

¹Pooja Mishra,
²Prof. (Dr.) Fulena
 Rajak,
³Asst. Prof. (Dr.)
 Ravish Kumar

A Comprehensive Study on Net Zero Energy Buildings and Sustainable Construction Materials with Low Carbon Contents



Abstract: - One-third of the world's greenhouse gas emissions come from the building industry, with embodied carbon from the manufacture of building materials accounting for a sizable portion of these emissions. Prior research has mostly focused on examining the carbon emissions of low-rise structures, but it has failed to consider the significant influence that high-rise buildings have on a city's overall carbon emissions. Net-zero energy buildings (NZEBs) combine intelligent energy management strategies with conventional design knowledge to facilitate a sustainable and eco-friendly transition. The NZEB building revolution has the potential to become a long-term structural pillar for structures to come. The purpose of this study is to assess how various design factors and the embodied carbon in high-rise structures relate to one another. Additionally, the goal of this research is to keep annual consumer energy comfort in a home NZEB at its highest level without using any electricity from the electrical grid. In order to achieve long-term climate goals, our work emphasises the socio-economic advantages of adopting NZE buildings and further empowers consumer participation to minimise energy waste and carbon emissions. The findings provide a foundation for constructing high-rise structures in a more ecologically conscious manner to lower the structure's carbon emissions. The evaluation and comparison of the embedded carbon values takes into account the carbon emissions from the transportation and material manufacturing processes.

Keywords: Buildingheight; Constructionmaterial; Embodiedcarbon; High-risebuilding; Recycledmaterial; Structuralform

1. Introduction

Since the construction industry accounts for 40% of global energy consumption and around 30% of greenhouse gas emissions, it has a substantial impact on the environment [1]. In recent decades, there has been an increased necessity to construct High-Rise Buildings (HRB) due to the rapid development of the metropolitan population. Varying areas and nations have varying definitions of high-rises, or tall structures, based on the number of storeys or metres they contain. According to the Council on Tall Buildings and Urban Habitat (CTBUH), HRBs are defined as structures with more than four floors, higher than 75 feet (approximately 23 m), and/or more stories (i.e., or over 50 m in height). Buildings over 300 m and 600 m are referred to as super-tall and mega-tall, respectively. Researchers compared the carbon emissions and electricity use intensity of 610 office buildings in the UK, finding that high-rises with 20 stories or more consumed electricity 2.5 times more than low-rises and released twice as much carbon due to gas and electricity consumption. Additionally, gas usage increases by around 40% as buildings go taller [2]. Because of this, densification's consequences are nuanced and contradictory, and it may be viewed as a negative aspect when taking energy consumption into account [3]. The application of energy-efficient design solutions for hybrid residential buildings (HRBs) is crucial, given the exponential global growth of this building type.

These days, global warming is regarded as one of the most significant environmental problems. One of the main causes of human greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions that contribute to global warming is thought to be the construction industry. Contributor to Global warming is shown in Figure 1. The construction industry accounts for one-third of worldwide greenhouse gas emissions and 40% of global energy and material consumption, according to the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP, 2009). Especially with the pressure of limited land and the quick population expansion in metropolitan areas. Today's developers often design tall structures to optimise the utilisation of available space. Because high-rise structures typically demand more energy and materials per floor space than low-rise buildings, it is anticipated that the building sector's overall energy consumption and GHG emissions would increase. Reducing energy use and greenhouse gas emissions in

¹Department- Architecture and Planning

Official Address- National Institute of technology Patna , Ashok Raj path, Patna, Bihar- 800005

²Department- Architecture and Planning

Official Address- National Institute of technology Patna , Ashok Raj path, Patna, Bihar- 800005

³Department- Architecture and Planning

Official Address- National Institute of technology Patna , Ashok Raj path, Patna, Bihar- 800005

Corresponding Email id – poojam.ph21.ar@nitp.ac.in

buildings particularly high-rise buildings can surely lessen the influence of humans on the environment in the long run [4]. One of the most significant strategies for attaining energy conservation and reducing greenhouse gas emissions in buildings is the construction of low-carbon buildings.

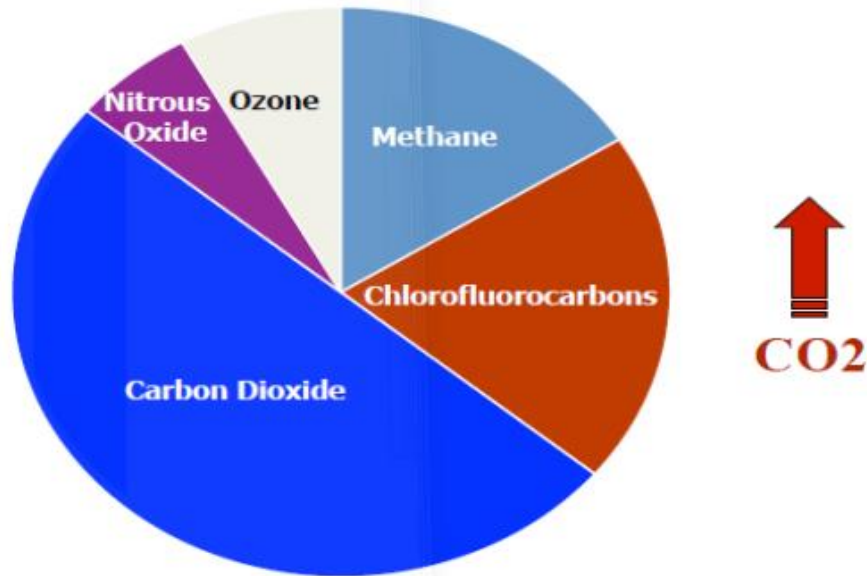


Figure 1:Contributor to Global warming

Numerous studies have assessed GHG emissions throughout the building life cycle in order to aid in the creation of low carbon buildings [5]. According to reports, the operational phase of an office building accounts for about 66% of its life cycle greenhouse gas emissions (sometimes referred to as operational carbon). The production and transportation of construction materials account for 27% of the emissions (also known as embodied carbon), and the remaining phases demolishing and other phases for less than 7% of the emissions. When considering different timescales, embedded carbon might become substantial even though it is smaller than operational carbon. For example, in developing nations like Mainland China, building lifespans may be as brief as 25–30 years. In instance, energy consumption and carbon emissions from the building operating phase may be significantly decreased with the greater deployment of energy-efficient technology in buildings [6]. Thus, from a life cycle perspective, the embodied carbon of building materials becomes increasingly significant for energy-efficient structures. Traditionally, a building's structural shape and construction materials are selected by weighing the costs and structural behaviours of several design options. Although embodied carbon and other sustainability criteria are essential today, they are not always taken into account when designing buildings. While some scholarly research has been done on the topic of sustainable building design to reduce embodied carbon, the studies only looked at low-rise and high-rise structures with 20 to 30 storeys.

