

INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH JOURNAL OF MULTIDISCIPLINARY TECHNOVATION



DOI: 10.54392/irjmt24210

G. Velmurugan ^{a, *}, Jasgurpreet Singh Chohan ^b, B. Rupa ^a, A.L. Priyankka ^a, P. Thirunavukarasu ^a, M. Abinaya ^a, V. Jaswanth ^c, Matcha Doondi Venkata Kodanda Sai Anvesh ^c

- ^a Institute of Agricultural Engineering, Saveetha School of Engineering, Saveetha Institute of Medical and Technical Sciences, Saveetha University, Chennai-602105, Tamil Nadu, India
- ^b Department of Mechanical Engineering, University Centre for Research and Development, Chandigarh University, Gharuan Mohali-140413, India
- ^c Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Saveetha School of Engineering, Saveetha Institute of Medical and Technical Sciences, Saveetha University, Chennai-602105, Tamil Nadu, India

* Corresponding Author Email: velresearch032@gmail.com

DOI: https://doi.org/10.54392/irjmt24210

Received: 26-12-2023; Revised: 02-02-2024; Accepted: 11-02-2024; Published: 23-02-2024



Abstract: The utilization of composite materials in construction has recently exerted a significant impact on society, particularly concerning ecological responsibility and environmental considerations. On a daily basis, proposals advocating the use of emerging materials crafted from discarded or repurposed items are put forth to transcend the limitations posed by conventional resources. One notable aspect of this movement revolves around textile components, encompassing fibres such as wool, cotton, cannabis, and flax. Over the past decade, there has been a heightened focus on worn clothing, as it represents an unprocessed product that holds both commercial viability and ecological benefits. Approximately 1.5 percent of the global waste generated daily comprises textile scraps, with blue jeans, crafted from cotton, standing out as the most prevalent type of apparel worldwide. Textile scraps find new life through recycling, serving various purposes such as the creation of electrical wires, the production of pulverized substances for temperature and acoustic insulation materials, and the incorporation as filler or reinforcement in concrete construction. This paper delves into multiple themes, covering (i) the adverse environmental impacts stemming from the extensive use of clothing; (ii) the recycling and reclamation of textile waste; and (iii) the utilization of waste and reclaimed materials from textiles as building components.

Keywords: Concrete Materials, Waste Management, Recycling, Natural Fiber, Environment, Sustainable.

1. Introduction

Around the world, 80 billion garments are produced annually, leading to the generation of 1.3 billion tonnes of textile waste. Nearly 75 percent of this waste is discarded without processing and ends up in landfills or is incinerated, posing a threat to both the environment and waterways. In the last decade, the global supply of fibers has surged from 52.6 million tonnes to 100 million tonnes. The increase in production correlates with a rise in waste, contributing significantly to environmental harm. In various parts of the world, textile scraps constitute a range of 1.0 to 5.1 percent of the total amount of municipally generated waste (MSW) [1–3]. Textile waste remains a significant issue in both industrialized and developing nations, despite the relocation of the majority of the textile and clothing industries to these regions. The waste as a percentage of GDP is 4.95 percent in the US, 1.3 percent in China, and even higher at 4.7% in Bhutan, a small nation [4]. Various types of waste are seriously harming

ecosystems due to technological advances and the increase in the global population. The worldwide disposal of large quantities of garbage and hazardous gases, including sewage, has significantly damaged the ecology. Science is developing techniques to partially repair the damage inflicted on the ecosystem due to growing environmental concerns [5]. These methods aim to raise ecological awareness among the populace and are focused on reducing waste, recovering resources that might be handled again, and reusing materials or goods before they are completely disposed of. A current issue, with an exciting prospect and a focus on conserving the environment, is the utilization of recyclable or recovered resources to create basic components for the building industry [6, 7]. The majority of substances historically employed in the foundations of residential and commercial structures have been timber, concrete, and metal. However, their expensive manufacturing processes have prompted scientists to conduct studies on composites made from recovered

resources such as PET, polycarbonate, which involves recycling tires, timber, textile filaments, etc [8, 9]. Numerous studies have employed material in the form of tiny fragments to enhance hydrophilic building materials; however, the problem lies in the inadequate interaction between the reinforcement and matrices. This deficiency diminishes the material's mechanical properties, such as bending and compression strength [10].

The use of leftover PET filaments from bottlemaking as reinforcements has enabled improvements in the physical properties of concrete. Recycled tire fragments are another reinforcing material used in concrete production. They help reduce the influence of crack propagation and enhance the concrete's ability to withstand distortion. The incorporation of organic substances as supports in concrete made from Portland cement is the subject of certain studies [11]. Special fibers derived from nature, such as hemp, jute, kenaf fiber, and cotton, are employed as reinforcements in construction materials, holding significant importance owing to their numerous advantages over synthetic materials. Their small ecological footprint, affordable pricing, and versatility in applications stand out as some of their greatest benefits. The addition of cellulose filaments enhances the insulation properties of concrete [12]. In this regard, the construction sector has undergone a reimagining over the past ten years with an innovative material known as textile-strengthened concrete. It is a combination of fine-grained concrete mixed with multiaxially extending fabrics that provide structural stability, functionality, simplicity of fabrication, practicality, and development. This approach is examined as a means of utilizing the substantial volume of waste products generated by the clothing sector [13].

This study is noteworthy for taking a novel and thorough approach to solving the problems that arise when recovered textiles and waste-based reinforcements are used to manufacture building materials. It is noteworthy because it acknowledges manufacturers as key participants in the shift to sustainable practices and highlights their accountability for overseeing waste textiles made of composite materials throughout their entire lifespan. A fresh perspective on sustainability is brought to the table with the introduction of a comprehensive circular framework involves important stakeholders, including that consumers, organizations, government agencies, and corporate executives [14]. Furthermore, the study highlights the importance of developing countries as pioneers in the shift from a linear to a circular economy, given their status as the world's largest manufacturers of textiles. The study promotes responsible waste management in wealthy countries, especially when exporting textile scraps to poor countries, and emphasizes the critical role that consumer knowledge plays in encouraging environmentally conscientious purchasing patterns. Furthermore, the research puts itself at the forefront of cutting-edge approaches to

sustainable building material manufacturing practices by recognizing and using scientific advances in biological sciences for fabric recycling processes. To sum up, the research is significant because it takes a comprehensive approach, advocates for international collaboration, integrates technical breakthroughs, and adds significantly to the conversation about environmentally friendly methods in the construction and textile sectors

2. Textiles Pollutants' Effects on the Ecosystem

The demand for textiles to create yarn, materials, and clothing of all forms, designs, and patterns is currently on the rise. The strategic utilization of the essential components for this purpose has become one of the primary challenges for researchers and manufacturers as demand has escalated in tandem with demographic shifts and global fashion trends [15]. Textile waste is an unwelcome but unavoidable consequence of numerous manufacturing procedures; however, it frequently does not receive the acknowledgment and financial benefit it truly deserves. Each individual generates about 2-3 kilograms of solid garbage daily in wealthy nations, and about 2 kg daily in India and the region of South America [16]. Figure 1 illustrates the proportions of urban garbage generated in India, with textile scraps constituting 1.5% of the total, equivalent to 1300 metric tonnes per day.

In reality, clothing is discarded more frequently, compelling this sector to streamline its operations and generate an increased amount of textile scraps. The escalating demands and expanding populations have led to a steady growth in the production of both synthetic and natural textile fibers [17]. "Figure 2 illustrates the global usage of textile fiber from 1990 to 2020. Table 1 presents numerous environmental effects arising from the creation, utilization, and disposal of clothing. Various impacts on the environment, encompassing air, water, and land, are evident throughout the textile production and use of clothing [18]. The use of artificial colors, which has become a common practice, leads to water pollution during the dyeing of garments. Environmentalists express concern about the toxicity of these substances. Acetic acid, nitrides, sulfur, detergents, and enzymes that break down chromium substances, along with pollutants such as the metals copper, mercury, zinc, nickel, and silver, are all present in significant quantities [19]. Furthermore, repairing compounds containing formalin, chemical spot removers, hydrocarbon softeners, and unsustainable compounds are employed as pigments. These substances react with various disinfecting agents, particularly chlorine in water, to produce cancer-causing by-products. The physicochemical characteristics of wastewater from the textile sector, along with the characteristics of the land where it is deposited, were evaluated in the study.



