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1 Mechanical performance of fibers in hot mix asphalt: a review.

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10 Abstract

11 The use of fibers in hot mix asphalt (HMA) has become a much more attractive alternative for
12 the construction of road pavements. Numerous studies have shown that the incorporation of
13 fibers in the mixture improves fatigue resistance, permanent deformation and stiffness. The aim
14 of this paper is to present a review of the mechanical impact of fibers in HMA by analyzing their
15 reinforcement effect in a qualitative and quantitative manner. Fiber properties and
16 characterization tests on fiber-modified bitumen are discussed. Quantities, blending procedures
17 and performance of bituminous mixtures with different types of fibers are presented. Results of
18 mechanical improvement are displayed. Based on the current research results, depending on
19 the properties and the type of mixture in which they are used, each type of fiber seems to
20 improve certain parameters more than others. Coconut fibers and waste fibers are described as
21 environmentally friendly alternatives.

22 **Keywords:** Fiber, hot mix asphalt, asphalt binder, mechanical properties.

23 Highlights:

- 24 • Mechanical characterization of fibers is described
- 25 • Papers about fiber-reinforced HMA were reviewed.
- 26 • Fibers improve the viscoelastic behaviour of asphalt binders.
- 27 • Fibers improve the mechanical performance of hot mix asphalts.
- 28 • Fibers reinforce HMA through a three-dimensional network and by increasing the
29 adhesion in the mix.

30 1. Introduction

31 Scientists and engineers are permanently trying to improve properties of asphalt mixtures, such
32 as their stability and durability, by incorporating new additives either in the bitumen or in the

33 asphalt mixture [1–3]. Adding fibers to the binder or the bituminous mixtures ensures their
34 stability and mechanical strength [4]. An appropriate quantity of fibers changes the properties
35 of the asphalt, reducing the penetration and increasing the softening point. It changes the
36 viscoelasticity of the bitumen as well [5]. Moreover, it has been shown that adding fibers to
37 asphalt concrete increases its dynamic modulus, reinforces the mastic and reduces its thermal
38 susceptibility, also enhancing its material strength, fatigue behavior and ductility [6,7].
39 Furthermore, it has been observed that fibers reduce the binder drainage and enhance moisture
40 sensitivity and compressive strength in SMA mixtures [8–10]. Additionally, in porous asphalt
41 mixtures some investigations have shown that fibers reduce drain down problems [11,12].

42 Due to the extensive use of asphalt concrete for the construction of flexible pavements and its
43 bearing comfort, this material has become essential for road engineers [13,14]. In addition to
44 the high growth of construction and traffic flows, the consumption of bituminous material has
45 become inevitable. Regarding this, there is a wide range of requirements in the components of
46 mixtures necessary to obtain an asphalt mixture of high durability and performance.

47 Different types of fibers have been used in asphalt binders and HMA as an alternative to solve
48 mainly mechanical performance problems. Investigations on the use of these fibers in asphalt
49 concrete date back to 1950; nonetheless, they have already been evaluated as part of Portland
50 cement concrete [13]. Fibers have provided this material with higher modulus, resistance,
51 durability and deformation capacity, and hence with more ductile behavior [14]. In addition,
52 fibers have been used as reinforcement of polymer matrices to be used in other industries
53 [15,16]. These fibers endow the composites with stiffness and strength, thus enabling the matrix
54 to better transmit the loads between fibers. Likewise, the inclusion of fibers in asphalt improves
55 the mix properties and contributes to sustainability by extending its service life and reducing
56 road maintenance.

57 There is a large number of fiber-modified asphalt binders and fiber-modified asphalt mixtures in
58 which fibers have been used to deal with the main flexible pavement problems, such as rutting,
59 fatigue cracking, thermal cracking and raveling [17]. Asbestos, lignite, polyester,
60 polyacrylonitrile, carbon and brucite fibers improve the viscoelastic properties in asphalt binders
61 [4,18–20]; meanwhile, the use of cellulose and hybrid fibers in asphalt concrete and porous
62 asphalt mixtures leads to an increase in the tensile strength and resistance to rutting.
63 Furthermore, a reduction of binder drain down is exhibited [21–23]. The use of glass, aramid,
64 steel and waste fibers in asphalt concrete (AC) and stone matrix asphalt (SMA) was also
65 investigated [24–27]. Values of resilient modulus and rutting resistance are higher in glass fiber
66 reinforced SMA mixtures [28] while using carbon fibers leads to an increase in the Marshall
67 stability in asphalt concretes [13]. Besides, blending procedure has an incidence in the
68 performance of the mixtures [20].

69 The objective of this review is to discuss the role of fibers in bituminous binders and asphalt
70 mixtures; consequently, physical and microstructural characterization of fibers is presented. The
71 use of different types of fibers in the bitumen is examined based on the results of the more usual
72 characterization tests for this type of modified binders, as well as the behavior of the fibers at
73 high, medium and low temperatures. The drain down test is considered. As for the use of fibers
74 in asphalt mixtures, mixing procedures are considered and further evaluated. Finally, the effect
75 of various types of fibers on the mechanical performance of asphalt mixtures is discussed. The
76 use of waste fibers yielded very satisfactory results, so it can provide an environmentally
77 alternative.

78 2. Mechanical characterization of fibers

79 Fibers are a natural or synthetic material that is used in the manufacture of materials such as
80 textiles or paper, and impregnated in materials such as cement and asphalt mixtures. Fibers in
81 HMA act as a reinforcement. Fibrous reinforcement plays a role in ensuring strength, thermal
82 stability, electrical conductivity and frictional properties of composites [29].

83 Fibers are usually classified according to their origin as organic or mineral fibers. Among organic
84 fibers are those of cellulose and lignite, used in the manufacture of paper and textiles.
85 Absorption and drainage are among their general properties [30,31]. On the other hand, mineral
86 fibers include asbestos that refers to a group of silicate minerals. Asbestos fibers are soft and
87 flexible yet resistant to heat, electricity and chemical corrosion. They can also be mixed with
88 cement, paper, textiles and other materials to make them stronger [29]. Moreover, there are
89 semi-metallic fibers, also known as resin-bonded fibers, which contain 50% metal powder.
90 Additionally, man-made fibers, non-asbestos fibers and semi synthetic fibers have been
91 developed since 1983, which are made from raw materials and modified by chemical processes
92 (e.g., Rayon, regenerated from natural cellulose) [32]. As for synthetic fibers, they come from
93 petrochemicals like polymers. The most common synthetic fibers are: nylon (polyamide),
94 polyester, polyurethane and aromatic polyamides (aramids) [33]. Finally, certain fibers are made
95 from specific materials: fiberglass (from glass), carbon fiber (from carbon) and metal fibers (from
96 nickel, aluminum, iron or copper). **Table 1** presents a brief description of the different types of
97 fibers used in HMA referring to the raw material in the manufacturing process.

98 Engineers are constantly combatting major problems in roads, including permanent
99 deformation, fatigue cracking and raveling. For this, the most frequently added materials are
100 polymers, anti-stripping agents, crumb rubber, sulfur, asbestos, roofing shingles, slag and fly
101 ash, among others [34]. Inclusion of fibers in the asphalt mixtures is gathering strength as they
102 act as a reinforcement, adding ductility and tensile strength to the material due to the enhanced
103 interlocking of aggregates. The interconnection between aggregates and fibers enables the
104 material to withstand additional strain energy before cracking occurs; thereby, it is of great
105 significance for extending the useful life of safer roads [28,35].

