

SYNERGISTIC INTEGRATION OF PLASTIC WASTE AS AGGREGATE REPLACEMENT AND MICRO—ARMING IN CEMENTITIOUS AND BITUMINOUS MATRICES

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Abstract: The global construction industry is increasingly pivoting toward “Circular Construction” to mitigate the environmental impact of both plastic pollution and natural aggregate depletion. Plastic polymers, due to their low thermal conductivity, high toughness, and non—biodegradable nature, offer a dual—pathway for material enhancement: aggregate replacement (volumetric substitution) and micro—arming (structural reinforcement). This abstract explores the mechanical, thermal, and durability implications of integrating various plastic waste streams into concrete and asphalt systems. The construction industry is currently transitioning toward a circular economy model to address the dual crises of plastic pollution and the depletion of natural mineral resources. The “Synergistic Integration” approach moves beyond simple waste disposal, treating plastic as a sophisticated additive that modifies the internal architecture of construction materials. By simultaneously utilizing plastic as Volumetric Aggregate Replacement and Fibrous Micro—arming, engineers can create “hybrid” matrices in both concrete (cementitious) and asphalt (bituminous) systems that outperform traditional materials in specific durability and insulation metrics. The transition from treating plastic as a “contaminant” to a “performance—enhancing additive” is the cornerstone of modern sustainable engineering. Through the combined application of aggregate substitution and micro—fibre arming, the construction sector can deliver high—performance, disaster—resilient infrastructure while effectively managing global plastic waste streams.

Keywords: recycled plastic, aggregate replacement, micro—arming, fibre reinforced concrete, sustainable construction, polymer modified bitumen

1. INTRODUCTION

The integration of plastic waste into construction materials is a multifaceted engineering strategy that transforms environmental pollutants into high—value structural components. ^[1-5] At its core, the concept relies on the viscoelasticity and durability of polymers to enhance the brittle nature of traditional binders like cement or bitumen. In the context of sustainable construction, the SYNERGISTIC INTEGRATION APPROACH is a holistic engineering strategy where plastic waste is used simultaneously as both a volumetric filler and a mechanical reinforcer to create a high—performance hybrid material. ^[6-11] Instead of viewing plastic as a singular “problem” or a simple one—for—one replacement for stone, this approach leverages the different physical forms of plastic (pellets vs. fibres) to solve multiple material weaknesses at once. ^[1-5]

SYNERGISTIC INTEGRATION is defined as the concurrent application of two distinct plastic—waste recycling pathways within a single binder matrix (cement or bitumen). ^[6-11] In construction material science, plastic is strategically utilized through two distinct physical mechanisms: ^[3,8-12]

— VOLUMETRIC SUBSTITUTION (or AGGREGATE REPLACEMENT), at macro—level, this concept treating plastic as a filler, using crushed or pelletized plastic to replace natural sand or gravel, primarily to improve thermal insulation and reduce density. Since aggregates (sand and stone) occupy the majority of a material's volume, replacing them with plastic is the most effective way to sequester large quantities of waste.

— STRUCTURAL REINFORCEMENT (or MICRO—ARMING), at micro—Level, this concept treating plastic as a functional additive, Using shredded or extruded plastic fibres to bridge internal gaps, primarily to improve tensile strength and crack resistance. Shredded or extruded plastic waste is turned into fibres that act as a microscopic skeletal system.

The approach relies on the interplay between the body and the skeleton of the material, the “bond” between the smooth plastic and the cement being the weakest point. ^[3,8-12] The synergy is achieved by balancing the bulk physical properties of aggregates with the mechanical reinforcement of fibres: ^[12-19]

— as aggregate replacement (the matrix body): shredded or pelletized polymers (PET, HDPE, ABS) replace natural sand or gravel. This primarily targets weight reduction and thermal resistance. While it typically induces a reduction in compressive stiffness, it provides the necessary “pockets” for energy absorption and sound dampening.

— as micro—arming (the structural skeleton): high—tenacity fibres (Nylon, PP) are distributed 3D—randomly to bridge micro—cracks. This “arms” the matrix against the inherent brittleness of cement and the thermal fatigue of bitumen, effectively compensating for the strength loss caused by plastic aggregates.

To distinguish between these two methods, it helps to think of them in terms of Quantity vs. Quality. One changes the bulk “body” of the material, while the other changes its internal “skeleton”.^[3,12-19]

2. SYNERGISTIC INTEGRATION: TWO DISTINCT PHYSICAL MECHANISMS

■ AGGREGATE REPLACEMENT (VOLUMETRIC SUBSTITUTION)

Aggregate replacement is a bulk modification strategy. In traditional concrete or asphalt, natural stones (coarse aggregate) and sand (fine aggregate) make up about 60% to 75% of the total volume. The plastic acts as a structural filler. Because plastic is significantly lighter than stone, it reduces the overall density of the material. In volumetric substitution, a specific percentage of these natural materials is removed and replaced with an equivalent volume of plastic waste (crushed PET, HDPE pellets, or ABS granules).^[3,12-19] The goal is the waste sequestration and weight reduction and usually is expressed as a percentage of volume (e.g., “10% sand replacement”).