Figure 1. Solid urban waste Production in India [20]

Types of Fabrics		Influences		
Accomplishment	Ecological Features	Air	Health	Water
Cloth dyeing	Generation of liquid waste			
Cloth cut	Noise generation			
Ironing	Consumption of electricity and occupational diseases			
Cloth wash	Water consumption			
Clothing sewing	Consumption of human energy, and textile and metal waste			
Bleaching of tissues	Generation of liquid waste			

Table 1. Ecological influences produced by textiles [21, 22]

The physicochemical characteristics of wastewater from the textile sector, along with the characteristics of the land where it is deposited, were evaluated in the study. We measured nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and potassium (K) levels in the soil. Additionally, we assessed parameters such as pH, electrical conductivity, temperature, oxygen concentration, oxygen demand resulting from chemical processes, biological oxygen demand, and total suspended solids [23]. The substrates varied in salinity and acidity, and the agricultural products grown there indicated very poor yields and unfavourable sanitary conditions. A substantial amount of water is required for cotton cultivation. Only thirty percent of the entire yield of raw cotton can be utilized for producing cotton threads; the remainder consists of cotton seeds and weeds, which are fed to animals [24].

For creating silky unprocessed materials and laundering textiles, the portion of fibers lacking the requisite qualities for fabric manufacturing procedures is utilized. Quantified standards have been established for the production of clothing from virgin materials. Researchers have illustrated the savings in electrical power for each kilogram of virgin cotton replaced with used apparel. Compared to purchasing clothes made from virgin fibers, the reuse and disposal of worn clothing have a less detrimental impact on the environment [25]. Ganesan et al. [26] stressed the need to reduce waste generated in the textile sector. Since it uses a lot of toxic substances, fluids, and electricity during interpreting, the textile sector constitutes one of the three most prevalent and destructive sectors in Latin America. The yarns and clothing made from cotton are included in the indices for contaminants in the cotton sector (Table 2).



Figure 2. Worldwide production of textile fibers [2]

Turne of Dellutions				
Type of Pollutions	value of index			
Air Pollutions (kg/ton residue)				
Particle Production during the process	15			
nitrogen oxides produced when garbage is burned	1.0			
Particulate formation from garbage combustion	8.2			
Infections in Waters (Kg/ton Product)	•			
Quantity of sewage	317			
Scattered particles	75			
Total Dissolved substances	210			
Solid Waste (Kg/ton Product)				
Cleaning and preparing cotton thread and fibers	35			
Captured natural fibers in a grid	3.0			
Fiber cloth, thread, or material	11			
Residual sludge	2450			

Table 2. Contamination for the cotton-based textile industry [27,	28]
--	-----	-----

It is an irrefutable reality that practically everything humans do has some influence on the natural world; the textile sector is no different [29]. However, as with numerous other manufacturing processes, the general public is becoming increasingly environmentally conscious and emphasizing the importance of recovery, reuse, and minimization. The utilization of sustainably sourced textile fibers is currently on the rise as an attempt to preserve the environment, and fashion is becoming more prominently defined by its comfort, lightness, and skin-friendliness [30]. The entire globe produced 31.25 million metric tonnes of cotton in 2015, and over the next 15 years, consumption is anticipated to increase by 3.5% annually [31]. The cloth fibers necessary for crafting denim clothing, invented in 1881 by Jacob Davis, a friend of Levi Strauss, to withstand the demanding labor of the mining period during the socalled gold fever in the USA, constitute a substantial portion of the globally produced cotton. In 2015, Mexico alone produced 9 billion metric tonnes of denim. Jeans, the most favored apparel in Mexico, make up 30% of the market [32].

3. Reusing and Reprocessing the Textile Debris

"Worn clothing, shoes, blinds, spreadsheets, and other fabric waste are all generated by the population and constitute part of the solid waste stream. For various reasons, the issue of reusing textiles should be considered a means to attain financial and ecological benefits, as it aids in reducing the required landfill space and mitigates the need to produce new materials, addressing concerns related to water contamination. The process of textile recycling encompasses the reuse of worn clothes, utilization of fibrous fabrics, and the recovery of lost revenue from the apparel manufacturing procedure [33, 34]. Certain products constructed of artificial fibers fail to decompose organically, leading to issues with soil and pollution in surface waters. While wool strands do gradually decay, the methane produced during this process contributes to climate change. These two fabric categories inform methods for reuse: (a) afterproduction substances, including fibers, fabrics, and particles created from production waste; and (b) postconsumption substances, such as clothing, flooring, footwear, and furnishings, that are discarded after their usefulness has passed [35].

Conventional clothing recycling involves returning items to an effective cycle, comprising: (a) categorization based on fiber circumstances and nature; at this stage, it is determined if clothes can be repurposed, crushed, or used for reprocessing; and (b) re-classification, where the crushed substance is separated by colors, to be crushed, carded, and then spun. Due to the potential environmental and economic benefits of utilizing textile scraps for purposes that don't require a new manufacturing process, a unique investigation into home items made from waste textile fabrics has been conducted [36]. The findings demonstrate that sustainable design is a powerful tool with ecological objectives that involve innovative thinking and creativity. Recycled textiles are a great way to reduce the detrimental impacts of frequently used items [37,38].

Using enzymes, specifically cellulases, a process is used to turn cellulosic textile waste or fibers into sugars that can be fermented. Plant-based sources of cellulose provide an important supply of cellulose-rich feedstock. To improve accessibility, these items are first prepped and reduced in size. Cellulases are then generated by microbial fermentation, separated, and characterized for maximum functionality. The separated cellulases are mixed with the prepared cellulosic waste during the hydrolysis process to make an environment that is good for enzyme activity. The measurement of released fermentable sugars, particularly glucose, is made possible via monitoring of the process. Following hydrolysis, the remaining cellulose and enzymes are separated from the product of hydrolysis using techniques like centrifugation or filtering. Following their

purification, the fermentable sugars-most notably glucose-can be used as a flexible substrate for a range of industrial operations, such as the synthesis of substances, biofuels for transportation, and other useful goods. By promoting the effective use of cellulosic waste products, this ecological approach supports ecological preservation and the growth of the circular economy [39, 40].

For instance, the extremely low concentration of both lignin and hemicellulose in cotton waste textiles makes cellulose easily accessible for hydrolysis using enzymes. But unless cotton textile fibers are prepared and undergo morphological changes, the enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose yields minimal amounts of glucose and converts it slowly. The elevated level of crystallization, the tiny pore size in the fiber wall of the cell, and the pigment content are the main causes of this. To improve the accessibility of chain cellulose for enzymes to respond to, these issues must be handled. Enzymes that break down cellulases are used in hydrolysis that is enzymatic. Cellulase activity reaches its peak around 50 and 60 °C and 5.0 and 5.2 pH. Three phases make up the hydrolysis process using enzyme mechanisms: (1) cellulase adsorption onto the cellulose surface; (2) fiber biodegradation into sugars (mostly glucose); and (3) cellulase dispersion [41].