106

107 **Table 1 Description of raw material in the manufacturing process of fibers used in HMA**

Fiber type	Remarks
Mineral	Asbestos, basalt and brucite are considered the most popular group of mineral fibers. They come from deep in the Earth's crust and can be found in cracks in solid rock. The most commonly used raw materials are silicates [36], which can be manufactured by electro thermal methods [37,38].
Polyester	Polyester fibers, manufactured from the polymerization of ethylene, are one of the most widely used synthetic fibers in the textile sector [39]. Polyester is a thermoplastic polymer which can be remelted and remolded. Therefore, it is considered an easily recyclable material. Its structure is a combination of crystalline and noncrystalline regions [40].
Polyacrylonitrile (PAN)	Polyacrylonitrile fibers or PAN fibers as they are commonly known, are the result of the acrylonitrile polymerization process in the presence of a catalyst peroxide [41,42]. Its use is linked to composite structures for military and commercial aircraft [43].
Carbon	PAN fibers are considered the first precursor of the carbon fibers [44]. Carbon fibers exhibit higher specific strength, fatigue resistance and stiffness than any other type of reinforcement fibers. However, they have other interesting properties such as good electrical and thermal conductivity [45–47].
Glass	Glass fiber, also called fiberglass, is considered a mineral fiber as its manufacturing process involves limestone, kaolin clay, fluorspar, dolomite and other minerals [48].
Steel	Steel fibers are short discontinuous strips of manufactured steel. Their manufacturing process includes different types of arrangements including the use of materials such as carbon and phosphorous [49].
Aramid	Aramid fibers are considered man made high performance fibers. Aramid fiber's first commercial applications appeared in the early 1960s and its main application is reinforcement of composites. Continuous fiber reinforcement polymers (CFRP) or aramid fiber reinforcement polymers (ARFP) are used in sports goods, aircraft, ballistic protection or structural applications, among others [50,51].
Coconut	This 100% natural product is obtained from the outer shell of the coconut fruit. Their walls are composed by lignin, a complex woody chemical [52].

108

109 **2.1 Characterization tests**

110 **2.1.1 Physical tests**

111 Good results have been obtained from the incorporation of fibers in asphalt mixtures;
 112 nonetheless, it is important to understand the fibers reinforcing mechanism. Proper
 113 interpretation of the physical properties of fibers and their microstructure makes it easier to
 114 select the most convenient type of fiber for the design of asphalt mixtures.

115 The most interesting physical properties for further evaluation are tensile strength, modulus of
116 elasticity, specific gravity and Mohs hardness, as shown in **Table 2**. These characteristics are
117 commonly provided by manufacturers. However, as fibers can decompose while manufacturing
118 the reinforced HMA, making their properties worse, there are two other important
119 characteristics to consider: water susceptibility and degradation by warming. There is no
120 regulation for tests applied to fibers; however, some authors have proposed their own
121 methodologies. Chen and Xu [2] proposed a test to measure the water absorption in fibers,
122 which consists of weighing a 10-gram mass of fiber and placing it in a curing chamber at 20°C
123 and 90% RH. Then, the weight of the fibers is measured every five hours for three days, and a
124 visual inspection is made of both shape and color. As for the second property, an evaluation of
125 the thermostability of fibers in the mixture should be carried out, as the high temperatures of
126 the blending process of asphalt concretes and porous asphalts (above 150 °C) can harm the fiber
127 during the mixing process. The test proposed by Chen and Xu [2] consists of placing three 100
128 g samples of the same fiber in an oven at a temperature that is similar to the one used during
129 the road construction for five hours. Color, volume and shape must be observed and recorded.

130 **Table 2 Physical properties of fibers that are commonly used as reinforcements in HMA. Adapted from [28]**

Fiber	Tensile Strength (Gpa)	Modulus of Elasticity (Gpa)	Mohs Hardness	Specific Gravity (g/cm ³)
Asbestos	2.1	11.70	2.50 - 4.00	2.4 - 2.6
Aramid	2.75	62.00	N/A ^a	1.44
Acrylic	0.88	17.70	N/A ^a	1.18
Carbon	1.33	30.00	6.00	2.60
Glass	3.40	72.00	6.50	2.50
Steel	0.95	11.00	5.00	7.50
Mineral	1.50	70.00	6.00	2.70
Ceramic	1.10	152.00	6.00	1.70

a. Not Available

131 With respect to their mechanical properties, aramid, carbon, asbestos and glass fibers report
132 higher tensile strength than acrylic, mineral and ceramic fibers. It is important to point out that
133 high values of tensile strength suggest high values of modulus of elasticity; therefore, those
134 fibers seem to provide the mixture with elastic performance.

135 According to Chen and Xu [2], lignin and asbestos fibers have a water absorption of 28.14% and
136 23.12%, respectively, which are higher values than those of polyacrylonitrile and polyester
137 fibers: 10.97% and 9.94%, respectively. Lignin fibers changed their color from light gray to dark
138 green while asbestos fibers changed from gray to light yellow. Polyester and polyacrylonitrile do
139 not change their color or volume, which suggests that they have a low susceptibility to water.
140 Finally, Xiong et al. [4] reported that lignin and polyester fibers are more sensitive to humid
141 environments than mineral fibers (basalt and brucite).

142 Regarding their thermostability, polyester fibers do not present changes in volume and shape.
143 On the other hand, lignin fibers, made from wood and plants, have low thermostability as their
144 volume decreases with heat. Mineral fibers like basalt and brucite present better thermostability
145 than polyester [4], as shown in **Table 3**. Furthermore, other tests like differential scanning

146 calorimetry (DSC) can be carried out to study the effect of heat. Park et al. [53] suggest that the
147 fiber drying process leads to changes in the pore size distribution, thus restricting the swelling
148 of the fibers.

149 **Table 3. Water absorption and thermostability of fibers. Adapted from [4,54]**

Fiber type	Average water absorption (%)	Mass loss (%)
Brucite	1.07%	0.72%
Lignin	15.49%	1.84%
Basalt	1.17%	0.56%
Polyester	2.43%	0.95%
Polyacrylonitrile	10.97%	N/A ^a
Asbestos	23.12%	N/A ^a

a. Not Available

150

151 2.2.2 Microstructure test

152 The microstructure of the fibers has been deeply evaluated as it helps to establish their
153 structure, pore content, weaved branches and estimate the specific surface area [55]. The
154 microstructure can be studied through a scanning electron microscope (SEM), which produces
155 images of a sample by scanning its surface with a focused beam of electrons [56]. SEM analysis
156 is a good procedure to measure the specific surface area, which is a property that enables the
157 relation of the absorption and adhesion of the fibers to the asphalt [57]. Asbestos fibers present
158 little branches, meaning lower specific area compared to lignin fibers, which have rough surface
159 texture and a greater specific surface area. This implies that these fibers absorb more binder
160 and therefore, prevent drain down. Polyester fibers have antenna characteristics at their ends,
161 which provides the bitumen greater stiffness. Pores on the cellulose fibers have a relatively flat
162 cross section in their filaments, thus resulting in an increase of the fiber surface area. Mineral
163 fibers present a more rigid structure as compared to the more flexible carbon fibers [57]. In
164 general, ceramic fibers present a smooth surface, so not requiring additional asphalt binder
165 when they are added to the asphalt mixture [58]. Because of the shape, several fibers can
166 interlock together and form a network with the asphalt, which results in stronger connections
167 and lower risk of crack propagation. The fact that the images do not have coalescence should be
168 taken into account as it means that the fibers can be distributed in asphalt binder homogenously
169 [58]. Finally, Gao and Wu [59] stated that the lipophilicity of basalt fibers as well as their coating
170 ability (by bitumen) are very strong. In fact, the propagation of microcracks in asphalt can be
171 delayed due to basalt fibers crossing through the micropores, thus fixing the internal defects of
172 the material.

173 3 Characterization of fibers in bitumen

174 Several investigations have proved that fibers can be used to prevent asphalt binder drain down
175 during mixing, transportation and compaction processes of asphalt mixes, particularly in asphalt

176 concretes (AC), stone matrix asphalts (SMA), and porous asphalts (PA) [11,57]. It has been shown
177 that fibers can reinforce the asphalt mastic through the generation of a three-dimensional
178 network, thus improving the mix adhesion [60,61]. Fibers provide the bitumen with viscoelastic
179 behavior, which results in good performance of the pavement structure. Viscous components
180 prevent cracking at low temperatures while elasticity prevents rutting at high temperatures [62].

