



# Sustainable design of two-way slab on beam systems

**DOI:**

[10.1680/jensu.23.00089](https://doi.org/10.1680/jensu.23.00089)

**Document Version**

Accepted author manuscript

[Link to publication record in Manchester Research Explorer](#)

**Citation for published version (APA):**

Suwondo, R., Keintjem, M., Suangga, M., & Cunningham, L. (2024). Sustainable design of two-way slab on beam systems: A comparative study on embodied carbon and cost. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers: Engineering Sustainability*, 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1680/jensu.23.00089>

**Published in:**

Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers: Engineering Sustainability

**Citing this paper**

Please note that where the full-text provided on Manchester Research Explorer is the Author Accepted Manuscript or Proof version this may differ from the final Published version. If citing, it is advised that you check and use the publisher's definitive version.

**General rights**

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the Research Explorer are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

**Takedown policy**

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please refer to the University of Manchester's Takedown Procedures [<http://man.ac.uk/04Y6Bo>] or contact [openresearch@manchester.ac.uk](mailto:openresearch@manchester.ac.uk) providing relevant details, so we can investigate your claim.



## **Sustainable Design of Two-Way Slab on Beam Systems:**

### **A Study on Embodied Carbon and Cost**

#### Author 1

- Riza Suwondo, PhD, AMSCE, ACPE, IPM
- Department of Civil Engineering, Bina Nusantara University, Jakarta, Indonesia
- <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4917-2968>

#### Author 2

- Militia Keintjem, ST
- Department of Civil Engineering, Bina Nusantara University, Jakarta, Indonesia

#### Author 3

- Made Suangga, Prof
- Department of Civil Engineering, Bina Nusantara University, Jakarta, Indonesia

#### Author 4

- Lee Cunningham, MEng, PhD, CEng, MICE, FIStructE, MASCE, FHEA
- Reader in Structural Engineering, School of Engineering, The University of Manchester, UK
- <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7686-7490>

#### **Full contact details of the corresponding author:**

Riza Suwondo ([riza.suwondo@binus.ac.id](mailto:riza.suwondo@binus.ac.id))

## **Abstract**

In an era characterised by a growing imperative for environmental sustainability, the construction industry finds itself at a crossroads where innovation and well-informed decision-making are paramount. This study explored the intricate interplay between structural performance, economic viability, and environmental impact in the realm of reinforced concrete slabs, with a specific focus on two-way slab-on-beam structures. This study examined the relationship between slab thickness, concrete grade, reinforcement ratios, embodied carbon emissions, and total construction costs. The findings paint a vivid, if not unexpected, picture: thinner slabs are associated with lower embodied carbon emissions and construction costs. However, there is a caveat: thinner slabs may find their place in projects with less demanding structural requirements, whereas thicker slabs, while offering superior structural performance, incur higher costs and environmental impacts. The choice of slab thickness, as this research indicates, is far from a one-size-fits-all decision and necessitates meticulous evaluation of project-specific demands. The data-driven insights presented in this study have the potential to improve construction practices. This research serves as a foundational reference point for the construction industry's journey towards sustainability, where structures are not merely functional, but also environmentally and economically sustainable.

## **Keywords**

Building structures and design, Built environment, Concrete structures, Sustainability, UN SDG 13: Climate action

1 **1. Introduction**

2 The extensive utilisation of reinforced concrete in the construction industry remains pervasive,  
3 despite mounting concerns surrounding its ecological sustainability. The production of cement, a  
4 fundamental component of concrete, contributes to approximately 8-10% of global carbon  
5 emissions from human activities (Monteiro, Miller and Horvath, 2017; Cao *et al.*, 2021). This  
6 conspicuous environmental repercussion highlights the pressing need to confront issues  
7 pertaining to sustainability within the construction industry, particularly amid the ongoing climate  
8 crisis (Goodchild, Webster and Elliott, 2009; Nurrudin *et al.*, 2018; Hammad, Amr and Shaaban,  
9 2023).

10  
11 Embodied carbon emissions encompass a comprehensive quantification of the environmental  
12 impacts that transpire throughout various construction phases. These phases include raw  
13 material extraction, manufacturing, transportation, the construction process itself, ongoing upkeep  
14 and maintenance, and the final phases of decommissioning and end-of-life disposal (G. P.  
15 Hammond and Jones, 2008; RIBA, 2017; Gibbon *et al.*, 2022). In this context, two-way reinforced  
16 concrete slabs on beams have gained popularity as preferred structural floor systems, particularly  
17 in seismically active regions (Sitanggang and Tarigan, 2011; Tunc, Azizi and Tanfener, 2023). The  
18 efficiency of two-way slabs on beams is particularly evident when compared with other types of  
19 slab systems (Tunc, Proje and Azizi, 2020). Their widespread adoption in moment-resisting  
20 frames, which constitute the most common and effective seismic design systems, underlines their  
21 importance in seismic regions. Moreover, these slabs play a pivotal role as diaphragms, facilitating  
22 the efficient transfer of horizontal loads to the lateral resisting system and thereby enhancing the  
23 overall seismic performance of structures in seismic regions.

24  
25 Numerous research endeavours have focused on the mitigation of embodied carbon in reinforced  
26 concrete slabs, and an extensive body of work has investigated methods to optimise costs and  
27 embodied energy. Sahab *et al.* (2005) conducted a comprehensive study on cost optimisation in  
28 flat slabs, considering three critical variables: column layout, slab thickness, and reinforcement  
29 design. Their research underscored the pivotal role of optimising column layout, which could yield  
30 substantial cost savings. Additionally, their work emphasised the feasibility of increasing

31 reinforcement ratios to reduce slab thickness, particularly in designs governed by deflection  
32 criteria, resulting in an overall cost reduction.

33

34 Goodchild et al. (2009) developed a set of design charts for slabs and other reinforced concrete  
35 frame elements, offering insights into the minimum cost considerations for various spans. The  
36 charts were generated using a series of parametric designs. In their research, they meticulously  
37 controlled deflections according to the Eurocode 2 guidelines (CEN, 2004), thereby establishing  
38 adjusted span-to-depth ratios. Notably, their findings indicated that increasing the reinforcement  
39 to further reduce the allowable slab thickness could contribute to overall cost reduction. Ferreiro-  
40 Cabello et al. (2016) embarked on a study involving flat slabs with varying thickness for different  
41 column grids. Their research highlighted the significance of reducing spans as a means of  
42 minimising embodied carbon. Moreover, their work demonstrated that designs with the lowest  
43 embodied carbon approached the minimum feasible slab thickness, indicating a delicate trade-  
44 off between slab depth and reinforcement content.