Figure 1. Alternative aggregates for concrete

To understand the aggregate replacement, it is helpful to first look at the “skeleton” of construction materials. In concrete or asphalt, aggregates (sand and gravel) make up roughly 60% to 80% of the total volume. Replacing natural aggregates (sand and gravel) with shredded or pelletized plastic waste—such as PET, HDPE, and ABS—fundamentally alters the density and thermal profile of the matrix. Aggregate replacement (specifically volumetric substitution) is the process of removing a portion of natural mineral aggregates—such as crushed stone, river sand, or gravel—and replacing that volume with processed plastic waste.^[3,12-19] The process is simply: plastic waste is shredded, crushed, or pelletized into sizes that mimic traditional aggregates.

— fine aggregate replacement: replacing sand with plastic particles (usually < 4.75mm).

— coarse aggregate replacement: replacing gravel or crushed stone with larger plastic chips or pellets (usually > 4.75mm).

Sand is the most mined solid material in the world. By using plastic, we reduce the destructive dredging of riverbeds and quarrying of mountains for virgin stone. By AGGREGATE REPLACEMENT construction sector provides a “permanent” home for non—recyclable plastics. Instead of these plastics degrading in a landfill, they are “locked” inside a solid matrix for decades.^[19-26]

■ MICRO—ARMING (STRUCTURAL REINFORCEMENT)

Micro—arming is a performance modification strategy. Unlike aggregate replacement, is trying to change how the material behaves under stress. Micro—arming involves the introduction of recycled plastic fibres—primarily Polypropylene (PP), Nylon (PA), and PET—to act as a secondary reinforcement system. In fact, this involves adding high—tensile plastic fibres (Nylon, Polypropylene, or PET) into the mix. These fibres are usually very thin (microns in diameter) and vary in length. The goal is enhancing toughness and preventing failure.^[19-26] The fibres act as “micro—bridges”. When the concrete or asphalt begins



Figure 2. Plastic fibers for micro—arming

to develop microscopic cracks due to weight or temperature changes, these fibres “stitch” the crack together, preventing it from widening or spreading. Usually is added in very small amounts by volume (e.g., 0.1% to 1.0%).^[27-34]

While AGGREGATE REPLACEMENT focuses on the bulk volume of the mix, MICRO-ARMING is a surgical intervention aimed at improving the material's mechanical behavior through fibre reinforcement. MICRO-ARMING is the process of integrating discrete, high-aspect-ratio plastic fibres (shredded, extruded, or monofilament) into a construction matrix (concrete, geopolymer, or asphalt) to act as a secondary reinforcement system.^[19-26] These fibres are usually 6mm to 50mm in length and only a few microns in diameter. The used plastic Materials, typically, involves Polypropylene (PP), Polyester (PET), or Nylon (PA). Unlike heavy steel rebar (macro-reinforcement), which is placed in specific zones, micro-arming is distributed randomly and three-dimensionally throughout the entire mix and it works at the microscopic level to intercept cracks at their point of origin—hence the term “micro”.

Micro-arming solves the “Achilles' heel” of cementitious materials: Brittleness. While concrete is strong under compression, it snaps easily under tension. The most critical role of micro-arming is “crack bridging.” When concrete dries, it shrinks. Without reinforcement, this tension creates tiny cracks that eventually grow into structural failures.^[27-34] As a crack begins to open, the plastic fibres span the gap. The tension is transferred from the brittle cement to the ductile plastic fibre. Micro-arming prevents plastic shrinkage cracking during the first 24 hours of pouring, which is the leading cause of durability issues in slabs and pavements. In the same time, construction materials with micro-arming are significantly “tougher” and the fibres act as internal shock absorbers. When a heavy object hits the surface, the fibres dissipate the energy across the matrix rather than letting the force shatter the concrete. Also, one of the most unique “hidden” benefits of micro-arming is fire safety. Micro-fibres melt at relatively low temperatures (around 160°C), creating a network of microscopic “escape channels” for the steam to exit safely, this preserving the structural integrity and preventing catastrophic collapse. Finally, unlike traditional steel mesh or rebar, plastic micro-arming is chemically inert.^[27-34] In coastal or marine environments, steel reinforcement often rusts, causing the concrete to crack from the inside out. Plastic fibres never corrode, making them ideal for seawalls, docks, and bridges exposed to salt.