Cellulosic materials may be hydrolyzed enzymatically to produce glucose. Nonetheless, cellulose is immune to microbiological and enzymatic assaults and possesses an extremely crystalline form. By decomposing cellulose in a suitable solvent and then renewing it in a non-solvent, one may cause disruptions to its crystalline nature. Cellulosic compounds were just dissolved using ionic liquids, centered phosphorous acid (81%), N-methyl morpholine-N-oxide (NMMO), and sodium hydroxide (NaOH)/urea in the mixture at a low temperature. The renewed goods have demonstrated an important increase in the enzyme-mediated hydrolysis rate as well as sugar production. A phosphoric acid mixture of cellulose was recently shown to have a higher initial hydrolysis rate and glucose yield than other treatments used before [42]. By minimizing the final product restriction of the enzyme-mediated saccharification process and doing away with the independent saccharification necessity for and fermentation reactors, the combination of saccharification and fermentation (SSF) can increase the amount produced from the production of ethanol. In an SSF system, substantial substrate loading is necessary to attain a substantial ethanol percentage from cellulosic substrates. This leads to a high level of incompatible solids in the system. Because intact cellulosic substances have a very clear framework, it is challenging to generate a decent ethanol yield in SSF systems with an insoluble solids percentage greater than 10% due to the weak enzymatic saccharification rate. Furthermore, in mixed-tank reactors, cellulose takes the majority of the water, making it challenging to produce

adequate mixing at large substrate loads. In order to solve the mixing issue at high loadings of cellulosic biomass for microbial concurrent fermentation to release glucose, an important issue in the SSF process is the quick liquefaction of cellulose [43]. In order to improve the yield of the manufacture of ethanol, phosphoric acidpretreated cellulose may be a technique for raising the enzyme saccharification efficiency in a high-substrateloaded SSF. Getting enzymes from cellulosic textiles or fibers, such as cellulases that break down cellulose, is a multi-step procedure. Enzymes called cellulases convert cellulose, the primary building block of the cell wall of plants, into glucose as well as other sugars that may be fermented. This is a thorough breakdown of the procedure [44].

• Collection of Cellulosic Material

First, gather fibers or textiles made of cellulosic materials. These substances come from vegetation and include a substance called an intricate polymer composed of units of glucose.

• Preparation of Cellulosic Material

To get rid of contaminants like grease, soil, and various other non-cellulosic materials, purify and prepare the cellulose substance. This process aids in getting cellulose in a purer condition.

• Size Reduction

To enhance the outermost area accessible for enzyme activity, shrink the cellulosic substance. Polishing and milling are examples of mechanical procedures that may do that.

Enzyme Production

Fungi and bacteria are examples of microorganisms that can create cellulases. These microbes are used in fermentation procedures to create cellulase enzymes. The microorganisms are cultivated in an appropriate medium that contains sources of nitrogen and carbon in addition to other vital nutrients.

• Isolation of Cellulases

The cellulase enzymes are taken out of the culture broth after fermentation. Different methods, such as centrifugation, filtering, and purifying stages, are used to separate and concentrate enzymes.

• Enzyme Characterization

Establish the unique characteristics of the separated cellulases, such as the ideal pH range, temperatures, and substrate selectivity. This data is essential for maximizing the hydrolysis process that follows.

• Hydrolysis of Cellulose

To start an enzyme-mediated hydrolysis process, mix the cellulosic substrate that has already been prepared with the cellulases that have been separated. Usually, the reaction is carried out under carefully monitored conditions using cellulase activityoptimized settings. Optimize the cellulose hydrolysis process by adjusting the degree of heat, pH, and amount of enzyme during the course of the reaction.

• Monitoring the Hydrolysis Process

Track the number of liberated sugars, particularly glucose, by monitoring the hydrolysis reaction's progress. For precise sugar measurement, methods such as HPLC (High-Performance Liquid Chromatography) can be employed.

Product Recovery

Sort the products of hydrolysis out of the leftover enzymes and cellulose. Centrifugation and filtering are two methods that may be used for different purposes.

• Purification of Fermentable Sugars

Eliminate the hydrolysis mixture's sugars that ferment, particularly glucose. That might include extra procedures like crystallization or filtration.

• Utilization of Fermentable Sugars

The refined sugars that ferment, particularly glucose, may be fed into processes of fermentation to create chemicals, biofuels, and other useful products. These procedures may be used to efficiently extract cellulases, which can then be utilized for hydrolyzing carbon in cellulose textiles or fibers to provide sugars that ferment for a variety of commercial uses, including the manufacture of biofuel. Fermentable sugars must first be obtained. Fermentation and subsequent treatment are the next phases in this method of turning fermentable carbohydrates into biofuels [45,46]. Let's dissect the procedure in more depth:

• Feedstock and Sugar Production:

Start with a carbohydrate-rich feedstock that is renewable, like sugarcane, maize, or lignin-rich biomass. To acquire pure sugars that ferment, usually sugar or xylose, separate or treat the raw material.

- Fermentation:
- Microorganism Selection

Select a microbe that is appropriate for fermenting. Yeast (Saccharomyces cerevisiae) and bacteria (Escherichia coli) are popular options. The selection process is dependent on the kind of sugar since some microbes can ferment particular types of sugar.

• Fermentation Conditions

To increase the amount of biofuel produced, optimize the fermentation process by adjusting temperatures, pH, and nutrient amounts. Increase organisms using genetic modification to increase efficiency and productivity.

Biofuel Production

Fermented carbohydrates are transformed into biofuels through the fermentation procedure. Yeast converts sugar to alcohol and carbon dioxide through fermentation. Some biofuels might need distinct microbes and fermentation routes, like butanol or sophisticated biofuels.

• Downstream Processing

• Separation and Recovery

Sort the liquid mixture into the remaining ingredients and biofuels following fermentation. Methods for separating include membrane filtering, centrifugation, and distilling.

• Purification

Eliminate water and contaminants from the biofuel. For ethanol, distillation is frequently employed; however, other refining processes could be required for different biofuels.

• By-Product Utilization

Use fermentation byproducts, like lignin or glycerol, for additional uses or as possible sources of income.

• Product Quality and Certification

Verify that the biofuel satisfies all certification criteria and quality standards, including those established by American Society for Testing and Materials for bioethanol or other pertinent regulatory authorities.

• Utilization of Co-Products

Examine possibilities to utilize process byproducts, such lignin or wasted yeast, for new uses or products with enhanced value.

• Economic Viability

Evaluate the process's overall economic viability, taking into account variables such as feedstock prices, efficiency of manufacturing, and the need for biofuel in the marketplace.

• Environmental Considerations

Examine how the production of biofuels affects the environment, taking into account energy consumption, emissions of greenhouse gases, and other environmental factors.

• Continuous Improvement

Through development and research, we are continually improving the method through the integration of advancements in the fields of biotechnology, engineering of processes, and environmental principles. It's crucial to remember that the details of each stage might change based on the feedstock utilized and the kind of biofuel (ethanol, butanol, biodiesel, etc.). Moreover, developments in metabolic engineering, enzymatic procedures, and biotechnology are shaping and enhancing the processes involved in producing biofuels [47-49].

Menéndez-Ramirez and colleagues 50 conducted a study exploring the utilization of textile waste for ethanol production. The investigation involved the use of two textile types: one composed of viscose, polyester, cotton, and modal, and the other characterized by cellulose contents ranging from 80% to 93%. The textiles were cut into lengths of 2 to 5 mm and underwent an alkaline pretreatment using sodium hydroxide, followed by enzymatic hydrolysis. The resulting ethanol yields after 72 hours ranged from 17% to 39%. Due to their advantages, including lower maintenance costs (no need for paint, resistance to decay, and protection against insect infestations), reduced expenses for cooling and heating, and high rigidity, polymers with fiber reinforcement exhibit a broad spectrum of potential applications in the construction industry. This is supported by a research study conducted by Liang and Hota [51]. Other investigations have focused on utilizing carpet remnants as soilstrengthening agents or repurposed textile fibers as reinforcement materials in hybrids. The fiber reinforcement sheets measured 5 x 5 mm with lengths ranging from 5 to 50 mm. They were integrated into the soil at levels varying from 0.4% to 1.2%. For instance, materials lacking filaments exhibited an index of 200 kPa, a value that saw a 30% increase to 284 MPa when 1.5% of filaments were introduced. This augmentation significantly improved the mechanical characteristics related to shear forces. Furthermore, the axial stress at the yielding limit experienced enhancement, rising from 2% for materials without fibers to 5% in those containing 2.1% of fibers [52].