181 3.1 General characterization tests

182 To assess the bitumen properties, the most common tests are penetration, softening point and
183 viscosity tests. Alrajhi [62] manufactured asphalt mixes with different dosages of polypropylene
184 and aramid fibers. Binder test results indicated that the highest viscosity with the least
185 temperature susceptibility to both permanent deformation and thermal cracking was provided
186 by the blend with three parts polypropylene and one of aramid. Aramid increased the viscosity
187 of the bitumen to a certain point, but beyond that point, it began to decrease, as the fiber did
188 not melt in the binder and started to accumulate. Mohammed et al. [5] studied the effect of
189 glass and cellulose fibers in the bitumen for concentrations by volume of 0.5%; 1.0% and 2.0%.
190 It was found that the penetration value decreases with the addition of glass and cellulose fibers.
191 Moreover, the use of these fibers was reported to increase the softening point and the viscosity
192 of bitumen. Glass fibers form a continuous network in the bitumen and reinforce it, while
193 bitumen with cellulose fibers exhibits a more limited increase in viscosity, which could be due
194 to the greater dispersion of those fibers.

195 It is important to take into account that an excess of fibers can cause the mastic to become
196 fragile. The workability of the bitumen should also be considered. Thus, using a bitumen with a
197 high content of fibers can lead to difficulties in the blending process of the asphalt mixture. Wu
198 et al. [61] incorporated three different types of fibers into bitumen in order to measure its
199 viscosity. They found that concentrations of 0.3 % lignin fibers and 4% carbon fibers by weight
200 of bitumen provides the binder with the optimum reinforcement, whereas mixing more fibers
201 could be uneconomic or make the bitumen more brittle, which ultimately would result in
202 pavement deterioration. The length of the fibers also affects the viscosity of the binder. Fu et al.
203 [63] determined that short fibers increased the viscosity to a lesser extent than long fibers. On
204 the other hand, even though the expected viscosity is easier to achieve with long fibers, they
205 may cause blending problems. Finally, it should be mentioned that increasing the viscosity of
206 the bitumen can improve its performance at high temperature, thus reducing the risk of rutting
207 of the road pavement [61,64].

208 3.2 Characterization of fibers in bitumen at intermediate and high temperature

209 The foremost tests to characterize shear resistance and viscoelastic behavior of bituminous
210 materials modified with fibers are the cone penetration test and the dynamic shear rheometer
211 (DSR) test (ASTM D7175-15) [65]. The sink cone penetration test developed by Xu et al. [54] and
212 applied to other projects [18,66] consists of pushing a cone into the fiber-reinforced asphalt mix
213 until a stable situation is reached. Then, the sink depth is measured and recorded. Based on the
214 strength of the balance theory [2], the shear stress of the bitumen can be determined. Mineral
215 fibers are reported to have a great effect in increasing the shear stress as compared to lignin
216 fibers [61]. The reason for this may be that long mineral fibers increase the viscosity of asphalt
217 more significantly than the short lignin fibers [63]. Fibers can absorb the light components of
218 bitumen such as aromatics and resins, which actually increases the viscosity and reduces the

219 cone sink depth. Similarly, it can be said that fibers with higher tensile strength, such as polyester
 220 and polyacrylonitrile fibers, can lead to higher viscosities and shear resistances with respect to
 221 binders with lignin and asbestos fibers [2]. The microstructure of the fibers also affects their
 222 viscosity and resistance parameters. Several types of fibers such as glass, polyester and
 223 polyacrylonitrile have a rather rigid antenna tip, which enables the generation of a bond
 224 between the asphalt and the fiber and prevents the propagation of cracks [5]. Other authors
 225 [61] have applied this test in asphalt mortars with fibers; **Table 4** shows the results of cone sink
 226 depth and shear stress for different types of fibers.

227 **Table 4. Results of shear stress from the sink cone test for different types of fibers.**

Citation	Fiber type	Fiber fraction (%)	Cone Sink Depth (mm)	Shear stress (Mpa)
[61]	Carbon	4.00%	29.00	50.00 ^b
	Mineral	0.30%	24.00	73.00 ^b
	Lignin	0.40%	28.00	54.00 ^b
[4]	Non-fiber	-	16.00	8.23
	Brucite	0.45% ^a	9.62	22.93
	Lignin	0.30% ^a	11.80	15.20
	Basalt	0.30% ^a	9.24	24.85
	Polyester	0.30% ^a	7.30	39.88
[57]	Non-fiber	0%	2.83	141.00 ^b
	Carbon	1.00%	2.61	166.00 ^b
	mineral	1.00%	1.70	393.00 ^b
	cellulose	1.00%	2.67	159.00 ^b
[2]	Non-fiber	0.00%	27.60	7.28
	Polyester I	0.30% ^a	6.25	141.87
	Polyester II	0.30% ^a	5.10	213.07
	Polyacrylonitrile	0.30% ^a	5.12	211.41
	Lignin	0.30% ^a	9.44	62.19
	Asbestos	0.30% ^a	16.06	21.49

a. by weight of mixture

b. shear stress determined in fiber modified asphalt mortar.

228

229 Rheological properties can be improved with the addition of fibers either in the mastic or in the
 230 binder [67]. Mohammed et al. [5] found a marked influence of fibers on the complex modulus
 231 (G^*) of binders with 1% and 2% fibers at low frequencies and high temperatures (50°C –70°C).
 232 Thus, adding 1% cellulose and glass fiber resulted in a complex modulus seven and four times
 233 higher than for a bitumen alone. This increase might be caused by the three-dimensional small
 234 fiber network generated in the bitumen. Although fiberglass has a higher modulus of elasticity
 235 and higher tensile strength, better results of complex modulus were obtained with the cellulose

236 fibers. This is because the glass fibers are oriented in only one direction whereas the cellulose
237 fibers, according to their microstructure, present random directions, which can make the bond
238 between the binder and the fibers stronger. Xiong et al. [4] pointed out that the addition of
239 fibers in the asphalt mastic increased the complex modulus, especially at high temperatures.
240 Therefore, better rutting resistance would be obtained by using brucite fibers, as these can
241 prevent the high temperature creep of pavements under traffic loads. Khattak et al. [20] studied
242 the effect of carbon nano fibers in asphalt binder and concluded that the mixing process had an
243 impact on the viscoelastic properties of the asphalt binder. Likewise, the addition of fibers has
244 been shown to decrease the value of the phase angle in such a way that the behavior of the
245 asphalt becomes more elastic. This is particularly good at high temperatures and low
246 frequencies because it improves the resistance to permanent deformation in the bitumen
247 [27,68]. The rutting parameter $G^*/\sin(\delta)$ is an indicator of the resistance to permanent
248 deformation of the binder in the mixture. **Table 5** shows the effect of two types of glass fibers
249 and one cellulose fiber added to the binder [5]. It should be noted that the addition of fibers
250 increases the rutting at intermediate temperatures, which indicates that a proper dispersion of
251 fibers in the bitumen reduces the plastic deformation.

252 **Table 5. Rutting parameter $G^*/\sin(\delta)$ at different temperatures. Adapted from [5]**

Fiber type	Temperature (°C)				
	50	55	60	65	70
Base binder	8.80	4.10	2.20	1.60	0.90
0.5% vol Glass l	10.50	5.00	2.50	1.70	0.90
0.5% vol Glass s	11.90	5.80	2.70	1.80	1.00
0.5% vol cellulose	11.90	6.10	3.00	1.90	1.00

253

254 3.3 Characterization of fibers in bitumen at low temperature.