At the moment, the building industry is the one responsible for the greatest amount of greenhouse gas emissions [7]. Buildings contribute up to one-third of global GHG emissions, hence there is no denying that the building industry must play a part in lowering GHG emissions. Buildings can account for about 60% of total energy use in subtropical nations and cities like Hong Kong [8]. Due to the energy required for building construction, operation, and destruction, residential structures account for a sizable share of the overall energy consumption and, consequently, the greenhouse gas emissions.

Numerous investigations have been carried out to evaluate the effects of buildings on the environment. For instance, when evaluating the environmental performance of buildings, Chen and Ng [9] suggested accounting for the embedded GHG emissions. Without taking into account the full life cycle of structures, De Wolf et al. [10] examined the GHG emissions from 200 recently finished buildings in the United States based on the amounts of structural materials. A life cycle assessment model was created to measure how building construction affects the environment. Peupartier [11] evaluated the environmental performance of three different kinds of French houses, and he used an EQUER tool to do a sensitivity analysis depending on the selection of various building materials, heating energy sources, and modes of transportation.

2. Construction Materials

Construction materials are used in building construction and need a lot of energy, both during the extraction of raw materials and during the production stage. Demand for Construction materials is rising in the current global environment, particularly in emerging countries like India. Global material consumption increased thrice between 1970 and 2010, from 22 billion to 70 billion tonnes, and per capita consumption increased from 7 to 10 tonnes.

Globally, domestic raw material extraction has increased as well. It is projected that 10 billion tonnes of completed products can be produced with 30 billion tonnes of raw resources. The main cause of the increase in material demand is the world's population expansion, which has resulted in record levels of greenhouse gas emissions and other major environmental effects, including global warming. Contributions to green house warming by different gases are shown in Table 1. The engineering characteristics of construction materials are important in determining a building's structural integrity and are generally well-defined in terms of measurement, quantification, and global acceptability. There isn't any such proven machinery or set procedure for calculating the eco-properties of construction materials. The majority of energy impact assessment techniques that are now available for life cycle analysis take into account the energy used for maintenance, decommissioning, and transportation as well as embodied energy and carbon as two important eco-properties. While embodied carbon is linked to greenhouse gas emissions into the environment, embodied energy is related with energy use within cradle to cradle system limits. The floating column graph in Figure 2 illustrates the embodied energy ranges of common building materials. Figure 2 shows that materials in the polymer group have a larger embodied energy than the majority of materials in the ceramics group.

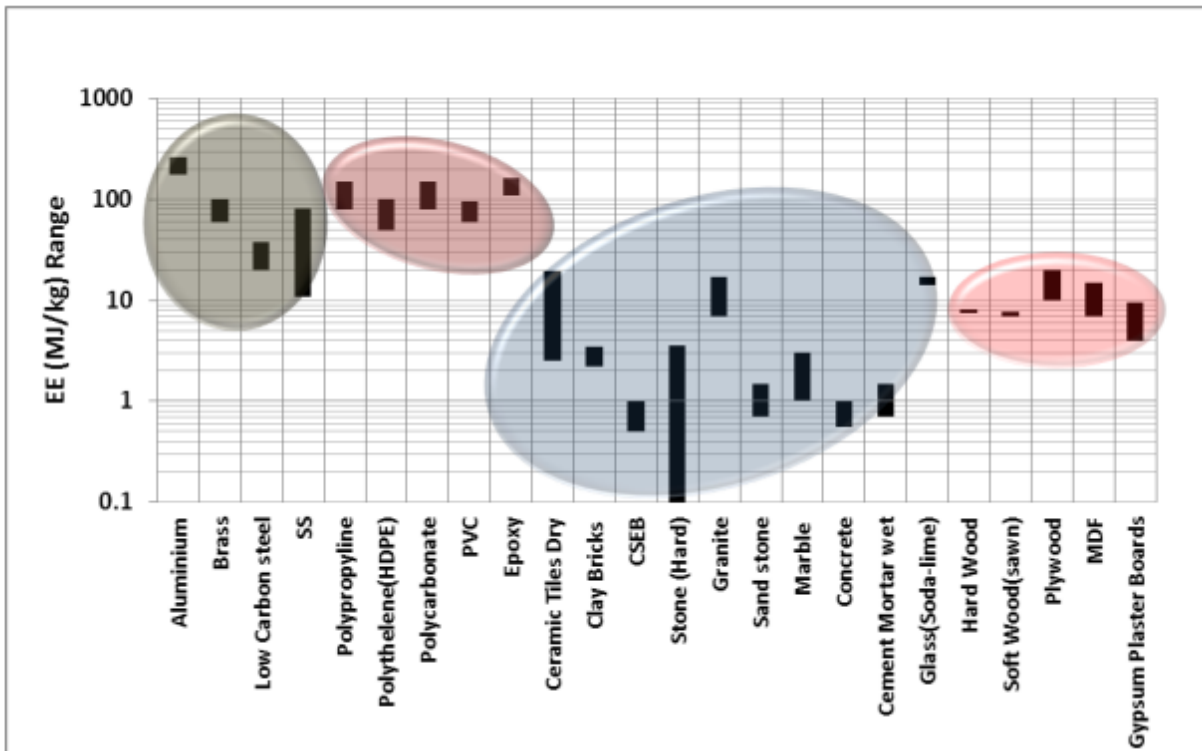


Figure 2: Construction Materials - EE Range

Table 1: Contributions to green house warming by various gases [12]

Gas	Contribution towarming (percentage)
Carbondioxide	50
Methane	19

CFs	17
Troposphereozone	8
Nitrosphericoxide	4

3. Pollution due to construction

Pollution is caused by construction. Of all the pollution caused by industries, building is almost entirely to blame. The construction sector in the majority of emerging nations, such as China and India, is expanding and employs high-energy-intensity building materials including steel, concrete, bricks, and cement. India's construction industry contributes 26.3% of the country's greenhouse gas emissions, and demand for building materials is rising steadily.