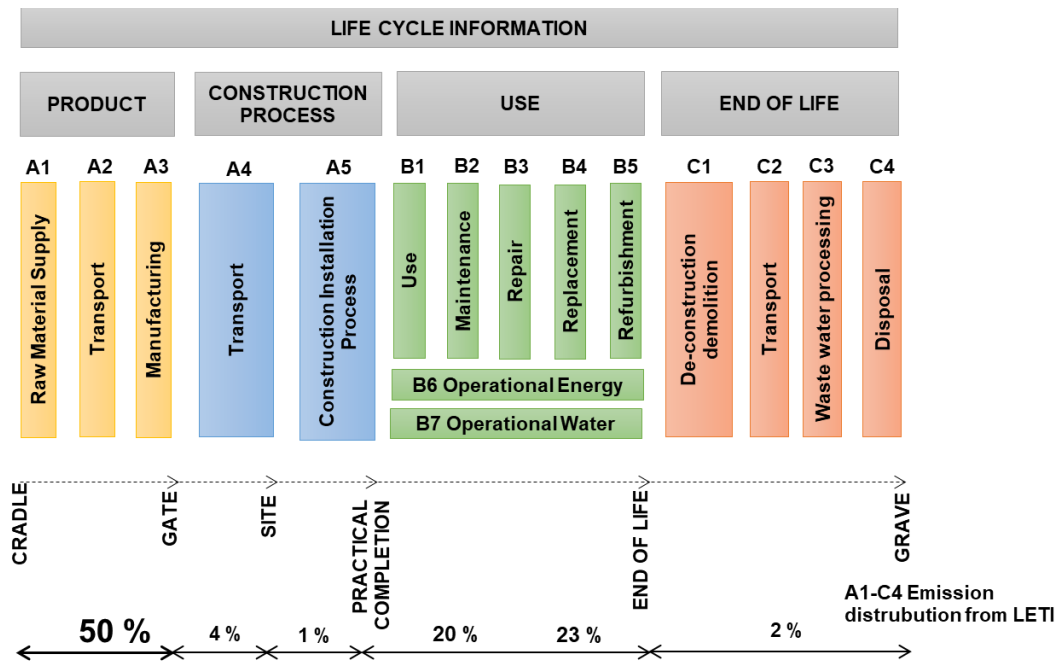
45

46 Eleftheriadis et al. (2018) employed a BIM-based genetic algorithm to optimise flat slabs, wherein  
47 they systematically varied the dimensions and reinforcement of slabs and columns, along with  
48 the column layout. Their investigation led to the conclusion that designs with the least embodied  
49 carbon leaned towards shorter column spacings and thinner slabs. This study also observed that  
50 increasing the slab thickness to reduce the reinforcement ratio could effectively diminish the  
51 overall embodied carbon content. Bechmann and Weidner (2021) compared a standard multi-  
52 storey concrete building with optimised concrete and a hybrid timber solution, each with 29 floors.  
53 The optimised concrete building included a specific concrete mix, specifically adjusted structural  
54 systems, and material manufacturing. The hybrid timber building was designed with a foundation,  
55 underground levels, and a stiffening core made of concrete, while the slabs of all upper floors  
56 featured 200-millimeter timber panels with 100-millimeter concrete topping slabs. The results of  
57 this study revealed the potential for substantial reductions in carbon emissions, with the selection  
58 of hybrid timber over conventional concrete design leading to carbon emission reductions of up  
59 to 78 %. Additionally, it was observed that a concrete optimisation approach could considerably  
60 reduce carbon emissions by 47 %.

61

62 The evaluation of construction sustainability necessitates a comprehensive examination of its  
 63 environmental impact throughout the various stages of its life cycle, as standardised by BS EN  
 64 15978 (2011). According to this norm, stages A1 to A3, collectively referred to as 'cradle-to-gate',  
 65 encompass the Product stage. This phase encompasses activities such as raw material  
 66 procurement, material transportation, and manufacturing (Gibbon *et al.*, 2022). Notably, the  
 67 London Energy Transformation Initiative (2020) underscores a substantial proportion of embodied  
 68 carbon, often accounting for up to 50% of the entire life-cycle carbon footprint, as shown in Figure  
 69 1. This is in stark contrast to the relatively small contribution of the construction phase, which is  
 70 typically approximately 5% of the total. Researchers including Sansom and Pope (2012), Wen et  
 71 al. (2015), and Gan et al. (2017) also explored embodied carbon across the life cycle in various  
 72 case studies, consistently finding that transportation and construction activities collectively  
 73 account for a contribution within the range of 1% to 15%. Thus, it is reasonable to employ cradle-  
 74 to-gate embodied carbon as a performance indicator. This option facilitates a focused examination  
 75 of the environmental implications associated with variations in the concrete grade and slab  
 76 thickness while maintaining a constant construction method.

77



78

79

Figure 1 Life cycle stages, based on BS 15978 (BSI, 2011)