In advanced sustainable construction, engineers often use a hybrid mix. They use aggregate replacement to make the block lightweight and eco-friendly, and then add micro-arming to compensate for the strength loss caused by the plastic aggregates.^[27-34] Engineers use the synergistic integration approach to reach a “performance equilibrium” that traditional materials cannot achieve:

- plastic aggregate, as volumetric filler, obtaining lowers weight, increases insulation, sequesters high waste volumes.
- plastic micro-arming, as mechanical bridge, increasing toughness, controlling the shrinkage and prevents brittle failure
- combined effect, as synergistic matrix, obtaining a lightweight, ductile, and insulating material that is structurally viable

Synergistic integration recognizes that while plastic is a “weak” aggregate, its high tensile strength makes it a “strong” fibre. By using both, the material's total utility is greater than the sum of its parts.

3. COMMON TYPES OF PLASTIC WASTES

The integration of plastic waste into construction materials is a diverse field, employing various plastic types in different forms and applications to optimize material properties and environmental benefits. Not all plastics serve the same purpose. The construction industry categorizes plastic waste based on its mechanical properties:^[27-34]

- thermoplastics (PET, HDPE, LDPE, and PP) can be melted and reshaped and they are excellent for asphalt (where they blend with the bitumen) or for creating molded Eco-blocks.
- engineering plastics (ABS, Polycarbonate) are stiffer and tougher, and are the preferred choice for aggregate replacement in structural concrete because they can withstand higher loads.

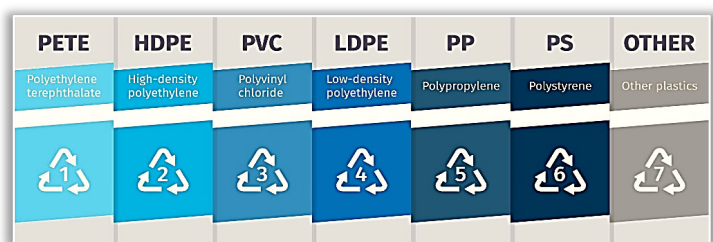


Figure 3. Common types of plastic

— fibrous waste (Nylon, Polyester), sourced from fishing nets and textiles, are used almost exclusively for micro–arming.

To understand how plastic waste functions in construction, we have to look at the specific polymers. ^[27-34] Not all plastics are created equal; their chemical structure determines whether they are best suited as a “filler” (aggregate) or a “reinforcer” (micro–arming). Research extensively explores a range of plastic polymers, each with unique characteristics influencing its suitability as an aggregate replacement or micro–arming: ^[27-34]

— POLYETHYLENE TEREPHTHALATE (PET): Commonly sourced from plastic bottles, PET is frequently used as a substitute for fine or coarse aggregates in concrete. PET is often crushed into sharp, angular flakes. Because it is relatively stiff, it is a popular replacement for fine aggregate (sand) in OPC and Geopolymer concrete, as aggregate. PET has high tensile strength, therefore it is frequently processed into monofilament fibres. These fibres are excellent, as Micro–arming, for controlling “drying shrinkage” in concrete slabs and improving the impact resistance of paving stones.

— HIGH–DENSITY POLYETHYLENE (HDPE): This robust plastic is employed for partial replacement of fine or coarse aggregates in concrete, rammed earth, and asphalt mixtures. As aggregate, HDPE is tough and resistant to chemicals and it is used as a coarse aggregate replacement in lightweight concrete. As Micro–arming, it doesn't bond as strongly to cement as PET, but it is highly effective in asphalt (bitumen).

— LOW–DENSITY POLYETHYLENE (LDPE): LDPE finds application as an aggregate replacement or, more effectively, as a bitumen modifier in asphalt mixes. LDPE is typically shredded into thin flakes or processed into small pellets to replace sand, as aggregate (volume replacement). It is ideal for non–load–bearing partitions or pre–cast barriers where the ability to absorb a shock (like a bump from a vehicle) is more important than carrying a heavy roof load. For use as Micro–arming, LDPE is occasionally extruded into very fine, flexible fibres. Its primary role is in shrinkage control. Because the fibres are so flexible, they can easily distribute themselves throughout the concrete matrix, acting as a microscopic web that holds the wet paste together as it dries. LDPE has the lowest bond strength of almost all construction plastics. Without chemical “roughening,” the fibres can slip out of the concrete under high tension.

— POLYPROPYLENE (PP): Used as a fine aggregate replacement or incorporated as fibres in concrete, PP can influence various mechanical properties. As aggregate is rarely used because it is very lightweight and can cause “buoyancy” issues, the plastic floating to the top of the wet concrete. In contrary, this is the gold standard for micro–arming. PP fibres are added to almost all types of high–performance concrete to provide “toughness”. Even in small doses (0.1% by volume), PP fibres prevent the concrete from shattering under high heat or explosive spalling during fires.

