

BIOTECHNOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO PLASTIC WASTE DEGRADATION

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Abstract

Plastic pollution is a persistent global environmental problem driven by massive production of recalcitrant polymers such as polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP) and polyethylene terephthalate (PET). Biotechnological strategies—microbial degradation, enzyme catalysis, fungal decomposition, engineered microbial consortia, and enzyme engineering—offer promising, potentially sustainable routes to degrade or upcycle plastic waste under controlled conditions. Key advances include discovery of PET-degrading bacteria (*Ideonella sakaiensis*) and PETases, development of engineered PET hydrolases with enhanced activity and thermostability, and evidence that fungi and mixed microbial consortia can attack diverse polymers. However, the intrinsic chemical inertness of polyolefins (PE/PP), variable additives, and inconsistent experimental standards complicate translation from lab demonstrations to scalable processes. Integrated approaches that combine pretreatment (oxidation, UV, thermal), enzyme cocktails, synthetic biology (pathway engineering, secretion systems), and process engineering (bioreactors, immobilized enzymes, coupled upcycling pathways) may overcome these hurdles and produce value-added products (monomers, oligomers, biopolymers). Life-cycle impacts, CO₂ release, and techno-economic feasibility require careful assessment. Continued discovery of novel enzymes, rational enzyme design, and development of robust consortia optimized for mixed-waste streams are essential next steps toward industrially relevant biotechnology solutions for plastic waste management.

Keywords Plastic biodegradation; PETase; microbial consortia; enzyme engineering; plastic upcycling

Introduction

The global accumulation of plastic waste (>billions of tonnes historically) challenges ecosystems and waste-management systems [1]. Conventional mechanical recycling is limited by polymer contamination and downcycling, while chemical recycling and incineration have environmental and economic constraints[2]. Biotechnological methods—using microbes, fungi, and their enzymes—aim to depolymerize plastics into monomers or transform them into biomass or useful bioproducts[3]. The discovery of *Ideonella sakaiensis* and its PETase/MHETase system demonstrated that microbes could evolve pathways to assimilate synthetic polymers, inspiring enzyme discovery and engineering efforts[4]. Enzymatic depolymerization has advanced rapidly for PET, with engineered variants showing much higher activity and thermostability; conversely, polyolefins (PE, PP) remain resistant because of their C–C backbone and hydrophobicity, although oxidative pretreatments and specialized microbial consortia show promise[5]. Fungi, including ligninolytic species, secrete oxidative enzymes that attack certain polymers and additives. Despite promising laboratory studies [6], critical barriers to field or industrial deployment include slow rates under ambient conditions, heterogeneity of waste streams, additives that inhibit enzymes/microbes, and inconsistent reporting standards for degradation metrics[7]. Addressing these challenges requires integrated pretreatment–biocatalysis pipelines, robust bioprocess design, and rigorous environmental and techno-economic assessment [8].

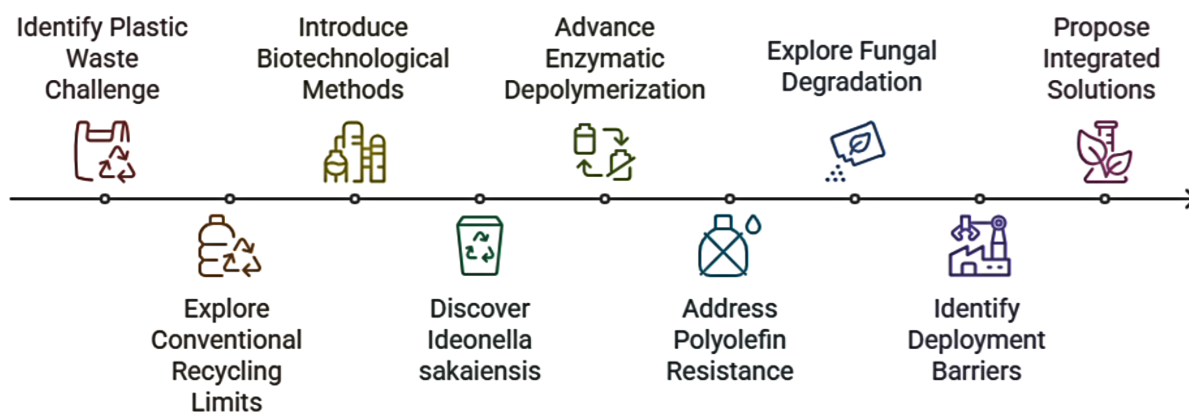


Figure 01. Biotechnological plastic recycling process

Methodology

This paper synthesizes evidence from primary studies and reviews (see references) and proposes a consolidated experimental framework for lab-to-pilot evaluation:

1. **Feedstock characterization** — Physicochemical analysis of plastic samples: polymer type, crystallinity, molecular weight distribution, additives and surface properties (FTIR, DSC, GPC, SEM).
2. **Pretreatment** — Evaluate oxidative (mild ozone, Fenton, photo-oxidation), thermal or mechanical surface modification to introduce functional groups and increase hydrophilicity prior to biological treatment.
3. **Biocatalyst selection** — Screen microbial isolates, fungal strains and enzyme candidates (PETases, cutinases, laccases, peroxidases) using high-throughput microplate assays (clearance zones, weight-loss, CO₂ evolution, HPLC monomer detection).
4. **Enzyme optimization** — Use directed evolution / rational design to improve activity and thermostability (mutagenesis, computational design), and develop expression/secretion systems (*E. coli*, yeast, *Bacillus*) and immobilization strategies for process use.
5. **Consortium engineering** — Assemble synthetic or enriched consortia that combine depolymerizers and downstream assimilators; test syntrophic interactions and robustness on mixed-plastic substrates.
6. **Scale-up and process metrics** — Bench-scale bioreactors with controlled temperature, agitation, pH; monitor monomer release (HPLC/GC), CO₂ evolution (respirometry), biomass formation, and mass-balance to quantify mineralization vs. depolymerization.
7. **Life-cycle & TEA** — Estimate environmental impacts (GHG emissions, material flows) and techno-economic feasibility for candidate routes (enzymatic depolymerization, microbial upcycling).