One of the significant challenges in utilizing textile fibers as reinforcement in material composites is improving the connection between the reinforcement and matrix. Certain studies concentrate on modifying reinforcing fibers through either physical or biological methods to enhance their interaction with the matrix by seeking modifications in their chemical composition. Various physical techniques are applied to fibers, including heat spike therapy, corona treatment, and a novel technique employing gamma rays. Fibrillation of the fibers through physical means of contact alteration leads to a structure with surface modifications and consequential mechanical alterations [53, 54]. The reduction in the level of polymerization and an increase in carbonyl content served as indicators of structural changes in the cellulosic constituent during a study on the impact of chemical processing (using alkaline) and gamma rays on cotton fibers. In a separate study, cellulose fibers exposed to radiation exhibited degradation ranging between 5% and 10% up to a dosage of 33.65 kGy. Furthermore, doses exceeding 241 kGy led to a decrease in crystallization, while

exposures up to 2 MGy resulted in a 1% reduction in crystallization. In general, gamma rays break down cellulose into smaller chains, causing the formation of "microcracks" through which water molecules can easily pass. Cellulose completely degrades up to 8.12 MGy, at which point unstructured regions become apparent along the length of the tiny fibers, facilitating the entry of molecules into the microfibers. The increasing pressure on resources from nature and advanced technology is driven by industrial growth and a commitment to safeguarding the ecosystem [55, 56].

Excellent performance polymers, characterized by distinct chemical and physical attributes, have been successfully created through the irradiation technique. Presently, the irradiation technique is also proving effective in upgrading organic polymers, leading to the production of goods with enhanced value for various applications. The most prevalent organic polymer on Earth is a substance known as hydroxyl. Due to the presence of volatile hydroxyl bonds in the linkage and their abundant availability, a broad spectrum of potential uses is anticipated. Altered celluloses, such as carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) and hydroxyethyl cellulose (HEC), are more advantageous in the production of specialized plastics due to their ability to dissolve in fluids [57, 58]. CMC, possessing an ionized carboxylic category, stands out as one of the most intriguing viscose derivatives that can be utilized for the creation of hydrogels. The exploration of plant-based polymers in the industry is currently underway. Despite this, these polymers can yield high-value products with fascinating applications when radiation is carefully applied. The blending of natural and synthetic polymers provides an alternative avenue, unlocking new possibilities for innovative applications [59, 60].

4. Waste and recycled textile materials used in Construction Applications

For masonry strengthening, fibers sourced from various waste streams are suitable. The utilization of these recycled fibers often entails lower processing costs compared to virgin fibers and obviates the need for landfill waste management [61]. The recent investigation into hybrids incorporating textile fibers as reinforcing materials has significantly enhanced performance potential. To develop specialized composite materials suitable for lighter construction, fabric trimming debris was amalgamated with epoxy resin and foundry gravel. While textile fibers typically do not enhance the bending and compressive strengths of polymeric building materials, their inclusion in the mixture does alleviate symptoms of brittleness [62]. Two issues, namely the removal of hazardous substances from the environment and the availability of substitute materials for the building sector, can be addressed by utilizing textile fibers in specific applications. Across the globe, a significant volume of post-consumer and textile-related fiber waste

is discarded. This not only poses a threat to the health of the planet but also squanders valuable resources. Typically, fabric trimmings are either burned in piles, releasing highly hazardous fumes into the air, or disposed of as non-biodegradable waste materials, posing environmental risks. Transforming these waste materials into usable resources eliminates the waste and introduces entirely new products. The integration of polymers with particles leads to the creation of polymeric concrete [63].

The form, dimensions, and proportions of substances are crucial variables in their development to achieve superior qualities. Polymer mixtures, typically fragile in the natural world, gain ductility and strength when fibers are introduced. However, the use of fibers in polymeric concrete materials has not been widespread [64]. The durability and hardness of composites are also influenced by the interaction between carbon fibers and the polymer matrix. Bridge pressures form in the fracture region, and fibers are expelled from the polymer matrix during an intermediate breakdown. These bridge pressures act as armor for the fracture, reducing the severity ratio of pressure near the crack tip. The interface shear force, governing the bridge force of fiber pull-out, plays a significant role, as the shear barrier between the fibers and the polymeric substrate primarily controls it. The structural behavior of polymeric concrete containing fabric remnants, specifically lingerie made of polyester, cotton, fabric, and viscose fibers, was studied [65]. A total of two and four weight percent of recovered fabric fibers were incorporated into two sets of developed mixtures containing plastic, fine gravel, and fabric fibers. According to the findings, the flexibility of polymeric concrete decreases with an increase in fiber content. However, the flexible strength measurements surpass those observed in concrete made solely from cement. All fiber-reinforced samples, upon reaching their peak demand, were maintained as an integral part with fibers retained in a polymer matrix, whereas polymeric concrete without fibers deteriorated and fragmented into shards [66, 67].

Concrete made from polymers utilizing olive oil derived from vegetable waste and trash has been developed for construction or furniture creation. Polymer concrete samples contained between 15 and 55 weight percent of residue, and a salinized technique was applied to enhance interaction properties. Raw alphamercaptopropyltrimethoxysilane was used for salinization. The findings indicate that olive oil enhances physical characteristics, and an additional salinized procedure allows for improvements at interfaces, resulting in enhanced physical characteristics [68]. The potential use of fabric remnants and sub-remainders for insulation purposes in the construction industry was assessed as part of an investigation into utilizing textile waste products in construction components. To achieve this, an exterior dual wall was constructed with a ventilation box filled with trash, and the thermal

insulation of the waste was evaluated by installing two heat transfer meters and four ambient temperature detectors on the building's side [69]. The findings suggest that incorporating materials into the exterior double wall improves its temperature performance by 30 to 56%. Constructing flooring for highways and roads, which must withstand the continuous impact from both motorists and pedestrians, represents one of the most challenging tasks in the construction industry. In a study, we created hybrids of lightweight reinforcements with a 30% fiber ratio using recovered residual fibers from carpeting. Characterizations were conducted on flexural strength, determination, and impact characteristics. According to the results, ductile behaviour and an increase in rigidity were observed during the three-point bending examination. However, density decreases as fiber concentrations increase [70].

The amount of weight dropped during the impact test was utilized to determine the energy absorbed. However, due to the overall capacity of the samples to absorb impact force, this measurement was not particularly crucial. Research yielding a polymer compound constructed with polyester resin, quartz dirt, and fabric glass fibers (2, 4, and 6 wt.%) provides evidence of the importance of the reinforcement substance amount in a hybrid [71]. The fibers had characteristics such as tensile strength (1300 N/cm²), weight (170 g/m²), mesh (3.5 x 3.5 mm), and thickness (0.51 mm). Stress transfer curves were identified for various reinforcing contents. The findings reveal a significant reduction in matrix cracking after reaching the maximum stress point. Two crucial elements, fiber pullout and bridge impact, influence fracture resistance. In the following section, we present a study conducted by our research department on a polymer concrete material made from recycled cotton fibers, limestone fragments, and polyester adhesive. The natural cotton fibers originated from discarded blue jeans [72].

