopolymers.*

119

120 The methods section parallels the four major steps of a life cycle assessment (LCA) (i.e.,
121 goal and scope definition, inventory analysis, impact assessment, interpretation) as described by
122 the ISO 14040 series. LCAs are used to assess environmental impacts throughout a product's life
123 and seek to address a number of environmentally related concerns, including: compilation of
124 energy and material input and outputs; evaluation of potential impacts attributed to the inputs and
125 outputs; and, interpretation of the results to help make a more informed decision (EPA, 2010). In
126 addition to the LCA, a 2³ factorial experiment was used to demonstrate the environmental and
127 human health impacts resulting from different biopolymer substitutions.

128

129 **b. Scope and System Boundary**

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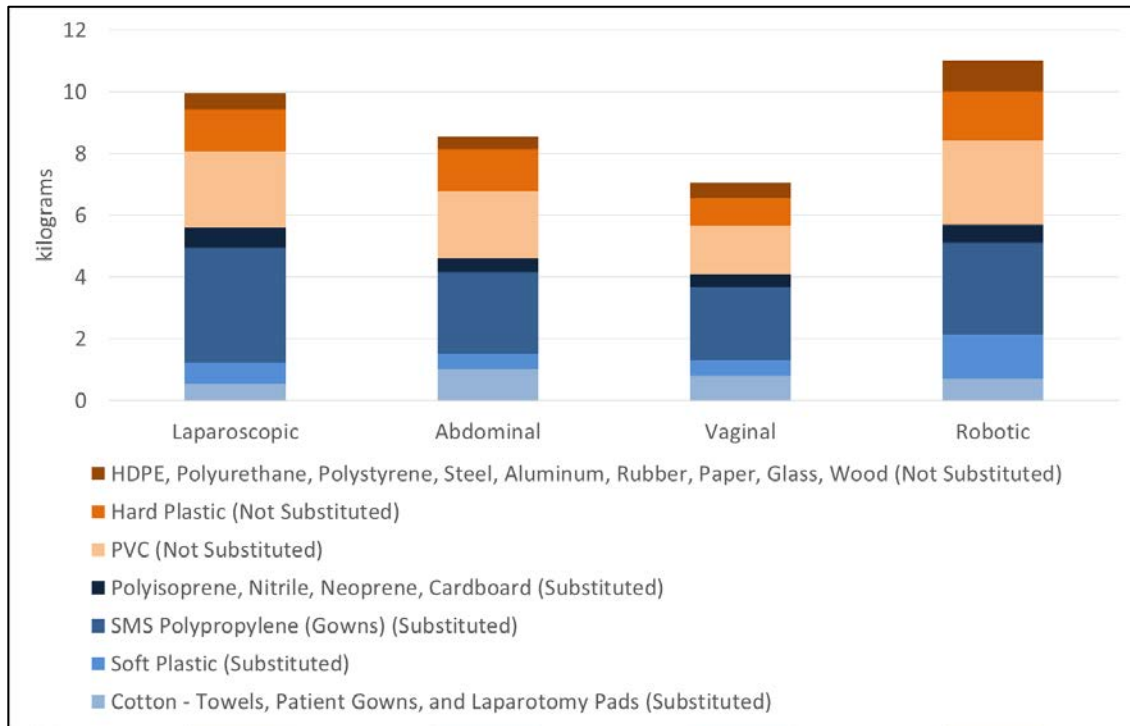
131 This study presents a comparative life cycle assessment of single-use-disposable medical
132 products containing plastic(s) versus the same single-use medical devices with biopolymers
133 substituted for plastic(s). The context of this LCA was that of Magee-Womens Hospital (Magee)
134 in Pittsburgh, PA, and the products used in four types of hysterectomies performed at Magee that
135 contained plastics potentially suitable for biopolymer substitution. Magee is a 360-bed teaching
136 hospital, which performs approximately 1400 hysterectomies annually. The products and devices
137 evaluated are those used in four types of hysterectomy (i.e., vaginal, abdominal, laparoscopic,
138 robotic) at Magee. Vaginal hysterectomy is a procedure where the uterus and/or cervix are
139 removed through the vagina, and abdominal hysterectomy results in uterus and/or cervix being
140 removed from lower abdomen (Dicker et al., 1982). Laparoscopic and robotic hysterectomies are

141 both minimally invasive and utilize cameras and 3-D views to remove the uterus and/or cervix
142 (Sarlos, Kots, Stevanovic, & Schaer, 2010).

