ORIGINAL ARTICLE



Concrete Industry, Environment Issue, and Green Concrete: A Review

A. Omar and K. Muthusamy

Faculty of Civil Engineering Technology, Universiti Malaysia Pahang, 26300 Gambang, Kuantan, Malaysia

ABSTRACT – Concrete is the second most utilized substance around the world behind the water. The aim of this paper is to review the environmental effect of concrete industry. It has been found that the environmental impact of concrete industry is severe in various environmental categories as global warming, depletion of ozone layer, and acidification of soil and water bodies. Moreover, concrete industry affects ecosystems and alters hydrogeological and hydrological systems. Green concrete has become increasingly popular among researchers and academics in recent years, although it is still in its infancy. This article examines the environmental impact of waste materials such as fly ash, silica fume, and slag as partial or complete replacements for cement, and of waste and recycled material as aggregates. It shows that the negative environmental effect of the concrete industry can be minimized by using these waste materials in the concrete production.

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received: 30th Nov 2021 Revised: 03rd Jan 2022 Accepted: 28th Mar 2022

KEYWORDS

Concrete industry Environmental issue Green concrete Environmental pollution Concrete production

INTRODUCTION

Due to its excellent mechanical characteristics such as high compressive strength, durability, hardness, workability, and fire resistance, concrete is the most common material used in building construction around the world [1]. Concrete is a building material consisting of a hard, chemically inert component called aggregate (often made of various types of sand and gravel) bound by cement and water. In recent decades, the environmental impact of the concrete industry has attracted much attention as awareness of environmental protection and potential negative consequences have increased at every stage of the concrete industry [2]. Today, the average production of concrete worldwide is about 3.8 tonnes per person per year [3]. Concrete production and consumption are expected to be four times higher by 2050 than in 1990 [4]. The high annual production of concrete means that the consumption of cement and aggregates is also high. In 2019, global cement production reached 4 billion tonnes, a 50% increase from 2005. It is expected to reach over 6 billion tonnes by 2022 [5], with cement production growing by 4% every year, due to the growing population and urbanization [6, 7].

Cement production is a three-stage process involving raw material preparation, clinker production, which consumes a lot of energy; it represents for 12-15 percent of overall energy use globally [8]. The carbon footprint of concrete and cement manufacturing has attracted much attention recently [9, 10]. The production of Cement is accounting for 5-8% of worldwide CO₂ emissions [11, 12]. In addition, several pollutants including, sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen oxides (NOx), and dust /fine particulates matters (PM) are released into the environment during cement production. These emissions occur at every stage of the cement manufacturing process, from the mining of the limestone to packaging and shipping the finished product [13]. These pollutants have a negative impact on various environmental categories, including climate change, depletion of ozone, and acidification of water and soil.

The concrete production requires the use of a large amount of raw materials; over 27 billion tonnes of raw materials are consumed each year [4]. Concrete's mass demand results in annual aggregate consumption of up to 48.3 billion tonnes [14]. This high consumption is depleting natural resources. In addition, the mining of natural aggregates can promote soil erosion or ecosystem degradation, as the wastewater and sludge released from a concrete plant can affect the aquatic environment. Moreover, the mining processing and transportation of such a large amount of aggregates consume a lot of energy [15], and generate a lot of pollutants such as (CO_2) , (NO_x) , and (SO_2) , which have a severe impact on the environment [16]. In addition, aggregate mining activities can have negative impacts on ecosystems and alter hydrogeological and hydrological systems. These negative impacts of stone and sand extraction can lead to depletion of groundwater, loss of soil fertility, forest deterioration, loss of diversity, and human health problems [17].

Over the past decade, researchers have looked to minimize the adverse effect of the concrete industry on the environment, leading to the development of the idea of green concrete. Green concrete is primarily based on the replacement of cement with industrial and agricultural wastes in concrete and the use of recyclable materials and waste as aggregate [18].

EMISSION FROM CONCRETE INDUSTRY AND ENVIRONMENT ISSUES

Cement Production Emission

Cement production is an energy-intensive process. Carbonate minerals are dried, crushed, and sintered to produce one kilogram of "clinker" which is then pulverized into cement powder and blended with additional materials, requiring about 3-5 MJ of non-renewable energy [19]. The concrete industry is held partially responsible for greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. The process of cement manufacturing is accounting for more than 70% of GHG emissions in the concrete industry [20]. The primary cause of global warming and climate change is (GHG). Carbon dioxide (CO₂), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and methane (CH₄) are (GHG) associated with climate change. However, CO₂ accounts for 99% of the global warming impact, while other relevant gases are produced in smaller amounts during cement production [21]. During the life cycle of cement production, about 5-8% of worldwide CO₂ emissions are emitted [22]. In 2017, 4.1 Gt of CO₂ was produced during global cement production. This huge amount of CO₂ may lead to the inevitability of man-made climate change [23]. The fossil fuel used in the kiln process accounts for about 40% of CO₂ emissions, while 50% are due to decarburization of the limestone and 10% by transport and handling [24]. In addition to CO₂ emissions, the cement industry also releases Sulfur Dioxide (SO₂). The cement sector is the third-largest source of SO₂ emissions in China. Therefore, China experiences significant air pollution such as smog and acid rain, with acid rain having harmful effects on agricultural production and plant growth [25].