5. Polymer Concrete: Experimental Results

5.1. Polymer Concrete Without Textile Fibers

In the initial phase of experimentation, various test specimens were crafted by combining different proportions of polyester resin and marble. The objective was to identify formulations that exhibited superior compressive and flexural strength. The outcomes for compressive strength are illustrated in Figure 3, revealing a notable trend: as the concentration of resin rises (or the proportion of marble particles decreases), there is a corresponding increase in strength values [73]. Figure 4 mirrors this behaviour, demonstrating a parallel enhancement in flexural strength with an increase in resin concentration. After careful consideration of the results, it was determined that specimens composed of 30% polyester resin and 70% marble particles yielded optimal performance. These findings align with prior research that utilized marble residues as an aggregate in concrete, showcasing a consistent effort to enhance durability, in accordance with other investigations in the field [74].



Figure 3. The compression strength of the polyester composites without textile fibres



Figure 4. The flexural strength of the polyester composites without textile fibres

5.2. Polymer concrete with waste textile fibres

In the subsequent phase, textile materials underwent segmentation into approximately 1.0 x 1.0 cm fragments, followed by pulverization in a windmill. The resultant fibers were introduced into a mixture comprising polyester resin and marble particles, devoid of any pre-treatment. Cotton fiber concentrations were set at 0.5%, 1.0%, and 1.5% by weight. Specimens were fabricated using the casting method in accordance with the European norm EN-196-1, possessing dimensions of 4 x 4 x 16 cm. Figure 5 illustrates the outcomes. The measured compressive strength values exhibit an intriguing and complex pattern: an impressive strength of 110 MPa is achieved at a lower cotton fiber content of 0.5% [64]. On the other hand, the strength shows a noticeable decrease to 96.21 MPa when the fiber concentration rises to 1.0%, but then experiences an increase to 117 MPa at a concentration of 1.5% cotton fibers. This varying compressive strength behavior points to a complicated interaction of variables affecting the mechanical characteristics of the composite material. The intrinsic characteristics of cotton fibers provide one plausible explanation for the observed pattern. One significant factor is the fibers' propensity to interact with the polymer matrix or clump together [75]. The fibers may spread out more uniformly at a lower concentration, explaining the increased compressive strength. The probability of fiber aggregation or interactions that momentarily jeopardize structural integrity may rise with concentration, leading to the strength decline at 1.0%. The subsequent 1.5% rise may be attributed to a possible alignment or optimization of

the fibers that improves overall strength. These results align with previous studies supporting the use of recycled fibers in concrete [76]. This approach not only addresses waste-related issues but also enhances mechanical qualities. The specific attributes of the recycled fibers incorporated into the composite material may contribute to increased strength. Additionally, by reducing reliance on conventional raw materials, thereby lowering costs and environmental impact, this strategy aligns with sustainability goals. These methods yield notable environmental benefits as recycled fibers are used to repurpose materials that would otherwise be discarded, helping conserve resources [77]. Moreover, the reduction in the amount of landfill space aligns with broader initiatives to mitigate the negative environmental effects of garbage disposal. In essence, the complex link between the concentration of cotton fibers. agglomeration behavior, and compressive strength highlights the possibility of developing composite materials that are both environmentally friendly and mechanically robust [78].

The trends in compressive strength that have been seen in the composites are strongly correlated with the cotton fiber concentrations; this is especially clear given that the lowest values have been recorded at a concentration of 1.0 weight percent. This phenomenon may be explained by the complex interaction between the polymer matrix and the cotton fibers, where changes in concentration have a direct effect on the total strength of the composite [79]. At a concentration of 1% weight percent, compressive strength seems to be lower, which suggests that the fibers may not be spread out evenly or may interact with the matrix in a way that isn't wanted.



Figure 5. The compression and bending strength of the marble-based composites with waste cotton textile fibres



Figure 6. Microstructural Images of cotton fibers with different

Additionally, it becomes clear that one of the main factors affecting the composite's mechanical performance is the size of the fibers. Cotton fibers, as seen in Figure 6, have lengths spanning several millimetres with an average diameter of 10 µm, according to scanning electron microscopy (SEM) examination. This is significant because these fibers have the ability to either improve or decrease the composite's overall structural integrity. Such largediameter fibers might complicate the composite's behavior through their mechanical alignment, distribution, and interactions with the surrounding matrix [80]. Essentially, the composite's compressive strength is a complex result influenced by the complex interaction between fiber concentration and size, rather than being exclusively determined by the concentration of cotton fibers. Understanding and maximizing the mechanical qualities of the composite material depend heavily on this interaction. Based on what was learned from testing

with different amounts of cotton fiber in earlier stages, the next stage found the perfect mix of 25% polyester resin, 74% marble, and 1% cotton fiber. This decision is based on a thorough analysis of concentration and size, with the goal of finding a balance that optimizes the compressive strength of the composite and makes use of the cotton fibers' reinforcing properties. Based on the interdependencies found between fiber concentration and size, this chosen ratio is a calculated compromise meant to maximize the mechanical performance of the composite [81].

6. Conclusion

Many unique characteristics and creative contributions make this study on the production of building materials using waste-based reinforcements and recovered textiles stand out. The study emphasizes how global fiber consumption plays a crucial role in the buildup of undesired textiles, and it attributes this increase to reasons including population growth, industrialization, and rising living standards. With a special emphasis on the continuous management of textile waste programs that provide equal weight to environmental and economic sustainability, the importance of sustainable waste management in the textile industry is highlighted.

The study highlights a noteworthy innovation, which is the crucial responsibility of producers in overseeing the whole lifespan of waste textiles made of composite materials. At the conclusion of an item's useful life, manufacturers are crucial to this paradigm shift towards sustainable procedures, from collection to removal. The research gains a unique dimension from this emphasis on the manufacturer's responsibilities, which acknowledges them as important participants in the circular economy model. The report also presents a thorough strategy for establishing a dynamic circular framework. One of the most important components of this approach is involving key stakeholders, such as consumers, charitable organizations, government agencies, and corporate executives. The research stands out for its comprehensive approach to sustainable practices in the textile and construction sectors because of this multi-stakeholder involvement, which is positioned as an inventive and crucial component.

Another unique feature of this research is the proposal for poor countries, who are the main manufacturers of textiles, to spearhead the shift from a linear to a circular economy. This forward-looking viewpoint recognizes the special influence these countries may have on the development of sustainable practices worldwide. The study also emphasizes how crucial consumer knowledge is in encouraging ecologically friendly consumption habits while buying textiles. This study gains an important new perspective by emphasizing education and awareness, which acknowledges the importance that educated consumer decisions have in promoting sustainability.

Additionally, the report recommends rich countries treat their cotton waste in a closed-loop, circular manner when exporting textile scraps to impoverished countries is forbidden. This suggestion is in line with the values of global collaboration and ethical waste management. One step in the direction of sustainable building material manufacturing techniques is the incorporation of advances in biological sciences fabric recycling technologies. into This acknowledgement of scientific developments highlights the study's dedication to integrating state-of-the-art approaches for tackling the problems associated with textile waste. In conclusion, this study stands out for its careful examination of recovered textiles, waste-based reinforcements, and the use of fiber worldwide in the construction sector. Research on sustainable practices

in these industries is significant and relevant because of the emphasis on manufacturer accountability, multistakeholder participation, the role of developing nations, consumer awareness, and integration of scientific developments.

