

THE ANALYSIS OF LIFE CYCLE ASSESSMENT AND LIFE CYCLE COSTING
IN DIRECT RECYCLING HOT PRESS FORGING OF ALUMINIUM AA7075

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For my beloved family and dearly friends,

So verily, with the hardship, there is relief.

Indeed in the hardship, there is relief.

So when you have finished, then stand up for Allah worship.

And to your Lord turn all your incovation.

(Al-Inshirah: 5-8)



PTTA UTHM
PERPUSTAKAAN TUNKU TUN AMINAH

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ABSTRACT

Aluminium is the second largest used metal after iron which contributes a large impact on the environment. Recycling is a well-known method for mitigating the environmental impacts of aluminium production. However, the conventional recycling approach requires high energy consumption for remelting scrap and involves many operations which can increase the cost. Therefore, solid state direct recycling has been implemented to reduce energy and material consumption. It is essential to produce an aluminium billet that possesses superior functional performance as well as minimizes the environmental impact and economic cost. For this purpose, this study investigated the effect of the hot press forging (HPF) process parameter on the functional performance of recycled AA7075 billet. In addition, the analysis of life cycle assessment (LCA) and life cycle costing (LCC) approach were used to compare the environmental impact and economic cost of aluminium recycling routes between remelting and HPF process. The response surface methodology (RSM) and the desirability function were implemented in this study to optimise the aluminium recycling condition of AA7075 aluminium alloys. The study of DR-HPF shows that the optimum parameter for AA7075 aluminium alloy based on statistical optimization by RSM is 480°C forging temperature and 85.56 minutes holding time with 0.780 desirabilities. The maximum process parameter of recycled specimens is comparable to the theoretical ASM AA7075. Compared to the remelting process, the HPF method significantly reduces GWP and manufacturing costs by up to 85.26 % and 82.46 %, respectively. The potential of the HPF process as an alternative approach in terms of environmental impact reduction and functional performance offered for recycling AA7075 aluminium scrap has been demonstrated.

ABSTRAK

Aluminium adalah logam terpakai kedua terbesar selepas besi yang menyumbang impak besar kepada alam sekitar. Kitar semula ialah kaedah yang terkenal untuk mengurangkan kesan alam sekitar pengeluaran aluminium. Walau bagaimanapun, pendekatan kitar semula konvensional memerlukan penggunaan tenaga yang tinggi untuk mencairkan semula sekerap dan melibatkan banyak operasi yang boleh meningkatkan kos. Oleh itu, kitar semula langsung keadaan pepejal telah dilaksanakan untuk mengurangkan penggunaan tenaga dan bahan. Ianya penting untuk menghasilkan bilet aluminium yang mempunyai prestasi fungsian yang unggul serta meminimumkan kesan alam sekitar dan kos ekonomi. Untuk tujuan ini, kajian ini menyiasat kesan parameter proses penempaan tekan panas (HPF) ke atas prestasi fungsi kitar semula AA7075 bilet. Di samping itu, pendekatan penilaian kitaran hayat bersepadu (LCA) dan kos kitaran hayat (LCC) telah digunakan untuk membandingkan kesan alam sekitar dan kos ekonomi antara proses pencairan semula dan HPF. Metodologi permukaan tindak balas (RSM) dan fungsi keinginan telah dilaksanakan dalam kajian ini untuk mengoptimumkan keadaan kitar semula aluminium aloi AA7075. Kajian DR-HPF menunjukkan bahawa parameter optimum untuk aloi aluminium AA7075 berdasarkan pengoptimuman statistik oleh RSM ialah suhu penempaan 480°C dan masa penahanan 85.56 minit dengan 0.780 kemahuan. Maksimum parameter untuk kitar semula spesimen adalah setanding dengan teori ASM AA7075-O. Jika dibandingkan dengan proses pencairan semula, kaedah HPF memberikan pengurangan ketara dalam GWP dan kos pembuatan masing-masing sehingga 85.26% dan 82.46%. Potensi proses HPF sebagai pendekatan alternatif dari segi pengurangan kesan alam sekitar dan prestasi fungsi yang ditawarkan untuk mengitar semula sekerap aluminium AA7075 dapat ditunjukkan.