Moreover, cement production emits Nitrogen Oxide (NO_x) .it is produced by thermal oxidation in a rotary kiln [26]. Most (NO_x) is released in the form of (NO) (about 90%) and the rest in the form of (NO_2) [27]. When nitric oxide (NO)comes into contact with oxygen (O_2) , it oxidizes to nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) , causing NO_x compounds to rise in water and lead to serious environmental problems such as acid rain [28]. In addition, according to Kim and Chae [29], nitric oxide is an important substance that influences the phenomenon of eutrophication. The cement sector in China accounts for 12% of the country's NO_x emissions [30]. In addition, the cement industry releases (PM) such as (PM₁₀) and (PM_{2.5}), with (PM) generated during clinker production accounting for the largest share of total emissions (approximately 37%), followed by fugitive emissions from cement grinding (32%). The amount of (PM) released during clinker production ranges from 0.68-1 kg/t [31]. Particulate matter has a negative impact on air quality, leading to many human health problems[32]. In addition, particulate matter is particularly harmful to health because it can interact with hazardous substances such as Cd, As, Cr, Mn, Pb, Ni, Cu, and Zn, which are associated with human-induced activities [33]. It is worth noting that the cement sector in China is a major source of (PM) pollution, representing 30% of total industrial particulate matter emissions [34]. In addition, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} levels were found to be much higher than permissible around cement plants in a local government district in Nigeria[35]. In 2017, it was also reported that the number of infant deaths due to $PM_{2.5}$ in the Nigerian atmosphere was 49,100, with children under 5 years of age being the most vulnerable[36]. Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs) are also released into the environment by the cement industry [37]. Incomplete combustion of various fuels contributes significantly to VOCs emissions into the environment [38]. VOCs are caused by ozone formation and can pollute soil and groundwater. Moreover, VOCs have a negative effect on plant growth [39]. In addition, the European cement industry emits 334 - 4670 tonnes of NO_x, up to 11125 tonnes of SO₂, 2.17 - 267 tonnes of VOCs and 460 - 11500 tonnes of CO annually [12]. Table 1 summarizes the impact of the production of one tonne of OPC in different environmental categories.

Impact categories	Unit	Authors		
		[39]	[40]	[30]
Global warming	kg CO ₂ eq	964	2160	734.12
Ozone layer depletion	kg CFC-11 eq	5.4*10 ⁻⁵	2.54*10-4	1.28*10-6
Aquatic acidification	kg SO ₂ eq	-	-	0.89
Terrestrial acid	kg SO ₂ eq	-	7.86	5.58
Aquatic eutrophication	kg PO ₄ P-lim	-	-	0.0102
Freshwater eutrophication	kg P eq	0.32	0.138	-
Formation of tropospheric ozone	$kg \ C_2 H_4 \ eq$	0.51	-	-
Respiratory inorganics	kg PM _{2.5} eq	-	-	0.23
Respiratory organics	$kg C_2 H_4 eq$	-	-	3.30 * 10 ⁻²
Particulate matter formation	kg PM ₁₀ eq	-	3.32	-

Table 1. Impact of cement industry in different environmental categories

Furthermore, noise emissions are released during cement production. Noise pollution is caused by the processing of raw materials, burning of the clinker, storage of the material, and heavy machinery used in this process [41]. Noise pollution in cement plants is divided into gas-dynamic noise, mechanical noise, and electromagnetic noise [42]. Noise pollution has an adverse effect on human health. For example, long-term exposure to high noise can lead to hearing loss [24]. Moreover, in the cement industry, various operations like handling of raw material, crushing of limestone, processing in kilns, manufacturing, and storage of clinker, grinding of finished cement and power supply generate a lot of dust which affects the health of people living near the cement factory [43].

Granite Aggregates Production Emission

Aggregates are among the most commonly used building materials around the world. It is estimated that up to 50 giga tonnes of aggregates are mined annually from quarries, mines, rivers, beaches, and the marine environment. This is forecast to rise to 60 giga tonnes by 2030 [44]. Due to their widespread use, the mining and transportation of large quantities of aggregates have serious environmental impacts. One of the serious environmental impacts of aggregate mining is that almost all-natural vegetation, topsoil, and subsoil must be removed to access the rock beneath the quarries. This leads not only to the extinction of existing species but also to a significant loss of biodiversity as vegetation and aquatic ecosystems are destroyed [45]. In addition, the extraction of natural aggregates produces a large amount of dust that endangers human health and affects the productivity of agriculture [46]. Drilling, blasting, hydraulic hammering, crushing, and screening are the main sources of dust in aggregate production [47]. Furthermore, mining causes noise pollution, which leads to serious health problems such as hearing loss, cardiovascular disease and anxiety [46]. The use of heavy quarry equipment can cause soil erosion, resulting in the accumulation of silt and sediment in downstream streams and rivers [48]. Moreover, the production of aggregates releases pollutants into the air. CO₂ is released throughout the production of aggregates. The key source of CO₂ emissions is the fossil fuels used in the extraction, crushing and screening, handling, and transportation of aggregates. Aggregate mining, handling, and transportation are representing about 13-20% of total CO₂ released in the construction sector [49]. Moreover, each tonne of aggregates emits about 32 kg of CO₂ equivalent of GHG during its life cycle [50]. In the case of granite aggregate, each tonne of aggregate emits about 45.9 kg CO₂ equivalent of GHG [51]. Consequently, the production of natural aggregates has an impact on global warming. Besides CO₂, the production of aggregates also releases SO₂ which has an impact on soil and water acidification. According to Hossain, et al. [50], the production of natural aggregates releases about 1.27 kg of SO₂ per tonne. In addition, fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) is released during the production of natural aggregates. Natural aggregates emit about 0.0023 kg (PM_{2.5})/tonne, with off-site transportation (43%) and fossil fuel combustion (38%) being the main contributors [52]. Aggregate production releases other pollutants into the air such as C_2H_4 , PO₄, and Chloro-fluoro-carbon (CFC) which have various environmental impacts, such as organic respiratory, eutrophication, and ozone layer depletion. Furthermore, the extraction of aggregates releases noise, dust, and contaminated water, which affects ecosystems [53]. It is worth noting that the demand for natural aggregates is increasing. As a result of this demand, the environmental impact of aggregate production is raised up. Figure 1 shows the annual production of crushed stone in the United States in millions of tonnes [54]. It can be observed that a significant increase in production of crushed stone in 2019 compared to 2015 will contribute to an increased environmental impact as well as depletion of natural aggregate resources. The estimated carbon dioxide emissions for annual crushed stone production in the United States are calculated in millions of tonnes as shown in Figure 1. Clearly, higher aggregate production leads to higher CO₂ emissions, which in turn increases the impact of aggregate production on global warming.