80

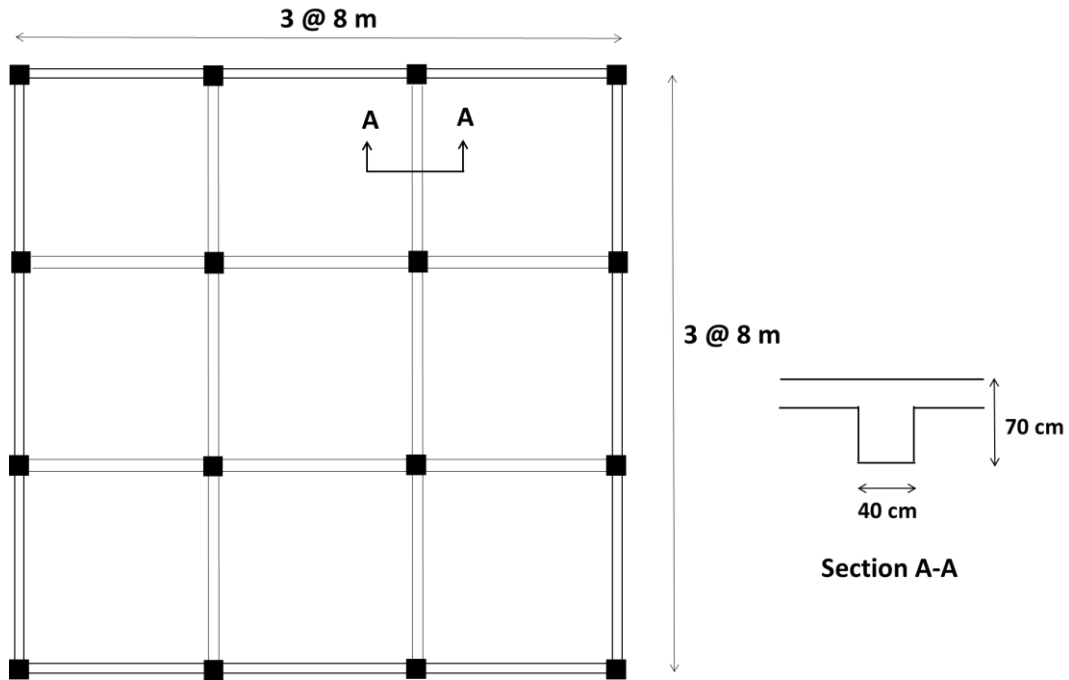
81 The present study investigates the environmental implications and financial costs associated with  
82 the construction of two-way slab-on-beam structures, contingent on the concrete grade and slab  
83 thickness. Economic expenditure and embodied carbon emissions are two key metrics under  
84 scrutiny. The fundamental unit of analysis, or the product of focus, is a square metre of the  
85 modelled structure. This product is a composite of two primary construction materials, reinforcing  
86 steel and concrete, both of which undergo permanent integration into a structural assembly.

87

## 88 **2. Methodology**

89 Two-way concrete slabs were designed on beams configured as 3 × 3 bays. These designs  
90 incorporate the parametric variation of both slab thickness and concrete grade, with a particular  
91 focus on assessing the resulting fluctuations in the embodied carbon per unit floor area. These  
92 simulations are based on the contextual parameter characteristics of an office building. The  
93 distribution of the columns within the structural framework adheres to a grid pattern with  
94 dimensions of 8m × 8m, as shown in Figure 2. This particular layout was consistent with the  
95 common column arrangements encountered in practical construction scenarios. Gravity loads  
96 were considered according to the guidelines provided by Indonesian Standard SNI 1727:2020  
97 (BSN, 2020). The dead load, which includes the self-weight of the structure, a superimposed dead  
98 load of 2 kN/m<sup>2</sup>, and a live load of 2.4 kN/m<sup>2</sup> were considered throughout. The ultimate limit state  
99 combination which adopts a factor of 1.2 for the dead load and 1.6 for the live load, was used in  
100 the structural analysis. The well-established commercial finite element software package ETABS  
101 (CSI, 2023) was employed to conduct structural analysis.

102



103  
104 **Figure 2 Representative building frame layout**

105  
106 In accordance with Indonesian Standard SNI 2847:2019 (BSN, 2019), the minimum allowable  
107 slab thickness,  $h_{min}$ , obtained by applying Equation 1, was adopted as the baseline for this study.

108  
109 
$$h_{min} = \frac{l_n \left( 0.8 + \frac{f_y}{400} \right)}{36 + 9\beta} \quad (1)$$

110  
111 where  $l_n$  is the length of the clear span measured face-to-face on the supports,  $f_y$  is the yield  
112 strength of the reinforcement, and  $\beta$  is the ratio of long to short dimensions. By adopting this  
113 minimum thickness requirement, it is reasonable to assume that slab deformation, often a critical  
114 consideration in structural analysis, can be disregarded. This simplification allows for a more  
115 streamlined assessment of the key variables under investigation.

116  
117 Once the slab thickness was established, the reinforcement was determined based on the flexure  
118 in accordance with the guidelines provided by SNI 2847:2019 (BSN, 2019). The flexural strength  
119 of the slab  $\phi M_n$  was determined using Equation 2.

120 
$$\phi M_n = 0.9 A_s f_y \left( d - \frac{a}{2} \right) \quad (2)$$



121

122 where  $A_s$  is the area of tension reinforcement,  $f_y$  is the yield strength of the rebar,  $d$  is the distance  
123 from the compression fibre to the tension reinforcement, and  $a$  is the depth of the equivalent  
124 rectangular stress block, which is determined using Equation 3.

$$125 \qquad \qquad \qquad a = \beta_1 c \qquad \qquad \qquad (3)$$

126 where the  $\beta_1$  factor relating the depth of the equivalent rectangular compressive stress block to  
127 the depth of the neutral axis is 0.85, and  $c$  is the distance from the extreme compression fibre to  
128 the neutral axis.

129

130 This study encompasses a deliberate examination of concrete grades, specifically focusing on  
131 three distinct grades: K250, K350, and K500, equivalent to European grade strengths C20/25,  
132 C28/35, and C40/50, respectively. The selection of these grades serves to represent a range of  
133 concrete strength levels, enabling a comprehensive evaluation of their impact on both structural  
134 performance and embodied carbon. BjTS 420A with a yield strength of 420 MPa was adopted for  
135 the steel reinforcement in accordance with SNI 2052:2017 (BSN, 2017).

136

137 The estimation of embodied carbon in the reinforced concrete slabs was conducted in accordance  
138 with the 'cradle-to-gate' framework, which encompasses stages A1 to A3 as outlined in BS EN  
139 15978 (BS 15978: 2011, 2011). The values used for this assessment were derived from an  
140 inventory of carbon and energy using circular ecology (G. Hammond and Jones, 2008). The  
141 following data were adopted in this study as representative values for environmental impact  
142 assessment.