3.1 Impact of Concrete:

Up to 5% of carbon dioxide emissions globally are caused by human activity, with the concrete industry being one of the two biggest generators of this gas (CO₂) [77]. CO₂ emissions are reduced when the amount of clinker is substituted by complementing cementitious materials. By 2050, cement output is expected to treble globally, with China and India accounting for a significant portion of this growth.

3.2 Impact of Steel:

In India, the steel industry emits the third most CO₂, after the thermal power and cement industries. An Indian steel factory that uses coal releases 2.7 tonnes of CO₂ for every tonne of basic steel produced. It uses over 11 m³ of water for every tonne of raw steel. One tonne of steel is produced using 3.5–5.0 tonnes of raw materials, making it a very raw material-intensive process. The remaining material (2.5–4.0 tonnes) is released as waste, emissions into the air and water, or byproducts. The production of steel, iron, and downstream operations are all integrated throughout the process. Other than limestone and dolomite, the principal basic minerals are iron ore and coal. Steel mills handle millions of tonnes of raw materials, and during the unloading, crushing, storing, blending, screening, and processing stages, there is a chance for contamination. Sintering, pressing, and coke-making are examples of raw material processing.

3.3 Environmental impact of construction:

Inputs like raw materials, energy, machinery, and expertise are needed in the manufacture of building materials. The planet's ecosystem and the natural environment are directly impacted by the first two. Concern about the rising environmental deterioration brought on by deforestation, air pollution, using non-renewable energy sources, indiscriminate land usage, and mineral extraction for construction materials is growing [13]. Soil and arable land are lost as a result of construction and the manufacturing of building materials. By converting them to new purposes, the construction materials business also plays a part in the disappearance of forests and natural areas. It plays a part in the destruction of forests that provide bamboo, lumber, and other building materials. Lastly, a significant consumer of minerals and non-renewable energy sources worldwide is the construction materials sector. In addition to firewood and fossil fuels, the sector makes use of a number of metals with finite supplies. Not all elements and metals utilised in building have run out. They simply turn into fear commodities, driving up costs and encouraging the usage of substitute resources.

4. Low Carbon Buildings

The main goals of low-carbon buildings are economic expansion and sustainability. It doesn't harm the environment in any way. Thus, it may prove beneficial for next generations. The primary contributor to pollution is climate change, which is brought on by emissions of greenhouse gases, global warming, and carbon content. These are the main reasons why the structures are being damaged. Global warming is mostly caused by carbon emissions alone. These represent almost 20% of the total. Nowadays, low-carbon buildings are quite significant, it preserves the structure's life, it doesn't damage the ecosystem. In nature, it is beneficial to the environment. It is employed to lessen environmental deterioration. It is a decrease of the building's carbon content based on performance. Low-carbon buildings are those that are intended to produce very little or no carbon during their construction. About 38% of greenhouse gas emissions are caused by buildings, with 20% coming from residential sources and 18% from commercial sources. The biggest contributors to global warming are

industries. Particular engineering and design went into creating low carbon buildings with the goal of reducing greenhouse gas emissions. It has lower greenhouse gas emissions than typical commercial structures. Climate change in this case is neutral. When compared to low-carbon buildings, ordinary structures generate higher greenhouse gas emissions. Every year, cutting greenhouse gas emissions by twenty percent is the aim. Low carbon materials are shown in Figure 3. These are employed in the application of controlled energy, namely, lighting, ventilation, heat, and coolness. A prominent word in low-carbon buildings is "carbon footprint." One term used to describe the overall amounts of greenhouse gas and carbon dioxide emissions is "carbon footprint." The only way to start managing carbon is to calculate your carbon footprint.

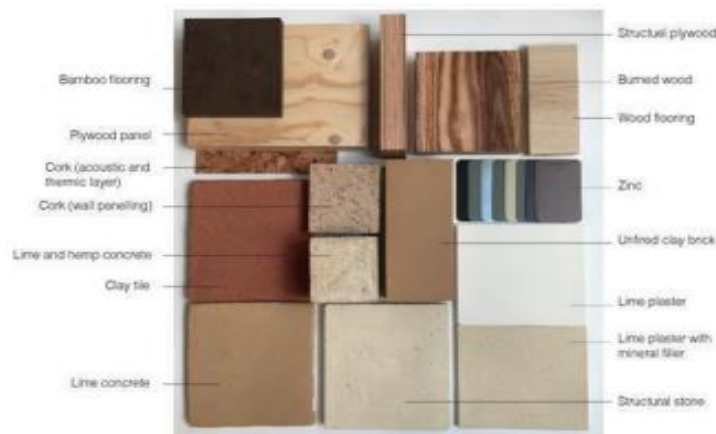


Figure 3: Low carbon materials

4.1 Concrete: A sustainable material

For any design team, the most demanding and complex challenge is choosing goods and construction materials for a high performance green building. The life cycle assessment (LCA) is the most effective instrument available for this procedure out of all the others. LCA offers details on the resources, emissions, and other effects that arise from the material use life cycle. As a result, Figure 4 highlights the need to take the material's effects into account throughout its lifecycle. Software called BEESBuilding for Environmental and Economic Sustainability is one example of an LCA programme. The material cycle ought to be waste-free and closed-loop in theory.

