

GLOWBAL WARMING POTENTIAL OF BUILDING DEMOLITION
ACTIVITIES

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ABSTRACT

Continuation of urbanization is expected to gradually rise the energy demand for consumption and economic activities. Therefore, a sustainable approach to the development is needed to reduce the consumption of energy. Malaysia has recorded 7.3 tons in carbon dioxide emission per capita in the year 2007. This amount puts Malaysia in the 57th place in the world. This is due to an increase in oil derivatives and gas expenditures in the last decade. Fuel consumption also has a significant role in the demolition of the construction sites as well as their waste disposal. Hence, an increase of demands for demolition has a negative impact on these criteria. Building demolition as a case study for life cycle assessment (LCA) that was conducted for a 18740 m² floor area, four-storied office, with one story as the top floor, one bridge for connecting the structures and a two-storey basement car park. Menara Tun Razak as its subject, with a projected life span of 29 years; it is located in the commercial area of Kuala Lumpur. Furthermore, a Building Information Modeling (BIM) system is used to determine the accurate quantity of elements and its simulation. The LCA model analyzes the energy use and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions associated with demolition and waste disposal. The findings show that as much as 225039.021 kilograms of CO₂ equivalent of GHGs were released for 15147862 tons of demolition materials where, 97.633 percent or 219713.1 kilogram CO₂ equivalent from the amount was carbon dioxide, followed by 1.358 percent or 3056.47 kg CO₂ equivalent of methane, 1.008 percent or 2269.188 kilogram CO₂ equivalent of dinitrogen monoxide and 0.001 percent or 0.225 kg CO₂ equivalent of other gases such as chloroform and ethane. The processes that contributed significantly to the total GHGs emission were mainly from the burning of 57688.8 liters of diesel fuel during demolition. Besides, it is also shown that demolition and waste disposal had a 71.95 percent and 28.04 percent contribution in reinforce concrete framework structure share in producing GHG.

ABSTRAK

Pembangunan yang berterusan dijangka akan meningkatkan permintaan tenaga untuk kegunaan aktiviti ekonomi. Oleh itu, satu pendekatan untuk perkembangan mampan diperlukan untuk mengurangkan penggunaan tenaga. Malaysia mempunyai penunjuk mampan sebanyak 7.3 tan pelepasan karbon dioksida per kapita pada tahun 2007. Jumlah ini meletakkan Malaysia di kedudukan ke-57 dunia. Ini adalah kerana peningkatan derivatif minyak dan perbelanjaan gas dalam dekad terakhir. Penggunaan bahan api juga mempunyai peranan penting dalam meroboh dan melupuskan sisa pembinaan. Oleh itu, permintaan untuk meroboh bangunan yang meningkat memberi kesan negatif kepada isu kemampan. Kajian ini menerangkan satu kajian kes berkaitan perobohan 'life cycle assessment' (LCA) yang telah dijalankan untuk 18.740 m² kawasan lantai, pejabat 4 tingkat, 1 tingkat atas, sebuah jambatan sambungan kepada struktur dan 2 tingkat tempat letak kereta bawah tanah. Tambahan pula, sistem 'Building Information Model' (BIM) digunakan untuk menentukan kuantiti yang tepat dan simulasi. Model LCA menganalisa penggunaan tenaga dan pelepasan gas rumah hijau (GHG) yang berkaitan dengan perobohan dan pelupusan sisa. Bangunan kajian kes yang dipilih adalah Menara Tun Razak berusia 29 tahun yang terletak di kawasan komersial di Kuala Lumpur. Penemuan menunjukkan bahawa sebanyak 225039.021 kilogram CO₂ bersamaan dengan GHG telah dilepaskan untuk pengeluaran 15147862 tan bahan perobohan, 97.633percent atau 219713,1 kilogram bersamaan CO₂ daripada jumlah karbon dioksida, diikuti oleh 1,358 peratus atau 3056,47 kg bersamaan CO₂ metana, 1,008 peratus atau 2.269,188 kilogram bersamaan CO₂ dinitrogen monoksida dan 0,001 peratus atau 0,225 kg bersamaan CO₂ gas lain seperti kloroform dan etana. Proses yang paling ketara menyumbang kepada jumlah pelepasan GHG adalah pembakaran 57688,8 liter diesel semasa melakukan aktiviti. Selain itu, ini juga menunjukkan bahawa pelupusan dan sisa perobohan mempunyai 71,95 peratus dan 28,04 peratus sumbangan untuk mengukuhkan rangka kerja bahagian struktur konkrit dalam menghasilkan GHG.

TABLE OF CONTENT

CHAPTER	TITLE	PAGE
	TITLE	ii
	DECLARATION	ii
	ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
	ABSTRACT	iv
	ABSTRAK	v
	TABLE OF CONTENT	vi
	LIST OF TABLES	xii
	LIST OF FIGURES	xv
	LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xxi
	LIST OF APPENDICES	xxii
1	INTRODUCTION	1
	1.1 Introductions	1
	1.2 Background of Research	3
	1.3 Problem Statement	11
	1.4 Aim of Research	13
	1.5 Objective of Research	13
	1.6 Scope of Research	14
2	LITERATURE REVIEW	16
	2.1 Introduction	16
	2.2 An Over View of the BIM	16
	2.2.1 BIM in a wider context	17
	2.2.2 Benefits from using BIM	19
	2.2.3 Benefits from using BIM	20
	2.2.3.1 Owner	20

2.2.3.2 Designer	21
2.2.3.3 Contractor	23
2.3 An Over View of the Demolition Industry	25
2.3.1 The Demolition Process	26
2.3.1.1 Pre-Demolition Phase	26
2.3.1.2 Demolition Phase	27
2.3.1.3 Post-Demolition Phase	28
2.3.2 Demolition Techniques	29
2.3.2.1 Demolition by Hand	29
2.3.2.2 Demolition by Towers and High Reach Cranes	31
2.3.2.3 Demolition by Machines	31
2.3.2.4 High Reach Machines	32
2.3.2.5 Hydraulic Shear	33
2.3.2.6 Hydraulic Pulverizer or Crusher	34
2.3.2.7 Hydraulic Multi-purpose Processor	35
2.3.2.8 Demolition by Chemical Agents	36
2.3.2.9 Demolition by Water Jetting	37
2.4 An Over View of the Wastage	37
2.4.1 Municipal Solid Waste	38
2.4.2 Construction and Demolition Wastage	40
2.4.3 Waste disposal:	43
2.4.3.1 Landfill:	44
2.4.3.2 Re-use of waste:	44
2.4.3.3 Recycling	45
2.4.4 Current Waste Management Practices	46
2.5 An Over View of Life Cycle Assessment Method	47
2.5.1 History	48
2.5.2 Methodology	49
2.5.3 Goal and Scope Definition	49
2.5.4 Life Cycle Inventory Analysis	50
2.5.5 Life Cycle Impact Assessment	52
2.5.6 Life Cycle Interpretation	54
2.5.7 Strengths and weaknesses of LCIA	55
2.5.8 Databases for LCA studies	55