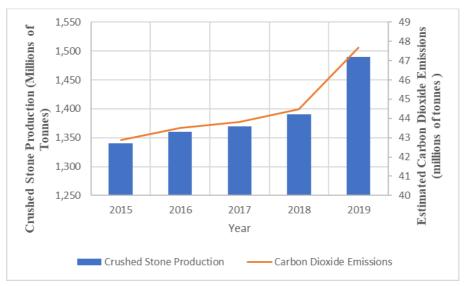


Figure 1. The estimated value of CO₂ emissions (in millions of tonnes) in the United States due to crushed stone on the basis that each tonne of crushed stone emits 32 kg of CO₂[50, 54]

Fine Aggregate Production Emission

According to Hossain, et al. [50], the production of one tonne of fine aggregate river sand, 341 MJ of non-renewable energy is consumed, resulting in the emission of 23 kg CO₂ equivalent of GHGs, while crushed stone requires 518 MJ of energy and emits 33 kg CO₂ equivalent of GHGs. In addition, the production of one tonne of fine aggregate emits about 0.03 kg PM_{2.5} equivalent and 0.98 kg to 1.29 SO₂ equivalent of terrestrial acid. Furthermore, the production of fine aggregates releases other pollutants that affect the eutrophication of water bodies. The production of one tonne of fine aggregate from river sand releases about 0.0006 kg PO₄ P-lim [50]. Moreover, sand mining leads to the degradation of air quality. Sand mining releases a significant amount of dust that can endanger human health. In addition, sand extraction causes noise pollution and vibrations due to the heavy equipment and blasting used, which affect the quality of life of local residents, and the vibrations can be harmful to surrounding buildings [55]. Furthermore, the quality of surface runoff and groundwater can be affected by sand mining due to dissolved and suspended pollutants. Sediment, also known as suspended solids, is one of the most common contaminants in surface waters. Sediment can choke stream beds, harming fish and benthic organisms [56]. Moreover, sand mining leads to destroys plant and aquatic habitats, leading to loss of biodiversity. e.g., exploitation of sand in rivers leads to deepening of rivers and estuaries and widening of estuaries and coastal bays. This leads to saltwater intrusion [57]. It is worth noting that Sand consumption is increasing at an alarming rate due to ongoing construction projects and other infrastructure improvements, with excessive sand mining causing severe environmental impacts. Figure 2 shows the annual production of sand and gravel in the United States in millions of tonnes. The estimated SO₂ equivalent of terrestrial acid emissions for annual sand stone production in the United States is calculated in millions of tonnes as shown in Figure 2. Clearly, increased aggregate production leads to higher SO_2 emissions, which increases the impact of aggregate production on soil acidification.

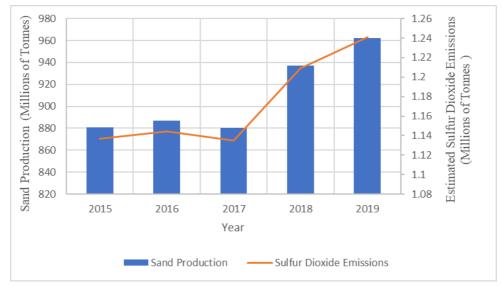


Figure 2. The estimated amount of SO₂ emissions (in millions of tonnes) from sand in the United States, based on the assumption that one tonne of sand emits 1.29 kg of SO₂.[50, 54]

GREEN CONCRETE AS A SOLUTION

Green concrete is a relatively new concept in the history of the concrete industry, as the concept of green concrete was introduced in 1998 [58]. Green concrete is defined as concrete that is produced using at least one waste ingredient, is produced in an environmentally friendly manner, and has good life cycle performance and sustainability [59]. Green concrete has attracted much attention in the concrete industry because it has less impact on the environment, improves concrete properties, and reduces the need for natural resources compared to conventional concrete [60]. Green concrete has several types such as geopolymer concrete, high-volume fly ash concrete [61].