255 As is very well known, bitumen becomes more brittle at low temperatures. The use of fibers has
256 proven to be an option to provide the asphalt binder with greater ductility and guarantee more
257 viscoelastic behavior, thus improving toughness, fracture and post cracking energy [19,69,70].
258 The Bending Beam Rheometer (BBR) test is commonly used to evaluate bitumen performance
259 at low temperatures. However, to assess the fiber-binder interaction pull-out and direct tensile
260 tests are used. It is also known that the role played by fibers in composites and fragile materials
261 is to provide them with ductility; where cracks occur, fibers serve as a bridge to delay the crack
262 growth. Qian et al. [19] performed pull-out tests on polyester and aramid fibers of the same
263 length embedded in conventional and modified asphalt binders. The aramid fibers showed
264 values of pull-out resistance of up to 3700 MPa, five times higher than those of polyester fibers
265 (**Table 6**). Similarly, the tensile strength and modulus of elasticity of aramid fibers are five times
266 greater than those of polyester fibers. Finally, it was reported that regardless of the type of
267 bitumen used, whether it was modified or not, the pull-out resistance values were very similar
268 for each type of fiber used.

269 Regarding direct tensile tests (DTT), polyester fibers were selected to be investigated since,
270 according to the authors, this is a viable material for manufacturing processes [19]. The study
271 concluded that failure is more ductile when fibers have been added. Although cracks can occur,
272 fibers prevent their propagation. Regarding the optimal dosage, adding 4% polyester fibers to

273 the bitumen resulted in maximum strength of 3 MPa and failure tensile strain of 6%. In both
 274 cases, results are higher than those obtained for a conventional binder: 2.3 MPa maximum
 275 strength and 0.2% failure tensile strain [19]. As for a tafpack super (TPS) modified asphalt,
 276 maximum strength and failure tensile strain of 4.35 MPa and 3% were reached, respectively.
 277 The reason for these results is probably the fact that a TPS modified binder is more viscous [71],
 278 in spite of which, its failure strain increased. In terms of the fiber length, better results of the
 279 Multi-fiber pull-out test are obtained when long fibers (15 mm) are used, even though a good
 280 distribution within the binder is difficult to achieve. On the other hand, short fibers can be
 281 properly scattered but no reinforcement is achieved. An optimal length of 6 mm was found to
 282 guarantee the best performance in terms of strength and deformation [19].

283 **Table 6. Pull-out test results for different fibers and types of binders and mortars. Adapted from [19]**

Asphalt type	Fiber type	Embedment length (mm)	Fiber pull-out strength (MPa)
Normal asphalt binder	Polyester	4	334
		6	579
		12	703
		19	764
		24	602
	Aramid	6	2722
		12	3124
		19	3774
		26	2923
		TPS modified asphalt	Polyester
12	716		
30	738		
Aramid	12		3222
Asphalt mortar	Polyester	12	519
	Aramid	12	3287
		9	3527

284

285 3.4 Mesh basket drain down test

286 The use of fibers in bitumen is an alternative to prevent binder drain down [72]. Depending on
 287 their microstructure, specific surface and texture [18,55], fibers are capable of fulfilling the role
 288 of absorbing the light components of the binder and building a bonding interface between fiber
 289 and binder. Although there already is a test that measures drain down characteristics in
 290 uncompacted hot mix asphalts (AASHTO T 305) [73], some authors have designed a new test to
 291 evaluate the absorption of bitumen in fibers and analyze their adhesion and stabilization [4,74].
 292 Based on this test, Xiong et al. [4] stated that lignin fibers display the highest bitumen absorption
 293 rate, with only 3.04% binder mass loss. Mixes with brucite, basalt and polyester fibers showed
 294 8.17%, 12.32% and 18.13% binder mass loss, respectively. These tests were carried out with 6%
 295 by weight of binder in the mixture, at a temperature of 160 °C for 30 minutes. Similarly, Chen et
 296 al. [74] showed that lignin fibers provided the lowest binder drop compared to asbestos,
 297 polyester and polyacrylonitrile fibers (**Table 7**). Oda et al. [72] reported the use of natural fibers

298 like coconut fibers. Based on this study, binder absorption was improved to a higher extent than
 299 with polyester fibers. Regarding the other two parameters mentioned before, organic fibers
 300 (lignin, coconut, cellulose) and brucite fibers have larger specific surface areas and rough
 301 surfaces, unlike polymeric fibers (polyester, polyacrylonitrile), with smaller specific surface areas
 302 and smoother surface texture [75]. Rougher surface textures are linked to higher values of
 303 bonding strength with asphalt whereas binder absorption by fibers will lead to higher viscosities,
 304 stronger fiber-binder adhesion and thicker binder films. All the above will ultimately mean good
 305 properties of the asphalt mixture in terms of anti-cracking propagation, flexibility, fatigue and
 306 aging resistance [74,76].

307 **Table 7. Results of mesh basket drain down test at different temperatures. Adapted from [2]**

Temperature	Asphalt separation (%)	time (min)			
		Fiber type	30	60	90
130 °C	Polyester fiber I	2.25	6.00	8.75	8.76
	Polyester fiber II	2.35	6.17	9.03	9.04
	Polyacrylonitrile fiber	22.95	25.20	26.32	26.33
	Asbestos fiber	1.25	6.50	10.50	13.50
	Lignin fiber	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
140 °C	Polyester fiber I	8.25	12.25	14.50	18.50
	Polyester fiber II	8.55	12.29	14.56	19.13
	Polyacrylonitrile fiber	23.75	26.25	27.50	28.00
	Asbestos fiber	4.75	9.75	14.25	18.25
	Lignin fiber	0.00	0.04	0.08	0.11
170 °C	Lignin fiber	2.00	3.50	3.60	4.00

308

309 4. Mechanical impact of fibers in asphalt mixtures

310 According to the European Asphalt Pavement Association (EAPA), Europe and the United States
 311 produced 265.4 and 319 million tons of asphalt mixtures in 2014, respectively [77]. The above
 312 has aroused the interest in improving the performance of asphalt mixtures, in particular, their
 313 mechanical properties and functionality on the road. The addition of fibers has been considered
 314 for reinforcement of composite materials such as asphalt mixtures [78,79].

315 Regarding blending procedures, there are pre-established procedures for the preparation of
 316 asphalt mixtures with conventional bitumen; however, there is a lack of protocols on how
 317 asphalt mixtures should be made when new materials such as fibers are incorporated [80]. Two
 318 methods are commonly known. The first method is called *wet procedure*. In this method, the
 319 fibers are previously mixed with the binder before aggregates and filler are incorporated. In this
 320 technique a good dispersion between fibers and bitumen should be achieved in order to avoid
 321 the formation of clusters; the combination of sonication and high shear mixing procedures helps
 322 to achieve a high degree of dispersion [20]. The second method is known as *dry procedure* and
 323 consists of mixing fibers and aggregates before bitumen is incorporated to the blend [24]. In

324 general, the dry procedure is the most used as it enables a good dispersion of the fibers and
325 reduces the variability in the experimental tests of the asphalt mixtures [24,81,82]. Asphalt
326 plants usually have special mechanisms to add fibers and other additives into the asphalt
327 mixtures during production. For example, some plants keep the fibers in dry conditions and
328 increase the mixing time to avoid the formation of fiber bundles in the mixture. Furthermore, if
329 asphalt plants do not follow these procedures, the incorporation of fibers can be done manually
330 [83]. Other investigations suggest incorporating the fibers after the bitumen has been mixed
331 with the aggregates and the filler [84].

332 Previous research indicates that the optimum use of the fibers in asphalt mixtures requires an
333 additional binder content in order to properly coat the surface of the added fibers. In addition,
334 because of their microstructure, specific surface area and texture, fibers can absorb the light
335 components of the bitumen [7,85]. If the mixing and production guidance is not taken into
336 account, a reduction in the mechanical resistance of the asphalt mixture can occur [74].