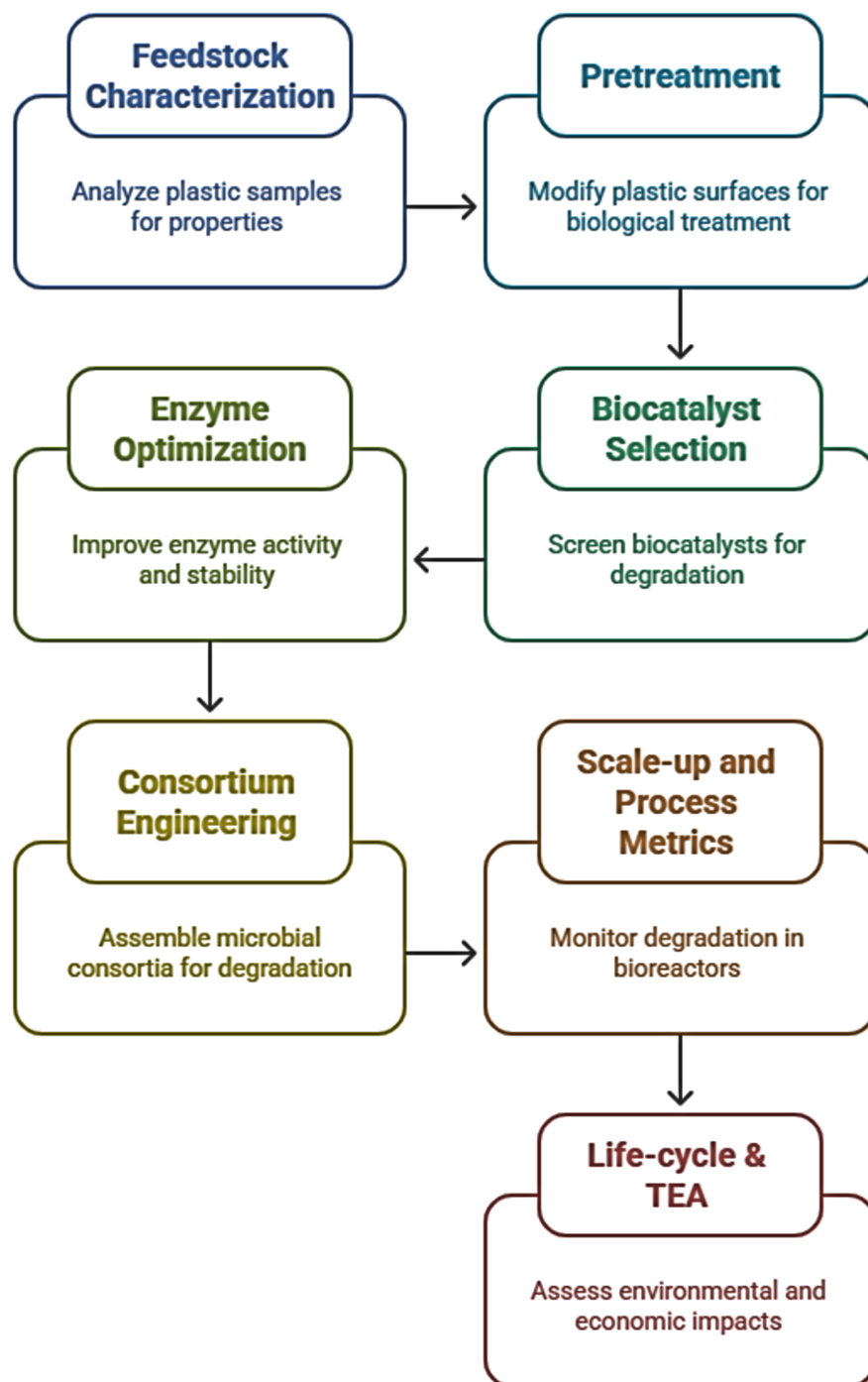


Figure 02. Experimental framework for plastic degradation

Table 1. Quantitative experimental framework for biological depolymerization and upcycling of plastic waste from laboratory to pilot scale.

Step	Stage	Key Quantitative Parameters	Methods / Tools	Measured Outputs
1	Feedstock Characterization	Polymer composition (%), crystallinity (%), Mw/Mn (kDa), additive wt%, surface roughness (nm), contact angle (°)	FTIR, DSC, GPC, SEM, AFM, contact-angle goniometry	Polymer identity, crystallinity index, molecular weight distribution, surface energy
2	Pretreatment	Oxidant dose (mg O ₃ g ⁻¹ plastic), temperature (°C), treatment time (min–h), particle size (µm), carbonyl index	Ozone reactor, Fenton system, UV chamber, thermal milling	Increase in carbonyl index (%), hydrophilicity change (Δcontact angle), surface area increase (%)

3	Biocatalyst Selection	Enzyme activity (U mg^{-1}), weight loss ($\% \text{ day}^{-1}$), CO_2 evolution ($\text{mg g}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$), monomer release (mg L^{-1})	Microplate assays, respirometry, gravimetry, HPLC	Best-performing strains/enzymes ranked by depolymerization rate
4	Enzyme Optimization	$k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{m}}$ ($\text{M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), T_{50} ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), half-life (h), expression yield (mg L^{-1}), immobilization efficiency (%)	Site-directed mutagenesis, computational modeling, fermenters	Enhanced catalytic efficiency, improved thermal stability, scalable enzyme yield
5	Consortium Engineering	Species ratio (%), growth rate (h^{-1}), substrate conversion (%), stability over cycles (n)	Co-culture reactors, qPCR, metagenomics	Optimized consortia with sustained depolymerization and assimilation
6	Scale-up & Process Metrics	Reactor volume (L), depolymerization rate ($\text{g L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$), mineralization (%), biomass yield (g g^{-1} substrate)	Bench bioreactors, HPLC/GC, respirometry	Mass balance closure, depolymerization vs mineralization efficiency
7	Life-Cycle & TEA	GHG emissions ($\text{kg CO}_2\text{-eq kg}^{-1}$ plastic), energy demand (MJ kg^{-1}), production cost ($\$ \text{ kg}^{-1}$ product), CAPEX/OPEX	LCA software (SimaPro/OpenLCA), TEA models	Environmental footprint and economic feasibility of candidate routes

This table presents a consolidated, quantitative workflow for evaluating plastic biodegradation and upcycling processes across laboratory and pilot scales. It outlines each experimental stage—from feedstock characterization and pretreatment to biocatalyst screening, enzyme optimization, consortium engineering, and scale-up—along with measurable parameters, analytical techniques, and expected outputs. The framework emphasizes performance metrics such as depolymerization rates, monomer yields, enzymatic efficiency, and mass-balance closure, while integrating life-cycle assessment (LCA) and techno-economic analysis (TEA) to assess environmental impact and economic feasibility. This structured approach enables systematic comparison of candidate biological routes and supports data-driven scale-up decisions.