CONTENTS

	TITLE	i
	DECLARATION	v
	DEDICATION	vi
	ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	vii
	ABSTRACT	viii
	ABSTRAK	ix
	CONTENTS	x
	LIST OF TABLES	xv
	LIST OF FIGURES	xviii
	LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS	xxii
CHAPTER 1	INTRODUCTION	1
	1.1 Background of Study	2
	1.2 Problem Statement	6
	1.3 Objective of the Study	8
	1.4 Scope of Study	8
	1.5 Significance of Study	10
CHAPTER 2	LITERATURE REVIEW	12
	2.1 Introduction	12
	2.2 Aluminium Recycling Technique	13
	2.2.1 Conventional Recycling (CR)	16
	2.2.2 Direct Recycling (DR)	18
	2.2.2.1 Compressive Torsion Process / High-pressure Torsion / Friction Stir Consolidation	19
	2.2.2.2 Hot Forging	21
	2.2.2.3 Cold Forging	23
	2.2.3 Review of Aluminium Recycling Technique	24
	2.3 Forging	32

2.3.1	Fundamental of Forging	33
2.3.1.1	Forgeability	37
2.3.1.2	Forging Temperature	39
2.3.2	Parameter Selection of Hot Forging	40
2.3.2.1	Operating Temperature	40
2.3.2.2	Heating Time	43
2.3.2.3	Optimal Parameter for AA7075 Aluminium Alloys	43
2.3.3	Effect of Parameter Selection Toward Response Variable	45
2.3.3.1	Mechanical Properties	45
2.3.3.2	Surface Integrity	47
2.4	Response Surface Methodology (RSM)	48
2.5	Life Cycle Assessment (LCA)	51
2.5.1	Life Cycle Assessment Method	52
2.5.1.1	Goal Definition	52
2.5.1.2	Scope Definition	53
2.5.1.3	Life Cycle Inventory (LCI)	54
2.5.1.4	Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA)	55
2.5.1.5	Interpretation	59
2.5.2	Carbon Footprint	60
2.5.3	Life Cycle of Aluminium Product	61
2.5.4	Review of Aluminium Waste Management	64
2.5.4.1	Landfill versus Recycling (LvsR)	68
2.5.4.2	Incineration versus Recycling (IvsR)	69
2.5.4.3	Recycling (Melting) versus (Recycling (solid state) (RMvsRS)	69
2.6	Life Cycle Costing (LCC)	70
2.7	The Coupled use of LCA and LCC	71
2.8	Summary	76
CHAPTER 3	METHODOLOGY	79
3.1	Introduction	79
3.2	Research Design Principles	81

3.2.1	Design of Experiment and Optimization by RSM	81
3.2.2	Direct Recycling Hot Press Forging (DR-HPF)	81
3.2.3	Life Cycle Assessment (LCA)	82
3.2.4	Life Cycle Costing (LCC)	83
3.3	Experimental Design and Variables	83
3.3.1	Main Parameters	84
3.3.1.1	High-speed End Milling Process	84
3.3.1.2	Hot Press Forging (HPF) Process	84
3.3.1.3	Life Cycle Assessment (LCA)	85
3.3.1.4	Life Cycle Costing (LCC)	88
3.3.1.5	Experimental Design for Hot Press Forging (HPF) process by RSM	88
3.3.2	Responses	89
3.3.2.1	Tensile Properties	89
3.3.2.2	Vickers Hardness Test	91
3.3.2.3	Microstructure	92
3.3.2.4	Density	92
3.4	Experiment Procedures	92
3.5	Equipment and Instrumentation	98
3.5.1	Major Instrument	98
3.5.1.1	High-Speed Milling Machine	98
3.5.1.2	Hot Press Forging Machine	99
3.5.1.3	SimaPro 9.2.0.2 Software	99
3.5.2	Preparation and Measuring Instruments	100
3.5.2.1	Universal Testing Machine (Shimadzu EHF-EM0100K1)	100
3.5.2.2	Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) and Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM)	101
3.5.2.3	Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM)	101
3.5.2.4	Density Balance (A&D HR-250AZ)	101
3.5.2.6	Ultrasonic bath (Elmasonic S 60 H)	102