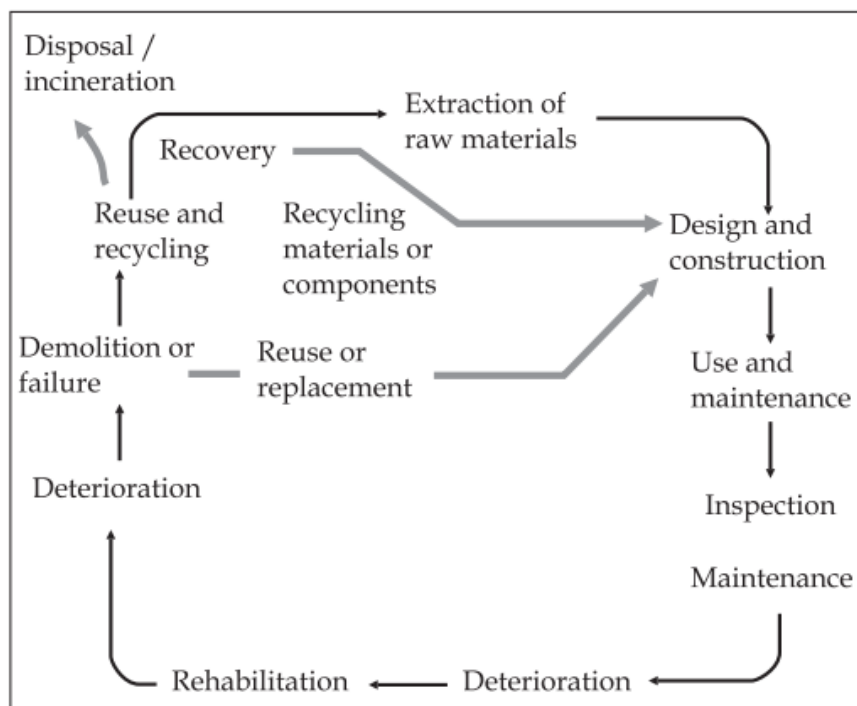


Figure 4: Life Cycle Assessment of building materials

5. Carbon emission

A third of the world's greenhouse gas emissions are attributable to the building sector, and the materials used in construction have a significant direct or indirect impact on operational and embodied carbon emissions. Given the concentration of construction materials in tall buildings, it makes sense to look at ways to lower the greenhouse gas emissions caused by high-rises. Building carbon emissions are made up of operational carbon emissions that are released throughout a building's operating phase and embodied carbon emissions that come from the fabrication of construction materials [14]. Furthermore, more than 32% of the CO₂ released during a building's operating phase is released during the phases of manufacture, transportation, and construction. CO₂ Contribution by various countries are shown in Table 2. Because of its bigger structural structure, methods to minimise embodied carbon in HRBs need to be looked at more thoroughly.

Table 2: CO₂ Contribution by different countries [13]

County	Total CO ₂ Production (thousand tons)	Estimated proportion of CO ₂ output (percentage)		
		Construction industry	Cement manufacture	Building use
Argentina	118157	7.6	1.9	30
Germany	641398	11.8	2.1	51
India	651936	17.5	3.2	18
Kenya	5192	11.9	11.7	25

In a research by Ref. [15], authors looked for a connection between an HRB's embodied carbon and four design parameters: height, structural shape, recycled contents, and construction materials. The authors came to the conclusion that while steel structure buildings have a higher embodied carbon per square metre of GFA than composite and reinforced concrete structures, the embodied carbon in steel buildings is reduced by around 60% when 80% of the steel is recycled. The total embodied carbon and material weight increased exponentially with building height, according to the results. Furthermore, a high-rise's total embodied carbon is very sensitive to structural form (varying by up to 20% depending on the shape), particularly if the building has more than 100 floors. A design approach that uses a resizing method was developed in a different research [16] in order to reduce the cost and carbon dioxide emissions from the material manufacture, shipping, and building stages of HRBs. The application of the suggested approach resulted in cost and CO₂ emissions reductions of 29.2% and 13.5%, respectively. In order to optimise the topology of structural components and element sizes of a particular building, a hybrid optimality criteria genetic algorithm was suggested with the goal of minimising the cost and carbon emission of reinforced concrete HRBs. Results demonstrated that the suggested strategy lowered material costs and carbon emissions by 18–24% when applied to a reference HRB. Evaluating both operational and embedded carbon resulting from structural and non-structural materials in residential HRB in Hong Kong allowed for the trade-off between two forms of carbon emissions. The study came to the conclusion that structural components make up more than 90% of the building's embodied carbon, and that using recycled fly ash or slag concrete might cut that percentage to 4% or up to 28% for operational and embodied carbon, respectively. Furthermore, installing thermal insulation in exterior walls may significantly reduce operational carbon while changing the kind of non-structural materials has less of an influence on the quantity of embodied carbon. There is a trade-off between the weight and carbon emission of the structures used in high-rise buildings, according to all of the examined research on the topic of high-rise carbon emissions. Construction materials also have a substantial impact on both embodied and operational carbon. Carbon emissions were calculated in all the investigations using mathematical formulas, primarily (three) using the formula given in Ref. [17].

6. Net-Zero Energy Building (NZEB) Model

A consumer-monitored net-zero energy model for a NZEB is conspicuously absent, despite the fact that numerous studies have been conducted in the design and development of NZEBs. In order to close this research gap, a unique parameter known as the energy index was used to maintain annual net-zero energy. This energy index is a model that consumers watch and use to guide them towards a sustainable and eco-friendly future. The Differential Evolution (DE) method is used in this study to present a single objective heuristic optimisation model for NZEB. In order to minimise the impact on customers' electrical comfort, the algorithm proposed an approach to maintain a net-zero energy index at a nominal value that aids end users in monitoring the energy balance in their residential properties.

6.1 Functional overview of the proposed Net Zero Energy Building methodology

In order to reduce the energy demand on the grid, NZEBs encourage end users to make gradual modifications to their energy usage patterns. A net-zero electrical energy balance is maintained in the system through the net import-export of electrical energy from a grid to NZEB and vice versa. A traditional residential structure could be transformed into a net zero energy building (NZEB) by utilising a lot of renewable energy sources and energy-efficient energy management techniques. In order to maintain a zero electrical energy balance in a residential structure, the latter integrates power-efficient and intelligent operating capabilities of modern electrical appliances. NZEB has a good impact on society, which indicates that it plays a significant part in the creation of sustainable future. The construction of a controller to maintain net-zero energy in a residential building is the main emphasis of the single objective energy optimisation control approach discussed in the proposed NZEB system.

6.2 Control methodology of the proposed NZEB model

The conceptual framework's recommended methods call for inquiry evidence to support the stated goals, which can be upheld by using the appropriate technique and decision-making. When energy-efficient electrical equipment are systematically scheduled to maintain the building's electrical efficiency, NZEB is made practicable. But not every energy-efficient schedule results in a NZEB. The best strategy from a number of options must be optimised to produce the greatest answer for a NZEB. The most effective method for bringing about worldwide optimal solutions is to use population-based search engines. By meeting the constraints, these optimisation methods and a mix of variables find solutions to the objective function [11]. The kind of goals to be accomplished determines the credibility of each algorithm. The suggested method creates a timetable for the next day and presents it to the customer, giving them the option to follow it or ignore it altogether. It is recommended that the consumer adhere to the planned timetable in order to achieve net-zero energy import-export in the building. The algorithm imposes comfort limitations based on the energy index value if the user doesn't follow the recommended schedule.