— POLYSTYRENE (PS): Granules of PS are utilized in the production of lightweight concrete. As aggregate, is specifically used in lightweight and insulating concrete. EPS beads are used to replace stone entirely to create “Ultra–Lightweight Concrete” (600–800 kg/m³). As Micro–arming it is not used, PS being too brittle to provide any reinforcing “bridging” effect.

— POLYVINYL CHLORIDE (PVC): As aggregate, the ground PVC is used as a replacement for sand in non–structural elements like floor screeds or decorative blocks. As micro–arming: PVC is generally too rigid and brittle for micro–arming. Additionally, engineers are cautious with PVC in “hot” processes (like asphalt) because it can release chlorine gas if overheated.

— ACRYLONITRILE BUTADIENE STYRENE (ABS): It is an engineering–grade plastic. It is significantly stiffer and stronger than other plastics, making it a “premium” waste material for concrete. This is one of the most sustainable ways to dispose of “high–impact” plastic waste from the tech industry that is otherwise difficult to recycle due to flame retardant additives. This plastic has been studied in asphalt applications, with particular attention to its impact on emissions during processing. Crushed ABS from electronic waste (e–waste) is used to replace coarse aggregate (gravel). The “butadiene” component in ABS acts like tiny rubber particles that stop cracks from growing. Shredded ABS waste can act also as a rigid reinforcement and micro–arming, they providing structural “stiffening” to the mix.

— POLYCARBONATE (PC): As aggregate, PC is extremely tough and has high impact resistance and when crushed, it creates very sharp, hard angular particles. It acts as a high–strength aggregate replacement. Because PC is much stiffer than LDPE or HDPE, it doesn't cause as much of a

“strength drop” in the concrete. It is excellent for heavy-duty industrial flooring where the concrete needs to withstand dropped tools or heavy machinery without cracking.

— NYLON (POLYAMIDE – PA): As Micro-arming, Nylon is one of the most effective materials for micro-reinforcement, having high tensile strength and a relatively high melting point. When added as fibres, it creates a very strong mechanical bond with the cement paste.

— POLYURETHANE (PU): As aggregate, the rigid PU foam is ground into “crumbs”. It is used exclusively for Ultra-Lightweight Concrete. Because PU is mostly air, it drastically reduces the weight of the concrete. Excellent for acoustic barriers along highways and thermal insulation blocks. It turns a “waste” foam that is usually unrecyclable into a permanent carbon-sequestering building block.

Beyond the common polymers we’ve discussed, several “specialty” and industrial plastics are being integrated into concrete. [27-34] These often come from complex waste streams like the automotive, textile, and medical industries. Waste Rubber Powder or Tire-Derived Aggregates, often derived from waste tires, these materials are incorporated into concrete and asphalt for specific property enhancements, such as improved ductility.

4. APPLICATIONS IN CONSTRUCTION MATERIALS

Plastic waste finds application across a spectrum of construction materials. We’ve moved far beyond the “experimental” phase and using plastic waste in construction is now a legitimate strategy for high-performance engineering and carbon reduction. [27-34] By repurposing polymers that would otherwise sit in a landfill for hundred years, the construction industry can actually improve the durability and insulation of modern structures.

Plastic waste—ranging from PET bottles to high-density polyethylene (HDPE)—is being integrated into the built environment in several innovative ways:

■ **CONCRETE:** Using plastic waste in concrete is a sophisticated way to balance environmental stewardship with material science. Depending on how the plastic is processed, it can serve as a structural filler (aggregate) or a functional reinforcement (micro-arming).

Recycled plastic can be processed into fine fibres (monofilament or fibrillated) and added to concrete mixes. This acts as a secondary reinforcement, reducing the propagation of micro-cracks caused by shrinkage. It can reduce the overall density of the concrete, which is useful for non-load-bearing elements like partition walls or sidewalks. Or, plastic waste (usually PET, HDPE, or PVC) is crushed or pelletized to replace traditional mineral aggregates like sand (fine aggregate) or gravel (coarse aggregate). Since the specific gravity of plastic is much lower than stone, the resulting concrete is significantly lighter. This is ideal for pre-cast panels and non-load-bearing structures. Integrating plastic waste into concrete is a game of balancing chemistry and physics. The impact of the plastic depends heavily on the binder (OPC vs. geopolymer) and the structure (dense vs. pervious).

— **ORDINARY PORTLAND CEMENT (OPC) CONCRETE:** This is the standard application where plastic replaces fine or coarse aggregates (natural sand or gravel), or acts as reinforcement.

Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) is the most widely used hydraulic binder in the construction industry, serving as the foundational ingredient for building structural concrete. When mixed with water, sand, and coarse aggregates, it initiates a chemical reaction called hydration that hardens the mixture into a durable, stone-like mass. Concrete made with OPC is the most common construction material, providing high compressive strength, fast setting times, and high durability for structural applications. [27-34] The most common type is composed of OPC (the binder), fine aggregates, coarse aggregates, and water.