- 143 – Reinforcing steel: 1.99 kg CO<sub>2</sub>e/kg (world average steel)
- 144 – Concrete grade K250: 267 kg CO<sub>2</sub>e/m<sup>3</sup> (assumed 285 kg cementitious binder per m<sup>3</sup>)
- 145 – Concrete grade K350: 301 kg CO<sub>2</sub>e/m<sup>3</sup> (assumed 325 kg cementitious binder per m<sup>3</sup>)
- 146 – Concrete grade K500: 380 kg CO<sub>2</sub>e/m<sup>3</sup> (assumed 420 kg cementitious binder per m<sup>3</sup>)

147 The total embodied carbon for each reinforced concrete slab was determined by combining the  
148 contributions of the reinforcing steel and concrete. To reinforce the steel, the total mass required  
149 for each slab was first calculated. This mass was then multiplied by an embodied carbon factor

150 of 1.99 kg CO<sub>2</sub>e/kg, which reflects the global average steel production processes. This step  
151 provided the total embodied carbon attributed to the steel reinforcement used in each slab. The  
152 volume required for each slab thickness and concrete grade was computed for concrete. This  
153 volume was then multiplied by a specific embodied carbon factor for each grade. Finally, the total  
154 embodied carbon for each slab design was obtained by summing the contributions from both  
155 reinforcing steel and concrete.

156

157 To illustrate, if a slab required 10 m<sup>3</sup> of K350 concrete, the total embodied carbon for the concrete  
158 was calculated by multiplying the volume of concrete by its associated embodied carbon value.  
159 In this example, the total embodied carbon for concrete was 3010 kgCO<sub>2</sub>e. The individual  
160 contributions from the reinforcing steel and concrete were summed to determine the total  
161 embodied carbon for the entire slab. For instance, if the total embodied carbon for reinforcing  
162 steel is 1990 kgCO<sub>2</sub>e and for concrete is 3010 kgCO<sub>2</sub>e, then the total embodied carbon for the  
163 slab would be 5000 kgCO<sub>2</sub>e.

164

165 In terms of cost, the analysis considers typical construction costs relevant to Indonesia, as shown  
166 in Table 1. These cost factors are paramount in assessing the economic implications of the  
167 designed slabs and their variations in concrete grade and slab thickness. Aligning the study with  
168 local construction cost data ensures that the findings are not only environmentally relevant but  
169 also economically practical within the context of the study area.

170

171 **Table 1 Unit cost of materials** (Ministry of public works and housing, 2022)

Material	Cost Rp	Cost in US \$
Reinforcing steel (kg)	10,000	0.63
Concrete grade K250 (m <sup>3</sup> )	850,000	53.47
Concrete grade K350 (m <sup>3</sup> )	940,000	59.13
Concrete grade K500 (m <sup>3</sup> )	1,050,000	66.05

172

173

174

175 **3. Results and discussions**

176 This paper presents a comprehensive evaluation of the required reinforcement for two-way slab-  
177 on-beam components, considering different concrete grades (K250, K350, and K500) and varying  
178 slab thicknesses. The corresponding required reinforcement, expressed in kilograms per cubic  
179 meter ( $\text{kg/m}^3$ ), was analysed for each concrete grade and thickness, offering a comprehensive  
180 overview of the structural considerations.

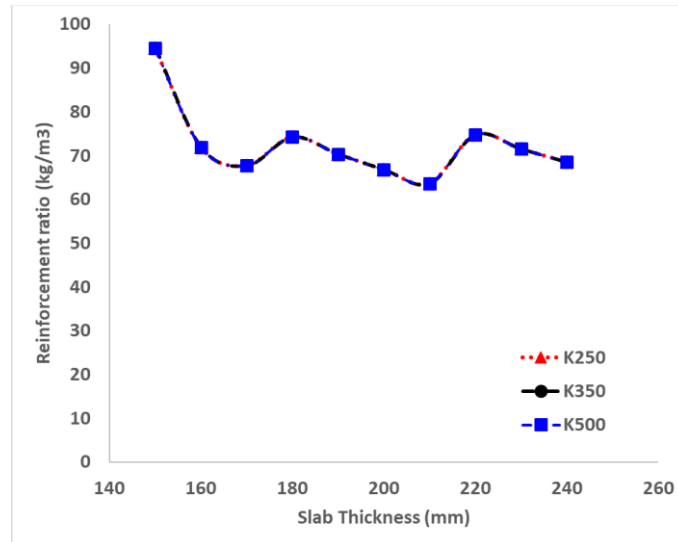
181

182 The results shown in Figure 3 reveal that the concrete grade does not exert a significant influence  
183 on the amount of required reinforcement. This indicates that the primary factor influencing the  
184 required reinforcement is slab thickness. Regardless of whether the concrete grade was K250,  
185 K350, or K500, the variations in the required reinforcement remained relatively consistent for a  
186 given slab thickness.

187

188 It can be observed that across all concrete grades, an increase in slab thickness is associated  
189 with a general decrease in the required reinforcement. However, the results indicate an interesting  
190 trend for slab thicknesses of 180 mm and 220 mm, wherein the required reinforcement increases  
191 rather than decreases with increasing slab thickness. This phenomenon can be attributed to the  
192 minimum reinforcement requirement stipulated by SNI 2847-2019, which prescribes a minimum  
193 steel reinforcement ratio of 0.18%. Consequently, for thicker slabs within the specified range,  
194 where structural demands may not necessitate higher reinforcement, the minimum reinforcement  
195 requirement becomes the governing factor. This reveals the importance of optimising the slab  
196 thickness to satisfy structural requirements while minimising the use of reinforcement materials.