	2.5.8.1 Impact evaluation	57
	2.5.9 Impact categories	58
	2.5.10 Impact assessment methods	59
	2.5.10.1 BEES	59
	2.5.10.2 Endpoint Impact Assessment: Eco-indicator 99	60
	2.5.10.3 Endpoint and Midpoint Impact Assessment: IMPACT 2002+	61
	2.5.10.4 ReCiPe	62
	2.5.11 LCA tools	62
	2.5.12 Boustead Model	64
	2.5.13 Drivers and barriers for using LCA in the building sector	65
	2.6 An Over View of Pollution	66
	2.6.1 Energy Pollution	66
	2.6.2 Material Pollution	67
	2.6.3 Global Warming	69
	2.6.4 Carbon emission in Malaysia	71
	2.6.5 Carbon processes in building materials	74
	2.6.6 Substances that reduce the ozone layer	75
	2.6.7 Reduction of Pollution in Construction, Use and Demolition	75
	2.7 An Over View of Gasoline and Diesel in Malaysia	76
3	METHODOLOGY	79
	3.1 Introduction	79
	3.2 Case study	80
	3.3 Process of demolition	82
	3.3.1 Mobilization of equipment.	84
	3.4 LCA Methodology	92
	3.4.1 Goal and scope definition	93
	3.4.2 Life Cycle Inventory	93
	3.4.3 Life Cycle Impact Assessment	94
	3.4.3.1 Method and tool	95
	3.4.4 Interpretation	95
	3.5 Data Gathering	96
4	ANALYZING AND DISCUSSION	98

4.1 Introduction	98
4.2 Machinery	98
4.2.1 Demolition	99
4.2.1.1 HITACHI EX100	99
4.2.1.2 Sumitomo SH100 EX100	100
4.2.1.3 Sumitomo SH200 EX200 LH43	102
4.2.1.4 HITACHI EX200 LH16	103
4.2.1.5 HITACHI EX200 LH21	104
4.2.1.6 HITACHI EX220 LH11	105
4.2.1.7 HITACHI EX300 D	106
4.2.1.8 HITACHI EX300 LH 42 R	107
4.2.1.9 HITACHI EX300 LH35 Y	108
4.2.1.10 HITACHI EX300 R	109
4.2.1.11 HITACHI EX450 R	110
4.2.1.12 Air Compressor	111
4.2.1.13 Motor pump	112
4.2.2. Supply chain activities	113
4.2.2.1. Transport barrels of diesel	113
4.2.2.2 Transport excavations	115
4.2.2.3 Forman Transportation	119
4.2.3. Waste Disposal	120
4.2.3.1 Rebar transportation	120
4.2.3.2 Aluminum Transportation	122
4.2.3.3 Debris Transportation	124
4.3. Structure	127
4.3.1. Wall	127
4.3.1.1 Masonry Wall	128
4.3.1.2 Concrete Wall	130
4.3.1.3 Glass and Gypsum Wall	131
4.3.2 Concrete column	133
4.3.3 Concrete Beams	135
4.3.4 Concrete Slabs	138
4.3.5 Concrete Stairs	141
4.3.6 Debris Volume	142

	4.3.7 Scrap Rebar in Demolition Process	143
	4.4 Total of LCA in Demolition and Disposal Stages	144
5	CONCLUSION	147
	5.1 Introduction	147
	5.2 Conclusion	147
	5.3 Recommendation for Improvement and Future Research	150
	REFERENCES	153
	APPENDICES	163
	APPENDIX A	163
	APPENDIX B	166
	APPENDIX C	169
	APPENDIX D	180
	APPENDIX E	182
	APPENDIX F	185
	APPENDIX G	187
	APPENDIX H	190
	APPENDIX I	194
	APPENDIX J	196
	APPENDIX K	198
	APPENDIX L	199
	APPENDIX M	202
	APPENDIX N	204
	APPENDIX O	205
	APPENDIX P	207
	APPENDIX R	211
	APPENDIX S	216
	APPENDIX T	217
	APPENDIX W	222
	APPENDIX X	225
	APPENDIX Y	227
	APPENDIX Z	229
	APPENDIX AA	235
	APPENDIX AB	241
	APPENDIX AC	242

APPENDIX AD	247
APPENDIX AE	248
APPENDIX AF	252

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE NO	TITLE	PAGE
1.1	Published LCAs applied within the building sector within the last 15 years	5
1.2	Environmental impacts associated with different buildings.	10
2.1	Sources and Types of Solid Wastes	39
2.2	Current Waste Management Practice	46
2.3	Life Cycle Impact Categories	58
2.4	LCA and LCI Software Tools	63
2.5	Energy-related pollution in production processes based on fossil fuels	67
2.6	Important greenhouse gases related to building materials	71
2.7	Carbon Emission Data per capita from 1970 through 2009 in Malaysia	72
2.8	Gasoline Specifications	76
2.9	Six kind of Gasoline that are exist in Malaysia	76
2.10	Diesel Specification	77
2.11	Six kind of Diesel that are exist in Malaysia	78
4.1	Transport Excavation	116
4.2	Material Transportation	118
4.3	Number of Columns in Menara Tun Razak	133
4.4	Quantity of Numbers, Reinforcement, Concrete Volume of beams	136
4.5	Concrete Slabs plan	139

4.6	weight and volume of Debris production	143
4.7	Scrap Rebar production	144
5.1	GHG emissions of demolition case study BEES V4.02 (g CO ₂ eq)	148
5.2	BEES V4.02 Characterization Global warming (g eq co ₂) for	150
A.1	Global Warming Potential and Acidification Potential in construction, use and demolition of building materials	163
A.2	Specification of CATERPILLAR excavators	166
A.3	Hitachi Ex 100 Details	169
A.4	Sumitomo SH 100 EX 100 Details	171
A.5	Sumitomo SH200 EX200 Details	172
A.6	HITACHI EX 200 LH16 Details	173
A.7	HITACHI EX220 LH 11 Details	174
A.8	HITACHI EX 300 D Details	175
A.9	HITACHI EX450 Details	177
A.10	LORRY DELTA ISUZU Details	178
A.11	NISSAN DIESEL LORRY Details	179
A.12	Hitachi EX100 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	180
A.13	Sumitomo SH100 EX100 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	182
A.14	Sumitomo SH200 EX200 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	185
A.15	Hitachi EX200 LH16 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	187
A.16	Hitachi EX200 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	190
A.17	HITACHI EX220 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	194
A.18	HITACHI EX300 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	196