	3.5.2.7 Drying Oven (SOV140B)	103
CHAPTER 4	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	105
4.1	Introduction	105
4.2	Chemical Composition and Theoretical Value of AA7075 Reference Specimen	106
4.3	Recycled AA7075 Aluminium Alloy After the Hot Press Forging Process	108
4.3.1	The Effect of The Hot Press Forging Parameter on The Mechanical Properties of AA7075 recycled specimen	108
4.3.1.1	Ultimate Tensile Strength (UTS)	109
4.3.1.2	Elongation to Failure (ETF)	116
4.3.2	Effect of Solution Heat Treatment Process (Hot Press Forging) Parameter on Surface Integrity	123
4.3.2.1	Vickers Microhardness	123
4.3.2.1	Density	126
4.4	The Influence of Hot Press Forging (HPF) Parameter on Global Warming Potential (GWP)	128
4.4.1	Input Data Inventories for Energy Measurement	128
4.4.2	Global Warming Potential (GWP)	131
4.5	Response Surface Methodology (RSM) on Different Hot Press Forging Process Parameters	133
4.5.1	Analysis of Ultimate Tensile Strength (UTS)	134
4.5.2	Analysis of Elongation to Failure (ETF)	138
4.5.3	Analysis of Global Warming Potential (GWP)	141
4.5.4	Optimization Desirability	145
4.6	Comparison of Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) Between Direct Recycling Hot Press Forging and Conventional Recycling Techniques	147
4.6.1	Life Cycle Inventory (LCI)	148
4.6.2	Life Cycle Impact Analysis (LCIA)	150
4.6.3	Global Warming Potential (GWP)	155

	4.7	Comparison of Life Cycle Cost Between Hot Press Forging and Conventional Recycling Routes	157
	4.8	Summary	160
CHAPTER 5		CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	162
	5.1	Conclusion	162
	5.2	Main Contribution	163
	5.3	Recommendation	164
REFERENCES			165



LIST OF TABLES

1.1	The hazardous waste type from the aluminium industry according to the European Waste Catalogue	3
1.2	The details of aluminium production for Southeast Asian nations	4
2.1	Review of aluminium recycling techniques	25
2.2	Response recorded based on Recycling Aluminium Publication	30
2.3	classification of metal and alloys in the order of decreasing forging difficulties	38
2.4	Recommended forging temperature ranges for aluminium alloys	41
2.5	Basic heat treatment designations	42
2.6	Major subdivisions of T-temper	42
2.7	List of optimum parameters for solution heat treatment (SHT) of AA7075 aluminium alloys	44
2.8	An overview of the midpoint impact categories and related indicators	57
2.9	Damage pathways in ReCiPe 2016	58
2.10	Summaries of waste management options for aluminium	65
2.11	The differences between LCC and LCA approaches	71
2.12	A summary based on the LCA/LCC integrated assessment from the available literature	73
3.1	Parameters and levels of experimental design	83
3.2	Preliminary result of tensile strength at the parameter of 530°C and 120 minutes	85