143

144 Waste audits of 62 hysterectomies were conducted by Thiel et al (2014) (15 each
145 abdominal, vaginal, and robotic, and 17 laparoscopic). The waste audits were done to collect the
146 material inputs and to quantify and characterize the products and materials entering Magee's
147 municipal solid waste, recycling streams, and regulated medical waste (RMW). The number of
148 medical devices and products used in each type of hysterectomy and the quantity of plastic(s)
149 within each product were included in the analysis using the inventory data collected in a previous
150 study (Thiel et al., 2014). Figure 1 shows that plastics are the most significant portions by weight
151 of MSW per procedure for all types of hysterectomies. When averaging the total waste from the
152 four hysterectomies, polypropylene, polyvinylchloride, and various forms of hard plastic
153 represented the greatest sources of produced waste by mass. On a percent basis by mass,
154 polypropylene, polyvinylchloride, and hard plastic represented 32%, 25%, and 14%,
155 respectively, of the total waste produced by the four hysterectomies (Thiel et al., 2014). Figure 1
156 also shows that robotic hysterectomies typically consume more materials than the other three
157 hysterectomies.

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Figure 1. Average Material Composition of Municipal Solid Waste from a Single Hysterectomy by Surgery Type with Assumed Biopolymer Substitution. Adapted from (Thiel et al., 2014).

(Caption Text) This figure shows an average of the waste produced from the four hysterectomy procedures. Materials substituted for biopolymers are colored shades of blue, and non-substituted materials are colored shades of orange. Similarly, all materials with (Substituted) following their name are materials that were substituted for biopolymers. All materials with (Not Substituted) following their names are materials that were not substituted for biopolymers.

Specific types of biopolymers were designated as substitutions to replace the plastics found in each device. The choice of substituted biopolymer was based on which biopolymer has appropriate material and functional properties to that of the original plastic. The functional unit was all medical devices that contained petroleum-based plastics suitable for biopolymer

173 substitution for each of the four types of hysterectomies. The system boundary encompassed
174 activities associated with the raw material extraction, production, use, and end-of-life (EOL) for
175 the products containing plastic in each type of hysterectomy.

176

177 **Table 1. Potential Biopolymer Substitutions for Petroleum Plastics used in Hysterectomy**

178

Procedures. Adapted from (Thiel et al., 2014).

Material found in original waste audit	Substituted Biopolymer (and abbreviation used in figures)	Product	Device
Low-density polyethylene (LDPE)	PLA (P)	Laparotomy drape	8 mm bladeless obturator
Polypropylene	PLA (P)	Gowns; laparotomy drapes; bare warm air drape; blue drape; blue wrap	None
Polyisoprene	Guayule-derived latex (G)	Tan glove; blue glove	None
Nitrile	Guayule-derived latex (G)	Purple glove	None
Neoprene	Guayule-derived latex (G)	Green glove	None
Cardboard	Thermoplastic starch (T)	Bare warm air drape	None

179 (Caption Text) Materials found in products and/or devices for robotic, abdominal, laparoscopic,
180 and vaginal hysterectomies performed at Magee. Plastic, product, and device information is from
181 (Thiel et al., 2014). The potential biopolymer substitution was determined for the purposes of
182 this study based on biopolymers with similar characteristics.