References

- M. Fareghian, M. Afrazi, A. Fakhimi, Soil Reinforcement by Waste Tire Textile Fibers: Small-Scale Experimental Tests. Journal of Materials in Civil Engineering, 35(2), (2023) 4022402.<u>https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)MT.194</u> <u>3-5533.0004574</u>
- [2] A. Patti, G. Cicala, D. Acierno, Eco-sustainability of the textile production: Waste recovery and current recycling in the Composites world. Polymers, 13(1), (2021) 134. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/polym13010134</u>
- C. Stone, F.M. Windsor, M. Munday, I. Durance, Natural or synthetic – how global trends in textile usage threaten freshwater environments. Science of the Total Environment, 718, (2020) 134689. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.134689
- [4] Y.L. Pang, A.Z. Abdullah, Current status of textile industry wastewater management and research progress in malaysia: A review. Clean - Soil, Air, Water, 41(8), (2013) 751–764. https://doi.org/10.1002/clen.201000318
- [5] J.P. Juanga-Labayen, I. V. Labayen, Q. Yuan, A Review on Textile Recycling Practices and Challenges. Textiles, 2(1), (2022) 174–188. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/textiles2010010</u>
- [6] E.M. Aizenshtein, Production and use of chemical fibers in 2010. Fibre Chemistry, 43(6), (2012) 395-405. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10692-012-9372-1</u>
- M. Krifa, S. Stewart Stevens, Cotton Utilization in Conventional and Non-Conventional Textiles-A Statistical Review. Agricultural Sciences, 7(10), (2016) 747–758. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/as.2016.710069</u>
- [8] G. Velmurugan, K. Babu, M. Nagaraj, A.J.P. Kumar, Investigations of Flame Retardancy, Mechanical and Thermal Properties of Woven Hemp/PP Hybrid Composite for Insulating Material Reinforced with Synthetic Silicon and Zinc Oxides. Silicon,15, (2023) 4875–4888. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12633-023-02408-4
- [9] G. Velmurugan, V. Siva Shankar, M. Kalil Rahiman, D. Elil Raja, M. Nagaraj, T.J. Nagalakshmi, Experimental Investigation of High Filler Loading of SiO₂ on the Mechanical and Dynamic Mechanical Analysis of Natural PALF

fibre-Based Hybrid Composite. Silicon, 15, (2023). 5587–5602. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12633-023-02464-w

- [10] P. Grammelis, N. Margaritis, P. Dallas, D. Rakopoulos, G. Mavrias, A review on management of end of life tires (Elts) and alternative uses of textile fibers. Energies, 14(3), (2021) 571. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/en14030571</u>
- [11] M.N. Rao, R. Sultana, S.H. Kota, Chapter 2 -Municipal Solid Waste. Solid and Hazardous Waste Management, (2017) 3-120. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-809734-</u> 2.00002-X
- M. Jones, A. Mautner, S. Luenco, A. Bismarck, S. John, Engineered mycelium composite construction materials from fungal biorefineries: A critical review. Materials and Design, 187, (2020) 108397. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matdes.2019.108397
- H. Meziane, M. Laita, K. Azzaoui, A. Boulouiz, M. Neffa, R. Sabbahi, A.B.D. Nandiyanto, A. Elidrissi, N. Abidi, M. Siaj, Nanocellulose fibers: A Review of Preparation Methods, Characterization Techniques, and Reinforcement Applications. Moroccan Journal of Chemistry, 12(1), (2024) 1-448. https://doi.org/10.48317/IMIST.PRSM/morjchem-v12i1.44573
- [14] G.Y. Nenkov, Shifting focus in the fight against core environmental challenges. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, (2024) 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-023-01001-w
- [15] S. Gita, A. Hussan, T.G. Choudhury, Impact of textile dyes waste on aquatic environments and its treatment. Ecology and Environment, 35(3c), (2017) 2349–2353.
- [16] V. Ganesan, V. Shanmugam, V. Alagumalai, B. Kaliyamoorthy, O. Das, M. Misra, Optimisation of mechanical behaviour of Calotropis gigantea and Prosopis juliflora natural fibre-based hybrid composites by using Taguchi-Grey relational analysis. Composites Part C: Open Access, 13, (2024) 100433. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcomc.2024.100433
- [17] A. Azanaw, B. Birlie, B. Teshome, M. Jemberie, Textile effluent treatment methods and ecofriendly resolution of textile wastewater. Case Studies in Chemical and Environmental Engineering, 6, (2022) 100230. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cscee.2022.100230</u>
- [18] N. Lakshmaiya, V. Ganesan, P. Paramasivam, S. Dhanasekaran, Influence of Biosynthesized Nanoparticles Addition and Fibre Content on the Mechanical and Moisture Absorption Behaviour

of Natural Fibre Composite. Applied Sciences, 12(24), (2022) 13030. https://doi.org/10.3390/app122413030

- [19] R. Mia, M. Selim, A.M. Shamim, M. Chowdhury, S. Sultana, M. Armin, M. Hossain, R. Akter, S. Dey, H. Naznin, Review on various types of pollution problem in textile dyeing & printing industries of Bangladesh and recommandation for mitigation. Journal of Textile Engineering & Fashion Technology, 5(4), (2019) 220–226. https://doi.org/10.15406/jteft.2019.05.00205
- [20] V. Kumar, P. Patil, & C. Sundaramoorthy, Cotton and Man-made Textile Sector in India-A Curtain Raiser and Relevant Environment Issues. Cotton Research Journal, 9(1&2), (2021).
- [21] S.M. Imtiazuddin, M. Mumtaz, K.A. Mallick, Pollutants of wastewater characteristics in textile industries. Journal of Basic & Applied Sciences, 8(2), (2012) 554–556. https://doi.org/10.6000/19275129.2012.08.02.47
- [22] K. Slater, (2003) Environmental impact of textiles: production, processes and protection. Woodhead Publishing Ltd, Cambridge, England. https://doi.org/10.1533/9781855738645
- [23] N. Colin, A. Maceda-Veiga, N. Flor-Arnau, J. Mora, P. Fortuño, C. Vieira, N. Prat, J. Cambra, A. De Sostoa, Ecological impact and recovery of a Mediterranean river after receiving the effluent from a textile dyeing industry. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety, 132, (2016) 295–303. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2016.06.017</u>
- [24] N. Athira, D.S. Jaya, The Use of Fish Biomarkers for Assessing Textile Effluent Contamination of Aquatic Ecosystems: A Review. Nature Environment & Pollution Technology, 17(1), (2018) 25-34.
- [25] [T. Islam, M.R. Repon, T. Islam, Z. Sarwar, M.M. Rahman, Impact of textile dyes on health and ecosystem: A review of structure, causes, and potential solutions. Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 30(4), (2023) 9207–9242. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-022-24398-3
- [26] V. Ganesan, B. Kaliyamoorthy, Utilization of Taguchi Technique to Enhance the Interlaminar Shear Strength of Wood Dust Filled Woven Jute Fiber Reinforced Polyester Composites in Cryogenic Environment. Journal of Natural Fibers, 19(6), (2022) 1990-2001. https://doi.org/10.1080/15440478.2020.1789021
- [27] G. Sandin, G.M. Peters, Environmental impact of textile reuse and recycling–A review. Journal of Cleaner Production, 184, (2018) 353–365. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.02.266</u>