In green concrete, there are several substitutes for ordinary Portland cement, such as supplementary cementitious materials (SCM) and alkali-activated binders (AABs) [62]. All these alternatives depend mainly on agricultural and industrial wastes, including rice husk ash (RHA), fly ash (FA), silica fume (SF), and slag (GBBS) [63, 64]. SCM is used as a partial replacement for OPC up to 50% or more based on the desired characteristics of the concrete [65]. The use of SCM reduces CO_2 emissions throughout the life cycle of concrete production. This is mainly due to the fact that less cement is used in concrete production, which in turn reduces CO_2 emissions from cement production. Furthermore, the use of SCM in concrete not only minimizes the influence on the environment but also improves the concrete properties. For example, FA improves the workability of concrete and extends the setting time without affecting the final compressive strength [66]. RHA improves the concrete durability and increases its resistance to sulfate attack as well as reduces water absorption [67], while slag reduces the heat of hydration of concrete [68]. On the other hand, the alkali-activated binders completely eliminate the use of OPC in concrete, leading to a significant decrease in the environmental influence of the concrete industry. For instance, when AABs are used instead of OPC, CO_2 emissions be reduced by up to 80% [69]. Another method of making green concrete is to use calcium aluminate (CA) and calcium-sulfo-aluminate

(CSA) cements. Using these cement instead of OPC produces green concrete by minimizing CO_2 emissions into the environment. [70].

Natural aggregates are partially or completely replaced by waste and recyclable materials in the production of green concrete. Using these solid wastes as aggregates in concrete eliminates the need for natural aggregates to be mined and processed, helping to conserve natural aggregate sources, manage waste, and decrease total energy and carbon emissions from concrete production [70]. Some of these waste materials are; plastic [71], tire rubber [72], glass [73], coconut shell [74], construction and demolition wastes [75], E-Plastic Waste[76], ceramics[77]. On the other hand, sand is also replaced in whole or in part by waste and recycled materials in the green concrete. The use of waste or recycled material eliminates the negative environmental impact of sand mining and production. Several research have revealed that various waste materials may be employed as a substitute for natural sand in green concrete [78-81]. Therefore, green concrete can take a variety of forms, such as concrete in which OPC is partially or completely replaced, or concrete using waste or recycled materials to replace natural aggregates.

In some studies, Fernando, et al. [82] used life cycle assessment to evaluate the environmental effect of geopolymer concrete made from FA. In this study, the emission of 0.011 kg CO₂- equivalent /kg due to the manufacturing process of FA is considered. Compared to traditional concrete, the results showed 12% less greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. According to Zhang, et al. [83], (SF) and FA are able to reduce CO₂ emissions in concrete production. The results revealed that using 5% SF as a partial substitution for OPC reduced CO₂ emissions by 3.98%. On the other hand, the use of 15% FA and 5% SF as a partial replacement for cement resulted in an a15.64% reduction in CO₂ emissions compared to OPC concrete. Dandautiya and Singh [84] evaluated the environmental impact of concrete made from (FA) and copper waste (CT) as a partial substitute for OPC. The results showed that a significant reduction in the environmental influence of concrete on climate change and depletion of the ozone. The environmental effect of concrete is reduced when the cement replacement ratio is increased with FA and CT, with lower environmental impacts observed when cement was replaced by 30% of FA and 10% of CT. Moreover, Ersan, et al. [85] investigated the environmental influence of green lightweight concrete. In this study, the aggregate was partially replaced by plastic waste 30%, and the cement was replaced by 20% FA. The results showed that the climate change potential decreased by 13% compared to traditional lightweight concrete, while the effects on ozone layer depletion and acidification also decreased compared to traditional lightweight concrete, while the effects on eutrophication increased.

Gursel, et al. [86] studied the environmental effects of various concrete mixes made with a combination of FA and RHA as a partial OPC substitute. The results showed that the use of 40% FA and 15% RHA reduced CO₂ emissions from 544 kg CO₂- equivalent /m³ to 284 kg CO₂-eq/m³. In addition, NO_X, PM, and SO₂ were reduced. However, CO emission increases with the increasing use of RHA in concrete. Singh, et al. [87] evaluated the environmental influence of using marble powder as a partial substitute for sand and cement in concrete. The findings showed that using marble powder as a partial substitute for oPC reduces the effect of concrete production on global warming and the depletion of ozone. The CO₂ emission for concrete with 15% marble as a partial substitute for OPC is 350 kg/m³ compared to 410 kg/m³ for traditional concrete. Nikbin, et al. [88] studied the environmental impact of substituting bauxite residues for cement. The results of the study show that CO₂ emissions from concrete production decrease significantly. CO₂ emissions decrease from 556.8 kg m-3 to 409.9 kg m⁻³ when bauxite residues replace cement by up to 25%. It can be argued that cement production alone is the main source of CO₂ emissions. Based on the study result, the use of bauxite residues is sustainable even if the transportation distances are much longer than those of the conventionally used cement. In addition, according to Hedayatinia, et al. [89], most of the global warming potential generated in concrete production. Table 2 summarizes the effects of different admixture in concrete production on the global warming potential due to concrete.

Source	Concrete Types	Admixture	Replacement Percentage (%)	Global Warming Potential Reduction Percentage (%)
[88]	Lightweight concrete	Bauxite Residue (BR)	25	26.3
[84]	Normal concrete	Fly ash (FA) and copper tailings (CT)	FA 30, and 10 CT	37
[86]	Normal concrete	RHA and Fly ash	FA 40, and RHA 15	51
	Normal concrete	Fly ash (FA)	40, 50, 60, and 70	37, 46, 55, and 64
[91]	Normal concrete	Fly ash (FA)	35	30
	Normal concrete	GGBFS	70	60
[92]	Normal concrete	Fly ash (FA)	25	30
	Normal concrete	Fly ash (FA)	100	75.25
[93]	Normal concrete	Fly Ash (FA), Silica fume (SF)	80 FA, 20 SF	77.71
[94]	Normal concrete	Fly ash (FA)	30, and 60	25, and 52
[95]	Normal concrete	Sewage sludge ash	10	9

Table 2. The impact of different admixture in concrete production on the global warming potential due to concrete

CONCLUSION

The environmental effect of the concrete industry has been highlighted in this study. Starting with the raw material extraction to the final product, the environmental impacts of the various concrete production processes are examined. Many environmental problems are affected by the concrete industry, including climate change, depletion of the ozone layer, and acidification of soil and water bodies. In addition, the concrete industry has adverse effects on ecosystems, including loss of biodiversity and alteration of hydrogeological and hydrological systems. Green concrete has recently been presented as a way to minimize the environmental effect of concrete production. Several researchers have investigated the impact of natural wastes, industrial or agricultural by-products, and recycled wastes as aggregates in concrete production as cement alternatives. The use of these wastes in concrete production can reduce the various environmental effect of the concrete industry while enhancing the properties of concrete.