197



**Figure 3 Reinforcing steel per cubic meter of concrete slab**

198

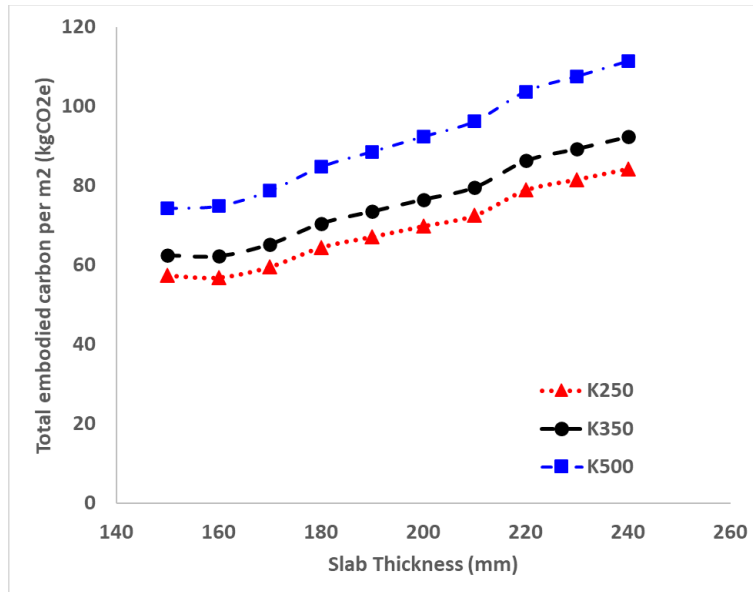
199

200

201 The design of reinforced-concrete slabs typically focuses on flexure, addressing the bending  
 202 moments induced by uniform loads. However, it is crucial to recognise that point loads can  
 203 introduce punching shear, influencing slab design by necessitating consideration of concrete  
 204 compressive strength. Concrete grades vary in their ability to resist punching shear, thereby  
 205 affecting the required reinforcement. Additionally, variations in live and dead load factors, as per  
 206 the Indonesian Standard SNI 1727:2020, are pivotal in ultimate limit state design, affecting safety  
 207 and cost. Higher load factors increase structural demands, potentially requiring more  
 208 reinforcement, whereas lower factors might reduce requirements but must be balanced for safety.  
 209 Understanding these load variations is imperative for optimising structural design for safety and  
 210 cost-effectiveness in construction projects.

211 A comprehensive assessment of the embodied carbon in two-way slabs-on-beams was  
 212 performed by considering different concrete grades ( $f_c'$ ) and slab thicknesses. The total carbon  
 213 emissions per square metre ( $\text{kg/m}^2$ ) of the concrete slab are shown in Figure 4. The results of the  
 214 embodied carbon analysis offered valuable insights into the environmental implications of different  
 215 concrete grades and slab thicknesses for these types of slabs.

216



**Figure 4 Total embodied carbon of reinforced concrete slab per square meter**

217

218

219

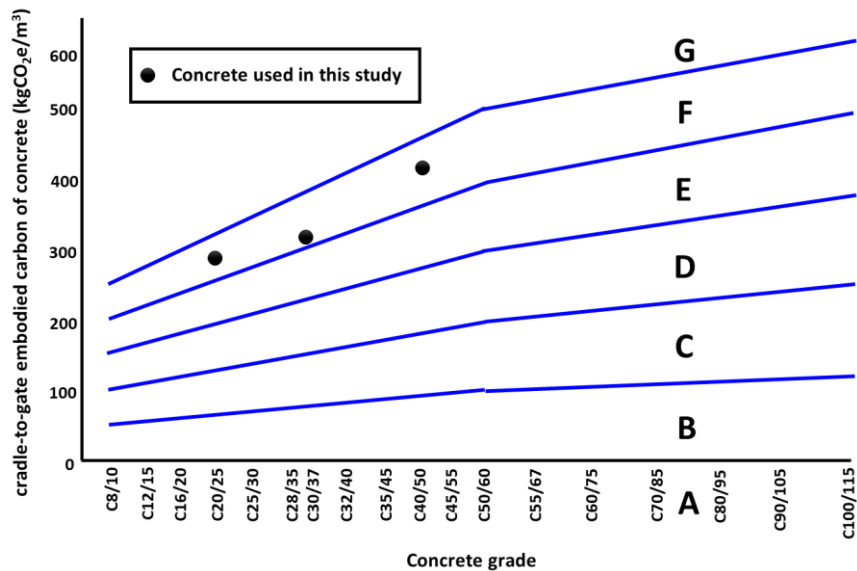
220 The results revealed the profound impact of the concrete grade (K250, K350, and K500) on the  
 221 embodied carbon per square meter of the concrete slab. Across all slab thicknesses, there was a  
 222 discernible pattern: as the concrete grade increased, the embodied carbon also increased. This  
 223 trend is consistent and aligns with expectations given the higher cement content and associated  
 224 carbon emissions in the production of high-strength concrete. It is noteworthy that the difference  
 225 in embodied carbon between K250, K350, and K500 was more pronounced for thicker slabs,  
 226 demonstrating the significance of concrete grade selection when aiming to reduce the carbon  
 227 footprint of a structure. For a given slab thickness, higher concrete grades tend to result in higher  
 228 carbon emissions per square meter than those of lower-grade concrete. This effect is primarily  
 229 owing to the increased cement content and associated carbon emissions during the production  
 230 of high-strength concrete.

231

232 The influence of slab thickness on embodied carbon per square meter was evident when  
 233 examining the data. Irrespective of the concrete grade (K250, K350, or K500), there is a universal  
 234 trend: an increase in slab thickness results in an increase in embodied carbon. This correlation is  
 235 expected because thicker slabs require a larger volume of concrete, which contributes to a higher  
 236 embodied carbon. Although thicker slabs may require less reinforcement, the role of concrete in  
 237 the overall embodied carbon footprint should not be underestimated.

238

239 In the context of reducing embodied carbon in concrete, the recent study undertaken by ARUP  
240 and Innovate UK (2023) provides an embodied carbon classification scheme, which categorises  
241 concrete from A to G based on low to high carbon emissions, as shown in Figure 5. It is worth  
242 noting that the concrete used in the present study is within the F classification, signifying a  
243 relatively high embodied carbon. As previously discussed, higher concrete grades (e.g. K500) are  
244 generally associated with higher carbon emissions owing to their elevated cement content, which  
245 inherently contributes to a higher carbon footprint. However, it is essential to recognise that this  
246 is not the only determinant. The optimum design thickness is instrumental in influencing embodied  
247 carbon, as indicated by the findings of the present study.

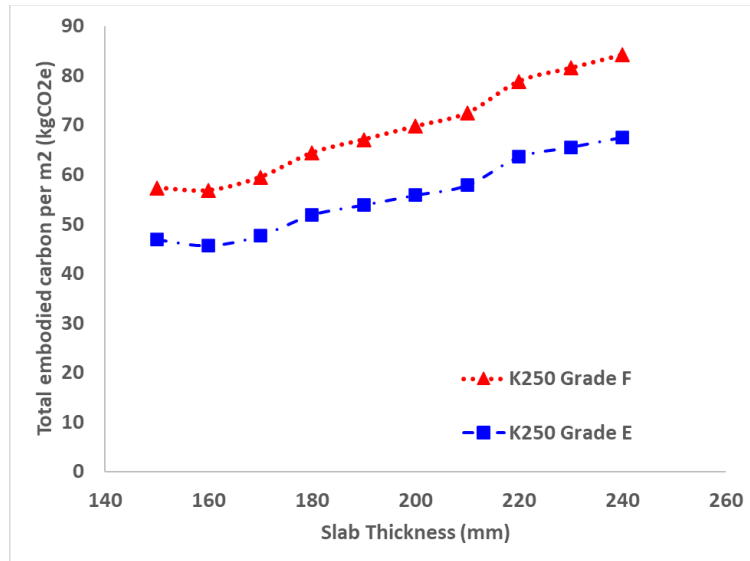


248

249 **Figure 5 Embodied carbon classification scheme** (based on ARUP and Innovate UK, 2023)