- [28] J.J. Lu, H. Hamouda, Current status of fiber waste recycling and its future. Advanced Materials Research. 878, (2014) 122-131. <u>https://doi.org/10.4028/www.scientific.net/AMR.8</u> 78.122
- [29] T. Toprak, P. Anis, Textile industry's environmental effects and approaching cleaner production and sustainability, an overview. Journal of Textile Engineering & Fashion Technology, 2(4), (2017) 429–442. <u>https://doi.org/10.15406/jteft.2017.02.00066</u>
- [30] S. Sekar, S. Suresh Kumar, S. Vigneshwaran, G. Velmurugan, Evaluation of Mechanical and Water Absorption Behavior of Natural Fiber-Reinforced Hybrid Biocomposites. Journal of Natural Fibers, 19(5), (2020) 1772-1782. https://doi.org/10.1080/15440478.2020.1788487
- [31] M. Yusuf, (2019) Synthetic dyes: a threat to the environment and water ecosystem. Textiles and Clothing, 11–26. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119526599.ch2
- [32] P.S. Kumar, A. Saravanan, (2017) Sustainable wastewater treatments in textile sector. In Sustainable fibres and textiles. Woodhead Publishing, 323–346. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-102041-</u> <u>8.00011-1</u>
- [33] S. Yousef, M. Tatariants, M. Tichonovas, Z. Sarwar, I. Jonuškienė, L. Kliucininkas, A new strategy for using textile waste as a sustainable source of recovered cotton. Resources, Conservation and Recycling, 145, (2019) 359– 369. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2019.02.031
- [34] K. Sharma, V. Khilari, B.U. Chaudhary, A.B. Jogi, A.B. Pandit, R.D. Kale, Cotton based composite fabric reinforced with waste polyester fibers for improved mechanical properties. Waste Management, 107, (2020) 227–234. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2020.04.011
- [35] M. Anantharaman, (2024) Recycling Class: The Contradictions of Inclusion in Urban Sustainability. MIT Press, Cambridge. https://doi.org/10.7551/mitpress/14972.001.0001
- [36] V. Alagumalai, V. Shanmugam, N.K. Balasubramanian, Y. Krishnamoorthy, V. Ganesan, M. Försth, G. Sas, F. Berto, A. Chanda, O. Das, Impact response and damage tolerance of hybrid glass/kevlar-fibre epoxy structural composites. Polymers, 13(16), (2021) 2591. https://doi.org/10.3390/polym13162591
- [37] P. Athanasopoulos, A. Zabaniotou, Postconsumer textile thermochemical recycling to fuels and biocarbon: A critical review. Science of

the Total Environment, 834, (2022) 155387. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2022.155387

- [38] M.T. Halimi, M. Ben Hassen, F. Sakli, Cotton waste recycling: Quantitative and qualitative assessment. Resources, Conservation and Recycling, 52(5), (2008) 785–791. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2007.11.009
- [39] R.E. Vera, F. Zambrano, A. Suarez, A. Pifano, R. Marquez, M. Farrell, M. Ankeny, H. Jameel, R. Gonzalez, Transforming textile wastes into biobased building blocks via enzymatic hydrolysis: A review of key challenges and opportunities. Cleaner and Circular Bioeconomy, 3, (2022) 100026. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clcb.2022.100026
- [40] C.H. Kuo, P.J. Lin, Y.Q. Wu, L.Y. Ye, D.J. Yang, C.J. Shieh, C.K. Lee, Simultaneous Saccharification and Fermentation of Waste Textiles for Ethanol Production. BioResources, 9(2), (2014) 2866–2875. https://doi.org/10.15376/biores.9.2.2866-2875
- [41] I. Wojnowska-Baryła, K. Bernat, M. Zaborowska, Strategies of Recovery and Organic Recycling Used in Textile Waste Management. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 19(10), (2022) 5859. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19105859
- [42] A. Jeihanipour, K. Karimi, C. Niklasson, M.J. Taherzadeh, A novel process for ethanol or biogas production from cellulose in blendedfibers waste textiles. Waste Management, 30(12), (2010) 2504–2509. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2010.06.026
- B. Piribauer, A. Bartl, Textile recycling processes, state of the art and current developments: A mini review. Waste Management and Research, 37(2), (2019) 112–119. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/0734242X18819277</u>
- [44] F. Quartinello, S. Vecchiato, S. Weinberger, K. Kremenser, L. Skopek, A. Pellis, G.M. Guebitz, Highly selective enzymatic recovery of building blocks fromwool-cotton-polyester textile waste blends. Polymers, 10(10), (2018) 1107. https://doi.org/10.3390/polym10101107
- [45] M. Gericke, A.J.R. Amaral, T. Budtova, P. De Wever, T. Groth, T. Heinze, H. Höfte, A. Huber, O. Ikkala, J. Kapuśniak, R. Kargl, J.F. Mano, M. Másson, P. Matricardi, B.Medronho, M. Norgren, T. Nypelo, L. Nystrom, A. Roig, M. Sauer, P. Fardim, The European Polysaccharide Network of Excellence (EPNOE) research roadmap 2040: Advanced strategies for exploiting the vast potential of polysaccharides as renewable bioresources. Carbohydrate Polymers, 326,

(2024) 121633. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2023.121633

- [46] V.K. Balasubramanian, J.B. Muthuramalingam, Y.-P. Chen, J.-Y. Chou, Recent trends in lactic acid-producing microorganisms through microbial fermentation for the synthesis of polylactic acid. Archives of Microbiology, 206, (2024) 31. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00203-023-03745-z</u>
- [47] K. Steiner, V. Leitner, F. Zeppetzauer, D. Ostner, C. Burgstaller, H. Rennhofer, A. Bartl, D. Ribitsch, G.M. Guebitz, Optimising chemoenzymatic separation of polyester cellulose blends. Resources, Conservation and Recycling, 202, (2024) 107369. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2023.107369
- [48] C. Dourado Fernandes, B.F. Oechsler, C. Sayer, D. de Oliveira, P.H. Hermes de Araújo, Enzymatic Synthesis of Hydroxy-Functionalized Glycerol-Based Polyesters: A Study of Functionalization, Regioselectivity Control, and Catalyst Reuse. Macromolecules, 57, (2024) 456–469. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.macromol.3c01533
- [49] P.C. Nath, R. Sharma, S. Debnath, P.K. Nayak, R. Roy, M. Sharma, B.S. Inbaraj, K. Sridhar, Recent advances in production of sustainable and biodegradable polymers from agro-food waste: Applications in tissue engineering and regenerative medicines. International Journal of Biological Macromolecules, 259, (2024) 129129. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2023.129129
- [50] V.S. Shankar, G. Velmurugan, D.E. Raja, T. Manikandan, S.S. Kumar, J. Singh, M. Nagaraj, A.J.P. Kumar, A Review on the Development of Silicon and Silica Based Nano Materials in the Food Industry. Silicon, 16, (2023) 979–988. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12633-023-02748-1
- [51] R. Liang, G. Hota, (2013) Fiber-reinforced polymer (FRP) composites in environmental engineering applications. In Developments in Fiber-Reinforced Polymer (FRP) Composites for Civil Engineering, Woodhead Publishing, 410– 468.

https://doi.org/10.1533/9780857098955.2.410

- [52] K. Subramanian, S.S. Chopra, E. Cakin, X. Li, C.S.K. Lin, Environmental life cycle assessment of textile bio-recycling-valorizing cottonpolyester textile waste to pet fiber and glucose syrup. Resources, Conservation and Recycling, 161, (2020) 104989. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2020.104989
- [53] G. Velmurugan, V.S. Shankar, S.G. Shree, M. Abarna, B. Rupa, (2023) Review and Challenges of Green Polymer-Based Nanocomposite

Materials. Lecture Notes in Mechanical Engineering, Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-99-2349-6_55

- [54] N. Lakshmaiya, R. Surakasi, V.S. Nadh, C. Srinivas, S. Kaliappan, V. Ganesan, P. Paramasivam, S. Dhanasekaran, Tanning Wastewater Sterilization in the Dark and Sunlight Using Psidium guajava Leaf-Derived Copper Oxide Nanoparticles and Their Characteristics. ACS Omega, 8, (2023) 39680–39689. https://doi.org/10.1021/acsomega.3c05588
- [55] M.A. Oliveira, J. Antonio, Animal-based waste for building acoustic applications: A review. Journal of Building Engineering, 84(1), (2024) 108430. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2023.108430</u>
- [56] B. Liu, Y. Jiang, W. Zhang, J. Yan, L. Xie, P. Gurung, Enhancing performance and sustainability: CRB600H high-strength reinforcement in recycled concrete. Sustainable Materials and Technologies, 39, (2024) e00788. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.susmat.2023.e00788</u>
- [57] S. Khandaker, D. Akter, M. Hasan, A. Saifullah, H.M. Marwani, A. Islam, A.M. Asiri, M.M. Rahman, M.M. Hasan, T. Kuba, from industrial jute fibre spinning wastes to biofibre-reinforced plastics. Materials Chemistry and Physics, 313, (2024) 128586. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matchemphys.2023.128</u> 586
- [58] J. Zhang, S. Song, C. Zhang, C. Li, J. Xu, L. Xia, X. Liu, W. Xu, Fabrication of leather-like yarns using waste leather for textile application. Progress in Organic Coatings, 186, (2024) 108053.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.porgcoat.2023.108053