A.19	Hitachi EX300 LH42 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	198
A.20	Hitachi EX300 LH35 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	199
A.21	Hitachi EX450 R with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	202
A.22	Air compressor with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	204
A.23	Motor pump with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	205
A.24	Diesel Transportation	207
A.25	Schedule Lorry for Transportation Reinforcement Rebars	211
A.26	Schedule Lorry for Transportation Reinforcement Rebars	216
A.27	lorry Schedule for transport debris	217
A.28	Masonry Wall data extraction from Revit structure software	222
A.29	Concrete Wall Plan	225
A.30	Glass and Gypsum Wall Plan	227
A.31	Structural Columns plan	229
A.32	Beams plan	235
A.33	Stairs plan	241
A.34	Scrap Rebar in Demolition Process	242
A.35	Impact assessment disassembly Menara Tun Razak BEES V4.02 Characterization	247
A.36	Analyze Inventory disassembly Menara Tun Razak BEES V4.02 Characterization Global warming (g CO2 eq)	248
A.37	Analyze Inventory disassembly Menara Tun Razak BEES V4.02 Characterization Global warming	252

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE NO	TITLE	PAGE
1.1	System boundary MENARA TUN RAZAK	14
2.1	Describes the different fields of BIM in a Venn-diagram	18
2.2	Increased pressure on the building process is resolved by using BIM technology(Eastman et al., 2011)	19
2.3	Exterior Envelope Virtual Mock up for 3D Shop Drawing Review	21
2.4	Respondent Occupations	24
2.5	BIM uses for the survey participants	25
2.6	Demolition by Hand	30
2.7	Abrasive Cutting	30
2.8	A tower crane	31
2.9	Demolition by Machines	32
2.10	Volvo's EC 460B high reach wrecker	33
2.11	(A) rebar shear (B) plate and tank shear	33
2.12	(A), (B) Hydraulic impact hammer in breking	34
2.13	Allied's RC series hydraulic pulverizer	35
2.14	NPK's hydraulic multi-processor	36
2.15	Demolition by Chemical Agents	36
2.16	Hand operated pressurized water jetting	37
2.17	Life –cycle of waste generation	40
2.18	Typical composition of construction and demolition waste.	41
2.19	Estimated total annual waste generation in the EU	41
2.20	The total waste generation distribution in percentages between different sources in the EU, EFTA, Croatia and	42

	Turkey in 2008	
2.21	Building Waste Generation in IWOA	42
2.22	Total MSW Generation in 2010	43
2.23	Reducing construction and demolition (C&D) waste	45
2.24	Stages of a Life Cycle Assessment	47
2.25	Life Cycle Assessment Framework'	49
2.26	Elements of the LCIA phase	52
2.27	Structure of the Building for Environmental and Economic Sustainability (BEES) methodology (Source: PRé, 2008).	60
2.28	General representation of the Eco-indicator 99 methodology.	61
2.29	Structure of the Boustead Model	64
2.30	Projected surface temperature changes for the late 21st century (2090–2099) Temperatures are relative to the period 1980–1999	69
2.31	Indicator of the human influence on the atmosphere during the Industrial Era	70
3.1	Case Study Menara Tun Razak Schematic View of Demolition Boundary	80
3.2	show the location of demolition site at Menara Tun Razak, Jalan Raja Laut, Kuala Lumpur	81
3.3	Front View (A)& Back view(B) of building	83
3.4	Left View (C) & Right View (D) of the Building	83
3.5	Bridge Spanning Between tower (E) & View of the 2 Storey Car BasementCar Park(F)	83
3.6	Demolition level3 and level 2	85
3.7	Demolition Level 1 and Level 2	85
3.8	Scaffolding System (A) & Installation Scaffolding System (B)	86
3.9	level 7/1 before Demolition (A) movement Excavator to Level 7/1(B)	86
3.10	The mini excavator hoist on top of the building to	87

	demolish the M&E	
3.11	hacking Level 7/1 by Hitachi EX100 (A) Hacking Level 7/1(B)	87
3.12	Compressor hammer for demolition bridge(A) Blade for cutting beams of bridge(B)	88
3.13	bladed beam (A) Demolition the Bridge (B)	88
3.14	Demolition of structural elements by hacking and pushing walls inwards starting from section CH EF progressively towards CH S at the other end of the building.	89
3.15	Demolition of structural elements by hacking and pushing walls inwards starting from section CH EF progressively towards CH S at the other end of the building.	89
3.16	Demolition is followed by weakening and exposing the rebar of the following level RC columns(A)&(B).	90
3.17	Collection Rebars (A)&(B)	90
3.18	Hydraulic Breakers	91
3.19	Torch and Cutting Rebars(A)&(B)	91
3.20	Collection Rebars on ground	92
3.21	plan from Demolition's Consultant	96
3.22	plan of bridge between two buildings from construction consultant	96
3.23	(A) Day working of contractor & (B) Data measuring on Site	97
4.1	(A) & (B) HITACHI EX100	99
4.2	GHG emissions of HITACHI EX100 activity (g CO2 eq)	100
4.3	Sumitomo SH100 EX100	101
4.4	GHG emissions of Sumitomo SH100 EX100 activity (g CO2 eq)	101
4.5	(A) & (B) Sumitomo SH200 EX200 LH43	102
4.6	GHG emissions of Sumitomo SH100 EX100 activity (g	102

	CO2 eq)	
4.7	HITACHI EX200 LH16	103
4.8	GHG emissions of Hitachi EX200 LH16 activity (g CO2 eq)	103
4.9	HITACHI EX200 LH21	104
4.10	GHG emissions of HITACHI EX200 LH21 activity (g CO2 eq)	104
4.11	HITACHI EX220 LH11	105
4.12	GHG emissions of HITACHI EX220 LH11 activity (g CO2 eq)	105
4.13	(A) & (B) HITACHI EX300 D	106
4.14	GHG emissions of Hitachi EX300 D activity (g CO2 eq)	106
4.15	(A) & (B) HITACHI EX300 LH 42 R	107
4.16	GHG emissions of HITACHI EX300 LH 42 R acctivity (g CO2 eq)	107
4.17	HITACHI EX300 LH35 Y	108
4.18	GHG emissions of HITACHI EX300 LH35 Y activity (g CO2 eq)	108
4.19	(A) & (B) HITACHI EX300 R	109
4.20	GHG emissions of HITACHI EX300 R activity (g CO2 eq)	109
4.21	HITACHI EX450 R	110
4.22	GHG emission of HITACHI EX450 activity (g CO2 eq)	110
4.23	(A) & (B) Air compressor for hacking bridge	111
4.24	GHG emissions of air compressor activity (g CO2 eq)	111
4.25	(A)Generator (B) Water pump	112
4.26	GHG emissions of motor pump activity (g CO2 eq)	112
4.27	Map of Diesel Transportation	114
4.28	GHG emissions of lorry activity (g CO2 eq)for empty barrels	115
4.29	GHG emissions of lorry activity (g CO2 eq) for full barrels	115
4.30	GHG emissions of non-loading low boy activity (g CO2	116