3.3	The details of main LCI data and source	87
3.4	Classification of life cycle cost component	88
3.5	Experimental design of hot press forging with RSM	89
3.6	The etching process	92
3.7	Technical specifications	99
3.8	Hot press forging specifications	99
3.9	Specification of a universal testing machine	100
3.10	The technical specifications of density balance	102
3.11	Technical specification of ultrasonic bath	103
3.12	Technical specification	104
4.1	Chemical composition of the as-received AA7075 reference specimen	106
4.2	The properties of AA7075-O Aluminium alloy according to MatWeb and ASM datasheet	106
4.3	Mechanical properties results based on the different operating temperature and holding time parameters of the hot press forging process	109
4.4	Grain analysis on the effect of operating temperature at 120 minutes maximum holding time	112
4.5	Grain analysis on the effect of holding time at 480°C maximum operating temperature	113
4.6	Analysis of grain at minimum-maximum parameter	114
4.7	Result of surface integrity on the effect of different operating temperatures and holding time	123
4.8	Energy calculation during hot press forging at 380°C operating temperature and 0 holding time for instance	129
4.9	Calculation of related gasses released in terms of their impact on a single unit of carbon dioxide equivalents at 380°C operating temperature and 0 holding times for reference	131
4.10	Result of GWP display into a single unit of carbon dioxide equivalents	132

4.11	Experimental design for input factor parameters and levels	133
4.12	Experimental design with the result of hot press forging process parameter	134
4.13	Analysis of ANOVA quadratic model for ultimate tensile strength (UTS) before pooling	135
4.14	A reduced quadratic model of ANOVA for ultimate tensile strength (UTS) after pooling	136
4.15	ANOVA quadratic model for elongation to failure (ETF) response before pooling	138
4.16	ANOVA reduced quadratic model for ETF after pooling	139
4.17	ANOVA quadratic model for global warming potential (GWP) before pooling	142
4.18	ANOVA reduced quadratic model for global warming potential (GWP) after pooling	143
4.19	Suggested parameter for optimal responses	145
4.20	Confirmation test with the predicted value	147
4.21	The life cycle inventory (LCI) data for each process routes	149
4.22	Energy, E calculation for the HPF process at optimum parameter route	150
4.23	The result of aggregating related gases into a single unit in terms of carbon dioxide equivalents for the HPF process (optimum) and CR process (remelting)	156
4.24	Classification of LCC components	157
4.25	Cost category for one kilogram of aluminium product	157

LIST OF FIGURES

1.1	Infographic of AA7075 aluminium alloy	2
2.1	The aluminium product life cycle	14
2.2	Comparison number of steps and processes involved in each recycling aluminium chips techniques	15
2.3	The schematic aluminium recycling process in brazil by CR method	16
2.4	The schematic of compressive torsion process, CPT	19
2.5	The schematic of high-pressure torsion (HPT) process	20
2.6	The schematic diagram of friction stir consolidation	20
2.7	Schematic illustration of hot press forging	21
2.8	Schematic diagram of cold press	23
2.9	Historical trend of recycling technique based on scientific literature	27
2.10	Responses graph recorded based on the current publications	31
2.11	Illustration of open die sets for forging	33
2.12	Illustration of the closed-die forging process	34
2.13	Flow stresses of aluminium alloys and 1025 carbon steel at typical forging temperatures and various total strain levels	39
2.14	The forgeability and forging temperature of different aluminium alloys	40
2.15	Mechanical properties study of aluminium alloy	45
2.16	Surface integrity study of aluminium alloy	47
2.17	Major steps in LCA methodology	52

2.18	An overview of the impact categories covered by the ReCiPe 2016 version and their relation to the protected areas	56
2.19	The life cycle of aluminium products	61
2.20	A simplified diagram of an aluminium product system from cradle-to-grave life cycle	63
2.21	LCC methodology LCA-LCC integration approach	70
3.1	Research methodology flowchart	80
3.2	Flow chart of recycling aluminium techniques by conventional and direct recycling route	82
3.3	The system boundary and useful outputs	86
3.4	System boundary for different recycling routes	86
3.5	Tension Test Specimen	90
3.6	The diagram of temperature and pressure of the heat treatment process as a function of time	94
3.7	Overall research procedure flowchart	96
3.8	Overview of the research findings	97
4.1	Results at different operating temperatures and holding time for ultimate tensile strength	110
4.2	Results at different holding times with constant temperature for ultimate tensile strength	110
4.3	Ultimate tensile strength on minimum (380°C, 0minutes)-maximum (480°C, 120 minutes) parameter	113
4.4	SEM image at minimum (380°C/0 minutes) and maximum (480°C/120 minutes) process parameter	114
4.5	Results of elongation to failure (ETF) at different operating temperatures with constant holding time	117
4.6	Results of elongation to failure (ETF) at different holding times with constant holding time	117
4.7	Surface fracture micrograph at maximum holding temperature of 120 minutes; 380°C: (a) fracture surface overview at 100x, (b) the periphery coarse	118