Figure 4. Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) concrete and products

Shredded PET or HDPE is used as a partial volume replacement for fine or coarse aggregate. Using shredded PET (Polyethylene Terephthalate) or HDPE (High-Density Polyethylene) as a partial volume replacement for aggregates is a sustainable practice that manages plastic waste. Because of the strength reduction, this type of concrete is primarily recommended for non-structural elements (like masonry blocks), low-traffic pavement and pedestrian walkways or thermal insulation layers in building envelopes. [27-34]

Micro-arming (or micro-reinforcement) of Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) concrete refers to the addition of small, dispersed fibres—often synthetic like PET or HDPE—to the concrete mix to control micro-cracking and improve early-age durability. Unlike traditional steel rebar (macro-reinforcement), these fibres work at the microscopic level to bridge cracks before they become visible. As micro-arming, plastic fibres are added to improve ductility. Micro-fibres are primarily effective at limiting the growth of micro-cracks and reducing plastic shrinkage, which is critical during the first 24 hours of curing when the concrete is most vulnerable to moisture loss.

— **GEOPOLYMER CONCRETE (GPC):** As a sustainable alternative to OPC, GPC can also incorporate plastic waste, demonstrating unique performance characteristics.

GPC is a “cement-less” concrete made from industrial by-products like fly ash or slag activated by an alkaline solution. Geopolymer concrete is categorized primarily by the precursor materials used (the aluminosilicate source) and the alkali activators that trigger the chemical reaction. Unlike traditional concrete, it is an inorganic polymer, and its properties vary significantly based on these ingredients.



Figure 5. Geopolymer Concrete (GPC)

The “binder” in GPC comes from materials rich in silica and alumina. These are typically divided into three main industrial and natural types: fly ash-based (the most common type, utilizing fly ash), slag-based (uses ground granulated blast furnace slag) and metakaolin-based (derived from the calcination of kaolin clay). New research is integrating agricultural wastes rich in silica, such as rice husk ash and corn cob ash, as partial replacements for industrial precursors. These are often used as fine aggregates or supplementary binders. As aggregate, GPC is actually more compatible with plastic than OPC. The alkaline activator used in GPC (like sodium hydroxide) naturally “roughens” the surface of the plastic aggregate, creating a stronger mechanical bond. As micro-arming, is used to offset the inherent brittleness of geopolymers. The fibres provide a “bridging” mechanism, preventing sudden, catastrophic failure under load.

— **LIGHTWEIGHT CONCRETE:** The goal here is to reduce the “dead load” of a building. Plastic is a perfect candidate because its density is roughly $0.9\text{--}1.5\text{ g/cm}^3$, whereas stone is about 2.7 g/cm^3 . The inherently lower density of plastics makes them particularly suitable for producing lightweight concrete, which can reduce structural loads and transportation costs.

Lightweight concrete (LWC) is a versatile building material with a density under 2200 kg/m^3 (compared to 2400 kg/m^3 for normal concrete), achieved by using porous, low-density aggregates. [3,12-19,27-34] Lightweight concrete incorporating plastic waste replaces traditional aggregates (sand/gravel) with materials like PET, HDPE, or polypropylene, reducing density, decreasing dead load, and improving sustainability. These mixtures, often containing 10%-100% plastic aggregate. As aggregate, Expanded Polystyrene (EPS) beads or crushed plastic are used to replace heavy stone entirely, but commonly PET (bottles), HDPE, and PP granules are used. Studies indicate that replacing 25%-75% of aggregates with plastic waste can significantly lower density. As micro-arming, less common here, as the focus is on volume/weight, but fibres can be added to prevent the lightweight mix from crumbling or “segregating” during pouring.



Figure 6. Lightweight concrete

— **PERVIOUS CONCRETE:** Plastic waste has been explored in pervious concrete mixtures, influencing void ratio and permeability.

Pervious concrete is designed with highly interconnected voids to allow water to pass through, reducing storm–water runoff. As aggregate, large, uniform plastic pellets can replace coarse aggregate. Since pervious concrete naturally has lower strength, the “weakness” of plastic aggregate is less of a drawback. It can actually improve the clogging resistance because plastic is less likely to trap fine silt than porous stone. As micro–arming, is critical for pervious concrete. Because there is no sand to fill the gaps, the structure can be brittle. Plastic fibres act like “staples” between the large stones, holding the skeleton together without blocking the water channels.