	eq)	
4.31	GHG emissions of non-loading low boy activity (g CO2 eq)	117
4.32	(A) & (B) Transfer propping	117
4.33	GHG emissions of transport material activity Transport from site: (g CO2 eq)	118
4.34	GHG emissions of transport material Transport to site: (g CO2 eq)	119
4.35	GHG emissions of Forman Transportation activity (g CO2 eq)	119
4.36	Map of Rebar Transportation	121
4.37	(A)Lorry for Carry Reinforce Rebars (B) Prepration before loading Reinforce Rebars	120
4.38	loading Reinforce Rebars	121
4.39	GHG emissions of rebar transportation activity (g CO2 eq)	122
4.40	Lorry for Aluminum Transportation	123
4.41	GHG emissions of aluminum transportation activity (g CO2 eq)	123
4.42	(A) Lorry for carry Debris & (B) Loading lorry	124
4.43	Landfill Area	125
4.44	GHG emissions of concrete debris transportation (g CO2 eq)	125
4.45	GHG emissions of brick debris transportation (g CO2 eq)	126
4.46	GHG emissions of mortar debris:transportation (g CO2 eq)	126
4.47	emissions of glass debris transportation (g CO2 eq)	126
4.48	GHG emissions of gypsum debris transportation (g CO2 eq)	127
4.49	The percentage of Walls Area	128
4.50	Brick Dimension	128
4.51	(A) & (B)Masonry Wall	129

4.52	(A) & (B) Masonry Wall	130
4.53	Concrete Wall	130
4.54	Concrete Wall	131
4.55	(A) &(B) Concrete Wall	131
4.56	(A) & (B) Gypsum walls	132
4.57	(A) & (B) Glass Walls	132
4.58	(A) & (B)Glass Walls	133
4.59	Columns in Menara Tun razak Model	134
4.60	Reinforce Rebar in columns	134
4.61	Columns in Manara Tun Razak	135
4.62	structural beams Model of Menara Tun razak	136
4.63	Beams of Menara Tun Razak before Demolition	137
4.64	(A) & (B) Beams of Menara Tun Razak	137
4.65	(A) & (B) Beams of Menara Tun Razak	138
4.66	Comprising Quantity of Area, rebars weight and concrete volume	138
4.67	East view of slabs in model Menara Tun Razak	139
4.68	West view of slabs in model Menara Tun Razak	140
4.69	(A) Demolition slab (B) demolition slab of level 3/1	140
4.70	(A) Demolition Slabs of level 3 (B) Demolition slabs of levels 6/1, 5/1,4/1	141
4.71	(A) stairs structure & (B) Stairs between Levels	142
4.72	(A) Demolition ramp & (B) Demolition stairs	142
4.73	The kind of Reinforcement Rebar use in Menara Tun Razak	143
4.74	Reinforce Rebar Quantity	144
4.75	LCA Environmental impact	145
4.76	Analyzing Airborne emissions of demolition Menara Tun Razak	146
5.1	GHG in demolition process	148
5.2	Emission green gases between demolition and disposal process (gCO ₂ eq)	149

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

3D-model	Geometrical model in three dimensions; length, height and width.
AEC	Architecture, Engineering and Construction
BIM	Building information modeling, the activity, when referring to a specific building information model the term “BIM model” is used.
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
LCA	Life Cycle Assessment
LCC	Life Cycle Costing
LCI	Life Cycle Inventory
LCIA	Life Cycle Impact Assessment
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
UTM	Universiti Teknologi Malaysia ()

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX	TITLE	PAGE
A	Global Warming Potential and Acidification Potential in construction, use and demolition of building materials	163
B	Specification of CATERPILLAR excavators	166
C	Dimensions, specifications and details of all equipment were used in this study	169
D	Hitachi EX100 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	180
E	Sumitomo SH100 EX100 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	182
F	Sumitomo SH200 EX200 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	185
G	Hitachi EX200 LH16 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	187
H	Hitachi EX200 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	190
I	HITACHI EX220 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	194
J	HITACHI EX300 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study Hitachi EX300 LH42 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	196
K	Hitachi EX300 LH42 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	198
L	Hitachi EX300 LH35 with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	199

M	Hitachi EX450 R with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	202
N	Air compressor with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	204
O	Motor pump with hours working and fuel consumption in Menara Tun Razak case study	205
P	Diesel Transportation	207
R	Schedule Lorry for Transportation Reinforcement Rebars	211
S	Schedule Lorry for Transportation Reinforcement Rebars	216
T	lorry Schedule for transport debris	217
W	Masonry Wall data extraction from Revit structure software	222
X	Concrete Wall Plan	225
Y	Glass and Gypsum Wall Plan	227
Z	Structural Columns plan	229
AA	Beams plan	235
AB	Stairs plan	241
AC	Scrap Rebar in Demolition Process	242
AD	Impact assessment disassembly Menara Tun Razak BEES V4.02 Characterization	247
AE	Analyze Inventory disassembly Menara Tun Razak BEES V4.02 Characterization Global warming (g CO2 eq)	248
AF	Analyze Inventory disassembly Menara Tun Razak BEES V4.02 Characterization Global warming	252

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introductions

Housing is one of the most important needs of every human being. Without housing one would be exposed to adverse effects resulting from vagaries inherent in an environment. Exposure to bad weather would lead to ill health. Housing fosters the development of other industries. The building industry produces buildings for utilities, shops and communal facilities. Housing is also a tool for economic development.

Today, it is widely accepted that human activities are contributing to climate change. The Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) estimated that between 1970 and 2004, global greenhouse gas emissions due to human activities rose by 70 percent (IPCC, 2007). While the full implications of climate change are not fully understood, scientific evidence suggests that it is a causal factor in rising sea levels, increased occurrence of severe weather events, food shortages, changing patterns of disease, severe water shortages and the loss of tropical forests. Most experts agree that over the next few decades, the world will undergo potentially dangerous changes in climate, which will have a significant impact on almost every aspect of our environment, economies and societies.