	topology at 250x, (c) equiaxed dimples at 1000x and 480°C: (d) fracture surface overview at 100x, (e) the periphery coarse topology at 250 and (f) equiaxed dimples at 1000x	
4.8	Elongation to Failure, ETF on minimum-maximum parameter	119
4.9	Surface fracture micrograph for minimum and maximum forging parameter; 380°C/0 minutes: (a) fracture surface overview at 100x, (b) the periphery coarse topology at 250x, (c) equiaxed dimples at 1000x and 480°C/120 minutes: (d) fracture surface overview at 100x, (e) the periphery coarse topology at 250 and (f) equiaxed dimples at 1000x	121
4.10	Stress-Strain aluminium diagram	122
4.11	Vickers Microhardness and UTS results at various HPF process parameter	124
4.12	Microhardness on minimum (380°C, 0 minutes) – maximum (480°C, 120 minutes) parameters	125
4.13	Results of density at the different parameters of operating temperature and holding time	126
4.14	Density value on minimum (380°C, 0 minutes) – maximum (480°C, 120 minutes) parameters	127
4.15	Result of total energy consumption per kilogram at different parameters	130
4.16	Results of global warming potential at various (GWP) parameter	132
4.17	Ultimate tensile strength (UTS) perturbation graph as a correlation of operating temperature (factor A) and holding time (factor B)	137
4.18	Effect of operating temperature (factor A) and holding time (factor B) on UTS	137
4.19	ETF perturbation graph as a correlation of operating temperature (A) and holding time (B)	140

4.20	Effect of operating temperature (A) and holding time (B) on ETF	141
4.21	Perturbation graph as a correlation of operating temperature (A) and holding time (B)	144
4.22	Effect of operating temperature: A and holding time: B on GWP	144
4.23	Optimization overlay plot	146
4.24	Recycled aluminium (a) before and (b) after the tensile test	147
4.25	The endpoint categories of the HPF process (480°C/85.56 minutes) and CR process routes	151
4.26	The midpoint impact categories for the HPF process (optimum parameter) and CR process routes	152
4.27	LCC result of material for both HPF and CR process route	158
4.28	LCC result of total cost component for both aluminium recycling routes (HPF and CR process approach)	159



LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ABD	- Aluminium Black Dross
AC	- Acidification
ADP	- Abiotic Depletion Potential
AHP	- Analytical Hierarchy Process
AMMC	- Advanced Material and Manufacturing Center
ANOVA	- Analysis of Variance
C ₂ F ₆	- Hexafluoroethane
CaF ₂	- Calcium Fluoride
CF ₄	- Carbon tetrafluoride
CCD	- Central Composite Design
CH ₄	- Methane
CO ₂	- Carbon Dioxide
CTP	- Compressive Torsion Process
CuAl ₂	- Copper Aluminide
CR	- Conventional Recycling
DF	- Desirability Function
DR	- Direct Recycling
EAA	- European Aluminium Association
ECAP	- Equal Channel Angular Pressing Angular Process
EDX	- Energy Dispersive X-ray
ELCC	- Environmental Life Cycle Costing
EWC	- European Waste Catalogue
FESEM	- Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope
FSC	- Friction Stir Consolidation
f.u	- Functional unit
GHGs	- Greenhouse Gasses
g/cm ³	- Gram per cubic centimetre