250

251 The present study reveals a nuanced reality: while selecting lower-carbon concrete or concrete  
252 with a higher rating (e.g. moving from F to a lower category) can effectively reduce the embodied  
253 carbon, there is a caveat to this approach. Simply choosing lower-carbon concrete does not  
254 guarantee a reduced carbon footprint. As shown in Figure 6, a concrete slab with a lower carbon  
255 classification may produce higher embodied carbon if the optimum design parameters are not in  
256 place. For instance, concrete of K250 grade classified as F, with a design thickness of 150 mm,  
257 can potentially result in lower embodied carbon compared with concrete of K250 grade classified  
258 as E, with a design thickness of 240 mm.



**Figure 6 The embodied carbon of K250 Grade F vs Grade E**

259

260

261

262 This emphasises the critical importance of adopting a holistic approach that considers both the  
 263 concrete mix design specifications and slab thickness in tandem. By optimising design  
 264 parameters, including concrete grade and slab thickness, embodied carbon emissions in  
 265 construction projects can be effectively reduced. These efforts are directly aligned with the goals  
 266 of UN SDG 13 for climate action as they contribute to mitigating the significant role of the  
 267 construction industry in global carbon emissions. This study underlines the necessity of evaluating  
 268 multiple factors comprehensively, rather than relying on a one-size-fits-all solution, to achieve  
 269 sustainable construction outcomes and support the objectives outlined in SDG 13.

270

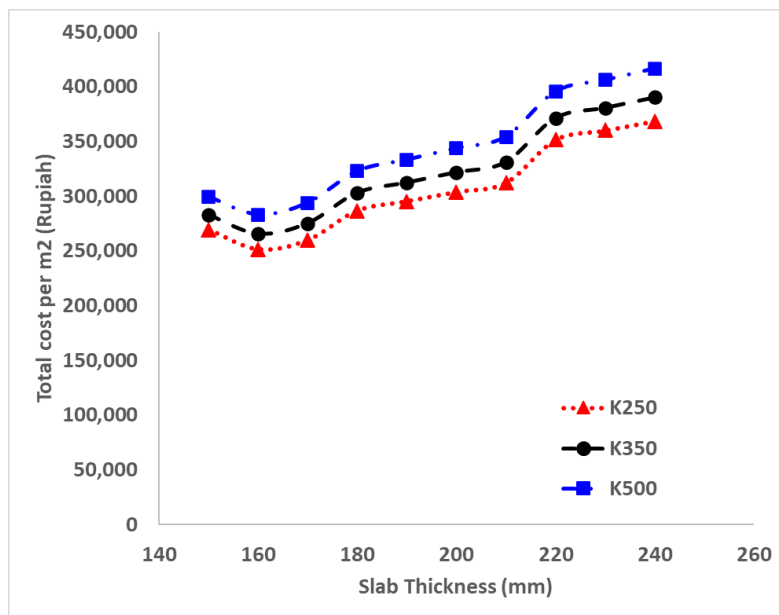
271 In pursuit of balanced structural, environmental, and financial objectives, the present study next  
 272 examines the cost implications of two-way slab-on-beam structures. Figure 7 shows the total cost  
 273 per square meter for concrete slabs in these types of structures. The results show that the  
 274 concrete grade (K250, K350, and K500) has a considerable impact on the cost per square meter  
 275 of the concrete slab. Across all slab thicknesses, a discernible pattern emerges showing the cost  
 276 per square meter increasing with concrete grade. This trend is consistent with expectations  
 277 because higher concrete grades generally require higher cement contents and other additives,  
 278 which are typically more expensive. The cost difference between K250, K350, and K500 becomes  
 279 more pronounced for thicker slabs, highlighting the significance of concrete grade selection when

280 aiming to optimise project costs. It can also be observed that for each concrete grade (K250,  
281 K350, or K500), there is a consistent trend: an increase in slab thickness corresponds to an  
282 increase in the cost per square meter. This correlation is anticipated because thicker slabs  
283 necessitate a greater volume of materials, contributing to higher costs.

284

285 The local cost data used in this study reflect broader economic trends in Indonesia's construction  
286 industry, highlighting material costs, labour rates, and resource availability. As sustainability gains  
287 importance, this data can inform policymaking by demonstrating the cost-effectiveness of  
288 sustainable practices, such as optimised slab thickness and lower-grade concrete. Aligning  
289 economic trends with sustainability goals can encourage regulations and incentives to promote  
290 environmentally friendly construction, leading to a more sustainable and resilient built  
291 environment in Indonesia.

292



293

294 **Figure 7 Total cost of reinforced concrete slab per square meter**

295

296 The data collectively emphasises the importance of a balanced and integrated approach to  
297 design. Thinner slabs tend to result in lower embodied carbon emissions and construction costs.  
298 However, this seemingly favourable outcome must be interpreted in a broader context. Thinner  
299 slabs may find application in projects with less stringent structural demands, but their



300 appropriateness diminishes in settings that require enhanced structural performance. In contrast,  
301 thicker slabs, while offering superior structural robustness, are associated with elevated costs and  
302 heightened environmental impact. Therefore, the selection of slab thickness must be aligned with  
303 the specific goals and performance requirements of a project. This balance highlights the critical  
304 role of informed design decisions that consider the structural, environmental, and economic  
305 objectives.

306

307 Additionally, higher strength concrete, such as K500, has higher embodied carbon and cost  
308 compared to lower grades, such as K250 and K350, owing to the increased cement content. This  
309 aspect must be considered carefully in the context of sustainable construction practices. Lower-  
310 grade concrete, such as K250 and K350, may offer better ductility, which is crucial for energy  
311 dissipation during seismic events. Ductility allows the structure to deform without failing, whilst  
312 absorbing or dissipating energy from an earthquake. Therefore, in seismically active regions, the  
313 choice of concrete grade must consider not only the compressive strength but also the ability of  
314 the material to perform under seismically induced stress. Balancing these properties is essential  
315 for the design of structures that are both strong and resilient.