In forty years we need to have reduced our greenhouse gas emissions by at least 50% to avoid the worst-case scenarios of climate change. In eleven years we need to have achieved at least a 25% reduction in emissions. In December 2009 the world's nations are gathered in Copenhagen to negotiate an agreement on a new global protocol that will enable humanity to achieve the necessary global targets. The building sector contributes up to 30% of global annual greenhouse gas emissions and consumes up to 40% of all energy. Furthermore, 41% of the total energy consumption in the U.S. is emitted 38% of greenhouse gas emissions. Given the massive growth in new construction in economies in transition, and the inefficiencies of existing building stock worldwide, if nothing is done, greenhouse gas emissions from buildings will more than double in the next 20 years. Therefore, if targets for greenhouse gas emissions reduction are to be met, it is clear that people must tackle emissions from the building sector. Mitigation of greenhouse gas emissions from buildings must be a cornerstone of every national climate change strategy (USDOE, 2011).

Of the many environmental impacts of development, the one with the highest profile currently is global warming, which demands changes from government, industry and public. Concerns about the local and global environment situation are rising all over the world. Global warming is the consequence of long term buildup of greenhouse gases (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, etc.) in the higher layer of atmosphere. The emission of these gases is the result of intensive environmentally harmful human activities such as the burning of fossil fuels, deforestation and land use changes (Buchanan and Honey, 1994) This is generally accepted to be the reason that average global temperatures have increased by 0.74 °C in the last 100 years. Global temperatures are set to rise by a further 1.1 °C in a low emissions scenario, and by 2.4 °C in a high emissions scenario, by the end of the century. It is necessary to reduce Green House Gases (GHG) emissions by 50% or more in order to stabilize global concentrations by 2100 (Houghton et al., 2001) The Tyndall Centre has suggested that a 70% reduction in CO₂ emissions will be required by 2030 to prevent temperature rising by more than 1 °C (Bows et al., 2006).

There are many methods available for assessing the environmental impacts of materials and components within the building sector. Life cycle assessment (LCA) is a tool used for the quantitative assessment of a material used, energy flows and environmental impacts of products. It is used to assess systematically the impact of each material and process. LCA is a technique for assessing various aspects associated with development of a product and its potential impact throughout a product's life (i.e. cradle to grave) from raw material acquisition, processing, manufacturing, use and finally its disposal (ISO, 1997).

1.2 Background of Research

Nowadays there is a growing concern for sustainability. This has led to a change in the otherwise economic approach to resource consumption accounting. In recent years, the tendency has been to use structural optimization criteria to reduce the environmental impact involved in all life cycle stages. Any optimization of design for sustainability should be conducted in accordance with the ISO 14040 standards, which require that an appropriate boundary and scope be set and justified (ISO 1998). Reducing CO₂ emissions is one of the most widely used criteria, since data related to the environmental impact of most construction materials have been compiled by distinct organizations (e.g. Goedkoop and Spriensma 2001; Catalonia Institute of Construction Technology 2009)

In design paradigms, trade-offs are made among alternative solutions aimed to optimize building performance for various objectives. On the other hand, environmental objectives are diverse, complex, inter- connected, and usually conflicting. Reducing impacts on one problem (e.g., global warming) may increase impacts on another (e.g., solid waste generation). In order to reach the aim of improving the building performance and decrease destructive effects on global warming, performance of a building material, product, or system should be optimized. It is necessary to weight global warming impacts, normalize sources of

similar impacts, and calculate the total environmental performance in order to select the most preferable alternative. Hence a comprehensive assessment system is required to assess confidently the environmental performance of a particular design.

Building Materials and Component Combinations (BMCC) nearly two thirds of the studies listed in Table 1.1 Relate to materials and components. Materials are naturally found in impure form, e.g., in ores, and extraction or purification not only consumes energy but also produces waste (Asif et al., 2007). Many industrialized countries have made steps towards environmental improvement of the construction process, building occupation and demolition, and these steps differ to the extent that building construction is strongly determined by local traditions, local climate and locally available natural resources. As a result, many LCA studies calculating the environmental impacts of BMCC have been done during the last fifteen years.

Researchers have compared timber to other framing materials in buildings. Borjesson et al. compared CO₂ emissions from the construction of a multi-storey building with a timber or concrete frame, from life-cycle and forest land-use perspective. The primary energy input (mainly fossil fuels) in the production of materials was found to be about 60-80% higher when concrete frames were considered instead of timber frames (2000). Lenzen et al. analyzed the timber and concrete designs of the same building in terms of its embodied energy using an input-output based hybrid framework instead of the process analysis Borjesson used. Their estimations of energy requirements and greenhouse gas emissions were double (2002). Gustavsson et al. studied the changes in energy and CO₂ balances caused by variation of key parameters in the manufacture and use of the materials in a timber- and a concrete-framed building. Considered production scenarios, the materials of the timber-framed building had lower energy and CO₂ balances than those of the concrete-framed building in all cases but one (2006).

Table 1.1 Published LCAs applied within the building sector within the last 15 years

Reference	BMCC	WPC	Content, country and year	Environmental impacts studied (see footnote)														
				En	GW	A	E	OD	HT	EL	WC	DA	W	EC	RS	AR	O	
Adalberth <i>et al.</i>		x	Life-cycle of four dwellings located in Sweden (2001)	x	x	x	x	x	x	x								
Ardente <i>et al.</i>	x		LCA of a solar thermal collector, Italy (2005)	x							x		x			x	x	
Asif <i>et al.</i>	x		LCA for eight different materials for a dwelling in Scotland (2005)	x	x													
Citherlet <i>et al.</i>	x		LCA of a window and advanced glazing systems in Europe (2000)	x	x	x		x										x
Cole and Kernan		x	LCA of a three-storey, office building for alternative structure materials in Canada.	x														
Gustavsson and Sathre		x	LCA Sweden case study: wood and concrete in building materials (2006)	x														x
Junnila		x	LCA for a construction of an office: a Finland case study (2004)	x	x	x	x									x		
Junnila and Horvath		x	LCA of a high end office building in Finland (2003).	x	x	x	x									x		
Junnila <i>et al.</i>		x	Comparative LCA of office buildings in Europe and the United States (2006)	x	x	x	x											
Koroneos and Dompros	x		LCA of brick production in Greece (2006)	x	x	x	x				x							x
Koroneos and Kottas		x	LCA for energy consumption in the use phase for a house in Greece (2007)	x	x	x	x									x		x
Morel <i>et al.</i>	X		Comparison of energy embodied in local construction materials with imported ones, France (2000)	x														
Nebel <i>et al.</i>	x		LCA for floor covering, Germany (2006)	x	x	x	x	x										x
Nicoletti <i>et al.</i>	x		LCA of flooring materials (ceramic versus marble tiles), Italy (2002)	x	x	x		x	x							x		x
Nyman and Simonson		x	LCA of residential ventilation units over a 50 year life-cycle in Finland (2005)	x	x	x		x								x		x
Peuportier		x	Comparison of three types of houses with different specifications in France (2001)	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Petersen and Solberg	x		LCA by comparing wood and alternative materials in Norway and Sweden (2005)	x		x	x	x	x									
Prek		x	LCA of heating and air conditioning systems. Dwelling in Slovenia (2004)	x	x			x										
Saiz <i>et al.</i>	x		LCA for green roofs located in downtown Madrid, Spain (2006)	x	x	x	x	x	x		x					x		x
Scheuer <i>et al.</i>		x	LCA to a new University building in the USA (2003)	x	x	x		x			x					x		x