GWP	- Global Warming Potential
HPF	- Hot Press Forging
HPT	- High-pressure Torsion
HFCs	- Hydrofluorocarbons
HH	- Human Health
H ₂	- Hydrogen
H ₂ S	- Hydrogen Sulfide
IAI	- International Aluminium Institute
JAS	- Jabatan Alam Sekitar
ISO	- International Organization for Standardization
KCl	- Potassium Chloride
kWh	- Kilowatt-hour
LCA	- Life Cycle Assessment
LCC	- Life Cycle Cost
LCCO ₂	- Life Cycle Carbon Dioxide
LCE	- Life Cycle Engineering
LCEA	- Life Cycle Energy Analysis
LCI	- Life Cycle Inventory
LCIA	- Life Cycle Impact Assessment
LCM	- Life Cycle Management
LCSA	- Life Cycle Sustainability Assessment
LOM	- Light Optical Microscope
MADM	- Multi-attribute Decision Making
MAETP	- Marine Aquatic Ecotoxicity Potential
MCDA	- Multi-criteria Decision Analysis
Mg ₂ Si	- Magnesium Silicide
Mpa	- Megapascal
Mt	- Metric tons
MYR	- Malaysian Ringgit
Na ₃ AlF ₆	- Cryolite
NaCl	- Sodium Chloride
NH ₃	- Ammonia
NMP	- Non-metallic Product

N ₂ O	- Nitrous Oxide
PFCs	- Perfluorocarbons
PH ₄	- Phosphonium
PECS	- Pulsed Electric Current Sintering
POCP	- Photochemical Oxidant Creation Potential
POF	- Photochemical ozone formation
REPA	- Resource and Environmental Profile Analysis
RSM	- Response Surface Methodology
SSR	- Solid State Recycling
SDR	- Semi Direct Recycling
SETAC	- Society Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry
SHT	- Solution Heat Treatment
SMART	- Sustainable Manufacturing and Recycling Technology
SPS	- Spark Plasma Sintering
TETP	- Terrestrial Ecotoxicity Potential
T _m	- Melting Point
TNB	- Tenaga Malaysia Berhad
TGA	- Thermo-gravimetric Analysis
TOPSIS	- Technique for Order of Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution
UTM	- Universal Testing Machine
UTS	- Ultimate Tensile Stress
UTHM	- Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia
WSM	- Weight-sum model
WBCSD	- World Business Council for Sustainable Development
Wt%	- Weight %
YS	- Yield Strength
°C	- Degree Celcius

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The continuous growth of aluminium alloy demand has led to a rise in the quantity of aluminium scrap (Gancarczyk, Nowotnik, & Boczkal, 2021). The production of raw materials requires an enormous amount of energy and generates a substantial amount of carbon dioxide emissions annually (Ho et al., 2020; Baffari et al., 2019). Approximately 93 % of carbon dioxide can be reduced through the production of secondary aluminium (Yasinskiy et al., 2021). Recycling aluminium may conserve energy and resources, delaying the depletion of virgin resources (Söderholm & Ekvall, 2019).

Current practices in metal recycling plants involve turning aluminium scraps into a molten state known as conventional recycling (CR) (Paraskevas et al., 2012). However, the CR process is inefficient in terms of energy consumption, produces toxic gases and causes permanent metal loss during remelting (Wagiman et al., 2020; Baffari et al., 2019; Wan et al., 2017). Thus, solid state by direct recycling hot press forging (DR-HPF) has been selected in this study. HPF has fewer steps since the intermediary processes of ball-milling and cold-compacting are eliminated, as well as lower cost and energy consumption because the process occurs above the recrystallization temperature (Ahmad et al., 2016; Ahmad, Lajis, & Yusuf, 2017; Khamis, Lajis, & Albert, 2015).

Aside from environmental concerns, economic concerns have also been raised about sustainability. This issue is frequently manifested by an increase in raw material, electricity and gas. Therefore, it is crucial to focus on developing a sustainable strategy for aluminium shaping industries that emphasises promoting cost, energy and resource efficiency by utilizing life cycle assessment (LCA) and life cycle cost (LCC).