- [59] G. Ramalingam, A.K. Priya, L. Gnanasekaran, S. Rajendran, T.K.A. Hoang, Biomass and waste derived silica, activated carbon and ammoniabased materials for energy-related applications– A review. Fuel, 355, (2024) 129490. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2023.129490
- [60] A. Benallel, A. Tilioua, M. Garoum, Development of thermal insulation panels bio-composite containing cardboard and date palm fibers. Journal of Cleaner Production, 434, (2024) 139995.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2023.139995

[61] N. Lakshmaiya, S. Kaliappan, P.P. Patil, V. Ganesan, J.A. Dhanraj, C. Sirisamphanwong, T. Wongwuttanasatian, S. Chowdhury, S. Channumsin, M. Channumsin, K. Techato, Influence of Oil Palm Nano Filler on Interlaminar Shear and Dynamic Mechanical Properties of Flax/Epoxy-Based Hybrid Nanocomposites under Cryogenic Condition. Coatings, 12(11),

1675.

(2022) https://doi.org/10.3390/coatings12111675

- [62] S.S. Rahman, S. Siddiqua, C. Cherian, Sustainable applications of textile waste fiber in the construction and geotechnical industries: A retrospect. Cleaner Engineering and Technology, 6, (2022) 100420. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clet.2022.100420
- [63] S.S. Ahmad, I.M.M. Mulyadi, N. Ibrahim, A.R. Othman, The application of recycled textile and innovative spatial design strategies for a recycling centre exhibition space. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 234, (2016) 525–535. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.271
- [64] D. Arunkumar, A. Latha, A.S. Kumar, S.J. Singh, G. Velmurugan, M. Nagaraj, Experimental Investigations of Flammability, Mechanical and Moisture Absorption Properties of Natural Flax / NanoSiO₂ Based Hybrid Polypropylene Composites. Silicon, 15, (2023) 7621–7637. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s12633-023-02611-3</u>
- [65] P. Sadrolodabaee, J. Claramunt, M. Ardanuy, A. de la Fuente, Mechanical and durability characterization of a new textile waste micro-fiber reinforced cement composite for building applications. Case Studies in Construction Materials, 14, (2021) e00492. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cscm.2021.e00492
- [66] P.K. Sarangi, R.K. Srivastava, U.K. Sahoo, A.K. Singh, J. Parikh, S. Bansod, G. Parsai, M. Luqman, K.P. Shadangi, D. Diwan, Biotechnological innovations in nanocellulose production from waste biomass with a focus on pineapple waste, Chemosphere. 349, (2024) 140833. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2023.140 833
- [67] M.B. Khot, K.S. Sridhar, D. Sethuram, A review on textile waste production, management and its applications in construction engineering field. International Journal of Structural Engineering, 13(2), (2023) 151–173. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJSTRUCTE.2023.13012
 6
- [68] S. Sanjeevi, V. Shanmugam, S. Kumar, V. Ganesan, G. Sas, D.J. Johnson, M. Shanmugam, A. Ayyanar, K. Naresh, R.E. Neisiany, O. Das, Effects of water absorption on the mechanical properties of hybrid natural fibre/phenol formaldehyde composites. Scientific Reports, 11, (2021) 1-11. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-92457-9</u>
- [69] D.G.K. Dissanayake, D.U. Weerasinghe, Fabric waste recycling: A systematic review of methods,

applications, and challenges. Materials Circular Economy, 3, (2021) 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1007/s42824-021-00042-2

- [70] P.K. Mishra, A.M.D. Izrayeel, B.K. Mahur, A. Ahuja, V.K. Rastogi, A comprehensive review on textile waste valorization techniques and their applications, Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 29, (2022) 65962–65977. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-022-22222-6
- K.H.D. Tang, State of the Art in Textile Waste Management: A Review. Textiles, 3(4), (2023) 454-467. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/textiles3040027</u>
- [72] N.P. Tran, C. Gunasekara, D.W. Law, S. Houshvar, S. Setunge, Α. Cwirzen, Comprehensive review on sustainable fiber reinforced concrete incorporating recycled textile waste. Journal of Sustainable Cement-Based Materials, 11(1),(2022)28-42. https://doi.org/10.1080/21650373.2021.1875273
- M. Matheswaran, P. Suresh, G. Velmurugan, M. Nagaraj, Evaluation of Agrowaste/Nanoclay/SiO2-Based Blended Nanocomposites for Structural Applications: Comparative Physical and Mechanical Properties, Silicon. 15, (2023) 7095-7108. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12633-023-02570-9
- [74] S. Mehdipour-Ataei, Ε. High-end Aram, applications of unsaturated polyester composites. Applications of Unsaturated Polyester Resins, (2023)421-439. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-323-99466-8.00009-5
- [75] B. Sangmesh, N. Patil, K.K. Jaiswal, T.P. Gowrishankar, K.K. Selvakumar, M.S. Jyothi, R. Jyothilakshmi, S. Kumar, Development of sustainable alternative materials for the construction of green buildings using agricultural residues: A review. Construction and Building Materials, 368, (2023) 130457. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2023.1304</u> <u>57</u>
- [76] P. Chaudhary, S. Bansal, B.B. Sharma, S. Saini, A. Joshi, Waste biomass-derived activated carbons for various energy storage device applications: A review. Journal of Energy Storage, 78, (2024) 109996. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.est.2023.109996</u>
- [77] G. Velmurugan, K. Babu, Statistical analysis of mechanical properties of wood dust filled Jute fiber based hybrid composites under cryogenic atmosphere using Grey-Taguchi method. Materials Research Express, 7(6), (2020). https://doi.org/10.1088/2053-1591/ab9ce9

- [78] R. Kumar, T. Singh, H. Singh, Solid waste-based hybrid natural fiber polymeric composites. Journal of Reinforced Plastics and Composites, 34(16), (2015) 1979–1985. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/0731684415588551</u>
- [79] G. Velmurugan, L. Natrayan, Experimental investigations of moisture diffusion and mechanical properties of interply rearrangement of glass/Kevlar-based hybrid composites under cryogenic environment. Journal of Materials Research and Technology, 23, (2023) 4513– 4526. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmrt.2023.02.089</u>
- [80] V. Ganesan, V. Shanmugam, B. Kaliyamoorthy, S. Sanjeevi, S.K. Shanmugam, V. Alagumalai, Y. Krishnamoorthy, M. Försth, G. Sas, S.M.J. Razavi, O. Das, Optimisation of mechanical properties in saw-dust/woven-jute fibre/polyester structural composites under liquid nitrogen environment using response surface methodology. Polymers, 13(15), (2021) 2471. https://doi.org/10.3390/polym13152471
- [81] P. Behera, M.T. Noman, M. Petru, Enhanced mechanical properties of eucalyptus-basaltbased hybrid-reinforced cement composites. Polymers, 12(12), (2020) 2837. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/polym12122837</u>

Acknowledgement

The authors should thank the Saveetha School of Engineering, SIMATS, for providing support and opportunities to carry out this research work.

Authors Contribution Statement

Velmurugan G, Jasgurpreet Singh Chohan and Rupa B: Conceptualization, Writing an original draft. Jaswanth V and Matcha Doondi Venkata Kodanda Sai Anvesh: Methodology. Priyankka A L, Thirunavukarasu P and Abinaya M: Investigation, Review.

Funding

No funding was received for this research work.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

Has this article screened for similarity?

Yes

About the License

© The Author(s) 2024. The text of this article is open access and licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.