183

184 **c. Inventory Analysis**

185

186 The following plastics were identified in the four types of hysterectomies at Magee: low-
187 density polyethylene (LDPE), polypropylene (PP), polyisoprene, nitrile, and neoprene. Based on
188 their physical properties and delivered function, the weights of plastics found in each device
189 were substituted with an equal weight of suitable biopolymers (see Supplementary Information).
190 Guayule-derived latex was substituted for all products and/or devices containing nitrile,
191 neoprene, polyisoprene. Life cycle inventory data for guayule-derived latex was derived from
192 Rasutis et al., 2015 (Rasutis et al., 2015). PLA was substituted for all products and/or devices
193 containing LDPE and polypropylene. Life cycle inventory data for PLA was derived from Vink
194 et al., 2010 (Vink, Davies, & Kolstad, 2010). Thermoplastic starch was substituted for all
195 products containing cardboard. While cardboard is considerable a renewable material,
196 thermoplastic starch was substituted because of its suitability as a cardboard substitute. Life
197 cycle inventory data for thermoplastic starch were derived from existing ecoinvent v2.2 data,
198 under the classification “Modified starch, at plant/RER U” (Weidema & Hischer, 2012).

199
200 PLA is a suitable LDPE substitute, as PLA has properties that make it appropriate for thin
201 film applications including disposable products and packaging. Research is continuing to expand
202 the number of applications for PLA as the potential material characteristics are broadened
203 (Reddy, Vivekanandhan, Misra, Bhatia, & Mohanty, 2013; Shen, Haufe, & Patel, 2009). Similar
204 to LDPE, PP in film applications and packaging can be replaced with disposable PLA products
205 (Shen, Worrell, & Patel, 2010). Regarding this study, PLA’s GHG emissions included direct site
206 emissions, indirect emissions from electricity production, fuel, material, corn production, and
207 reclamation, as well as biogenic CO₂ uptake from the corn feedstock. These emissions are
208 considered within the timeframe of the global warming potential (GWP) impact category. Starch

209 is well established as a low cost material for packaging applications, which can be blended with
210 cardboard and other fibers to achieve a wide range of application specific properties. While
211 cardboard is an effective biobased material, starch may perform favorably and a comparison of
212 environmental impacts will help assess any tradeoffs that exist (Bastioli, 1998; Mohammadi
213 Nafchi, Moradpour, Saeidi, & Alias, 2013; Shen et al., 2009). Clinical and performance trials
214 have also shown that guayule-derived latex have high molecular weights, and products made
215 from guayule-derived latex have desirable performance properties in a clinical setting (Rasutis et
216 al., 2015). Guayule-derived latex has also been shown to be safe for people with Type I latex
217 allergy, where typical latex materials (e.g., nitrile, neoprene) contain allergenic proteins that
218 affect those with Type I latex allergy (Foster & Coffelt, 2005; Siler, Cornish, & Hamilton, 1996).

219

220 **d. Impact Assessment**

221

222 Environmental and human health impacts resulting from the calculated inputs and outputs
223 were calculated using the Tool for Reduction and Assessment of Chemical and Other
224 Environmental Impacts (TRACI) 2.1 (Bare, 2002), which was created by the United States
225 Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to assist in impact assessment. TRACI was chosen
226 because it is the most comprehensive life cycle impact assessment tool applicable to the United
227 States. The following impacts were calculated and reported from TRACI: ozone depletion,
228 global warming, smog, acidification, eutrophication, carcinogenics, non-carcinogenics,
229 respiratory effects, and ecotoxicity. While not included in the TRACI portfolio, cumulative
230 energy demand was also included as an impact category.

231 The method to calculate cumulative energy demand (CED) is based on characterization
232 factors that are assigned to energy resources in 5 impact categories: non-renewable (fossil), non-
233 renewable (nuclear), renewable (biomass), renewable (wind, solar, geothermal), and renewable
234 (water) (Frischknecht et al., 2007; PRé, 2016). Normalization is not used to calculate CED,
235 where CED is calculated by assigning a weighting factor of 1 to each impact category
236 (Frischknecht et al., 2007); PRé (2016).