337 Asphalt concrete is traditionally the most commonly used type of mixture in the construction of
338 roads, highways and airports [86]. For its use as road course, structural requirements have to be
339 fulfilled. The mechanical behavior is linked to the bitumen used and depends strongly on
340 temperature [87]. At high temperatures, bitumen becomes soft, which may lead to permanent
341 deformation of the asphalt concrete [88]; at intermediate temperature, failures due to fatigue
342 may occur because of traffic loads. Finally, at low temperature, thermal shrinkage cracking is
343 prone to occur.

344 Regarding porous friction courses (PFC), fibers have contributed to diminish certain conditions.
345 Thus, porous asphalt mixtures with polyethylene fibers have shown binder drain down
346 reductions of up to 46% as compared to unmodified ones [89]. Tensile strength, permanent
347 deformation and moisture susceptibility have also been improved. Similarly, Tanzadeh and
348 Shahrezagamasaei [90] reported 80% reduction in asphalt binder drain down when adding 0.2%
349 glass fiber and 0.3% polypropylene fibers to PFC asphalt mixtures.

350 Two aspects have to be considered in the design of asphalt mixtures. First of all, the mechanical
351 resistance, where parameters like stiffness, breaking strength, fatigue, rutting or particles loss
352 (in porous asphalt mixtures) have to be taken into account for the mixture design. The second
353 aspect relates to the mixture performance, where pavement section, visibility and glare, noise,
354 and environmental awareness are crucial elements [91]. In this section, the first aspect is
355 covered by introducing the effect of the fibers in the reinforcement of asphalt concrete under
356 different temperatures, as well as establishing the influence of fiber parameters such as type,
357 length, diameter and content on the fiber-reinforced asphalt mixture (FRAM) performance.

358 4.1 Improving the mechanical performance of mixes by using fibers

359 This section presents the most promising fibers, i.e. those that have shown good mechanical
360 properties in HMA over recent years. **Table 8** shows the advantages and potential drawbacks
361 that using fibers in different asphalt mixtures can cause. **Table 9** quantitatively summarizes the
362 results obtained from the literature regarding the maximum improvements achieved in the
363 mechanical performance of asphalt mixtures when different types of fibers are incorporated
364 into a conventional blend.

365 4.1.1 Mineral fibers

366 Qin et al. [18] studied the effect of incorporating different proportions of basalt fibers in asphalt
367 mastics, the fibers having different lengths. The most appropriate fiber content was found to be
368 between 5% and 7%. As for the length of the fibers, 6 mm provided best mix performance. An
369 excess of fibers higher than 10% can cause a clustering effect, thus reducing the homogeneity
370 of the asphalt mastic. With the incorporation of the fibers, the properties of the mastic that
371 improved the most were binder adsorption, strength behavior and crack resistance. According
372 to Zhang et al. [92], the addition of 0.1% and 0.2% basalt fibers resulted in deflection reductions
373 of 13.4% and 34.6%, respectively, at 3600 s and -10°C. The authors concluded that basalt fibers
374 enhance the low-temperature performance of the asphalt mortar, acting as a matrix plus fiber
375 composite. Xiong et al. [4] investigated the effect of brucite fibers and basalt fibers on asphalt
376 concrete. Results indicated great high-temperature stability, low-temperature cracking
377 resistance and moisture susceptibility. Magnesium hydroxide, which is one of the main
378 components of brucite fibers, provides a good alkalinity condition if fibers are mixed with
379 aggregates and filler with compatible polarity.

380 4.1.2 Polyester fiber

381 The use of polyester fibers in conjunction with lower contents of binder enables the increase of
382 resistance to fatigue and plastic deformation, transferring the force from the mineral structure
383 to the fiber-reinforced mastic [75]. Wu et al. [93] studied the mechanical properties of the
384 polyester fiber asphalt concrete (PFAC) and found that the resistance to adhesion between
385 fibers and asphalt cement is directly linked to the percentage of fibers and the bitumen content.
386 After evaluating nine different mix designs using the Marshall method, the authors concluded
387 that the optimum content of polyester fibers was 0.15% by weight of mixture.

388 Polyester fibers have already been successfully applied to road construction. Actually, 6.35-mm
389 long fibers were used in a pavement in the city of Tacoma, which did not register degradation
390 during 4 years of use [94]. Based on a field road application operated by the Pennsylvania
391 Department of Transportation, Maurer and Malasheskie [95] reported that adding polyester
392 fibers was effective at reducing reflective cracking. Chen et al. [74] recommend a polyester fiber
393 content of 0.35% by weight of mixture for the AC16. Wu et al. [96] reported an increase in the
394 number of cycles to fatigue failure of a fiber-modified asphalt mixture, with 1.9, 2.9 and 3.6
395 times more cycles at 0.5, 0.4 and 0.3 stress ratios (stress levels according to the splitting strength
396 of the asphalt mixture), respectively, for an incorporation of 0.3% polyester fibers. Likewise,
397 Freeman et al. [97] and Kim et al. [98] reported improvements of 15% and 5% in the indirect
398 tensile strength, respectively, after adding 0.35% polyester fibers (6 mm long) by weight of
399 asphalt mixture. According to Lauke et al. [63] fibers with relatively greater length/diameter
400 ratio can interlock better to form a networking system.

401 4.1.3 Polyacrylonitrile fibers

402 Yao et al. [99] incorporated PAN fibers into asphalt concrete (4% and 6% fibers by weight of
403 binder) by the wet method. Regarding the results of the DSR test for the fiber-modified asphalt
404 mortar, the authors reported an increase in the factor $G^*/\sin\delta$ with the incorporation of fibers.
405 Because of that, the stability of the binder at high temperatures increased and the permanent
406 deformation decreased. When comparing with cellulose fibers, it can be noticed that after
407 adding the same percentage of fibers (4%), the viscosifying action of polyacrylonitrile fibers is
408 1.8 times greater than that of cellulose fibers. Besides, rutting resistance of dense asphalt

409 mixtures with PAN fibers is about 2.2 times higher than with cellulose fibers for the same fiber
410 content. However, the optimal asphalt content of PAN-reinforced mixtures is actually higher
411 [99] as polyacrylonitrile fibers have a higher absorption rate. These types of fibers also have a
412 positive impact on the moisture susceptibility of the asphalt mixtures, as observed by Chen et
413 al. [74] and Yao et al. [99]. Finally, polyacrylonitrile has shown great affinity to bitumen, which
414 has aided in the synthesis of new materials such as carbon nanotubes, which have already been
415 implemented in asphalt binders and mixtures [41,46,100].

416 4.1.4 Carbon fibers

417 It is common to find that these fibers are added either by the wet or dry method; in the case of
418 the wet process carbon nanofibers (CNFs) are usually added to modify the asphalt binder, while
419 using the dry method is more related to the incorporation of micro and macro carbon fibers into
420 the mix [51]. Khattak et al. [20] pointed out that a homogeneous dispersion of CNFs improves
421 the viscoelastic and fatigue properties of the CNF-modified asphalt binder. These authors also
422 noticed an increase in the complex modulus G^* , which may be due to the crack-bridging
423 mechanism by CNF. Jahromi [101] dosed several contents of CNFs by weight of asphalt mixture
424 and obtained the optimum asphalt content for each one. In this case, the wet procedure was
425 used.