6.3 The proposed Energy Index for NZEB

In order to preserve a net zero electrical energy balance inside the structure while maximising electrical comfort, the definition of "energy index (EI)" varies depending on comfort time limits. The calculated energy index is the product of the total energy imported from the grid for a year's worth of days, divided by the net consumer energy demand for the same number of days. When "EI" is larger than zero, it indicates grid import, meaning that the net electrical energy consumption exceeds the solar PV module's energy output. In addition to serving as a gauge of the building's NZE, the energy index's (EI) zero value indicates that the net energy import-export for the year is balanced. By managing the hours that appliances run when solar energy is at its lowest, it shows energy use that is friendly to consumers. Therefore, the energy index, or "EI," is used to determine how long electrical appliances should run for when determining how many hours a day to run them. Based on the system's net energy export, which is reliant on both the net energy demand and the net solar PV energy generation, the "EI" might potentially be negative. When the building's net energy demand is imported from the grid and the net solar energy output is zero, the energy index reaches its maximum value of one. Customers can check the value of "EI" to ensure that they are using their energy equipment sensibly.

7. Analysis and Discussion

7.1 Renewable energies

The use of renewable energy as a source of electricity or heat generation is a sector worth paying attention to because of the high energy demands of high-rises and their significant surface area exposed to solar radiation

[18]. Reducing reliance on fossil fuels as a source of energy generation may also be greatly aided by the use of renewable energies in HRBs that already exist, particularly residential ones. While employing renewable energy is not unique to HRBs, there are notable differences between high-rises and low-rises in terms of façade area and susceptibility to shading from nearby structures. Out of the studies that were assessed, five examined the possibility of employing high-rises for renewable energy, with four of them concentrating on solar power. Reducing greenhouse gas emissions is currently one of humanity's greatest challenges. In order to address this issue, every industrial sector that contributes to 25% of the world's CO₂ emissions has to be involved. This is especially the case for the cement sector, which accounts for around 7% of all carbon dioxide emissions into the environment [19, 20]. More specifically, the production process accounts for 95% of this CO₂, with the remaining 5% coming from the transportation of cement-based composites and raw materials [21]. The amounts of CO₂ released during the clinker manufacturing process are also noteworthy. In fact, only 26% of the carbon dioxide produced during the calcination of limestone comes from burning the fossil fuels needed to heat the raw materials [22]. By replacing a portion of the clinker with supplemental cementitious materials (SCMs), a reduced environmental effect relative to the volume of cement may be attained [23]. In several studies, the energy needed to produce concrete has been taken into consideration in addition to greenhouse gas emissions when assessing the environmental effect of SCMs. However, the volume of concrete structures may also be significantly decreased by employing concrete systems with superior mechanical capabilities. The application of high-performance concrete as part of this "performance strategy" reduces carbon dioxide emissions as less material is required to achieve the same structural performances. Higher concrete strength, however, comes with a greater carbon footprint, particularly during the manufacture phase [24], since more binder and sometimes fibres are required. As a result, the material decrease would not always be sufficient to offset the rise in CO₂ emissions brought on by high concrete grades. Consequently, a thorough study will be conducted in this research to determine the effectiveness of using High-Strength Concrete (HSC) in both low-rise and high-rise structures [25]. The significant impacts of material selections, recycled content, building heights, and structural shapes on the embodied carbon of high-rise structures are assessed. The steel building has 50% to 60% less total weight than the composite and RC structures, but it generates 25% to 30% more embodied carbon, according to the studies.

7.2 Sustainability performance of Buildings

One of the main sources of anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions worldwide is buildings. The process-based life cycle assessment (LCA) method in accordance with ISO 14040 [26] is frequently used to ascertain the environmental impacts associated with the various life-cycle stages of a building, i.e., material production, construction, building use and operation, maintenance and replacement as well as end-of-life stages. This evaluation technique looks back at the production of materials and energy starting with the extraction of natural resources. Depending on the particular goal of the evaluation, different building parts and life-cycle activities (such as the foundation, structure, envelope, floor, internal wall, finishing, and service equipment) may be included in the physical scope of the building. The emission factors of energy products and materials are often gathered from pre-existing databases, and information on downstream processes has to be gathered from building project data.

Considerable research has been conducted utilising environmental life cycle assessment (ELCA), life cycle costing (LCC), and social life cycle assessment (SLCA) to address the environmental, social, and economic concerns facing the construction sector. Comparably, social fairness within and across generations might have been a crucial component of sustainability in SLCA studies of residential structures, as agreed upon by Biswas and Cooling (2013). While the ELCA, SLCA, and LCA sustainability tools are adequate for addressing a single sustainability target over a building's lifespan, it would be beneficial to integrate them to ascertain the building's overall sustainability score. LCSA integrates the social, economic, and environmental sustainability goals through the employment of ELCA, LCC, and SLCA methods. By combining environmental, economic, and social metrics, life cycle sustainability assessment (LCSA) is a thorough LCA technique that is used to evaluate the overall sustainability performance of buildings [27]. Building sustainability performance may be measured and benchmarked with the use of sustainability indicators. Since the average service life of the buildings in question has been the basis for all of these evaluations, an extra analysis has been conducted to see if the sustainability assessment process may be impacted by this average service life factor. Evaluation of the Environmental Life Cycle Life cycle assessment (LCA) is a technique for evaluating potential environmental

impacts and environmental objectives related to the development and use of a product or system. It accomplishes this by creating an inventory of pertinent product system inputs and outputs, assessing potential environmental impacts, and interpreting the findings of the impact assessment and inventory analysis phases. Environmental life cycle assessment has become known as ELCA with the advent of instruments such as SLCA and LCSA.

7.3 Life Cycle Assessment (LCA)

One tried-and-true technique for evaluating a building's environmental performance is life cycle assessment (LCA). One of the most recognised and often applied methods for assessing and measuring the material and energy flows in a structure is life cycle assessment, or LCA. In LCA, system boundaries are often created using a cradle-to-cradle methodology. Figure 5 shows the four LCA phases as outlined in ISO 14040, 2006. Zhang and Wang [28] used both the process technique and the input-output method of LCA to assess carbon emissions in their case study on Chinese building stock. According to both results, 80–90% of the overall emissions came from the fabrication of materials, which was the primary source of GHG emissions.