237

238 e. 2³ Factorial Design Experiment

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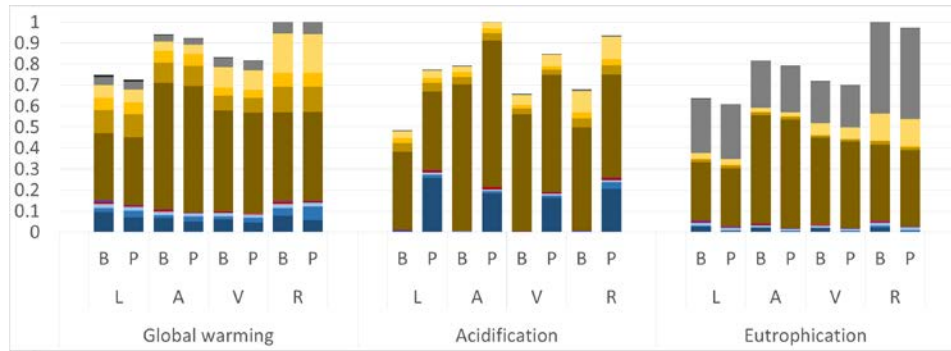
240 A 2³ factorial experiment was used to demonstrate the variances of environmental and
241 human health impacts resulting from different substitutions of PLA, guayule-derived latex, and
242 thermoplastic starch. The 2³ factorial design experiment factors were the three substituted
243 plastics (i.e., PLA, guayule-derived latex, thermoplastic starch) and the two factor levels were
244 whether or not biopolymers were substituted for the three design experiment factors.

245

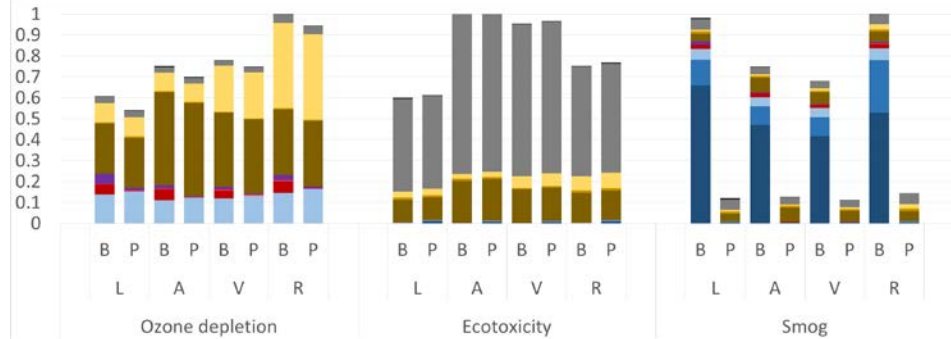
246 Results

247 Figure 2 shows the comparative environmental and human health impacts resulting from
248 hysterectomies using standard medical products containing petroleum-based plastics and medical
249 products with biopolymers substituted. For each impact category, the results are normalized to
250 the hysterectomy with the greatest overall impact when considering both base-case and
251 biopolymer substitution scenarios. Because the impact categories are normalized for comparative
252 purposes, the generated values may not necessarily reflect the overall magnitude of impact for
253 individual impact categories.

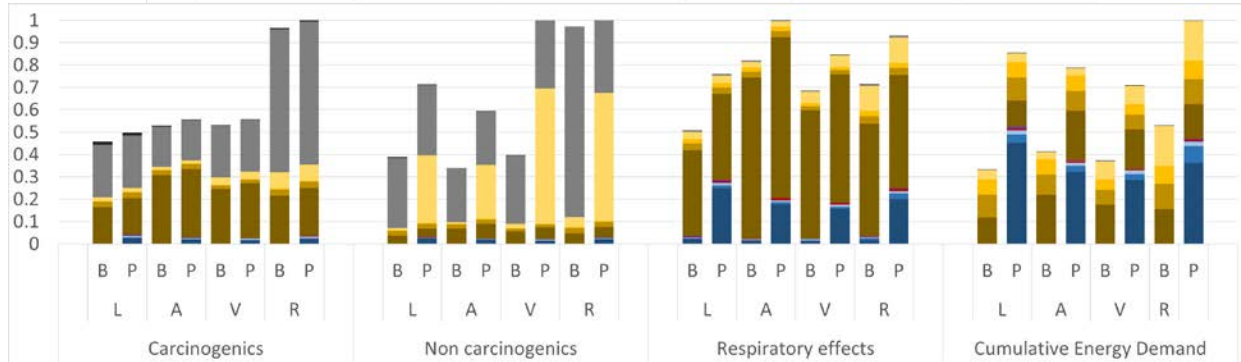
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256