REFERENCES

- H. Song *et al.*, "Predicting the compressive strength of concrete with fly ash admixture using machine learning algorithms," *Construction and Building Materials*, vol. 308, p. 125021, 2021/11/15/2021.
- [2] L. Lima, E. Trindade, L. Alencar, M. Alencar, and L. Silva, "Sustainability in the construction industry: A systematic review of the literature," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 289, p. 125730, 2021.
- [3] A. P. Gursel, E. Masanet, A. Horvath, and A. Stadel, "Life-cycle inventory analysis of concrete production: A critical review," *Cement and Concrete Composites*, vol. 51, pp. 38-48, 2014.
- [4] A. I. Nicoara *et al.*, "End-of-life materials used as supplementary cementitious materials in the concrete industry," *Materials*, vol. 13, no. 8, p. 1954, 2020.
- [5] C. I. T. Report, "Cement Industry Trends Report," 2017.
- [6] L. Proaño, A. T. Sarmiento, M. Figueredo, and M. Cobo, "Techno-economic evaluation of indirect carbonation for CO2 emissions capture in cement industry: A system dynamics approach," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 263, p. 121457, 2020.
- [7] International Energy AgencyI, "Technology Roadmap Low-Carbon Transition in the Cement Industry," *World Business Council For Sustainable Development (WBCSD) (2016)*, 2016.
- [8] A. A. Usón, G. Ferreira, A. M. López-Sabirón, E. L. Sastresa, and A. S. De Guinoa, "Characterisation and environmental analysis of sewage sludge as secondary fuel for cement manufacturing," *Chemical Engineering Transactions*, vol. 29, pp. 457-462, 2012.
- [9] A. Vashishth and B. Jayant, "Deterministic Approach for Calculation of Carbon Footprint for Cement Plants in India," 2021.
- [10] V. Khozin, O. Khokhryakov, and R. Nizamov, "A «carbon footprint» of low water demand cements and cement-based concrete," in *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering*, 2020, vol. 890, no. 1, p. 012105: IOP Publishing.
- [11] S. H. Teh, T. Wiedmann, A. Castel, and J. de Burgh, "Hybrid life cycle assessment of greenhouse gas emissions from cement, concrete and geopolymer concrete in Australia," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 152, pp. 312-320, 2017.
- [12] S. Dunuweera and R. Rajapakse, "Cement types, composition, uses and advantages of nanocement, environmental impact on cement production, and possible solutions," *Advances in Materials Science and Engineering*, vol. 2018, 2018.
- [13] D. Brown, R. Sadiq, and K. Hewage, "An overview of air emission intensities and environmental performance of grey cement manufacturing in Canada," *Clean Technologies and Environmental Policy*, vol. 16, no. 6, pp. 1119-1131, 2014.
- [14] R. V. Silva, J. De Brito, and R. Dhir, "Properties and composition of recycled aggregates from construction and demolition waste suitable for concrete production," *Construction and Building Materials*, vol. 65, pp. 201-217, 2014.
- [15] K. P. Verian, W. Ashraf, and Y. Cao, "Properties of recycled concrete aggregate and their influence in new concrete production," *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, vol. 133, pp. 30-49, 2018.
- [16] G. Azúa, M. González, P. Arroyo, and Y. Kurama, "Recycled coarse aggregates from precast plant and building demolitions: Environmental and economic modeling through stochastic simulations," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 210, pp. 1425-1434, 2019.
- [17] O. Ozcan, N. Musaoglu, and D. Z. Seker, "Environmental impact analysis of quarrying activities established on and near a river bed by using remotely sensed data," *Fresenius Environmental Bulletin*, vol. 21, no. 11, pp. 3147-3153, 2012.
- [18] A. Sivakrishna, A. Adesina, P. O. Awoyera, and K. Rajesh Kumar, "Green concrete: A review of recent developments," *Materials Today: Proceedings*, vol. 27, pp. 54-58, 2020/01/01/ 2020.
- [19] A. C. Bourtsalas, J. Zhang, M. J. Castaldi, N. J. Themelis, and A. N. Karaiskakis, "Use of non-recycled plastics and paper as alternative fuel in cement production," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 181, pp. 8-16, 2018/04/20/ 2018.
- [20] S. A. Miller, A. Horvath, and P. J. Monteiro, "Readily implementable techniques can cut annual CO2 emissions from the production of concrete by over 20%," *Environmental Research Letters*, vol. 11, no. 7, p. 074029, 2016.
- [21] C. Valderrama, R. Granados, J. L. Cortina, C. M. Gasol, M. Guillem, and A. Josa, "Implementation of best available techniques in cement manufacturing: a life-cycle assessment study," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 25, pp. 60-67, 2012/04/01/ 2012.
- [22] M. U. Hossain, C. S. Poon, I. M. Lo, and J. C. Cheng, "Comparative LCA on using waste materials in the cement industry: A Hong Kong case study," *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, vol. 120, pp. 199-208, 2017.
- [23] N. Mohamad, K. Muthusamy, R. Embong, A. Kusbiantoro, and M. H. Hashim, "Environmental impact of cement production and Solutions: A review," *Materials Today: Proceedings*, 2021.