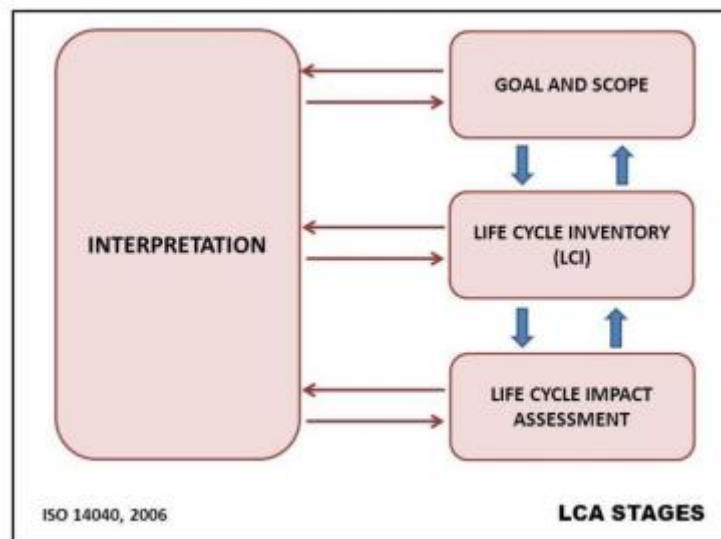


Figure 5: LCA stages as per ISO 14040, 2006

Process approach and input-output method are the two widely recognised LCA techniques, according to Junnila et al. [29]. However, because of the numerous steps required and the dearth of trustworthy data, each of these approaches has its own setbacks. As a result, a hybrid energy analysis approach that combines these two approaches is used. According to Treloar [30], hybrid energy analysis improves both the environmental effect and overall dependability. This aligns with research conducted by Crawford [31]. Moreover, it is suggested that the construction sector employ the hybrid LCA technique, as noted by Bilec et al. [32], Guggemos & Horvath [33] and Suh et al. [34]. As building life cycle assessments (LCAs) become more prominent in the scientific community, they must also be used to inform real-world decision-making. This calls for the identification and management of the primary sources of uncertainty in LCA results, as well as a clear expression of confidence in the results. Nonetheless, buildings are intricate structures with lengthy and erratic service lifetimes that are created by dispersed supply networks and a fragmented industry. Depending on the stage of the design process, each stage of the building life cycle has unique knowledge and data gaps. Uncertainties originate from incomplete knowledge, such the lifespan of a structure, and variability from nondeterministic building life cycle assurance techniques, like external wall substitutes. An effective method for calculating the energy and environmental effects of goods and services is the life cycle assessment (LCA). However, since they are influenced by several sources of uncertainty, the LCA findings do not accurately and precisely represent the facts.

7.4 Social Life Cycle Assessment

Social life cycle assessment, or SLCA, establishes a product's sustainability's social goals. It specifically covers the needs of different building life cycle stakeholders, such as the end user, suppliers, community, builders, and designers. The four processes of ELCA defining the objective and scope, creating an inventory, evaluating the impact, and interpreting the findings are followed by SLCA. In the construction industry, the SLCA tool has not

been applied frequently. There have only been a very small number of SLCA research on residential structures, mostly focusing on social welfare aspects like employment and health. Hosseini et al. [35] compared the social effects of steel and concrete using SLCA, and they employed material flow analysis and a participative technique to identify the social hotspots. Workers, occupants, the local community, and society as a whole were designated as the major stakeholders in Liu and Qian's [36] social sustainability framework for buildings, which was used to evaluate two forms of construction: semiprefabricated and prefabricated volumetric construction. The study found that because the former has more advanced technology and a stronger worker protection programme, it performs better than the latter.

7.5 Life Cycle Sustainability Assessment

In order to evaluate a product as a whole and make sustainable decisions across its life, LCSA takes into account both socioeconomic and environmental aspects. Although LCSA is a relatively new approach, not much research has been done on its application to structures. Most studies in the building industry have studied ELCA, LCC, and SLCA singly and separately rather than jointly. A building is an intricate product made up of many different parts. Buildings cannot be manufactured using prototype models, in contrast to other items. Every structure has a distinct purpose, composition of materials, location, and architectural style. Building LCSA is therefore a complicated procedure because of the variations in materials, craftsmanship, location, degradation processes, and design. Thus, given the lack of building SL data, a sustainability evaluation increases uncertainty and has an influence on the trustworthiness of conclusions. While short-life structures eventually require the reconstruction of the entire building, which worsens the sustainability issue, long-life buildings require regular component replacement and maintenance [37]. The building's sustainability performance evaluation is greatly impacted by the inclusion of accurate building SL data in an LCSA, which ultimately enhances the precision of LCSA findings. Nevertheless, the heterogeneity linked to SL in the sustainability assessment process has not been addressed by any of the LCSA frameworks.

7.6 Implementation and performance analysis of NZEB optimization model

In order to evaluate the suggested NZEB system's performance, four case scenarios were examined. In the first instance, a goal of keeping the building's electrical energy use at zero for a whole year was set. In the second case study, the electrical energy savings for a year between a residential property that is NZEB and one that is not were examined. The third scenario examined the building's net carbon emissions as a result of importing electricity from the grid. The fourth case scenario examines and analyses the NZEB performance by varying the installed PV capacity. The resultant GA solutions were compared with the obtained "EI" and electrical energy cost.

An NZEB home's energy index waveforms settled to zero, while a non-NZEB home imports energy from the grid, therefore its energy index value is one. After being indexed for a year, the NZEB's energy index waveform approaches 0, indicating net-zero energy import and export. The system arranges the appliances so that it can maintain a net zero annual energy balance in the residential building even in the wet seasons when there is less PV energy available. A NZEB home has a lower electrical energy demand and a lower energy import from the grid. To evaluate the success of NZEB, the right PV energy share must be chosen. When the solar PV energy production changes at $\pm 10\%$ and $\pm 30\%$ of PV energy output, it is confirmed that an energy index value closest to zero was attained when the solar energy output was within $\pm 10\%$ of the connected PV. This is because the algorithm was able to maintain a zero energy balance by utilising the proper appliance limitations. If the energy index stays at zero, the net cumulative energy imported from the grid has a value of zero [13].