Figure 7. Pervious concrete

Pervious concrete incorporating plastic waste—typically PET bottles or shredded plastic—acts as a sustainable, lightweight material that enhances stormwater management while reducing landfill waste. Incorporating plastic waste reduces the unit weight of concrete, making it a better, lighter alternative for structural loading in specific applications. Properly shredded plastic can improve the workability of the concrete mixture. [3,12-19] Replacing 5-15% of natural aggregates with plastic improves porosity (permeability) and workability, but often decreases compressive strength, making it ideal for non–structural applications like pavement blocks or walkways.

■ **DENSE ASPHALT MIXES:** One of the most successful applications is “plastic roads.” Shredded plastic waste is mixed with hot bitumen to create a more resilient road surface. Plastics are incorporated into road pavements, either replacing aggregates or modifying the bitumen binder. [3,12-19] The processing temperature (cold vs. hot mixes) significantly influences plastic integration and performance. It increases the melting point of the road, reducing “rutting” in high temperatures and improving water resistance. Typically, plastic can replace about 8% to 10% of the weight of stone aggregate, reducing the amount of mined material needed.



Figure 8. Dense asphalt mixes

In the world of road engineering, integrating plastic into Dense Asphalt Mixes (DAM)—also known as Hot Mix Asphalt (HMA)—is a proven method to enhance the “viscoelastic” properties of the pavement. In asphalt, the plastic behaves differently than it does in concrete because the binder (bitumen) is a flexible, petroleum–based material that shares a chemical affinity with many

plastics. Plastic as aggregate (known as “Dry Process”) use shredded plastic waste (2mm to 4mm) – Typically LDPE (milk bags, grocery bags) or HDPE (shampoo bottles) – is added directly to the hot stone aggregates before the bitumen is poured in, it partially melts and coats the surface of the hot aggregate. This creates a “plastic-coated aggregate” that bonds more aggressively with the bitumen.

Plastic as micro-arming (or Polymer Modification) is often achieved through the “Wet Process”, where plastic – PET (water bottles) or PP (plastic caps/sacks) – are often processed into fine fibres or powders for this purpose, is blended with the liquid bitumen at high temperatures to create Polymer Modified Bitumen (PMB). It functions as a form of molecular-level reinforcement. The polymer network will extend the life of the road by preventing cracks caused by repetitive traffic loads.

■ **ECO-BRICKS and PLASTIC BLOCKS:** Plastic waste is either compressed into “eco-bricks” (dry-filled bottles) or melted and molded with sand to create interlocking structural blocks. These blocks are often lighter than traditional clay bricks and offer superior thermal insulation. While a valid concern, these are often treated with flame retardants or encased in non-combustible mortar to meet safety codes.

ECO-BRICKS and PLASTIC BLOCKS represent two different philosophies of waste management: ECO-BRICKS focus on low-tech, community-driven sequestration, while PLASTIC BLOCKS are engineered industrial products. In both cases, the plastic functions differently than it does in concrete or asphalt, primarily acting as a core filler or a molten binder. [3,12-19]

An ECO-BRICK – obtained by the “Dry Process” – is a PET bottle packed solid with clean, dry, non-biodegradable plastic waste. In this application, the plastic waste is strictly a volume filler. Soft plastics (wrappers, films, straws) are compressed into the bottle until it reaches a specific density (usually around 0.33 g/ml). These bottles are not “bricks” in the traditional sense of being laid with thin mortar. They are often stacked and encased in a thick matrix of cob (clay, sand, and straw) or cement mortar. The plastic provides no structural strength, but provides bulk and insulation. The surrounding mortar carries the structural load.



Figure 9. Eco—bricks

PLASTIC BLOCKS - obtained by the “Thermal” Process – are manufactured by melting plastic waste (often mixed with sand or other additives) and pressing it into molds. In many commercial plastic blocks, shredded plastic is mixed with sand. Here, the sand acts as the aggregate, and the plastic acts as the binder. Instead of cement holding sand together, the melted plastic (typically HDPE or PP) coats the sand grains. When high-



Figure 10. Plastic blocks

performance plastics (like PET or Nylon) are shredded and mixed into the molten “slurry” of a block, they act as micro-arming (structural reinforcement). Because plastic is naturally more flexible than stone, these internal “fibres” or shreds prevent the block from being brittle.

■ **THERMAL AND ACOUSTIC INSULATION:** Polystyrene (EPS) and other plastic foams are staples in the insulation industry. These materials have extremely low thermal conductivity, helping buildings maintain temperature. Using 100% recycled expanded polystyrene helps close the loop on packaging waste.