Results and Discussion

The enzymatic degradation of polyethylene terephthalate (PET) represents one of the most significant breakthroughs in the field of biotechnological plastic waste management[9]. The discovery of *Ideonella sakaiensis* and its PETase and MHETase enzymes has revolutionized the understanding of microbial depolymerization of synthetic polymers[10]. These enzymes catalyze the hydrolysis of PET into its monomeric units—terephthalic acid (TPA) and ethylene glycol (EG)—under mild environmental conditions[11]. Structural and biochemical studies, including crystallographic analyses, have revealed the unique catalytic mechanism that allows PETase to accommodate and cleave the highly stable ester bonds within PET chains[12]. Advances in protein engineering have further optimized these enzymes, resulting in variants such as the leaf-branch compost cutinase (LCC) mutants and the FAST-PETase, which exhibit enhanced thermostability and catalytic efficiency[13].

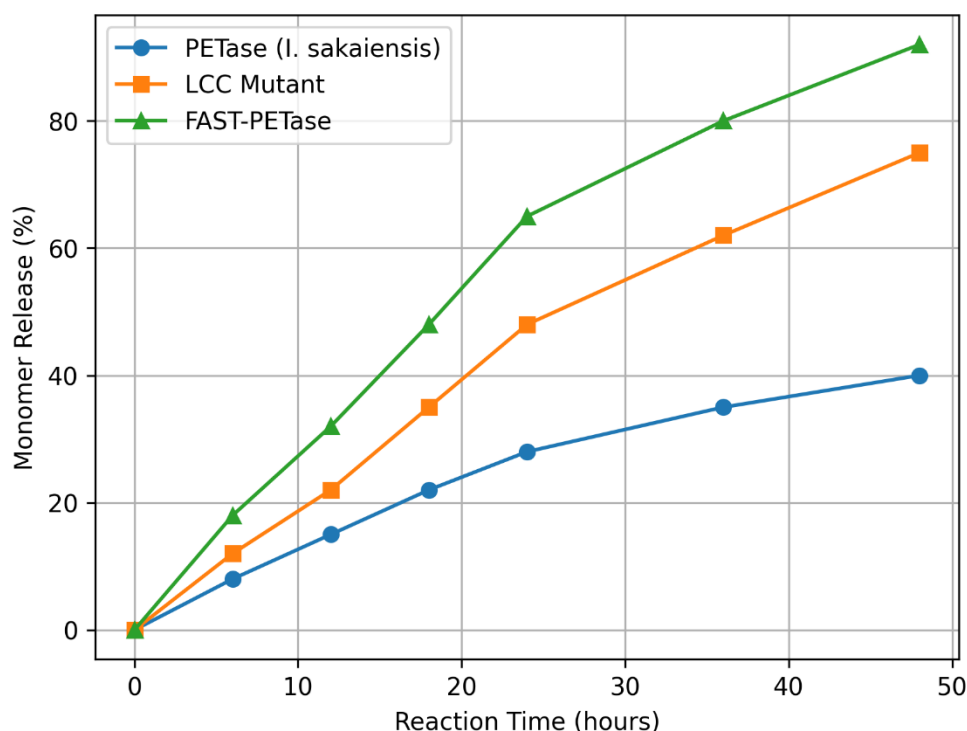


Figure 03. Comparative enzymatic degradation of PET

These engineered hydrolases operate effectively at higher temperatures, closer to PET's glass transition temperature, enabling more rapid and complete depolymerization[14]. Recent pilot-scale demonstrations suggest that enzymatic PET recycling could soon become an industrially viable process, capable of recovering monomers with minimal quality loss and reduced environmental footprint compared to traditional chemical recycling routes[15].