According to the results, a NZEB will inevitably need to choose an appropriate PV module and adhere to energy-efficient limits. Maintaining net-zero energy in residential structures is challenging due to variations in the installed PV subsystem's energy output. On the other hand, NZEB's maximum performance is achievable with wise energy use. A substantial portion of NZEBs are made up of renewable energy resources. Sun photovoltaics (PV) are significant in India because of the country's sufficient sun insolation. The most affordable, effective, and locally accessible renewable resource can be used to create NZEBs. While other renewable energy sources can also be used to achieve NZEB, rooftop solar PV is currently the most practical solution in India. NZEB may be easily attained with the right amount of solar insolation, allowing customers to see a quick return on their investment. With the highest possible state government subsidies in India, the installation of a 5kW solar PV plant with an on-grid inverter comes with a price tag of about Rs. 200000. For residential customers who wish to install grid-connected rooftop solar systems, the State Power Corporation Ltd.

of India has introduced subsidies. The cost of installing a 5 kW solar PV system is Rs. 125800. The systems range in size from 1 kW to 10 kW. The implementation of NZEB resulted in an annual energy savings of Rs 50415. For an annual energy savings of Rs 50415, the installed 5 kW PV system in a NZEB is expected to pay for itself in 4 years. For an annual energy savings of Rs 50415, the installed 5 kW PV system in a NZEB is expected to pay for itself in 4 years. Two distinct stochastic techniques were used to estimate the electrical energy cost and electrical energy index in order to validate the proposed NZEB idea. In the example of GA, a zero-energy index with an annual energy cost of Rs. 805 was found. When compared to the GA method, DE produced superior results. This discrepancy in the outcomes was caused by GA's early convergence in contrast to DE's more accurate and quicker convergence to superior solutions. Appliances cannot operate outside of their minimum to maximum operating range due to NZEB limitations. Operational limitations are suggested for use when solar insolation is lower. Operational restrictions are tightly enforced if the index indicates the maximum import into the building. Customers are offered comfort and relaxation for NZEBs with a higher export capability. For a full year, this control method aids in maintaining a net-zero energy balance. The pursuit of an opulent and comfortable lifestyle necessitates a greater energy supply, which raises the possibility of grid operating stress scenarios, the depletion of conventional energy sources, and a rise in atmospheric carbon pollution emissions. The ozone layer's thinning and rising global temperatures pose serious environmental risks that negatively impact humanity. The main source of carbon emissions is buildings. The amount of carbon pollution in residential structures has increased to a level that is dangerous for living things due to the increased use of electrical energy. Strategic Energy Technology Plan (SET-Plan) Smart Cities Communities Initiative hopes to reduce carbon emissions by 40%. The environment is negatively impacted by the growing carbon footprints, which has detrimental effects on human society. Therefore, aiding the NZEB movement in India helps to better the lives of those who will eventually live in an environmentally friendly society. NZEB systems are crucial in addressing the worldwide climate issues that impact all living things. Low levels of literacy and customer ignorance have been recognised as the main obstacles to the adoption of NZEBs in India. The NZEB model's results demonstrate the importance of the suggested system and its social impact through net carbon emissions and cumulative cost savings. The study's findings confirm that encouraging NZEBs increases the possibility of a sustainable and environmentally conscious society. In addition to encouraging customer support, the suggested model is anticipated to spur research and development in India on NZEB building design, price strategies, and governmental reforms. The utility business is expected to be incentivized by the research findings to produce energy management devices that are affordable and maintain a net zero energy balance within residential buildings for NZEB homeowners. Any algorithm that has been programmed into the device to produce the best answers for the suggested idea may be used. The suggested method is a generalised strategy that doesn't need to be modified for use in other areas where energy supplies are sufficiently available. However, the algorithm needs input for important characteristics like consumer desire for energy usage and the region's energy resources. Here, the DE algorithm is favoured since it facilitates the concept's implementation; as a result, the system is unaffected by the algorithm's complexity. Drawing on the investigation's lessons, it is recommended that a NZEB model be implemented to take into account the thermal and architectural constraints, while also taking into account the economic life cycle costing (LCC) analysis of grid-interconnected PVs in the system. This is because a nation's stability, development, and security are guaranteed by an economically developed society.

8 Conclusion

Emissions of greenhouse gases are critical to every building and ecosystem. Because of changes in the climate brought about by human activity over the last several decades, there has been a rise in greenhouse gases. Methane, carbon dioxide, and carbon content in the atmosphere are the primary contributors to this. Reducing the amount that the climate changes is the primary remedy to lessen the amount of carbon emissions used in the building and industrial structure construction processes. When compared to concrete and steel structures, constructions composed of steel and lumber emit fewer greenhouse gases and carbon emissions. In addition to developing low-carbon materials, we can lower greenhouse gas emissions and carbon footprints by using recycled and recyclable resources. To prevent environmental climate change, low-carbon building designs are required. This will provide performance that is renewable. This essay provides information and support on lowering buildings' carbon footprints. The findings show that the choice of building materials and structural

designs has a significant impact on the embodied carbon of high-rise structures. The embodied carbon of high-rise structures can vary significantly because structural engineers may have varying choices for building materials and structural shapes (depending on structural performance, material cost and availability, etc.). The study's findings are predicated on the structural shapes and materials that are most often utilised in high-rise structures. A smart NZEB device was suggested and created with an energy-saving approach in mind for upholding a NZE building with a consumer-focused design. The suggested device aims to turn any building into a smart NZEB as long as the facility generates enough renewable energy on-site. In addition, optimisation techniques were used in the design and implementation of the suggested NZEB system model to achieve the intended outcomes.