Plastics are highly effective for both thermal and acoustic insulation because they are poor conductors of heat and can be manufactured into porous structures that trap sound. Most commercial building insulation today relies on polymer-based materials like Polyurethane (PU) and Polystyrene (PS) due to their high performance and relatively low cost. In the context of insulation, plastic waste is rarely used in its “raw” form. Instead, it is transformed into cellular or

fibrous structures. In these applications, the plastic functions as a massive aggregate of air pockets or as a micro-armed fibrous mat. In this sense, Expanded Polystyrene (EPS) and Polyurethane (PU) waste are often ground into “re-granulated” crumbs, used as a lightweight aggregate in “insulating concrete” or loose-fill attic insulation. For sound control, plastics are typically used as “sound absorbers” in the form of open-cell foams or flexible sheets. [3,12-19,27-34]

Acoustic insulation requires materials that can either block sound (mass) or absorb sound (porosity), plastic waste being primarily used for the latter. Recycled PET (from water bottles) is shredded and melted into fine, hair-like fibres, then needle-punched into thick blankets or fibrous batts, used as micro-arming, the fibres providing the structural “skeleton” of the insulation panel. The primary drawback of using plastic waste for insulation is its flammability. Unlike stone wool, plastic is a fuel source. In modern construction, these materials are never used “raw.” They are treated with fire retardants or encased behind fire-rated gypsum board. Most commercial building insulation today relies on polymer-based materials like Polyurethane (PU) and Polystyrene (PS) due to their high performance and relatively low cost.

■ **OTHER APPLICATIONS:** Beyond the major structural categories, plastic waste has found a significant niche in “secondary” construction elements—specifically paving stones and tactile surfaces. In these applications, the plastic is rarely just an additive; it often becomes the primary matrix that holds the product together. **PAVING STONES** are noted for their low weight, weather resistance, and durability, making them suitable for footpaths and housing projects. [3,12-19]



Figure 11. Plastic—sand composite pavings

In traditional pavers – **PLASTIC-SAND COMPOSITE PAVINGS** –, cement is the binder. In these eco-pavings, the molten plastic replaces cement entirely. The plastic acts as a high-viscosity “glue” that coats every grain of sand. When it cools and solidifies, it creates a stone-hard block.



Figure 12. Tactile pavers

These stones are manufactured by mixing melted plastic (usually LDPE or HDPE, acting as a binder / matrix) with sand and occasionally stone dust. Unlike concrete pavers, these do not absorb water that makes them highly resistant to freeze-thaw cycles. Small amounts of shredded Nylon or PET fibres are often added to the mix before molding. These fibres act as micro-arming that prevents the edges of the paving stones from chipping or “spalling” when heavy vehicles drive over them or if they are dropped during installation.

Many modern **TACTILE PAVERS** are made from recycled PVC or Polypropylene. [3,12-19] As aggregate, the finely ground rubber or plastic “crumb” is used to provide a slip-resistant texture to the surface. As micro-arming, because these tiles are thin and must withstand high “point loads” (like the heel of a shoe or a wheelchair wheel), they are heavily micro-armed with synthetic fibres to prevent the raised bumps from shearing off.

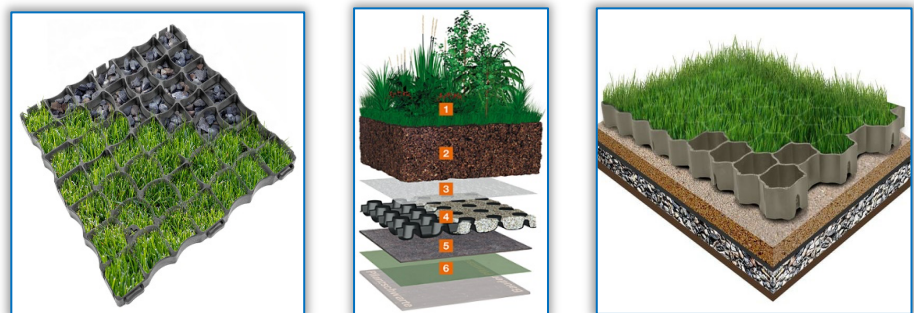


Figure 13. Permeable grass pavers (Grass Grids)

As micro-arming, because these tiles are thin and must withstand high “point loads” (like the heel of a shoe or a wheelchair wheel), they are heavily micro-armed with synthetic fibres to prevent the raised bumps from shearing off.

PERMEABLE GRASS PAVERS (Grass Grids) are “honeycomb” structures used for parking lots or driveways that allow grass to grow through them while supporting the weight of cars. These are almost exclusively made from 100% recycled HDPE. [3,12-19] As aggregate, while the grid itself is plastic, the cells are filled with soil or gravel (the aggregate). As micro-arming, the plastic grid

itself acts as a macro–reinforcement for the ground, preventing soil compaction and allowing for natural drainage. Permeable grass gravel pavers are designed for vehicular load and traffic, as well as pedestrian and bike applications and many other heavy traffic areas. [3,12-19,27-34] It provides an eco-friendly and superior alternative to traditional permeable concrete grid paving.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The integration of plastic waste as both aggregate and micro–arming represents a viable frontier in sustainable engineering. The sequestration of plastic in construction materials offers a long–term solution for “locking away” non–recyclable polymers. While aggregate replacement prioritizes volume reduction and insulation, micro–arming focuses on structural toughness and longevity. While promising, it's not as simple as throwing trash into a cement mixer. Engineers have to account for the bond strength between the plastic and the cement paste. In technical terms, if the plastic surface is too smooth, it creates a “weak zone” in the matrix. Future advancements in chemical surface treatments and automated sorting of e–waste plastics will be essential to scaling these materials for load–bearing structural applications.