1.1 Background of Study

Over the last 20 years, there has been a surge in sustainability publications. The three-pillar concept of sustainability consists of environmental, economic and social, commonly depicted by three intersections circles with overall sustainability at the centre (Purvis, 2019). In addition, the public has been paying attention to how industries affect the environment, and discussions about sustainable behaviour and climate change are on the international agenda (Luthin, Backes, & Traverso, 2021). For decades, European Union policy has aimed at minimising waste, lowering the emission of hazardous toxic to the environment and limiting the environmental impact (Hughes, 2017). As a result, the demand for sustainable raw materials and finished goods has intensified throughout the supply chain.

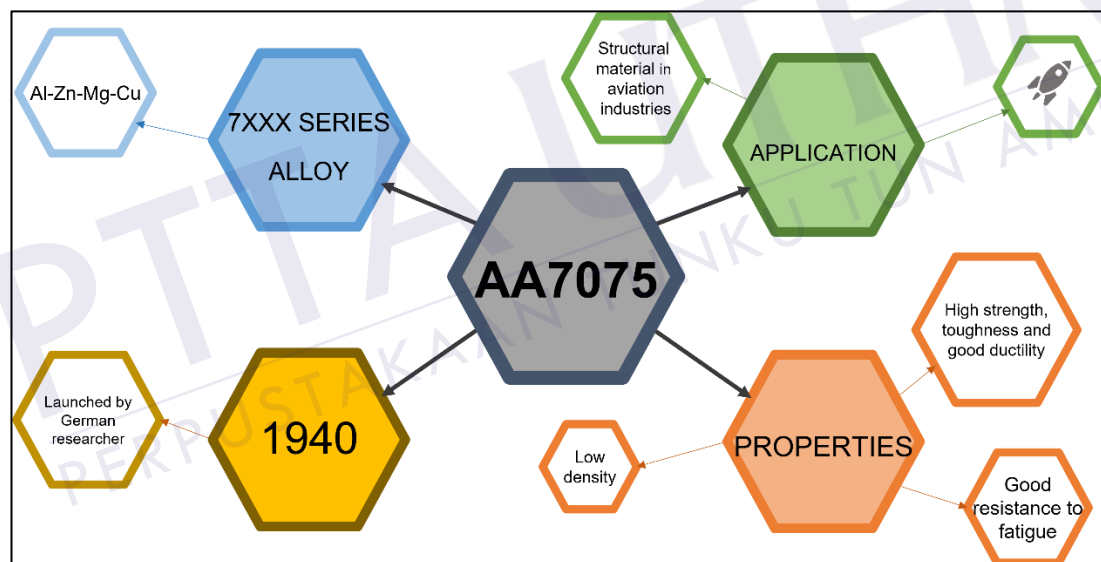


Figure 1.1: Infographic of AA7075 aluminium alloy

Figure 1.1 illustrates the infographic of AA7075 aluminium alloy. There are various types of aluminium alloys. Al-Zn-Mg-Cu alloys, categorized as 7XXX series aluminium alloys, have been widely used as structural materials in aeronautical industries (Aziz, 2018). German researchers commercially launched them in 1940 (Kiliç et al.2020). Aluminium alloy AA7075 is widely used in the aerospace industry due to their attractive properties such as high strength, ductility, low density, toughness

and resistance to fatigue, and their favourable strength-to-weight ratio and corrosion resistance compared to conventional stainless steels (Aziz, 2018).