426 According to Jahromi [101], a fiber content greater than 0.3% by weight of mixture increases the
427 stability, reduces the flow number and increases the void content; likewise, nanofibers absorb
428 part of the binder, thus leading to an increase in the content of voids in the mixture [101].
429 Furthermore, the addition of 0.4 % nanofiber by weight of mixture results in higher resistance
430 to permanent deformation, resilient modulus, and fatigue life. Moreover, moisture
431 susceptibility can be improved by adding 1% microfibers by weight of bitumen, which also
432 minimizes the deterioration caused by non-chloride de-icers [102]. 12-mm long carbon fibers
433 were also investigated by Kim et al. [103], who incorporated them into the asphalt concrete by
434 using the dry method. The authors reported that adding 1% fibers increases the flexural strength
435 and the toughness value of the asphalt concrete by 12.1% and 65.5%, respectively, when
436 compared to a mixture without fibers. Other properties such as Tensile Strength Ratio (TSR),
437 Marshall Stability and Indirect Tensile Strength (ITS) were not improved at all. In the same study,
438 a SEM analysis allowed the authors to detect clumping of carbon fibers. Because of this, an
439 uncorrect dispersion of the fibers is expected and hence, a negative impact on the mechanical
440 properties of the asphalt material (as stated above).

441 The use of Polyacrylonitrile Carbon Fibers (PANCFs) for bitumen modification has become a new
442 alternative to the use of ordinary polymer modifiers. Zhang et al. [104] added 5 mm-long PANCFs
443 to a conventional bitumen in a range of 0 to 0.12% by weight of binder. Results suggest not
444 exceeding 0.1% fiber content in order to avoid aggregation and, therefore a negative effect on
445 the mechanical performance of modified asphalts. Another study suggests that carbon fibers
446 can stiffen the asphalt concrete and make it more resistant to rutting at high temperatures,
447 increasing the tensile strength as well; nevertheless, improvements may not be noticed at lower
448 temperatures [105]. Carbon fibers have been shown to perform well in asphalt mixtures,
449 probably because the bitumen is a precursor of the carbon fibers [106]. In addition to providing
450 the mixture with improved mechanical properties, the use of these fibers also enables an
451 increase in thermal conductivity and a decrease in the electrical resistance of the asphalt
452 mixtures [107,108].

453 4.1.5 Glass fibers

454 Mahrez [109] studied the use of glass fibers in SMA mixtures. For this, 0.05%, 0.1%, 0.15%,
455 0.20%, 0.25%, 0.3%, 0.4% and 0.5% fibers (10 mm long) by weight of mixture were incorporated
456 by the dry method. It is important to bear in mind that a small variation of the fiber content in
457 the mixture represents a large proportion of fiber content in bitumen. Thus, 0.2% fibers in a
458 mixture equates to 4% fibers by weight of binder, which implies high viscosity and low
459 workability in the blending procedure. The addition of fibers led to a decrease in the ductility of
460 the binder and affected the rigidity and resilient modulus of the mixture. The best stability and
461 flow values were found for a proportion of 0.2% by weight of mixture; however, this did not
462 imply an improvement with respect to the sample without fibers. Moreover, adding glass fibers
463 led to an increase in the mixture void content. This is because the contact between the
464 aggregates decreases and fibers absorb the binder that coats the aggregates and fills the
465 remaining gaps. In other research, Mahrez et al. [110] added 20-mm-long fiberglass to the SMA.
466 The author reported an improvement in permanent strain and resilient modulus when adding
467 less than 0.3% fibers. Moreover, fatigue life increased by 28.2%, 37.2% and 44.4% with the
468 addition of 0.1%, 0.2% and 0.3% glass fiber, respectively.

469 Morea and Zerbino [111] also studied the effect of glass macro fibers in SMA. In this case, the
470 authors incorporated fibers with lengths greater than 35 mm. According to the results obtained,
471 0.4% glass fiber by weight of mixture is the optimum dosage to improve the rutting behavior
472 and the maximum stress as determined in bending test. Guo et al. [112] reported good results
473 regarding rutting resistance and fatigue properties in fiberglass-modified asphalt mixtures.
474 Mohammed et al. [5] evaluated the influence of glass fibers on the rheological properties and
475 toughness of bituminous binders. In this case, glass fibers provided the binder with improved
476 toughness, which is linked to good fatigue behavior of the material. In fact, the addition of fibers
477 significantly decreased the phase angle in the DSR test, giving the mastic a more elastic and less
478 viscous performance. Thus, a 2% fiber increase (by volume) results in decreasing penetration,
479 increasing softening point and viscosity and improved rutting resistance. In porous asphalt
480 mixtures, adding 0.1% glass fibers and 0.3% polypropylene fibers led to a 65% increase in the
481 tensile strength [90].

482 4.1.6 Steel fibers

483 Steel fibers are thought to offer more benefits than other types of fibers for the modification of
484 asphalt mixtures. These fibers contribute to improving the electrical conductivity of the
485 mixtures, which can be useful for the application of thermo- electrical techniques approaching
486 the issue of freeze-thaw cycles on roads [113]; and especially for the self-healing and self-
487 monitoring of pavement structures [114]. Park et al. [115] studied the cracking resistance of a
488 steel-fiber-reinforced asphalt concrete at low temperature. A large number of steel fiber
489 variables were considered in terms of aspect ratio (length/diameter), section type and texture.
490 The resulting asphalt mixtures were subjected to ITS at -20 °C and results showed that the
491 addition of fibers increased the ITS and toughness of the asphalt concrete. The length of the
492 fibers had a positive impact on the properties evaluated. Reinforcing effects were not observed
493 at all when the fiber length was under 6 mm or the fiber diameter was under 0.01 mm. Hooked
494 end or twisting fibers did not have a significant effect on improving the toughness of the mixture.
495 On the other hand, twisted steel fibers of 30 mm long and 0.3 mm diameter exhibited the best
496 results with a toughness improvement of 895%. Steel fibers are dependent on temperature;
497 therefore, their behavior in asphalt mixtures must be evaluated at high temperatures. Liu et al.

498 [114] compared the fatigue resistance results of a steel-wool-reinforced porous asphalt beam
499 with those of a non-fiber dense graded asphalt mixture at 20°C/10 Hz. Results were very similar,
500 the characteristic strain being of 167 microstrains at one million cycles (ϵ_6). The authors also
501 studied the variation of the stiffness recovery of steel-wool-reinforced porous asphalt beams
502 caused by induction heating. The authors concluded that induction heating helps to restore the
503 stiffness of the steel-wool-reinforced porous asphalt when reaching an optimal temperature of
504 85 °C. García et al. [116] studied the effect of the diameter and length of steel wool fibers on
505 dense asphalt concrete; the authors reported a reduction in the fiber length after the mixing
506 and compaction processes. According to the authors, the reason is that fibers are subjected to
507 shear, tensile stress and impacts during the mixing process [117]. Fibers with large diameter
508 presented a smaller shortening in their length.

509 Clustering is more likely to happen when using long fibers (≥ 7 mm) rather than short ones (\approx
510 2.5 mm). The average percentage of clusters exhibited in mixtures with long fibers was 0.41%,
511 while it was of 0.35% with short fibers. In this sense, the authors reported that the percentage
512 of clusters actually affects the voids in the mixture. More specifically, a higher percentage of
513 clusters implies a greater number of voids. Accordingly, asphalt mixes with long fibers presented
514 higher porosity, thus affecting the particle loss resistance. In general, the fact that fibers are not
515 uniformly dispersed can have an effect in terms of particle loss [117]. Finally, according to Liu et
516 al. [118], steel fibers with short length and big diameter have better strength reinforcement
517 capability than fibers with long length and small diameter.

518 4.1.7 Aramid fibers

519 Aramid fibers have also been used for the modification of asphalt mixes. An addition of 0.045%
520 aramid fibers by weight of asphalt mixture was employed in a road section in Tempe, Arizona
521 [35]. The laboratory tests performed were: dynamic modulus, permanent deformation, fatigue
522 resistance, crack propagation and Indirect Tension Test (ITT). Results showed that aramid fibers
523 improve the performance of mixtures subjected to major pavement distresses such as rutting,
524 fatigue cracking and thermal cracking [119,120]. Alrhaji [62] studied the effect of aramid and
525 polypropylene fibers on asphalt mixtures and evaluated the results of dynamic modulus and ITS.
526 Regarding the dynamic modulus, results of the fiber-modified mixtures increased with an
527 increase in the amount of fiber. As for the ITT, the mixes with aramid fibers exhibited better
528 results than those with polypropylene fibers; the best results in the dynamic test were obtained
529 for mixes with polypropylene, though.