316

317 The findings also reveal potential opportunities for optimising both the cost and environmental  
318 impacts. Optimising slab thickness has emerged as a critical parameter, where thinner slabs,  
319 when structurally feasible, significantly reduce material usage and thus both costs and embodied  
320 carbon. Additionally, the selection of lower-grade concrete can lead to substantial reductions in  
321 embodied carbon owing to the lower cement content. These strategies collectively demonstrate  
322 that a careful and holistic design approach can effectively balance structural integrity, cost  
323 efficiency, and environmental sustainability.

324

325 Towards future design standards, these findings highlight the benefits of using lower-grade  
326 concrete with an optimised slab thickness to achieve a balance between structural integrity,  
327 environmental impact, and cost. Engineers have the opportunity to embrace an integrated design  
328 philosophy. This approach demands a deep understanding of the nuanced interplay between  
329 structural, environmental, and financial objectives. This includes exploring the potential of thin

330 slabs in projects with less demanding structural requirements and recognising the significance of  
331 thicker slabs in high-performance applications.

332

333 It should be noted that this study adhered to the minimum slab thickness requirements outlined  
334 in the Indonesian Standard SNI 2847:2019, ensuring structural integrity and safety in buildings.  
335 However, although this standard provides a baseline for structural adequacy, there may be  
336 opportunities for optimisation beyond these minimum requirements. Future research could  
337 explore the potential of adjusting minimum thickness guidelines to reflect advancements in  
338 structural engineering, materials science, and sustainability considerations, thereby promoting  
339 more efficient and resilient building practices. Investigating the volume stability and soundness of  
340 concrete can provide valuable insights into mitigating risks and enhancing its long-term  
341 performance (Samuel, Liu and Samuel, 1993; Kabir, Hooton and Popoff, 2020). Furthermore, with  
342 a view to future trends in construction in Indonesia and elsewhere, it is likely that hybrid  
343 construction approaches such as timber-concrete composite components will increase in  
344 prevalence given the potential carbon reductions they offer compared to traditional concrete  
345 solutions. However, further research is needed to determine the optimum design of such hybrid  
346 forms, particularly within the context of seismic actions.

347

#### 348 **4. Conclusions**

349 In an era that is increasingly attuned to environmental concerns, the construction industry is facing  
350 an urgent need for innovative and well-informed solutions. The findings of this study shed light on  
351 the relationship between structural design, environmental impact, and financial considerations in  
352 the context of two-way reinforced concrete slabs. By assessing the required reinforcement,  
353 embodied carbon emissions, and total construction cost, the data revealed the interplay between  
354 these parameters.

355

356 The research findings suggest that the choice of concrete grade has a limited impact on the  
357 required reinforcement in these structures because the variations in the required reinforcement  
358 remain relatively consistent across different concrete grades. This implies that the primary factor  
359 influencing the required reinforcement is the slab thickness, with a minimum reinforcement

360 requirement stipulated by design standards coming into play for thicker slabs, which does not  
361 necessarily require higher reinforcement for structural performance. This highlights the  
362 importance of optimising the slab thickness to meet structural requirements while minimising the  
363 use of reinforcement materials, contributing to more sustainable construction practices.

364

365 The embodied carbon analysis indicated that slab thickness had a significant influence on the  
366 environmental footprint of these structures. Thicker slabs are associated with higher carbon  
367 emissions, primarily because of the increased volume of concrete used, making thinner slabs  
368 preferable for projects where environmental sustainability is a priority. The selection of higher  
369 concrete grades also leads to increased carbon emissions, emphasising the role of material  
370 choices in reducing the environmental impact of construction. Moreover, this study demonstrated  
371 the potential for lower carbon emissions by opting for concrete with a higher strength grade.  
372 However, it is crucial to recognise that lower-carbon concrete can inadvertently yield higher  
373 embodied carbon if an optimal design is not executed.

374

375 The financial aspects of these structures highlight the cost implications of concrete grade and  
376 slab thickness. Higher concrete grades tend to result in higher costs, primarily because of  
377 increased cement content. By contrast, thinner slabs are more cost-efficient, which can be  
378 advantageous for projects with budget constraints.

379

380 This study's comprehensive approach underscores the need for a balanced and integrated design  
381 strategy that considers structural, environmental, and economic objectives. Engineers and  
382 construction professionals have the opportunity to make informed decisions that optimise  
383 structural performance, minimise environmental impact, and control costs. This approach aligns  
384 with the goals of sustainable and well-informed construction practices, in which a harmonious  
385 balance between these factors is crucial.

386

387

388

389 **Acknowledgements**

390 This work was supported by the Directorate General of Higher Education, Research and  
391 Technology, Ministry of Education, Culture, Research and Technology as a part of the Penelitian  
392 Dasar Unggulan Perguruan Tinggi Research Grant to Binus University entitled “Konstruksi Hijau  
393 Untuk Masa Depan: Upaya Mengurangi Embodied Carbon Pada Proyek Gedung Bertingkat”  
394 with contract number 179/E5/PG.02.00/PL/2023; 1402/LL3/AL.04/2023; 149/VR. RTT/VII/2023).

395

396 **References**

397 ARUP and Innovate UK (2023) ‘Embodied Carbon Classification Scheme for Concrete’, *Arup*  
398 *Publication*, pp. 1–47. Available at: [https://www.arup.com/-](https://www.arup.com/-/media/arup/files/publications/e/embodied-carbon-classification-scheme-for-concrete---full-report.pdf)  
399 [/media/arup/files/publications/e/embodied-carbon-classification-scheme-for-concrete---full-](https://www.arup.com/-/media/arup/files/publications/e/embodied-carbon-classification-scheme-for-concrete---full-report.pdf)  
400 [report.pdf](https://www.arup.com/-/media/arup/files/publications/e/embodied-carbon-classification-scheme-for-concrete---full-report.pdf).

401 Bechmann, R. and Weidner, S. (2021) ‘Reducing the Carbon Emissions of High-Rise Structures  
402 from the Very Beginning’, *CTBUH Journal*, 2021(4), pp. 30–35.