- [24] U. Arachchige, A. Amakm, B. Balasuriya, K. Chathumini, N. Dassanayake, and J. Devasurendra, "Environmental pollution by cement industry," *International Journal of Research*, vol. 6, no. 8, pp. 631-635, 2019.
- [25] T. Zhang *et al.*, "Clarifying the decomposition process of pyrite and SO2 release in the cyclone preheater of a dry rotary cement kiln system," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 241, p. 118422, 2019.
- [26] O. O. Isaiah, O. A. Olusegun, A. G. Blessing, and A. O. Samson, "Environmental and Health Implications of Cement Production Plant Emissions in Nigeria: Ewekoro Cement Plant as a Case Study," *Chemistry Journal*, vol. Vol. 6, No. 1, 2021.
- [27] Y. S. Najjar, "Gaseous pollutants formation and their harmful effects on health and environment," *Innovative energy policies*, vol. 1, pp. 1-9, 2011.
- [28] S. Van Den Hende, H. Vervaeren, and N. Boon, "Flue gas compounds and microalgae:(Bio-) chemical interactions leading to biotechnological opportunities," *Biotechnology advances*, vol. 30, no. 6, pp. 1405-1424, 2012.
- [29] T. H. Kim and C. U. Chae, "Environmental impact analysis of acidification and eutrophication due to emissions from the production of concrete," *Sustainability*, vol. 8, no. 6, p. 578, 2016.
- [30] W. Chen, J. Hong, and C. Xu, "Pollutants generated by cement production in China, their impacts, and the potential for environmental improvement," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 103, pp. 61-69, 2015/09/15/ 2015.
- [31] Q. Tang *et al.*, "Scenario study on PM emission reduction in cement industry," in *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 2018, vol. 111, no. 1, p. 012014: IOP Publishing.
- [32] Y. O. Khaniabadi, P. Sicard, A. M. Taiwo, A. De Marco, S. Esmaeili, and R. Rashidi, "Modeling of particulate matter dispersion from a cement plant: upwind-downwind case study," *Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering*, vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 3104-3110, 2018.
- [33] J. Rovira, J. Flores, M. Schuhmacher, M. Nadal, and J. L. Domingo, "Long-term environmental surveillance and health risks of metals and PCDD/Fs around a cement plant in Catalonia, Spain," *Human and Ecological Risk Assessment: An International Journal*, vol. 21, no. 2, pp. 514-532, 2015.
- [34] S. Hua *et al.*, "Atmospheric emission inventory of hazardous air pollutants from China's cement plants: Temporal trends, spatial variation characteristics and scenario projections," *Atmospheric Environment*, vol. 128, pp. 1-9, 2016/03/01/ 2016.
- [35] K. Ogedengbe and A. Oke, "Pollution impact of cement production on air, soil and water in a production location in Nigeria," *Journal of Science and Technology (Ghana)*, vol. 31, no. 2, 2011.
- [36] C. Lelia, C. J. Christina, and K. Andrew. (2020, 20/1). *The Cost of Air Pollution in Lagos*. Available: https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/33038
- [37] K. S. Devi, V. V. Lakshmi, and A. Alakanandana, "Impacts of cement industry on environment-an overview," Asia Pac. J. Res, vol. 1, pp. 156-161, 2017.
- [38] D. Zimwara, L. Mugwagwa, and T. Chikowore, "Air pollution control techniques for the cement manufacturing industry: a case study for Zimbabwe," *CIE42 proceedings*, vol. 37, pp. 1-13, 2012.
- [39] L. Moretti and S. Caro, "Critical analysis of the life cycle assessment of the Italian cement industry," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 152, pp. 198-210, 2017.
- [40] F. N. Stafford, F. Raupp-Pereira, J. A. Labrincha, and D. Hotza, "Life cycle assessment of the production of cement: A Brazilian case study," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 137, pp. 1293-1299, 2016.
- [41] M. Stajanča and A. Eštoková, "Environmental impacts of cement production," 2012.
- [42] T. Thai, P. Kučera, and A. Bernatik, "Noise Pollution and Its Correlations with Occupational Noise-Induced Hearing Loss in Cement Plants in Vietnam," *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, vol. 18, no. 8, p. 4229, 2021.
- [43] E. Adeyanju and C. A. Okeke, "Exposure effect to cement dust pollution: a mini review," SN Applied Sciences, vol. 1, no. 12, pp. 1-17, 2019.
- [44] L. Gallagher and P. Peduzzi, "Sand and sustainability: Finding new solutions for environmental governance of global sand resources," 2019.
- [45] P. Peduzzi, "Sand, rarer than one thinks," *Environmental Development*, vol. 11, pp. 208-218, 2014.
- [46] E. Ukpong, "Environmental impact of aggregate mining of crush rock industry in Akamkpa local government area of cross river state," *Nigerian Journal of Technology*, vol. 31, no. 2, pp. 128-138, 2012.
- [47] M. Sairanen, M. Rinne, and O. Selonen, "A review of dust emission dispersions in rock aggregate and natural stone quarries," *International Journal of Mining, reclamation and environment*, vol. 32, no. 3, pp. 196-220, 2018.
- [48] A. Wambua, J. Chege, and A. Ngira, "Bio-physical and socio-economic effects of quarrying activities in selected quarries in Tezo Ward-Kilifi County," *International Journal of Environmental Sciences*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 1-17, 2021.
- [49] T. Pavlů, V. Kočí, and P. Hajek, "Environmental assessment of two use cycles of recycled aggregate concrete," *Sustainability*, vol. 11, no. 21, p. 6185, 2019.
- [50] M. U. Hossain, C. S. Poon, I. M. Lo, and J. C. Cheng, "Comparative environmental evaluation of aggregate production from recycled waste materials and virgin sources by LCA," *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, vol. 109, pp. 67-77, 2016.
- [51] A. Bascetin, D. Adiguzel, and S. Tuylu, "The investigation of Co 2 emissions for different rock units in the production of aggregate," *Environmental Earth Sciences*, vol. 76, no. 7, p. 279, 2017.
- [52] V. J. Gan, J. C. Cheng, and I. M. Lo, "Integrating life cycle assessment and multi-objective optimization for economical and environmentally sustainable supply of aggregate," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 113, pp. 76-85, 2016.