530 Based on the research done by Klinsky et al. [83] on the effect of polypropylene fibers and
531 aramid fibers on HMA, it can be concluded that two different types of fibers can contribute in
532 different ways to the performance of the asphalt mixture. On the one hand, polypropylene fibers
533 provide adhesion and act as a dispersing agent. On the other hand, the aramid fibers provide a
534 three-dimensional reinforcement network to the mixture. In this research, 0.05% fibers per ton
535 of mixture were incorporated to the blend. Results showed lower permanent strain
536 accumulation in the fiber-reinforced mixture than in the reference mixture. Moreover, the fiber-
537 modified mixture presented increases of 15% and 30% in the resilient modulus at 25°C and the
538 dynamic modulus at elevated temperature, respectively, when compared to the reference mix.
539 These results are certainly linked to an improved rutting resistance. Fracture resistance at
540 intermediate temperature was also tested through the semicircular bending test. The area
541 under the stress-strain curve was found to be 30% greater for the fiber-reinforced mixture than
542 for the reference mixture, thus meaning an increase in the resistance to crack propagation and
543 energy absorption due to fracture. Finally, it should be pointed out that the high degree of

544 orientation of the aramid fibers, which is due to the relatively rigid polymer chains that are linked
545 by strong hydrogen bonds, enables a better transfer of the mechanical loads [48].

546 4.1.8 Coconut fibers

547 Coconut fibers, also known as coir, have become an alternative option for the replacement of
548 synthetic or non-renewable materials. The reason is the lower cost (and density) of these types
549 of natural fibers in comparison with synthetic fibers, which is due to their greater availability.
550 They are considered an environmentally friendly renewable resource on account of being a non-
551 polluting reused waste [121,122]. This type of fiber, when matured, accumulates a great amount
552 of lignite, which makes it stronger and less flexible. These fibers are also relatively impermeable,
553 making them less susceptible to damage by salt water [52]. Researches have reported that the
554 most common use of these fibers has been in SMA mixtures, where fibers are required to hold
555 the binder in the mixture and avoid drainage. In this research, 0.3% coconut fibers by weight of
556 asphalt mixture was added to the blend that increased the stability and unit weight value of the
557 mixture and decreased the flow number and air voids [123]. Likewise, ITSR, fatigue life and
558 resilient modulus of SMA mixes increased independently of the binder used. Oda et al. [72] also
559 reported high tensile strength and resilient modulus when using coconut fibers. Thulasirajan and
560 Narasimha [124] indicated that 0.52% of 15-mm-long coconut fibers with 5.72% binder content
561 provided the bituminous concrete with good stability and volumetric properties. Coconut fiber-
562 reinforced mixtures exhibited better results in the drain down test in comparison with mixtures
563 having polyester or cellulose fibers. Overall, coconut fibers have proven to be a natural resource
564 and a waste material suitable for the construction of flexible pavements. In porous asphalt
565 mixtures more research is necessary as a higher content of fibers can increase the amount of air
566 voids.

567 **Table 8. Advantages and potential drawbacks of fibers in asphalt mixtures.**

Fiber type	Advantages	Potential Drawbacks
Mineral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High abrasion resistance [125] • Stabilizes binder in open- and gap-graded SMA mixtures [4,126] • Improves crack resistance and flexural strain at lower temperatures [129] • Improves Permanent deformation resistance [127] • Acts as a filler [29] • Thermal stability [29] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some may corrode or degrade because of moisture conditions [126] • May create harsh mixes that are hard to compact causing tire damage if used in surfaces [126] • Health Hazard at high temperature (550°C) [29] • Melts causing fade [29]
Polyester	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resists cracking, rutting, and potholes [126] • Increases mix strength and stability [126] • Higher melting point than polypropylene [126] • High tensile strength [126] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher specific gravity means fewer fibers per unit weight added. • Cost-effectiveness not proven/varies [126] • The optimum asphalt content of mixture increases [126]

- Increases the fracture energy and toughness [128]

- Improves high temperature stability, increases the flexural strain at low temperatures [129]

- Improves crack propagation resistance [129,130]

Polyacrylonitrile

- Higher Marshall stability, rutting dynamic stability and high networking effect [74]

- The optimum asphalt content of mixture increases [74]

- Positive effect on plastic deformations [131]

- Improves rutting [99]

Carbon

- High strength and modulus [29]

- Expensive - loses fiber from mix [29]

- High thermal stability [29]

- Fibers prone to clustering and not achieving a homogeneous distribution [132]

- Increases thermal conductivity of asphalt mixture and decreases electrical resistivity [107]

- Healing effect in asphalt mixtures [107]

- Higher stiffness and dynamic modulus [133]

- Improves fatigue and permanent deformation [13]

Glass

- High Strength and modulus [29]

- Brittle [126]

- Melts at elevated temperature [29]

- Fibers may break where they cross each other [126]

- Low elongation [126]

- May break during mixing and compaction [126]

- High elastic recovery [126]

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Higher residual stress capacity [90,111] •Increases rutting behavior [112] •Increases tensile failure strain [134] 	
Steel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Increases Marshall stability, rutting resistance, indirect tensile strength, and low-temperature cracking resistance [108] •Self-healing properties [135,136] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Poor distribution in mixture [117] •Does not have a relative influence on the particle loss resistance [117]
Aramid	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resists cracking, rutting, and potholes [29] • Increases mix strength and stability [85,128] • High tensile strength [126] •High fatigue life and resilient modulus [83] •Higher level of microfibrillation [137] •Crack growth resistance and fracture toughness [138] •Increases mix strength and stability [126] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cost-effectiveness not proven/varies [126] •Extra care to avoid non uniform fiber [29] •Generally needs other ingredients in formulation [29]
Coconut (Coir)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Prevents drain-down during production [52] •100% natural and ecological recycling [140] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Excess of fibers could reduce the contact between the aggregate [139]
Cellulose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Stabilizes binder in open- and gap-graded stone matrix asphalt (SMA) mixtures [10,126] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Low strength and modulus [29,126]

- Absorbs binder, allowing high binder content for more durable mixture [5,99]
- Not strong in tensile mode [29,126]
- Relatively inexpensive [126]
- High binder absorption increases binder cost [126]
- May be made from a variety of plant materials [72]
- May be from recycled materials such as newsprint [27]

568

569 4.2 Use of waste fibers for the reinforcement of asphalt mixtures

570 Several industries, during their manufacturing process, generate waste fibers that are usually
571 dumped in landfills. However, these fibers can be used for the design of fiber-reinforced asphalt
572 mixtures. Putman and Amir Khanian [27] implemented the use in SMA mixtures of tire and carpet
573 fibers coming from scrap tires and automotive carpet manufacturing, respectively. As confirmed
574 by the results, the toughness increased compared to mixtures with cellulose fibers. A decrease
575 in the optimum binder content was noticed by the authors in SMA mixtures with cellulose fibers
576 when 0.1% and 0.45% waste tire and carpet fibers, respectively, were added, thus resulting in a
577 more cost effective asphalt mixture.

578 Nylon wires from the production of products such as toothbrushes, hairbrushes or paintbrushes
579 have been recycled and used for the manufacturing of SMA mixes. An optimal content between
580 1% and 1.5% by weight of asphalt mixture enhances high-temperature stability, resistance to
581 low-temperature cracking and moisture susceptibility [26]. This waste fiber provides a bridging
582 effect in the mixture that minimizes crack propagation [78].

