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1 A novel *Bacillus subtilis* BPM12 with high bis(2
2 hydroxyethyl)terephthalate hydrolytic activity efficiently interacts
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4

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24 **Abstract**

25 Biotechnological treatment of plastic waste has gathered substantial attention as an efficient
26 and generally greener approach for polyethylene terephthalate (PET) depolymerization and
27 upcycling in comparison to mechanical and chemical processes. Nevertheless, a suitable
28 combination of mechanical and microbial degradation may be the key to bringing forward
29 PET upcycling. In this study, a new strain with an excellent bis(2 hydroxyethyl)terephthalate
30 (BHET) degradation potential (1000 mg/mL in 120 h at 30 °C) and wide temperature (20-47
31 °C) and pH (5-10) tolerance was isolated from a pristine soil sample. It was identified as
32 *Bacillus subtilis* BPM12 via phenotypical and genome analysis. A number of enzymes with
33 potential polymer degrading activities were identified, including carboxylesterase BPM12CE
34 that was efficiently expressed both, homologously in *B. subtilis* BPM12 and heterologously
35 in *B. subtilis* 168 strain. Overexpression of this enzyme enabled *B. subtilis* 168 to degrade
36 BHET, while the activity of BPM12 increased up to 1.8-fold, confirming its BHET-ase
37 activity. Interaction of *B. subtilis* BPM12 with virgin PET films and films that were re-
38 extruded up to 5 times mimicking mechanical recycling, revealed the ability of the strain to
39 attach and form biofilm on each surface. Mechanical recycling resulted in PET materials that
40 are more susceptible to chemical hydrolysis, however only slight differences were detected in
41 biological degradation when BPM12 whole-cells or cell-free enzyme preparations were used.
42 Mixed mechano/bio-degradation with whole-cells and crude enzyme mixes from this strain
43 can serve to further increase the percentage of PET- based plastics that can enter circularity.
44

45 **Keywords:** polyethylene terephthalate (PET); recycling; biocatalysis; *Bacillus*; BHET-ase;
46 carboxylesterase

47 1. Introduction

48 In the last decade, global plastic production reached over 360 million tons annually
49 (Magalhães et al., 2021,). Plastic pollution has become the focus of numerous scientific
50 studies and industry lead-efforts (Laskar & Kumar, 2019). However, the solution for efficient
51 large-scale plastic degradation/regeneration and recycling remains elusive. Further
52 exaggerating the environmental impacts, plastic production uses about 8% of the world's
53 fossil fuel resources, releasing greenhouse gasses and contributing to global warming (Samak
54 et al., 2020). Europe is the leader in plastic recycling, with close to 29 million tons of post-
55 consumer plastics collected out of 55 million tons produced in 2020. However, only 34.6% of
56 collected materials were recycled while 42% were incinerated for energy recovery and 23.4%
57 were landfilled (PlasticsEurope, 2021). Hence, additional research is needed to develop
58 efficient strategies for tackling the problem of plastic waste accumulation and its adverse
59 effects on the environment and health.

60 Polyethylene terephthalate (PET) is a synthetic polyester with a heteroatomic
61 backbone made by reacting ethylene glycol (EG) and terephthalic acid (TPA). It represents
62 8.4% (w/w) of the total plastic produced and it is mainly used for beverage bottles
63 (Kosiorowska et al., 2022). Efficient PET recovery of high-grade PET waste, such as
64 beverage bottles, has been developed to provide “clean” and “high purity” PET waste streams
65 for recycling. Recovered PET can undergo re-extrusion (enabling recovery of
66 uncontaminated PET scraps in manufacturing plants), mechanical recycling (reprocessing
67 PET into granules via extrusion processes yielding PET with reduced performances),
68 chemical recycling (a variety of chemical processes for the depolymerization of PET and
69 subsequent repolymerization into new polymers) and energy recovery (Benyathiar et al.,
70 2022). Recycled PET is a commodity with many end uses, for the benefit of society and the
71 environment. Traditionally mechanical recycling is the most widely used method of PET

72 recycling and its application is likely to increase in the following years due to its low energy
73 consumption and absence of use of hazardous chemical reagents (Suzuki et al., 2022). Rules
74 have been adopted to ensure that recycled plastic can be safely used in food packaging and
75 contribute to the overall sustainability towards achieving the objectives of the Circular
76 Economy Action Plan (Commission, 2022). Processing including solid state
77 polycondensation (SSP) can increase molecular weight and achieve parameters required to
78 produce food contact approved PET according to regulation (EU) No 10/2011 and No
79 64/201. On the other side, chemical recycling can be applied to a wider range of mixed
80 plastic waste but in many cases carries the burden of involving additional harmful chemicals
81 and costs in the processes. Through chemical recycling, even multilayer colored PET plastic
82 waste can be depolymerized into its main building blocks, allowing repolymerization
83 following arduous purification or in the case of polyolefins, liquefaction through a thermo-
84 chemical process can be used for conversion into products similar to crude oil (Ragaert et al.,
85 2017). Therefore, milder conditions for chemical recycling and combination with other lower
86 carbon means of polymer depolymerization should be explored.