- [53] E. Kori and H. Mathada, "An assessment of environmental impacts of sand and gravel mining in Nzhelele Valley, Limpopo Province, South Africa," in 3rd international conference on biology, environment and chemistry. IACSIT Press, Singapore, 2012, vol. 46, no. 29, pp. 137-141.
- [54] N. M. I. C. (USGS), "Construction Sand and Gravel Statistics and Information," 2021.
- [55] M. N. Saviour and P. Stalin, "Soil and sand mining: causes, consequences and management," *IOSR Journal of Pharmacy* (*IOSRPHR*), vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 01-06, 2012.
- [56] M. N. Saviour, "Environmental impact of soil and sand mining: a review," *International Journal of Science, Environment and Technology*, vol. 1, no. 3, pp. 125-134, 2012.
- [57] P. S. Pitchaiah, "Impacts of sand mining on environment–a review," *International Journal of Geo informatics and Geological Science*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 1-6, 2017.
- [58] T. McCausland, "News and analysis of the global innovation scene," *Research-Technology Management*, vol. 64, no. 1, pp. 2-10, 2020.
- [59] B. Suhendro, "Toward green concrete for better sustainable environment," *Procedia Engineering*, vol. 95, pp. 305-320, 2014.
- [60] M. K. Dash, S. K. Patro, and A. K. Rath, "Sustainable use of industrial-waste as partial replacement of fine aggregate for preparation of concrete–A review," *International Journal of Sustainable Built Environment*, vol. 5, no. 2, pp. 484-516, 2016.
- [61] K. M. Liew, A. O. Sojobi, and L. W. Zhang, "Green concrete: Prospects and challenges," *Construction and Building Materials*, vol. 156, pp. 1063-1095, 2017/12/15/ 2017.
- [62] P. O. Awoyera, A. Adesina, A. Sivakrishna, R. Gobinath, K. R. Kumar, and A. Srinivas, "Alkali activated binders: Challenges and opportunities," *Materials Today: Proceedings*, vol. 27, pp. 40-43, 2020/01/01/ 2020.
- [63] K. Liew, A. Sojobi, and L. Zhang, "Green concrete: Prospects and challenges," *Construction and building materials*, vol. 156, pp. 1063-1095, 2017.
- [64] M. I. AlBiajawi, R. Embong, and K. Muthusamy, "An overview of the utilization and method for improving pozzolanic performance of agricultural and industrial wastes in concrete," *Materials Today: Proceedings*, 2021.
- [65] M. Juenger, F. Winnefeld, J. L. Provis, and J. Ideker, "Advances in alternative cementitious binders," *Cement and concrete research*, vol. 41, no. 12, pp. 1232-1243, 2011.
- [66] N. Saboo, S. Shivhare, K. K. Kori, and A. K. Chandrappa, "Effect of fly ash and metakaolin on pervious concrete properties," *Construction and Building Materials*, vol. 223, pp. 322-328, 2019/10/30/ 2019.
- [67] A. S. Gill and R. Siddique, "Durability properties of self-compacting concrete incorporating metakaolin and rice husk ash," *Construction and Building Materials*, vol. 176, pp. 323-332, 2018.
- [68] İ. B. Topçu and A. Ünverdi, "Properties of high content ground granulated blast furnace slag concrete," in *International Sustainable Buildings Symposium*, 2017, pp. 114-126: Springer.
- [69] P. Duxson, "3 Geopolymer precursor design," in *Geopolymers*, J. L. Provis and J. S. J. van Deventer, Eds.: Woodhead Publishing, 2009, pp. 37-49.
- [70] A. Sivakrishna, A. Adesina, P. Awoyera, and K. R. Kumar, "Green concrete: A review of recent developments," *Materials Today: Proceedings*, vol. 27, pp. 54-58, 2020.
- [71] F. K. Alqahtani, "Sustainable Green Lightweight Concrete Containing Plastic-Based Green Lightweight Aggregate," *Materials*, vol. 14, no. 12, p. 3304, 2021.
- [72] S. M. S. Kazmi, M. J. Munir, and Y.-F. Wu, "Application of waste tire rubber and recycled aggregates in concrete products: A new compression casting approach," *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, vol. 167, p. 105353, 2021.
- [73] W. Khalil and N. Al Obeidy, "Some properties of green concrete with glass and plastic wastes," in *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering*, 2020, vol. 737, no. 1, p. 012052: IOP Publishing.
- [74] R. B. Tangadagi, M. Manjunatha, S. Preethi, A. Bharath, and T. Reshma, "Strength characteristics of concrete using coconut shell as a coarse aggregate–A sustainable approach," *Materials Today: Proceedings*, 2021.
- [75] H. A. Ibrahim *et al.*, "Hydraulic and strength characteristics of pervious concrete containing a high volume of construction and demolition waste as aggregates," *Construction and building materials*, vol. 253, p. 119251, 2020.
- [76] A. S, "Experimental Study on the Properties of Green Concrete by Replacement of E-Plastic Waste as Aggregate," *Procedia Computer Science*, vol. 172, pp. 985-990, 2020/01/01/ 2020.
- [77] M. Amin, A. M. Zeyad, B. A. Tayeh, and I. S. Agwa, "Engineering properties of self-cured normal and high strength concrete produced using polyethylene glycol and porous ceramic waste as coarse aggregate," *Construction and Building Materials*, vol. 299, p. 124243, 2021.
- [78] K. Muthusamy, M. H. Rasid, G. A. Jokhio, A. Mokhtar Albshir Budiea, M. W. Hussin, and J. Mirza, "Coal bottom ash as sand replacement in concrete: A review," *Construction and Building Materials*, vol. 236, p. 117507, 2020/03/10/ 2020.
- [79] A. P. Gursel and C. Ostertag, "Life-cycle assessment of high-strength concrete mixtures with copper slag as sand replacement," *Advances in civil engineering*, vol. 2019, 2019.
- [80] H. L. Muttashar, M. A. M. Ariffin, M. N. Hussein, M. W. Hussin, and S. B. Ishaq, "Self-compacting geopolymer concrete with spend garnet as sand replacement," *Journal of Building Engineering*, vol. 15, pp. 85-94, 2018.
- [81] O. M. Olofinnade, A. N. Ede, J. M. Ndambuki, B. U. Ngene, I. I. Akinwumi, and O. Ofuyatan, "Strength and microstructure of eco-concrete produced using waste glass as partial and complete replacement for sand," *Cogent Engineering*, vol. 5, no. 1, p. 1483860, 2018.