403 BS 15978: 2011 (2011) ‘Sustainability of construction works - Assessment of environmental  
404 performance of buildings - Calculation method’. British Standards Institution, London, UK

405 BSN (2017) ‘SNI 2052:2017 Baja Tulangan Beton’, *Badan Standardisasi Nasional Indonesia*, p.  
406 15.

407 BSN (2019) ‘SNI 2847-2019 Persyaratan Beton Struktural Untuk Bangunan Gedung Dan  
408 Penjelasan’, *Badan Standardisasi Nasional Indonesia*, (8).

409 BSN (2020) ‘SNI 1727-2020: Beban desain minimum dan kriteria terkait untuk bangunan  
410 gedung dan struktur lain’, *Badan Standardisasi Nasional Indonesia*, (8).

411 Cao, Z. *et al.* (2021) ‘Decarbonizing Concrete Deep decarbonization pathways for the cement  
412 and’, *Industrial Sustainability Analysis Laboratory, Northwestern University*, (March).

413 CEN (2004) ‘Eurocode 2: Design of concrete structures - Part 1-2 General rules - Structural fire  
414 design’, *British Standards Institution, London, UK*.

415 CSI (2023) 'ETABS Analysis Design and Building Systems'.

416 Eleftheriadis, S. *et al.* (2018) 'Investigating relationships between cost and CO2 emissions in  
417 reinforced concrete structures using a BIM-based design optimisation approach', *Energy and*  
418 *Buildings*, 166, pp. 330–346. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2018.01.059>.

419 Ferreira-Cabello, J. *et al.* (2016) 'Minimizing greenhouse gas emissions and costs for structures  
420 with flat slabs', *Journal of Cleaner Production*. Elsevier Ltd, 137, pp. 922–930. doi:  
421 [10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.07.153](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.07.153).

422 Gan, V. J. L. *et al.* (2017) 'A comparative analysis of embodied carbon in high-rise buildings  
423 regarding different design parameters', *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 161, pp. 663–675. doi:  
424 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.05.156>.

425 Gibbon, O. P. *et al.* (2022) *How to calculate embodied carbon*. The Institution of Structural  
426 Engineers. Available at: [https://www.istructe.org/resources/guidance/how-to-calculate-](https://www.istructe.org/resources/guidance/how-to-calculate-embodied-carbon/)  
427 [embodied-carbon/](https://www.istructe.org/resources/guidance/how-to-calculate-embodied-carbon/).

428 Goodchild, C. H., Webster, R. M. and Elliott, K. S. (2009) 'Economic Concrete Frame Elements  
429 to Eurocode 2', p. 192. Available at: [www.concretecentre.com](http://www.concretecentre.com).

430 Hammad, N., Amr, E. and Shaaban, I. G. (2023) 'State-of-the-Art Report: The Self-Healing  
431 Capability of Alkali-Activated Slag (AAS) Concrete', *Materials*, pp. 1–20.

432 Hammond, G. and Jones, C. (2008) 'Inventory of Carbon & Energy (ICE)'.

433 Hammond, G. P. and Jones, C. I. (2008) 'Embodied energy and carbon in construction  
434 materials', *Proceedings of Institution of Civil Engineers: Energy*, 161(2), pp. 87–98. doi:  
435 [10.1680/ener.2008.161.2.87](https://doi.org/10.1680/ener.2008.161.2.87).

436 Jia Wen, T., Chin Siong, H. and Noor, Z. Z. (2015) 'Assessment of embodied energy and global  
437 warming potential of building construction using life cycle analysis approach: Case studies of  
438 residential buildings in Iskandar Malaysia', *Energy and Buildings*, 93, pp. 295–302. doi:  
439 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2014.12.002>.

440 Kabir, H., Hooton, R. D. and Popoff, N. J. (2020) 'Evaluation of cement soundness using the

441 ASTM C151 autoclave expansion test', *Cement and Concrete Research*, 136, p. 106159. doi:  
442 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconres.2020.106159>.

443 London Energy Transformation Initiative (2020) 'Embodied Carbon Primer'. Available at:  
444 <https://www.leti.london/ecp>.

445 Ministry of public works and housing (2022) 'Analisa Harga Satuan Pekerjaan Bidang Umum'.

446 Monteiro, P. J. M., Miller, S. A. and Horvath, A. (2017) 'Towards sustainable concrete', *Nature*  
447 *Materials*, 16(7), pp. 698–699. doi: 10.1038/nmat4930.

448 Nurruddin, M. F. *et al.* (2018) 'Methods of curing geopolymer concrete: A review', *International*  
449 *Journal of Advanced and Applied Sciences*, 5(1), pp. 31–36. doi: 10.21833/ijaas.2018.01.005.

450 RIBA (2017) 'Embodied and whole life carbon assessment for architects', *Royal Instituion of*  
451 *British Architects*.

452 Sahab, M. G., Ashour, A. F. and Toropov, V. V (2005) 'Cost optimisation of reinforced concrete  
453 flat slab buildings', *Engineering Structures*, 27(3), pp. 313–322. doi:  
454 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.engstruct.2004.10.002>.

455 Samuel, A. M., Liu, H. and Samuel, F. H. (1993) 'On the castability of Al-Si/SiC particle-  
456 reinforced metal-matrix composites: Factors affecting fluidity and soundness', *Composites*  
457 *Science and Technology*, 49(1), pp. 1–12. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0266-3538\(93\)90016-A](https://doi.org/10.1016/0266-3538(93)90016-A).

458 Sansom, M. and Pope, R. J. (2012) 'A comparative embodied carbon assessment of  
459 commercial buildings', *Structural Engineer*, 90(10), pp. 38–49.

460 Sitanggang, E. and Tarigan, J. (2011) 'The analysis of slab beam in tall buildings with  
461 earthquake load', *The 3rd International Conference of EACEF (European Asian Civil*  
462 *Engineering Forum)*, pp. 161–165.

463 Tunc, G., Azizi, A. B. and Tanfener, T. (2023) 'Effects of Slab Types on the Seismic Behavior  
464 and Construction Cost of RC Buildings', *Politeknik Dergisi*, 26(2), pp. 553–567. doi:  
465 10.2339/politeknik.971343.

466 Tunc, G., Proje, T. and Azizi, A. B. (2020) 'A parametric study on the cost comparison of

467 different slab types in multi-story RC buildings', (June), pp. 2–3.

468