257

Production	Polypropylene or PLA	Blue
	Soft Plastic or PLA	Light Blue
	Polyisoprene or PLA	Red
	Nitrile or Guayule-Derived Latex	Red
	Neoprene or Guayule-Derived Latex	Red
	Cardboard or Thermo-Plastic Starch	Purple
	Cotton ¹	Olive Green
	PVC ¹	Yellow-Green
	Hard Plastic ¹	Yellow
Other Materials ¹²	Yellow	

¹Non Substituted Material

EOL	MSW	Grey
	RMW	Dark Grey

B	Biopolymers Substituted
P	Petroleum-Based Plastics
L	Laparoscopic
A	Abdominal
V	Vaginal
R	Robotic

258

259

²Includes Polystyrene, Steel, Aluminum, Rubber, Paper, Glass, Wood, HDPE, and Polyurethane. All of these materials composed less than 2%

260

(by weight) of Magee's total analyzed waste stream.

261

EOL: End-of-Life; MSW: Material Solid Waste; RMW: Regulated Medical Waste

262

Figure 2. Normalized TRACI Impacts for Medical Products Containing Petroleum-Based Plastics versus Medical Products Potentially Containing Biopolymers Used in Hysterectomies.

263

264

265 The use of biopolymers in surgical devices is preferable for several impact categories
266 compared to petroleum-based plastics which include acidification (19-29%), ecotoxicity (1-2%),
267 carcinogenics (3-4%), non-carcinogenics (25-61%), respiratory effects (16-25%), and CED (53-
268 84%). However, medical devices with petroleum-based plastics that do not include any quantity
269 of biopolymers perform better in several other impact categories such as global warming,
270 eutrophication, ozone depletion, and smog. In particular, the impact category smog for
271 laparoscopic, abdominal, vaginal and robotic hysterectomy procedures performs better by 86%,
272 62%, 57% and 86% respectively. While the utilization of biopolymers may offer some life-cycle
273 based human health benefits, such as vaginal hysterectomies having 61% lower non-carcinogenic
274 impact, the agricultural activities associated with manufacturing biopolymers exacerbate a
275 number of environmental impacts.