Abbreviations: WPC, whole process construction; BMCC, building and materials components combinations. Impact categories: En, energy consumption; GW, global warming potential; OD, photochemical ozone creation; WC, water consumption; DA, depletion of a biotic resource; A, acidification; HT, human toxicity; W, waste creation; EC, eco-toxicity; E, eutrophication; EL, energy consumption; RS, resources consumption; O, others; AR, air emissions. Source:(Ortiz *et al.*, 2009)

Xing *et al.* compared a steel-framed office building in China with a concrete-framed one. The life-cycle energy consumption of the building materials ‘per area’ in the steel-framed building is 24.9% that of the concrete-framed building, whereas, in the usage phase, the energy consumption and emissions of steel-framed building are both larger than those of concrete-framed building. As a result, the energy consumption and environmental emissions achieved by the concrete-framed building

over its whole life-cycle is lower than the steel-framed one (2008). Asif et al. calculated the CO₂ emissions of eight construction materials for a dwelling in Scotland timber, concrete, glass, aluminum, slate, ceramics tiles, plasterboard, damp course and mortar. The study concluded that 61% of the embodied energy used in the house was related to concrete. Timber and ceramic tiles comes next with 14% and 15%, respectively, of the total embodied energy. Concrete was responsible for 99% of the total of CO₂ emissions of the home construction, mainly due to its production process (Asif et al., 2007). Nebel et al. studied the environmental impacts of wood floor coverings manufactured in Germany, and held analyses to help the industry partners to improve their environmental performance and use the results for marketing purposes. The study did not aim to compare products, but to produce an LCI and find the environmental impacts of this industry (2006).

Conservation of energy becomes important in the context of limiting GHG emission into the atmosphere, and reducing costs of materials (Venkatarama Reddy and Jagadish, 2001), and the embodied energy payback period should always be one of the criteria used for comparing the viability renewable technologies (Wilson and Young, 1996). To promote environmental impact reduction the European Commission released the integrated product policy (IPP) (2003), which aimed to enhance the life-cycle of products. The life-cycle of most construction products is long and involves many complicated procedures and stake holders (e.g., designer, manufacturer, assembly, construction, marketing, sellers, and final users).

Many researchers have been interested in studying the environmental benefits of using recycled, reused or recyclable, reusable materials in the building industry. A study by Erlandsson et al. set a new method for reused materials, and confirmed that using reused materials is better for the environment than building with new, their case study data showing a reduction in environmental impact by up to 70% (2004). Selecting durable and renewable materials could also be an alternative for grouping materials, as well as recycling, reusing and recovering materials for optimum waste disposal (Sun et al., 2003). A study comparing plastics to wood and concrete in Swedish dwellings found that although plastics were only 1%–2% by weight, their manufacturing energy was 18%–23% of the entire amount required for the three dwellings (Adalberth, 1997). Researchers classified building materials in different

ways. For example, Asif et al. categorized them into main families, i.e., stone, concrete, metals, wood, plastics and ceramics (Asif et al., 2007). Junnila and Horvath studied the significant environmental aspects of a new high-end office building with a life span of over 50 years. In this study functional unit is considered as 1 kWh/m²/year and location of study was at Southern Finland (Northern Europe). The LCA performed here had three main phases inventory analysis for quantifying emissions and wastes, impact assessment for evaluating the potential environmental impacts from the inventory of emissions and wastes, and interpretation for defining the most significant aspects. In this study life cycle of a building was divided into five main phases; building materials manufacturing, construction process, use of the building, maintenance, and demolition. GHG emissions were estimated to be 48,000 ton CO₂eq/m².50yr.(Junnila S and A., 2003)

Four of the studies listed in Table 1.2 deal with dwellings. Adalberth studied the energy use during the life-cycle of three single-unit dwellings, built in Sweden in 1991 and 1992 (1997). The houses were prefabricated and timber framed. The study emphasized the importance of LCA, to gain an insight into the energy use for a dwelling in Sweden. The functional unit was m² of usable floor area (i.e., gross area minus walls area), and the study assumed a 50 years life-span. The life-spans of different building components and materials were collected from the maintenance norm of the Organization for Municipal Housing Companies in Sweden to estimate how many times each would be replaced during the life of the dwelling. The study showed that the difference between percentage energy and percentage by weight for materials (e.g., the concrete used was 75% by weight of the whole, while the energy used to produce it is only 28% of the production energy of the whole dwelling). Adalberth performed a sensitivity analysis on the building material data, energy use and electricity mix, which had been discovered to be of a greatest environmental burden. This study concluded that the greatest environmental impact (70%–90%) occurs during the use phase. Approximately 85% and 15% of energy consumption occurs during the occupation and manufacturing phases, respectively (Adalberth, 1997).

A study carried out in France as part of the EQUER project (evaluation of environmental quality of buildings) considered different phases of dwelling's life-cycle, using the functional unit of m² living area, with the sensitivity analyses based

on alternative building materials, types of heating energy, and the transport distance of the timber. This study showed that the dwellings with greatest environmental impact were not those whose area is larger, and emphasized the importance of choosing materials with low environmental impact during the pre-construction phase (i.e., employing LCA as a decision making supporting tool during the design stage) (Adalberth, 1997).

Involving the recycling potential scenarios within the life-cycle of low energy dwellings had been studied by Thormark, for energy efficient apartment housing in Sweden. Over a 50 year life-span, embodied energy accounted for 45% of the total energy requirement, and about 37%–42% of this embodied energy could be recovered through recycling (2002). In a Japanese urban development case study, Jian et al. suggested that to reduce life-cycle CO₂ emissions timber dwellings were preferred to other materials, and that open spaces such as parks and green areas should be maximized to work as a breathing lung inside the development (Jian et al., 2003).