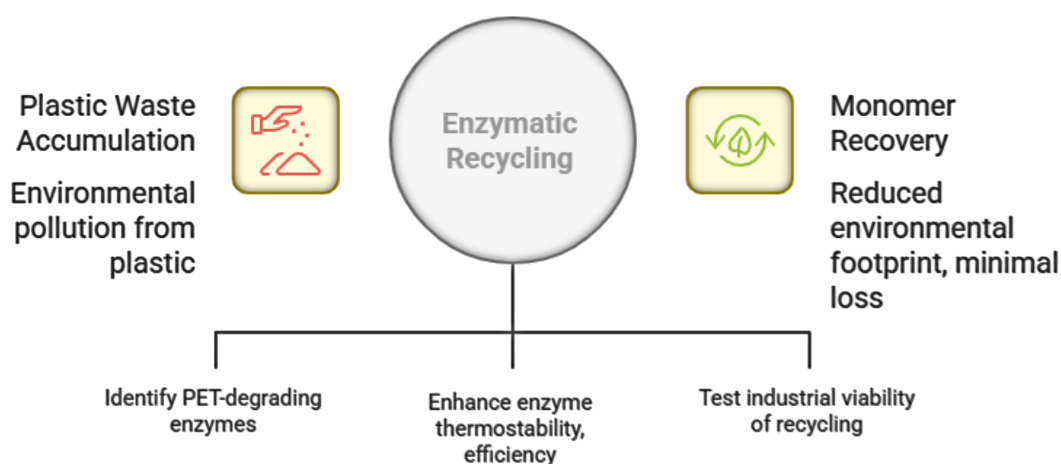


Figure 04. Enzymatic PET Degradation

In contrast, the biodegradation of polyolefins such as polyethylene (PE) and polypropylene (PP) remains a more formidable challenge[16]. These plastics possess long, saturated hydrocarbon backbones without hydrolysable functional groups, rendering them chemically inert and highly hydrophobic[17]. As a result, microbial colonization and enzymatic attack on their surfaces are extremely limited. Several reports describe microbial and enzymatic degradation of oxidized PE; however, most rely on prior physicochemical pretreatment—such as UV irradiation, thermal oxidation, or chemical oxidation—to introduce reactive groups like carbonyl or hydroxyl moieties that facilitate subsequent biological attack[18]. Even under optimized conditions, the degradation rates are slow, and many studies suffer from inconsistent methodologies, leading to difficulty in verifying whether observed mass loss corresponds to true biodegradation or merely physical fragmentation of the polymer[19]. Therefore, establishing standardized assays—including monomer detection, CO₂ evolution, and isotopic tracing—is essential for reliable assessment of polyolefin biodegradability. Without such rigorous validation, claims of microbial PE degradation remain difficult to substantiate.