References

- [1]. V.J.L. Gan, C.L. Wong, K.T. Tse, J.C.P. Cheng, I.M.C. Lo, C.M. Chan, Parametric modelling and evolutionary optimization for cost-optimal and low-carbon design of high-rise reinforced concrete buildings, *Adv. Eng. Inf.* 42 (2019) 100962, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aei.2019.100962>.
- [2]. P. Steadman, High-rise buildings much more energy intensive than low-rise, *Phys. Oceanogr.* 1–2 (2017). <https://phys.org/news/2017-06-high-rise-energy-intensive-low-rise.html>.
- [3]. I. Lima, V. Scalco, R. Lamberts, Estimating the impact of urban densification on high-rise office building cooling loads in a hot and humid climate, *Energy Build.* 182 (2019) 30–44, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2018.10.019>.
- [4]. Ahmed, A., Qayoum, A., & Mir, F. Q. (2019). Investigation of the thermal behavior of the natural insulation materials for low temperature regions. *Journal of Building Engineering*, 26, 100849.
- [5]. Junnila, S., Horvath, A., Guggemos, A. A., 2006. Life-cycle assessment of office buildings in Europe and the United States. *Journal of Infrastructure Systems* 12, 10-17.
- [6]. Trabucco, D., 2012. Life cycle energy analysis of all buildings: design principles. Proceeding of CTBUH 9th World Congress, Shanghai, China, September, pp. 447-453.
- [7]. Ahmed, A., Qayoum, A., & Mir, F. Q. (2021). Spectroscopic studies of renewable insulation materials for energy saving in building sector. *Journal of Building Engineering*, 44, 103300.
- [8]. EMSD. Hong Kong Energy End-Use Data 2010; Electrical and Mechanical Services Department, Government of HKSAR: Hong Kong, China, 2010.
- [9]. Chen, Y.; Ng, S.T. Factoring in embodied GHG emissions when assessing the environmental performance of building. *Sustain. Cities Soc.* 2016, 27, 244–252.
- [10]. De Wolf, C.; Yang, F.; Cox, D.; Charlson, A.; Hattan, A.S.; Ochsendorf, J. Material quantities and embodied carbon dioxide in structures. *Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng. Eng. Sustain.* 2016, 169, 150–161. [CrossRef]
- [11]. Peuportier, B.L.P. Life cycle assessment applied to the comparative evaluation of single family houses in the French context. *Energy Build.* 2001, 33, 443–450.
- [12]. Henderson, G., & Shorrocks, L. D. (1990). Greenhouse gas emissions and buildings in the United Kingdom.
- [13]. Martínez-Zarzoso, I., & Maruotti, A. (2011). The impact of urbanization on CO2 emissions: evidence from developing countries. *Ecological economics*, 70(7), 1344-1353.
- [14]. V.J.L. Gan, M. Deng, K.T. Tse, C.M. Chan, I.M.C. Lo, J.C.P. Cheng, Holistic BIM framework for sustainable low carbon design of high-rise buildings, *J. Clean. Prod.* 195 (2018) 1091–1104, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.05.272>.
- [15]. V.J.L. Gan, C.M. Chan, K.T. Tse, I.M.C. Lo, J.C.P. Cheng, A comparative analysis of embodied carbon in high-rise buildings regarding different design parameters, *J. Clean. Prod.* 161 (2017) 663–675, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.05.156>.
- [16]. S.W. Choi, B.K. Oh, H.S. Park, Design technology based on resizing method for reduction of costs and carbon dioxide emissions of high-rise buildings, *Energy Build.* 138 (2017) 612–620, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2016.12.095>.
- [17]. V.J.L. Gan, C.M. Chan, K.T. Tse, I.M.C. Lo, J.C.P. Cheng, A comparative analysis of embodied carbon in high-rise buildings regarding different design parameters, *J. Clean. Prod.* 161 (2017) 663–675, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.05.156>.

- [18]. Ahmed, A., & Qayoum, A. (2021). Investigation on the thermal degradation, moisture absorption characteristics and antibacterial behavior of natural insulation materials. *Materials for Renewable and Sustainable Energy*, 10(1), 1-10.
- [19]. M.B.Ali,R.Saidur,M.S.Hossain,Areviewonemissionanalysisincementindustries,*RenewableSustainableEnergyRev.*15(5)(2011)2252–2261.
- [20]. B.L.Damineli,F.M.Kemeid,P.S.Aguiar,V.M.John,Measuringtheeco-efficiencyofcementuse,*Cem.Concr.Compos.*32(8)(2010)555–562.
- [21]. R.Kajaste,M.Hurme,Cementindustrygreenhousegasemissions-Managementoptionsandabatementcost,*J.Clean.Prod.*112(2016)4041–4052.
- [22]. T.Gao,L.Shen,M.Shen,F.Chen,L.Liu,L.Gao,Analysisondifferencesofcarbondioxideemissionfromcementproductionandtheirmajor determinants,*J.Clean.Prod.*103(2015)160–170.
- [23]. E.M.Gartner,D.E.MacPhee,Aphysico-chemicalbasisfornovelcementitiousbinders,*Cem.Concr.Res.*41(7)(2011)736–749.
- [24]. G.Habert,N.Roussel,Studyoftwoconcretemix-designstrategiestoreachcarbonmitigationobjectives,*Cem.Concr.Compos.*31(6)(2009)397–402.
- [25]. P.Purnell,Materialnatureversusstructuralnurture:theembodiedcarbonoffundamentalstructuralelements,*Environ.Sci.Technol.*46(1)(2012)
- [26]. ISO 14040: Environmental management—Life cycle assessment—Principles and framework. Geneva(Switzerland): International Standards Organization; 2006.
- [27]. United Nations Environment Programme. Towards a Life Cycle SustainabilityAssessment. Making informed choices on Products. Paris (France): Life Cycle initiative; 2012. Available from: <https://www.lifecycleinitiative.org/startinglife-cycle-thinking/life-cycle-approaches/life-cycle-sustainability-assessment>.
- [28]. XiaocunZhang,FenglaiWang.Assessmentofembodiedcarbonemissionsforbuildingconstruction in China: Comparative case studies using alternative methods. *Energy and Buildings* 130 (2016) 330–340
- [29]. Junnila,S.,Horvath,A.,Guggemos,A.A.,2006.Life-CycleAssessmentofOfficeBuildings in Europe and the United States. *Journal of Infrastructure Systems* 12 (1), 10–17.
- [30]. Lenzen, M., Treloar, G.,Embodied energy in buildings: wood versus concrete-reply to Borjesson and Gustavsson, *Energy Policy* 30 (2002) 249-255.
- [31]. Crawford, R. (2008). Validation of a hybrid life-cycle inventory analysis method. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 88: 496-506.
- [32]. Bilec, M. M., Ries, R., Matthews, H. S., Sharrard, A. L., 2006. Example of a Hybrid LifeCycle Assessment of Construction Processes. *Journal of Infrastructure Systems* 12, 207–15.
- [33]. Guggemos, A. A., Horvath, A., 2005. Comparison of Environmental Effects of Steel-and Concrete-Framed Buildings. *Journal of Infrastructure Systems* 11(2), 93–101.
- [34]. Suh, S., et al., 2004. System Boundary Selection in Life-Cycle Inventories Using Hybrid Approaches. *Environmental Science & Technology* 38(3), 657–664.
- [35]. Hosseinijou SA, Mansour S, Shirazi MA. Social life cycle assessment for material selection: a case study of building materials. *Int J Life Cycle Assess.* 2014;19(3):620-45.
- [36]. Liu S, Qian S. Evaluation of social life-cycle performance of buildings: Theoretical framework and impact assessment approach. *J Clean Prod.* 2019;213:792-807.
- [37]. Fu F, Pan L, Ma L, Li Z. A simplified method to estimate the energy-saving potentials of frequent construction and demolition process in China. *Energy.* 2013;49:316-22.