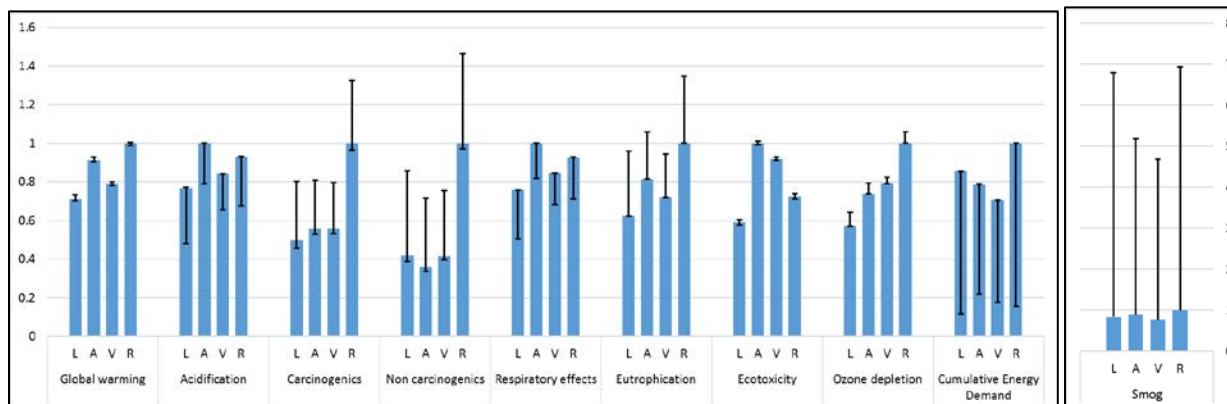
276

277 Significant agricultural activities are associated with creating biopolymers, where these
278 agricultural activities exacerbate impacts related to global warming, eutrophication, ozone
279 depletion, and smog. Much of the smog-related impacts resulting from PLA production occur
280 during PLA's fermentation stage, where the fermentation stage is associated with significant
281 levels of emitted NO_x (Auras et al., 2011). Additionally, the transport associated with PLA's
282 production drives the majority of PLA's ozone depletion-related impacts (Auras et al., 2011). On
283 the other hand, guayule-derived latex and thermoplastic starch are correlated with much lower
284 levels of ozone-depleting substances during their associated manufacturing processes. Smog
285 causing emissions result primarily from lactic acid fermentation and agricultural processes on
286 farm in this model, while ODP results mainly from transportation (Hottle, Bilec, & Landis,

287 2013). It is important to note that the inventories used herein pre-date Montreal protocol ozone
288 depleting substances according to the United States Environmental Protection Agency, Office of
289 Health, and Environmental Assessment Exposure Assessment Group (1989), and as such we
290 normalize the results in order to make comparisons.

291
292 Using results from the 2^3 factorial design of experiments (DOE), Figure 3 shows the
293 relative increase or decrease in all impact categories from various combinations of biopolymer
294 substitutions. The error bars in Figure 3 show the most significant increase or decrease for all
295 impact categories using values generated from the 2^3 factorial DOE. The increase of impacts
296 related to global warming, eutrophication, ozone depletion, and smog resulted when PLA,
297 guayule-derived latex, and thermoplastic starch were substituted for typically used materials. The
298 increase of acidification-related impacts resulted when thermoplastic starch was substituted for
299 cardboard. The increase of ecotoxicity related impacts resulted when PLA and guayule-derived
300 latex were substituted for typically used materials. Conversely, the decrease of impacts related to
301 carcinogenics, non-carcinogenics, respiratory effects, and cumulative energy demand resulted
302 when PLA, guayule-derived latex, and thermoplastic starch were substituted for petroleum-based
303 materials. The substitution of biopolymers for petroleum-based plastics decreased cumulative
304 energy demand by approximately 73% and 84% for laparoscopic and robotic hysterectomies,
305 respectively. The substitution of biopolymers for petroleum-based plastics increased smog-
306 related impacts by approximately 700% and 600% for laparoscopic and robotic hysterectomies,
307 respectively. Table S2 through Table S11 in the supplementary information display the DOE
308 results for all nine impact categories.

309



L	Laparoscopic
A	Abdominal
V	Vaginal
R	Robotic

310

311 **Figure 3. Change/Percent Increase or Decrease Resulting from Biopolymer Substitutions**
 312 **Using Values Generated from 2³ Factorial DOE.**

313 (Caption Text) The error bars in Figure 3 show the most significant increase or decrease for all
 314 impact categories using values generated from the 2³ factorial DOE.

315

316 **Discussion**

317 This study examined the environmental impacts of integrating biopolymers into
 318 hysterectomy products. While there are several noteworthy tradeoffs from a life cycle
 319 perspective, the use of biopolymers in healthcare would require considerable feedback from the
 320 doctors, nurses and patients utilizing the biopolymer products. To evaluate adoption, discourse
 321 with hospital personnel would be necessary to determine the utility advantages and
 322 disadvantages of products containing biopolymers. For example, doctors and nurses may push
 323 back on integrating biopolymers into a certain product because that product requires material
 324 and/or technical specifications that may not be fulfilled by a biopolymer. Conversely, doctors
 325 and nurses may favor biopolymer utilization in a certain healthcare product because that

326 product's utility may increase as biopolymers are integrated Kumar, Sivakumar, and Dhurai
327 (2013).