In terms of LCA for offices Scheuer et al. studied a new university building (75 years life-span, six storeys, and 7,300 m² area, in USA). They identified 60 building materials and showed that the operational energy amounted to 97.7% of the whole energy consumption, which can be explained by the long life-span. The energy of the demolition phase was only 0.2%. The study translated the energy consumed in the life-cycle into environmental impacts-global warming 93.4%, nitrification potential 89.5%, acidification 89.5%, ozone depletion potential 82.9%, and soil categories waste generation 61.9%. Data were taken from Simapro, Franklin associates, DEAMTM, and the Swiss Agency for the Environment, Forests and Landscape. The study emphasized the need for data on unusual performance characteristics, or detailed evaluations of building features in the design stage, which they say is impossible with current building data (Scheuer et al., 2003).

Guggemos and Horvath compared environmental effects of steel and concrete framed buildings using LCA. Two five-storey buildings with floor area of 4400 m² were considered which were located in the Midwestern US and were expected to be used for 50 years. In this study two methods, process based LCA and EIO-LCA,

were used to evaluate life-cycle environmental effects of each building through different phases: material manufacturing, construction, use, maintenance and demolition phase. The results showed that concrete structural-frame had more associate energy use and emissions due to longer installation process(2005). Blengini performed LCA of building which was demolished in the year 2004 by controlled blasting. The adopted functional unit used in the current case-study was 1 m² net floor area, over a period of 1 year. This residential building was situated at Turin (Italy). In this study demolition phase and its recycling potential were studied. The life cycle impact assessment (LCIA) phase was initially focused on the characterisation and six energy and environmental indicators were considered, GER (Gross Energy Requirement), GWP, ODP (Ozone Depletion Potential), AP, EP and POCP (Photochemical Ozone Creation Potential). SimaPro 6.0 (2004) and Boustead Model 5 (Boustead I, 2004). were used as supporting tools in order to implement the LCA model and carried out the results. The results demonstrated that building waste recycling is not only economically feasible and profitable but also sustainable from the energetic and environmental point of view (Blengini, 2009).

Scheuer et al. performed LCA on a 7300 m² six-storey building whose projected life was 75 years at SWH (Sam Wyly Hall). The building is located on the University of Michigan Campus, Ann Arbor, Michigan, US. LCA has been done in accordance with EPA (Environmental Protection Agency), SETAC (Society for Environmental Toxicity And Chemistry), and ISO standards for LCA (Vigon BW, 1993; ISO, 1997). Primary energy consumption, GWP, ODP, NP (nitrification potential), AP, and solid waste generation were the impact categories considered in the life cycle environmental impacts from SWH. An inventory analysis of three different phases: Material placement, Operations and Demolition phase was done. Results showed that the optimization of operations phase performance should be primary emphasis for design, as in all measures, operations phase alone accounted for more than 83% of total environmental burdens (Scheuer et al., 2003).

Table 1.2 Environmental impacts associated with different buildings.

S. no.	Year	Specification of building	Place	Type	Life time (year)	Floor area (m ²)	Energy use (MJ/m ² .50yr)	GHG emissions (CO _{2eq} /m ² .50yr)
1	1996	Malmö	Sweden	R	50	700	23,040	1.30 ton
2	1996	Helsingborg	Sweden	R	50	1,160	26,640	1.35 ton
3	1996	Vaxjö	Sweden	R	50	1,190	33,120	1.51 ton
4	1996	Stockholm	Sweden	R	50	1,520	2,590	1.40 ton
5	2006	Low-density building	Toronto, Canada	R	50	-	53,400	5365 kg
6	2006	High-density building	Toronto, Canada	R	50	-	46,830	3885 kg
7	2005	Steel framed	Midwestern US	R	50	4,400	20,900	-
8	2005	Concrete framed	Midwestern US	R	50	4,400	46,950	-
9	2004	Via Garrone building	Turin, Italy	R	-	6,110	49,930	3340 kg
10	2003	High-end	South. Finland, Europe	C	50	15,600	-	48,000 ton
11	2003	Sam Wyly Hall, University of Michigan	Michigan, USA	C	75	7,300	-	67,500 ton
12	2008	Office building	Thailand	C	50	60,000	-	5,600,000 ton
13	2003	School building	Mendoza, Argentina	C	50	-	-	34,000 µPE*

R: residential, C: commercial.

Source: (1),(2),(3),(4) (Adalberth K et al., 2001) (5),(6)(Norman J et al., 2006) (7),(8)(Guggemos AA, 2005) (9) (Jian et al., 2003) (10) (Junnila S and A., 2003) (11) (Scheuer et al., 2003) (12) (Kofoworola and Gheewala, 2008) (13) (Arena and Rosa, 2003)

While carbon is a motivation for policy of BIM, the connections between digital technologies and sustainability are not well developed in policy and practice. There is however research activity that is beginning to develop new tools to use BIM in order to address a range of sustainability concerns. Russell-Smith and Lepech (2012), for example, develop an activity based method for lifecycle assessment, through modeling and benchmarking of building construction. The sustainability concerns addressed by such tools include: the assessment of environmental impacts (Lu et al., 2012); consideration of waste management issues (O'Reilly, 2012; Rajendran and Gomez, 2012) guidance to designers on environmental issues(Capper et al., 2012; Firoz and Rao, 2012; Geyer, 2012; Hetherington et al., 2012; Kanters et al., 2012; Mirani and Mahdjoubi, 2012) and a response to a government strategy for carbon reductions in both current and future building stock (McAuley et al., 2012).

Recent studies were also examining the use of BIM throughout the lifecycle of construction projects, addressing and looking at the life-cycle of particular materials such as concrete(Borrmann et al., 2012). There are also a few studies on

renovation and on reconstruction and on waste management and minimization (O'Reilly, 2012; Rajendran and Gomez, 2012; Yeheyis et al., 2012)

There is also a literature that sets out frameworks for guidance of quantity surveyors there were expectations that this work will be changed by the widespread use of BIM and consideration of how these activities can be achieved through the new tools.