While the potential for plastic–infused construction is massive, engineers face three “critical hurdles” that prevent it from being a universal replacement for stone. These challenges reside at the intersection of chemistry, physics, and safety. While aggregate replacement is important, it usually results in a reduction in compressive strength because the bond between the “waxy” plastic surface and the cement paste is weaker than the bond with stone. Therefore, it is currently most “important” for non–structural applications like sidewalks, partition walls, and secondary road layers. In fact, by addressing these technical challenges, we move from simply “disposing of waste” to engineering high–performance materials that utilize the unique properties of polymers without compromising safety.

The importance of micro–arming lies in its ability to close the loop. We take a “problem” (plastic waste that won't degrade) and turn it into a “solution” for a material that degrades too easily (brittle concrete). By adding just 0.1% to 1.0% by volume of recycled fibres, we can extend the service life of a structure by decades.

The extensive variety of plastic types, forms, and applications observed in research reveals that a universal “one–size–fits–all” solution for aggregate replacement is unlikely to be optimal. Each plastic polymer possesses distinct properties, such as specific gravity, melting point, and surface chemistry that interact uniquely with different binders and matrices. For example, while LDPE can effectively modify bitumen, PET flakes have shown challenges with adhesion in cold asphalt mixes. This variation in performance underscores that optimal replacement strategies are highly dependent on the specific material and its intended application. Consequently, future research and industrial implementation must focus on developing tailored solutions, acknowledging that the ideal plastic type, form, and incorporation method will differ significantly based on the target construction material and the desired performance characteristics. This necessitates a detailed understanding of the fundamental interactions between specific plastics and various matrix compositions.

The integration of plastic into construction addresses three global pillars:

- resource scarcity: it reduces the demand for “virgin” sand and stone, which are being mined at unsustainable rates.
- carbon sequestration: it “locks” plastic away for 50–100 years (the typical lifespan of a building), preventing it from breaking down into micro–plastics in the ocean.
- performance engineering: it creates new materials that are lighter, better insulated, and more resistant to earthquakes and fire than traditional concrete.

By moving away from the idea of plastic as “waste” and toward the idea of plastic as a “polymer additive”, the construction industry can achieve a circular economy while building more resilient infrastructure.

Plastic waste is increasingly repurposed in construction to enhance sustainability, acting as durable, lightweight, and cost-effective alternatives to traditional materials. Key applications include replacing aggregates in concrete and asphalt, producing plastic bricks, manufacturing structural panels, and creating insulation materials. Common plastics like PET, PVC, and PP improve thermal insulation and reduce structural weight. Key applications in construction materials are:

- concrete: plastic waste (PET, HDPE) is used as aggregate replacements or fibre reinforcement to improve crack resistance, ductility, and structural performance.

- plastic bricks & blocks: melted plastic waste mixed with sand or filler creates durable, lightweight bricks that offer high compressive strength and better thermal insulation than concrete bricks.
- road construction (asphalt): waste plastics are used as a modifier in asphalt mixtures (up to 5–12% optimal), enhancing stability, strength, and durability while reducing brittleness.
- insulation: plastic waste is increasingly transformed into high-performance insulation and roofing materials, offering a sustainable alternative to traditional products while providing superior energy efficiency and durability.

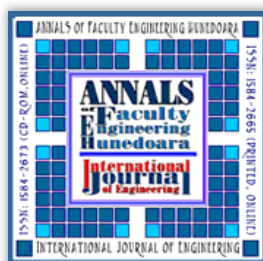
Ensuring fire resistance, long-term durability, and proper bonding with conventional materials remains critical. Addressing fire resistance, long-term durability, and bonding is critical because these factors directly determine if a recycled plastic material is safe for human habitation and structurally viable over decades. Because recycled plastic often comes from mixed sources, ensuring consistent density and strength throughout the material is a challenge compared to uniform materials

To improve bonding in concrete, plastic waste is often shredded into specific sizes or shapes to create physical grip within the mix. In asphalt or composite blocks, melted plastic acts as a binder itself. Maintaining precise ratios (often under 10–15%) is vital; exceeding these limits can create voids that weaken the final structure. The emerging opportunities in this field represent a shift from using plastic as a mere filler to treating it as engineering component. We are moving toward a future where “plastic-infused” isn't a compromise, but a specification for superior performance.

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