87 In contrast to mechanical and chemical recycling, biocatalysis has emerged as an
88 environmentally friendly and efficient approach for PET recycling (Nguyen et al., 2023; Wei
89 & Zimmermann, 2017). The ester bonds which make up the backbone of the polyester
90 polymer are susceptible to enzymatic degradation via hydrolysis by a number of enzymes
91 with esterase activities, including PETases, lipases, cutinases and carboxylesterases (Jaiswal
92 et al., 2020; Nikolaivits et al., 2021). The highly hydrophobic PET polymer is broken down
93 into a variety of largely soluble oligomer degradation intermediates during enzymatic
94 degradation. Through a series of endo- and exo- cleavages of ester bonds, products such as
95 bis(2 hydroxyethyl)terephthalate (BHET), mono(2-hydroxyethyl)terephthalate (MHET), TPA
96 and EG or their mixtures can be obtained (Mrigwani et al., 2022). TPA can then be purified

97 and reused for PET manufacturing thus providing a route for a circular economy (Tournier et
98 al., 2020). PET hydrolysis products can also be upcycled to commodity chemicals (Kim et
99 al., 2019), polyhydroxyalkanoates (Kenny et al., 2008; Tiso et al., 2021), or even lycopene
100 (Diao et al., 2023).

101 Research into the biological degradation of PET has revealed numerous bacterial and
102 fungal strains harboring PET-degrading enzymes with over 8000 putative ortholog PETases
103 identified in the genome databases (Gambarini et al., 2021). Highly efficient enzymes such as
104 IsPETase from the bottle-dwelling bacterium *Ideonella sakaiensis* (Yoshida et al., 2016), or
105 leaf-branch compost cutinase (LCC) identified through functional metagenomic screening
106 (Sulaiman et al., 2012) have been reported to hydrolyze PET. Although biocatalytic processes
107 are generally considered environmentally friendly, an in-depth life cycle assessment (LCA)
108 of the enzymatic PET recycling revealed that it has up to 17 times worse environmental
109 impact than manufacturing PET from virgin monomers (Uekert et al., 2022). To make
110 biocatalytic and biotechnological processes truly advantageous further optimization work is
111 needed.

112 The usefulness of PET oligomer degrading enzymes has been demonstrated in
113 systems combining chemical and biological degradation, as well. PET degradation products
114 obtained by glycolysis were efficiently converted to TPA by the addition of the Bs2Est
115 esterase from *Bacillus subtilis* and subsequently transformed to catechol by an engineered
116 *Escherichia coli* strain (Kim et al., 2021). Therefore, when searching for novel strains with
117 PET degrading ability, it is important to search for enzymes that show high activity towards
118 PET oligomers and other partial degradation products. This opens up the possibility of
119 combining mechano- and green chemical depolymerizations with biocatalysis, as partially
120 degraded polymers are still preferred substrates for enzymes and microorganisms.

121 In this study, an effort has been made to: (i) isolate and characterize a new bacterial
122 strain capable of efficient degradation of BHET and other PET degradation intermediates, (ii)
123 determine the enzymes responsible for this activity through genome analysis and expression
124 of selected ones; (iii) and explore and evaluate how this strain can be utilized in biocatalytic
125 degradation of multiple times extruded PET polymers mimicking the mechanical recycling
126 process.