1.3 Problem Statement

Since 1751 approximately 337 billion tons of carbon have been released to the atmosphere from the consumption of fossil fuels and cement production. Half of these emissions have occurred since the mid-1970s. The 2007 global fossil-fuel carbon emission estimate, 8365 million metric tons of carbon, represents an all-time high and a 1.7% increase from 2006. Globally, liquid and solid fuels accounted for 76.3% of the emissions from fossil-fuel burning and cement production in 2007. Combustion of gas fuels (e.g., natural gas) accounted for 18.5% (1551 million metric tons of carbon) of the total emissions from fossil fuels in 2007 and reflects a gradually increasing global utilization of natural gas. Emissions from cement production (377 million metric tons of carbon in 2007) have more than doubled since the mid-1970s and now represent 4.5% of global CO₂ releases from fossil-fuel burning and cement production. Gas flaring, which accounted for roughly 2% of global emissions during the 1970s, now accounts for less than 1% of global fossil-fuel releases.(Boden et al., 2010)

The over-dependence on fossil fuels and over-exploitation of earth's natural resources has now become obstructions for sustainable development in many countries. Global energy related emissions of CO₂ are anticipated to rise from 20.9 billion t in 1990 to 28.8 billion t in 2007. It is then projected to reach 34.5 billion t in 2020 and 40.2 billion t in 2030, an average growth rate of 1.5% per year. Moreover,

Kyoto Protocol announced significant portions of CO₂ emitted by the United States (22%), China (18%), E.U.(11%), Russia (6%), India(5%), and Japan (5%). Furthermore, The European Union has agreed upon climate targets to decrease the emissions of greenhouse gases by 20% by 2020 and 50% by 2050 compared with the 1990 level (International Energy Agency, 2009) (United Nations 2007) (European Commission)

Comprising data from CDIAC in 2000 and 2007 are shown significant issue. Rank of Malaysia decreased from 69 in 2000 with 5.4 metric tons of CO₂ per capita to 57 in 2007 with 7.3 metric tons of CO₂ per capita. This trend shows that Fuel consumption in Malaysia had increased rapidly since 2000 until 2007.

Nowadays there is a growing concern for sustainability. This has led to a change in the otherwise economic approach to resource consumption accounting. In recent years, the tendency has been to use structural optimization criteria to reduce the environmental impact involved in all life cycle stages. Any optimization of design for sustainability should be conducted in accordance with the ISO 14040 standards, which require that an appropriate boundary and scope be set and justified (ISO 1998). Reducing CO₂ emissions is one of the most widely used criteria, since data related to the environmental impact of most construction materials have been compiled by distinct organizations (Goedkoop and Spriensma, 2001).

Also the construction industry is one of the main contributors towards the development of Malaysia, providing the necessary infrastructure and physical structures for activities such as commerce, services and utilities. The industry generates employment opportunities and injects money into a Malaysian's economy by creating foreign and local investment opportunities(Agung, 2010). However, despite these contributions, the construction industry has also been linked to global warming, environmental pollution and degradation. Due to the alarmingly decreasing land for construction, Malaysia is calling for the use of developed sites and conversions of existing buildings to meet current demands. Therefore on a broad spectrum, demolition can be predicted to be playing a major role in future nation building. Deconstruction, waste of this process and unsustainable tools, are also linked to the adverse environmental impacts of the construction industry.

1.4 Aim of Research

The aim of this study is to calculate the generation of GHG per 1 square meters in reinforced concrete building in Malaysia. This study is done by determining the crucial processes that contribute to the total GHG impacts during the demolition and waste disposal include landfill treatment that used diesel as the main source of energy.

1.5 Objective of Research

The objectives for this case study:

1. To identify the methods and processes of a demolition.
2. To analyze the relevant contribution of Building Information Modeling's Tool (revit structure software) to accurate estimation materials produced after deconstruction.
3. To measure the relevant plant's fuel consumption on demolition and waste disposal phase, and calculation GWP of activities by simapro software as the tools for LCA.
4. To evaluate the GHG per square meter of the case study subject and weight of materials that were demolished and under wastage treatment.

1.6 Scope of Research

The scope of the LCA mostly consists of the functional unit, the system boundary, allocation procedures, data requirements and assumptions or limitations. The functional unit of the study was defined as 1 square meter gross floor area of Menara Tun Razak building.

The boundary of this study includes the stages of the demolition and waste disposal. In order to suit the objective of the study and based on the system boundary, the study only focus on emissions that contribute to the greenhouse effects from demolition site including emissions from activities, which consist of fuel. Figure 1.1 shows the general outline of inventories involved in the study.

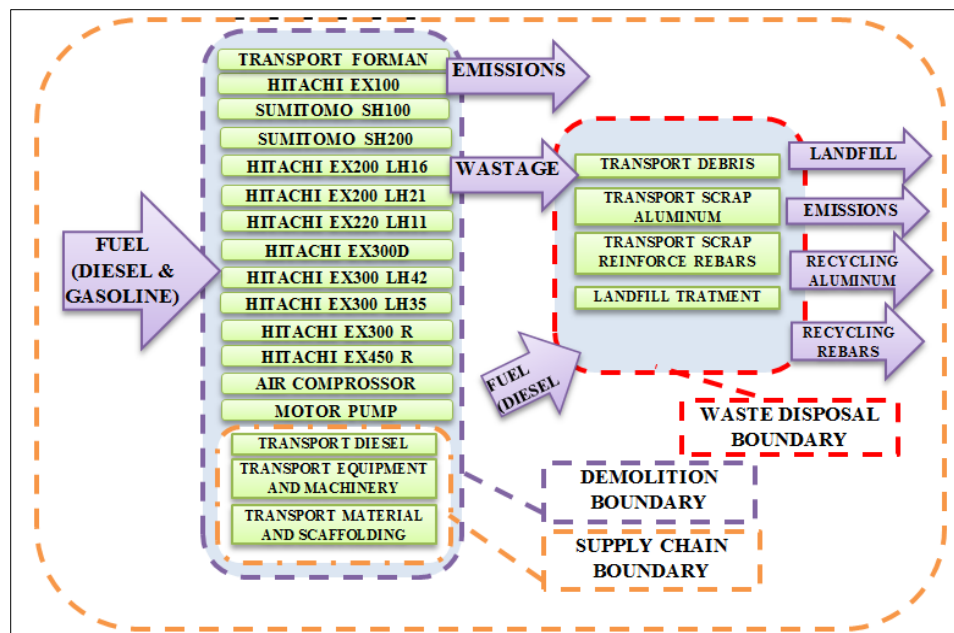


Figure 1.1 System boundary MENARA TUN RAZAK

Moreover for LCA database is chosen Ecoinvent 2.01 version (2007) of this research. Datasets are offered for a Swiss (CH) and a European (RER) supply situation also BEES V4.02 as impact assessment methodology to assess the environmental impact. The Bees methodology uses the environmental problems approach that was developed by the society for environmental toxicology and chemistry (SETAC). Therefore, this study was focused on LCA of fuel used and

GHGs emission based on the demolition and wastage scenario in case study Menara Tun Razak in Kuala Lumpur.

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