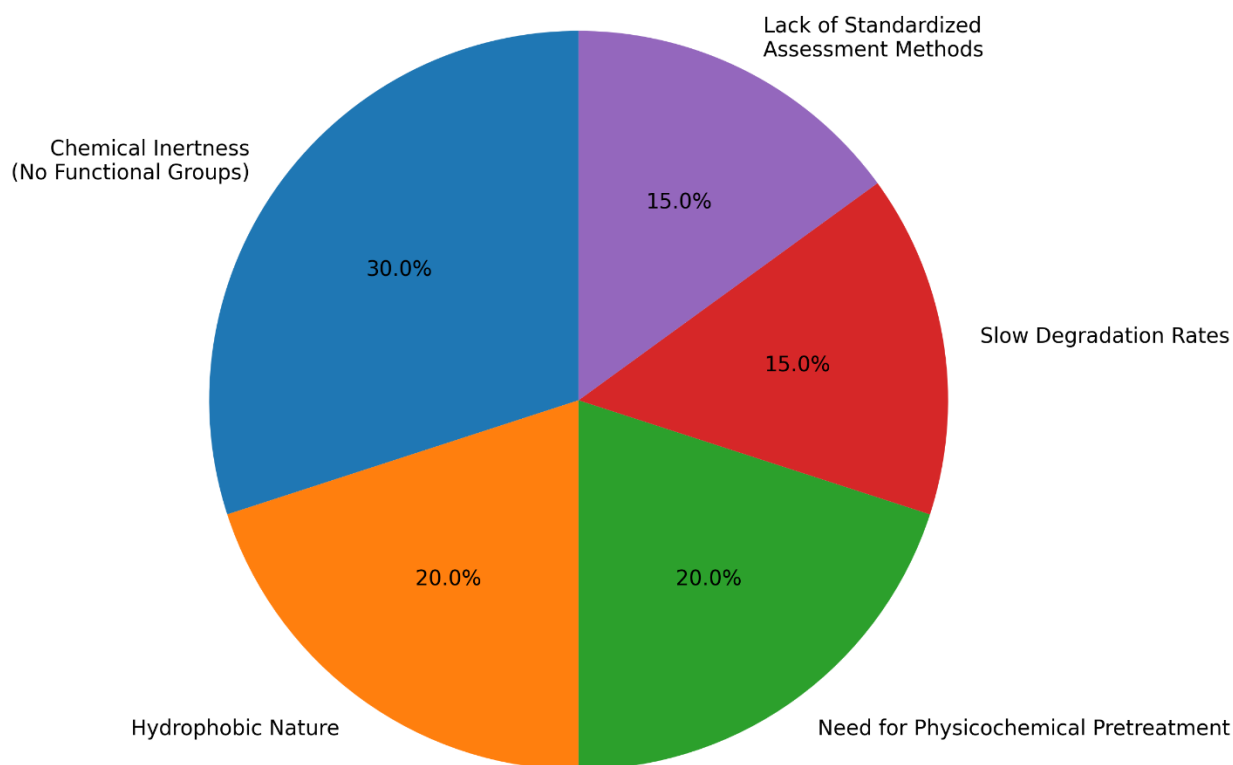


Figure 05. Major challenges in biodegradation of Polyolefins

Fungi and microbial consortia offer an alternative and complementary approach to single-enzyme or single-species systems for plastic degradation. Ligninolytic fungi, known for their ability to decompose complex natural polymers such as lignin, produce a range of oxidative enzymes, including laccases, peroxidases, and cutinases, which can attack the C–C or C–O bonds present in certain plastics and additives[20]. Fungal hyphae can physically penetrate plastic surfaces, enhancing enzymatic access and promoting degradation. Moreover, microbial consortia composed of bacteria and fungi can exploit synergistic interactions—where one organism oxidizes or partially hydrolyzes a polymer, and another assimilates the degradation products—thus achieving more effective breakdown of mixed plastic waste streams. However, maintaining the stability and activity of such consortia in heterogeneous environments remains challenging, as variations in nutrient availability, oxygen concentration, and substrate composition can alter community dynamics. Further studies are needed to design stable synthetic consortia and optimize environmental parameters to sustain consistent degradation performance in real-world conditions.

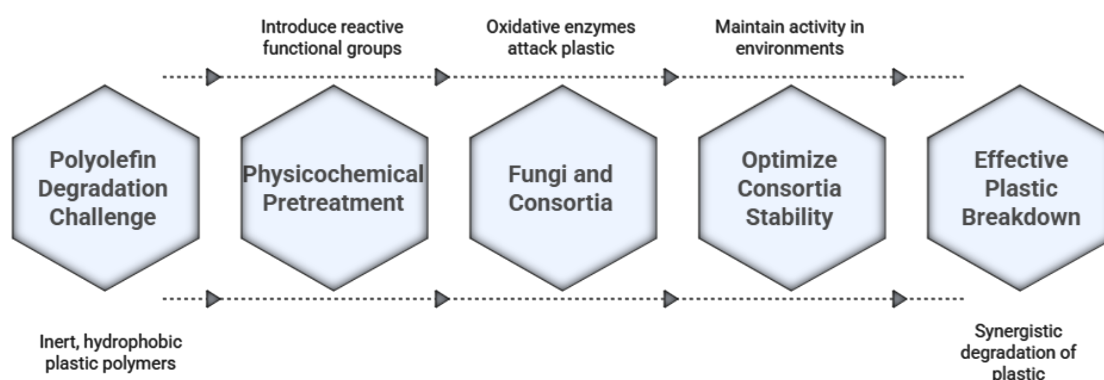


Figure 06. Enhancing Polyolefin Biodegradation

Beyond simple depolymerization, an emerging focus in biotechnology is on upcycling rather than mineralization of plastics. Instead of complete conversion to carbon dioxide, which negates material recovery, upcycling aims to transform

plastic-derived monomers or intermediates into high-value chemicals, biopolymers, or other industrial feedstocks. By coupling enzymatic depolymerization to engineered metabolic pathways in microorganisms, it is possible to biosynthesize products such as biodegradable plastics, biofuels, or specialty chemicals directly from plastic waste. This approach promotes circularity and adds economic value, potentially offsetting processing costs. However, to ensure sustainability, techno-economic analyses (TEA) and life-cycle assessments (LCA) are essential to evaluate the energy inputs, greenhouse gas emissions, and overall environmental impacts of such processes compared with conventional recycling or incineration. Integrating these analyses at early development stages can guide optimization toward truly sustainable.