328 Moreover, there are a number of contextual and regulatory factors that would affect the
329 implementation of biopolymers into healthcare products. These factors include policies and
330 regulations, financial and regulatory environment, leadership, workflow, carbon literacy, and
331 support systems. While these factors are typically dependent on individual healthcare providers,
332 one would expect that workflow would not be significantly affected because the biopolymer
333 products proposed herein are functionally equivalent and would still be utilized by a healthcare
334 provider regardless of the level of integrated biopolymers into medical products. Further research
335 on barriers to adoption, market analysis for biopolymer medical products, as well as supply chain
336 and feedstock availability would inform any increased usage of biopolymers in healthcare.

337
338 Effective composting of biopolymers used in medical products may decrease
339 environmental and human health impacts resulting from RMW and MSW, but warrant further
340 evaluations since there are studies that discuss industrial composting facilities sending
341 biopolymers to landfills because of the slow degradation rates (Hottle, Bilec, Brown, & Landis,
342 2015). Primary concerns with composting medical waste include existing regulatory barriers
343 associated with composting medical waste, as well as the necessary life-cycle processes and
344 labor required for composting. For example, implementing a composting waste stream at a
345 hospital would require: healthcare personnel to distinguish compostable from non-compostable
346 products; consistent upkeep and maintenance of composting bins and equipment to ensure their
347 sterility in medical environment; and, disassembly of medical products that are only partially
348 composed of compostable material before those products enter a composting stream. Despite

349 these concerns, there are waste management options such as anaerobic digesters that could
350 decrease global warming and energy use by producing methane and energy from bioplastic waste
351 streams (Hobbs, Devkota, Parameswaran, & Landis, 2016).

352
353 The integration of biopolymers into medical products illustrates reductions in
354 carcinogenic impacts (3-4%), non-carcinogenic impacts (25-61%), respiratory effects (16-25%),
355 and cumulative energy demand (53-84%). Cumulative energy demand represents the greatest
356 potential for environmental impact reduction, particularly because devices made with fossil-fuel
357 based plastics require higher quantities of electricity to produce when compared to devices made
358 with biopolymers. However, the significant agricultural inputs associated with biopolymers
359 exacerbate a number of environmental impacts resulting from products and devices made out of
360 biopolymers. The results showed that the PLA and guayule-derived latex substitutions resulted in
361 significant smog-related impacts. Both PLA and guayule-derived latex have smog-related life-
362 cycle impact factors that are at least 40 times greater than that of their respective substituted
363 plastic (e.g., LDPE for polypropylene, guayule-derived latex for polyisoprene). The substitution
364 of polypropylene for PLA resulted in the most significant smog-related impacts, where PLA has
365 a smog life-cycle impact factor that is more than 140 times greater than that of polypropylene. If
366 the biopolymers are cultivated in a locale with high-levels of existing smog (e.g., urban areas),
367 the use of biopolymers is not necessarily favorable. On the other hand, if the biopolymers are
368 cultivated in a locale with low-levels of existing smog (e.g., rural areas), the use of biopolymers
369 is potentially favorable when considering smog-related impacts.

370

371 There are life-cycle environmental impact tradeoffs when substituting bioplastics for
372 petroplastics in operating room procedures such as hysterectomies. The substitution of
373 biopolymers for petroleum-based plastics increased smog-related impacts by approximately
374 900% for laparoscopic and robotic hysterectomies, and increased ozone depletion-related
375 impacts by approximately 125% for laparoscopic and robotic hysterectomies. Conversely,
376 biopolymers reduced life-cycle human health impacts, acidification and cumulative energy
377 demand for the four hysterectomy procedures. The integration of biopolymers into medical
378 products is correlated with reductions in carcinogenic impacts, non-carcinogenic impacts, and
379 respiratory effects. However, the significant agricultural inputs associated with manufacturing
380 biopolymers exacerbate environmental impacts of products and devices made out of
381 biopolymers.

382

383 **Acknowledgment**

384 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

385

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