- [82] S. Fernando, C. Gunasekara, D. W. Law, M. Nasvi, S. Setunge, and R. Dissanayake, "Life cycle assessment and cost analysis of fly ash-rice husk ash blended alkali-activated concrete," *Journal of Environmental Management*, vol. 295, p. 113140, 2021.
- [83] Y. Zhang *et al.*, "Effect of compressive strength and chloride diffusion on life cycle CO2 assessment of concrete containing supplementary cementitious materials," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 218, pp. 450-458, 2019.
- [84] R. Dandautiya and A. P. Singh, "Utilization potential of fly ash and copper tailings in concrete as partial replacement of cement along with life cycle assessment," *Waste Management*, vol. 99, pp. 90-101, 2019.
- [85] Y. C. Ersan, S. Gulcimen, T. N. Imis, O. Saygin, and N. Uzal, "Life cycle assessment of lightweight concrete containing recycled plastics and fly ash," *European Journal of Environmental and Civil Engineering*, pp. 1-14, 2020.
- [86] A. P. Gursel, H. Maryman, and C. Ostertag, "A life-cycle approach to environmental, mechanical, and durability properties of "green" concrete mixes with rice husk ash," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 112, pp. 823-836, 2016.
- [87] M. Singh, K. Choudhary, A. Srivastava, K. S. Sangwan, and D. Bhunia, "A study on environmental and economic impacts of using waste marble powder in concrete," *Journal of Building Engineering*, vol. 13, pp. 87-95, 2017.
- [88] I. Nikbin, M. Aliaghazadeh, S. Charkhtab, and A. Fathollahpour, "Environmental impacts and mechanical properties of lightweight concrete containing bauxite residue (red mud)," *Journal of cleaner production*, vol. 172, pp. 2683-2694, 2018.
- [89] F. Hedayatinia, M. Delnavaz, and S. S. Emamzadeh, "Rheological properties, compressive strength and life cycle assessment of self-compacting concrete containing natural pumice pozzolan," *Construction and Building Materials*, vol. 206, pp. 122-129, 2019.
- [90] M. Elchalakani, H. Basarir, and A. Karrech, "Green concrete with high-volume fly ash and slag with recycled aggregate and recycled water to build future sustainable cities," *Journal of Materials in Civil Engineering*, vol. 29, no. 2, p. 04016219, 2017.
- [91] M. W. Tait and W. M. Cheung, "A comparative cradle-to-gate life cycle assessment of three concrete mix designs," *The International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment*, vol. 21, no. 6, pp. 847-860, 2016.
- [92] J. Turk, Z. Cotič, A. Mladenovič, and A. Šajna, "Environmental evaluation of green concretes versus conventional concrete by means of LCA," *Waste management*, vol. 45, pp. 194-205, 2015.
- [93] R. Bajpai, K. Choudhary, A. Srivastava, K. S. Sangwan, and M. Singh, "Environmental impact assessment of fly ash and silica fume based geopolymer concrete," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 254, p. 120147, 2020.
- [94] R. Kurda, J. D. Silvestre, and J. de Brito, "Life cycle assessment of concrete made with high volume of recycled concrete aggregates and fly ash," *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, vol. 139, pp. 407-417, 2018.
- [95] D. Nakic, "Environmental evaluation of concrete with sewage sludge ash based on LCA," *Sustainable Production and Consumption*, vol. 16, pp. 193-201, 2018.