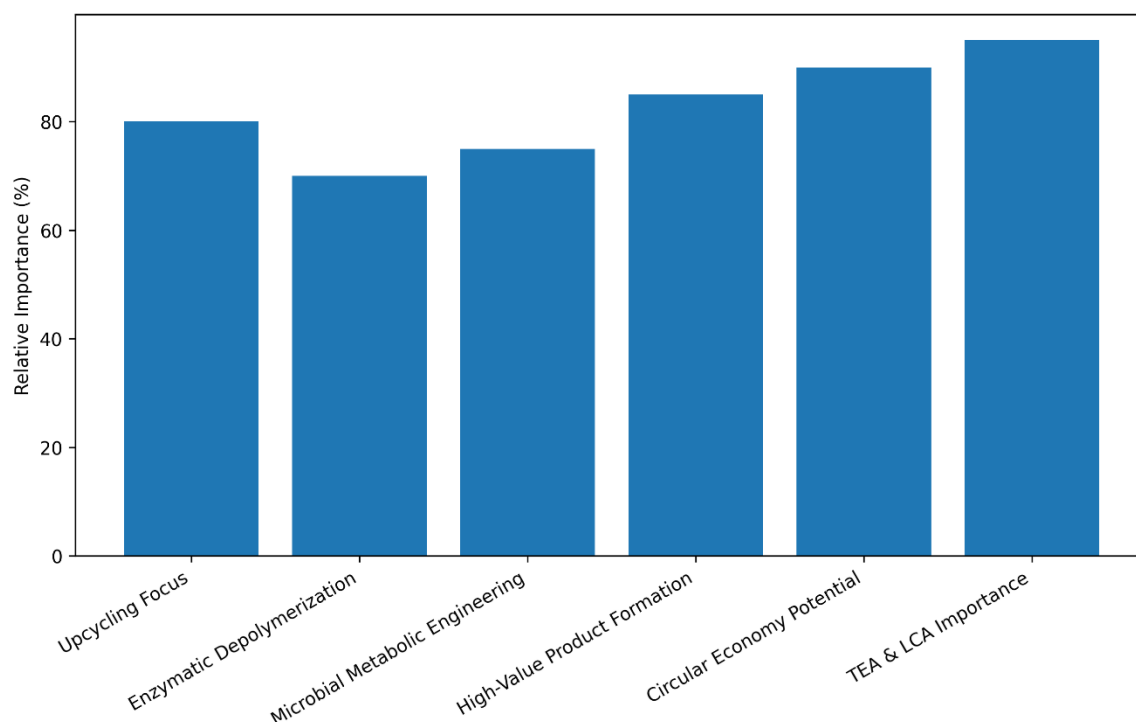


Figure 07. Key aspects of plastic upcycling in Biotechnology

Despite considerable progress, several barriers still hinder large-scale application of biotechnological plastic degradation. A major research priority is the discovery of new enzymes and organisms capable of attacking diverse polymer types, including polyolefins and multi-layer plastics. Metagenomic exploration of extreme environments—such as landfills, composts, and marine sediments—can uncover novel biocatalysts with unique substrate affinities. Equally important are improvements in enzyme stability, activity, and expression systems to enable industrial-scale production. Standardized degradation protocols and quantifiable performance metrics must be adopted across studies to ensure reproducibility and comparability of results. Moreover, integration of pretreatment technologies with enzymatic and microbial processes is crucial for dealing with highly crystalline or inert plastics. Finally, translating laboratory findings into pilot and industrial applications requires robust process design, life-cycle analysis, and techno-economic validation to confirm the environmental and commercial feasibility of these biotechnological routes. Continued interdisciplinary collaboration—linking microbiology, enzyme engineering, materials science, and process engineering—will be vital to overcome current limitations and advance the global transition toward sustainable plastic waste management.

Conclusion

Biotechnological approaches present a promising complement to mechanical and chemical recycling for addressing plastic waste. Enzymatic depolymerization of PET has advanced to the point where engineered enzymes and process concepts could be demonstrated at pilot scale. Polyolefins remain a tougher challenge but can benefit from integrated pretreatment, microbial consortia, and synthetic biology. For real-world impact, future work must emphasize discovery of robust biocatalysts, integration into scalable processes, rigorous standardization of degradation measurements, and comprehensive environmental and economic assessments. A multi-disciplinary effort spanning microbiology, enzymology, materials science, and chemical/process engineering will be required to translate lab successes into sustainable industrial solutions.

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