583 Inadequate disposal of metal waste can become an environmental problem. In fact, when
584 disposed of in landfills, these pollutants can reach the soil and water of wetlands and affect
585 ecosystems [141]. In 2014, a waste production of 2.5 billion tons was reported, of which 99.7
586 million correspond to metallic waste [142]. Therefore, the use of waste metallic fibers has
587 become an environmentally friendly option for the manufacturing of fiber-reinforced asphalt
588 mixtures. Thus, the use of steel wool fibers and metal shavings in asphalt mixtures has resulted
589 in a good performance, including mechanical response, durability and electrical conductivity
590 [116]. Ajam et al. [143] suggest the use of metal shavings in surface layers.

591 The use in SMA mixtures of waste synthetic fibers (acrylic-polyester) and waste cellulose fibers
592 from the automotive carpet manufacturing process was investigated by Moghaddam et al.
593 [144]. In this research, Marshall stability, compressive strength, tensile strength, drain down and
594 moisture susceptibility tests were carried out. Waste cellulose fibers provided the best results
595 in terms of binder content stabilization. On the other hand, waste synthetic fibers performed
596 better in terms of moisture resistance and toughness.

597 Valeri et al. [145] studied the effect of adding tetra-pack material in porous asphalt mixtures.
598 This material is made up of 63% cellulose and 30% Low-Density Polyethylene (LDPE). Results of
599 mechanical performance indicated that tetra-pack fibers produced similar or even greater
600 improvement than conventional cellulose fibers in PA mixtures. Tetra-pack fibers (0.25 - 0.50%
601 by weight of mixture) provided remarkable mechanical properties without decreasing the
602 permeability of the PA mixture. In an overall sense, it can be said that regardless of the fact that
603 they are waste fibers, they maintain their mechanical properties and contribute to better
604 performance of asphalt mixtures, while providing an environmentally friendly solution.

605

Author's Post-Print

606 **Table 9 Specifications and greatest improvements of different types of fibers used in HMA**

Fiber characteristics									Maximum improvement										
Citation	Fibers	Length (mm)	Diameter (mm)	Density (g/cm ³)	Fiber content by weight of mixture	Tensile Strength (Mpa)	Elastic modulus (Mpa)	Softening point (°C)	Rutting	MS ^b	MF ^c	Toughness	Moisture susceptibility	Fatigue life	ITS ^d	FE ^e	Dynamic stability	Complex modulus E*	Resilient modulus
[111]	Macro glass	36	0.54	2.68	0.40%	1700	72000	860	47%	1%	23%	24%							
	Micro glass	25	0.21	2.68	0.40%			860	25%										
[83]	Aramid	19		1.45	0.05%	3000	83000	> 450				32%	20%	20%	21%			30%	15%
	Polyester	6	0.02		0.30%	531			19.57%			43.52%		57.66%		46.15%			
[146]	Polyacrylonitrile	4.00 - 6.00	N/A ^a		0.30%	> 910			32.56%			61.11%		66.78%		26.92%			
	Lignin	1.1	0.045		0.30%	N/A ^a			8.43%			12.03%		40.88%		0%			
	Asbestos	5.5	N/A ^a		0.30%	30 - 40			11.40%			28.71%		22.52%		34.61%			
[147]	Hooked steel	30	0.4		5%	1345	210000					727%			63%	286%			
	Twisted steel	30	0.3		5%	1345	210000					896%			56%	370%			
[72]	Coconut			1.18	0.30%	118	2800												8.79%
	Polypropylene	6	0.04	0.91	1.0%f	500	3500	160	27.50%	11.50% - 0%	11.43%				2.35%				
[132]	Polyester	6	0.041	1.4	1.0%f	1147	11600	256		15.30%	14.28%						62.70%		
	Nylon	12	0.023	1.14	1.0%f	800	3500 - 7000	220		8.10%	2.53%	158%					51.00%		
	Carbon	12	0.007	1.37	1.0%f	4900	230000	over 1000		0.88%		12.10%							
[97]	Polyester	6		1.4	0.35%										15%				
	Polyester	13		1.4	0.50%							117%							
[26]	Waste nylon wire	20	0.2	1.11	1%	357		220		23%			9.02%		14.89%				
[125]	Basalt		0.01 - 0.019	2.67	0.30%		84000	1350	33.30%										
[46]	Carbon	5	0.01		2%f	1680	752000		2.56%	5.47%	14.65%								2.86%
[99]	Polyacrylonitrile	6	0.0013	1.18	2%		> 910	240	45.96%										
[148]	Waste polyester	13			0.50%	680		265			80%			31%					
[12]	Waste cellulose	0.5 - 2.00		0.52 - 0.56	0.50%										22%				

[78]	Nylon	12		1.00%			85%				
[149]	Polyolefin + aramid	19	0.91	0.05%	483	130	17%		11%	31%	
		19	1.45		2750	450					
[137]	Aramid	19	0.012	0.07%	2700	426	139%				
[119]	Polypropylene + Aramid	19	0.91	-	483	157			25 - 50%	50 - 75%	20 - 50% ^g
		19	1.45	-	3000	>450					

^a. Not available

^b. Marshall Stability

^c. Marshall flow

^d. Indirect Tensile Strength

^e. Fracture Energy

^f. Dosage made by volume

^g. Depending on the temperature of the test

608 5. Conclusions

609 In this paper, the different properties of fibers, their characteristic tests, the results of these
610 tests and the impact that these fibers have on bituminous mixtures, have been carefully
611 summarized. The most relevant conclusions are described next:

- 612 • The most relevant physical properties to be considered for proper analysis of the fibers
613 are: tensile strength, modulus of elasticity, specific gravity and Mohs hardness. These
614 features have a direct influence on the binder and the mixture performance.
- 615 • The interconnection generated between aggregates and fibers allows the material to
616 withstand additional strain energy before cracking occurs. This is of great significance
617 for providing long-life, safe pavements.
- 618 • The microstructure of the fibers, the pore content of their surfaces and their rigidities
619 will affect the behavior of the bitumen and the mixture. The formation of fiber clusters
620 must be avoided and uniform distribution must be achieved.
- 621 • In general, the incorporation of fibers into the bitumen increases its viscosity and
622 softening point and reduces its penetration grade. The optimum content of fibers in the
623 bitumen should be considered in order to achieve good workability and optimal
624 properties.
- 625 • The most suitable tests to evaluate the asphalt binder performance at medium and high
626 temperatures are the cone penetration test and DSR. For low temperatures, the tests
627 that should be carried out are the BBR test, pullout test and direct tensile test.
- 628 • At low temperatures, bitumen tends to become fragile. The incorporation of fibers
629 would work as a bridge, preventing the propagation of cracks and therefore, providing
630 ductility to the binder.
- 631 • When using fibers, the binder content is increased because several of its light
632 components are absorbed by the fibers. Therefore, fiber-reinforced asphalt mixtures
633 have a higher optimum asphalt content compared to conventional asphalt mixtures.
- 634 • In general, all the fibers considered in this paper contribute to the enhancement of the
635 mechanical properties of mixtures. The optimum fiber content is not the only variable
636 to be considered; the fiber length also influences the mixture performance.
- 637 • Coconut fibers are natural fibers that do not require a manufacturing process for their
638 use in bituminous mixtures. They can be considered an environmentally friendly
639 substitute for synthetic fibers .
- 640 • The use of waste fibers in asphalt mixtures has contributed to their good performance.
641 Cost savings in the manufacturing of the mixes and environmental benefits should also
642 be observed.

643 As future research, the study of the assessment and prediction of the orientation and
644 distribution of fibers in bituminous binders and asphalt mixtures is recommended. Moreover,
645 very little information is available regarding the use of fibers in porous mixtures. Additionally,
646 some fibers improve some characteristics more than others (e.g., some of them would influence
647 the binder performance), whereas others would be focused on improving the mechanical
648 performance. Thus, the evaluation of the combination of fibers in different mixtures is also
649 recommended as future research. Finally, the application of principles of composite science to
650 model the fiber reinforcement effect in HMA should also be considered.

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