Aluminium is the third most abundant element on earth which does not exist in nature as a free element (Abdulkadir, Ajayi, & Hassan, 2015). Nonetheless, aluminium is the second-largest used metal after iron (Mahinroosta & Allahverdi, 2018). According to the statistic forecasting aluminium consumption from 2021 to 2029, with a compound annual growth rate of 2.6 %, global aluminium consumption is projected to reach approximately 64.2 million metric tonnes in 2021 (Statista, 2022b). China is by far the world's largest producer of aluminium, with a record 37.08 million tonnes produced in 2020 (Staff, 2021). However, its government intends to limit yearly smelting capacity to 45 million tonnes, and companies are aiming to recycle more scrap metal instead, under pressure to reduce emissions.

Table 1.1 shows the details of the aluminium production for Southeast Asian nations. From the data, Malaysia, Indonesia and Singapore produce approximately 908, 220.6, 51.1 thousand metric tonnes respectively. Thailand does not produce primary aluminium while used secondary approximately 22.6 thousand metric tonnes of secondary aluminium

Table 1.1: The details of aluminium production for Southeast Asian nations

Country	Details of aluminium production	Year	Source
Malaysia	Approximately 908 thousand metric tonnes	2021	(Müller, 2022)
Indonesia	Approximately 220.6 thousand metric tonnes	2021	(Statista, 2022c)
Singapore	Approximately 51.1 thousand metric tonnes	2021	(Statista, 2022a)
Thailand	Thailand does not directly produce aluminium from upstream sources. Instead, aluminium scrap is recycled. Approximately 22.6 thousand metric tonnes of secondary aluminium	2020	(Manakitsomboon, 2021; Thaimetal aluminium, 2022)

It is found that aluminium production is an energy-intensive process. It produces a lot of black dross during remelting or refining of aluminium and creates hazardous waste that poses a major threat and challenge to the aluminium industry (Abdulkadir et al., 2015). Table 1.2 shows the distribution of waste produced by the aluminium industry according to the European Waste Catalogue (EWC). Table 1.2 shows hazardous waste produced by the aluminium industry coded 100304, 100308, 100309, 100315, 100317, 100319, 100321, 100323, 100325, 100327 and 100329. By referring to Table 1.2, the hazardous waste type with code numbers 100304, 100308,

100309 and 100321 has contributed a significant amount of hazardous waste to the aluminium industry.

Table 1.2: The hazardous wastes type from the aluminium industry according to the European Waste Catalogue (Mahinroosta & Allahverdi, 2018)

Hazardous waste type	Code
Slag from primary production	100304
Salt slag from secondary production	100308
Black dross from secondary production	100309
Dross that emits flammable gases in dangerous quantities in contact with water	100315
Tar-containing waste from anode production	100317
Flue gas dust containing hazardous materials	100319
Dust and other particulates comprising hazardous materials	100321
Solid wastes from processing the gas comprising hazardous materials	100323
Filter sludge and cake from processing gas containing hazardous materials	100325
The waste from cooling water treatment containing oil	100327
Hazardous waste from salt slag/black dross processing	100329

Aluminium recycling practices have been debated for many years back, since the 1900s. Aluminium recycling emits only 5% of greenhouse gas and utilizes 95% less energy than primary aluminium production (Wagiman et al., 2020). Primary aluminium manufacturing uses between 174 to 186 Megajoules per kilogram, whereas secondary production uses between 10 to 20 Megajoules per kilogram (Green, 2007). Secondary aluminium production requires less energy due to its raw materials consisting of aluminium scrap and primary metallic aluminium scrap. (Tsakiridis & Oustadakis, 2013). Therefore, aluminium is manufactured through two different pathways in which primary aluminium production by alumina is extracted from bauxite ore and secondary aluminium production by aluminium scrap (Tsakiridis & Oustadakis, 2013).

Currently, two major non-ferrous metal recycling techniques have been proposed; conventional recycling (CR) and solid-state recycling (SSR). The CR technique involves remelting the scrap and casting it into new products. As for CR techniques, several remarkable problems are listed as follows (Wan et al., 2017):

- i. High metal loss due to the high chemical reactivity and large specific metal surface area.
- ii. Toxic gases are produced by the combustion of the oil emulsion adhering to the chips.
- iii. High energy consumption and processing costs.

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