127

128 **2. Materials and methods**

129 2.1. Chemicals and reagents

130 Virgin polyethylene terephthalate (V-PET) resin in granulated form was purchased
131 from Alpek Polyester UK Ltd. (Lazenby, UK). Components used to prepare media for
132 bacterial growth were supplied by Acros Organics (Geel, Netherlands) Plastic monomers and
133 polymers terephthalic acid (TPA), bis(2 hydroxyethyl) terephthalate (BHET),
134 polycaprolactone diol (PCL) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Hamburg, Germany),
135 Impranil DLN SD and Impranil DL 2077 from Covestro (Leverkusen, Germany). PET
136 monomers and oligomers (1MER (1-(2-hydroxyethyl)-4-methylterephthalate), 1.5MER
137 (ethylene glycol bis(methyl terephthalate)), 2MER (methyl bis(2-hydroxyethyl terephthalate))
138 and 3MER (methyl tris(2-hydroxyethyl terephthalate)) (Fig. S1) were previously synthesized
139 and described (Djapovic et al., 2021). Analytical grades of sodium hydroxide (98%), ethylene
140 glycol (99%) (EG), kanamycin, and other salts and solvents were obtained from Sigma
141 Aldrich (Hamburg, Germany). Restriction enzymes and lysozyme were purchased from
142 Promega (Madison, USA).

143

144 2.2. Isolation, identification, and morphology of strain BPM12

145 Strain BPM12 was isolated from soil with limited vegetation (Maganik, Montenegro,
146 with coordinates: 42°43'54"N 19°17'02"E) using standard nutrient rich LB agar (Luria
147 Bertani agar, 10 g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, 10 g/L NaCl and 15 g/L agar) as a part of
148 the effort to make a diverse in-house microbial collection. This collection was used for a
149 variety of bioprospecting studies including plastic degradation. The growth of BPM12 was
150 assessed and compared to *B. subtilis* 168 Marburg (MoBiTec, Goettingen, Germany) on MSF
151 (Mannitol soy flower, 20 g/L soy flower, 20 g/L mannitol and 20 g/L agar), MSM (Minimal
152 Salt Medium, 9 g/L Na₂HPO₄ × 12H₂O, 1.5 g/L KH₂PO₄, 1 g/L NH₄Cl, 0.2 g/L MgSO₄ ×
153 7H₂O, 0.2 g/L CaCl₂ × 2H₂O, 0.1% trace elements solution, 0.025% N-Z amine, 15 g/L agar
154 and 20 g/L glucose as carbon source) and LB plates at 30 °C. Growth temperature (15-47 °C)
155 and pH (pH 2-12, adjusted with HCl and NaOH) ranges were tested in LB broth. 1% of
156 overnight culture in LB was used as inoculum and the growth was monitored by measuring
157 the absorbance at 600 nm (Ultropec 3300pro, Amersham Biosciences, Amersham, UK) after
158 24 h of incubation in an orbital shaker at 180 rpm (MaxQ 6000, Thermo Fisher Scientific,
159 Waltham, USA).

160 The ability to ferment different carbohydrate substrates was assessed using an API 50
161 CHB test kit (bioMerieux, Marcy l'Etoile, France) and hemolytic activity was tested using
162 blood agar. For further identification of BPM12, 16S rDNA was amplified via PCR
163 (FastGene TAQ PCR Kit, Nippon Genetics, Düren, Germany) using standard 1492R and 27F
164 primers and sequenced by Macrogen Europe BV (Amsterdam, Netherlands). The strain was
165 identified using BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool;
166 <https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>), while the sequences were analyzed, and the
167 phylogenetic tree was constructed using Mega 7 program (Molecular Evolutionary Genetics
168 Analysis; www.megasoftware.net/home) and Maximal likelihood method.

169 The morphology of the cells was assessed using fluorescent microscopy. An overnight
170 culture of BPM12 from LB medium was collected by centrifugation (10 min at 5000 g,
171 Eppendorf 5804 centrifuge, Hamburg, Germany), washed and resuspended using phosphate-
172 buffered saline (PBS) (8 g/L NaCl, 0.2 g/L KCl, 1.44 g/L Na₂HPO₄, 0.24 g/L KH₂PO₄; pH
173 7.2). Cells were fixed with paraformaldehyde and stained with 10 µg/mL of Cl-TO-5 dye
174 dissolved in PBS for 30 min at room temperature in the dark (Kurutos et al., 2020). The cells
175 were visualized using an Olympus BX51 (Applied Imaging Corp., San Jose, USA)
176 fluorescent microscope under 100000 × magnification.

177

178 2.3. Assessment of *B. subtilis* BPM12 plastic degrading potential

179 The plastic degrading potential of this bacterial strain was assessed using MSM agar
180 plates supplemented with different plastic polymers and monomers as the sole carbon source
181 applying previously described methodology (Molitor et al., 2020). The following substrates
182 were used: TPA 10 g/L, BHET 10 g/L, PCL 6 g/L, Impranil DLN SD 6 g/L and Impranil DL-
183 2077 9 g/L. The polymers and monomers were sonicated (Soniprep 150, MSE (UK) Ltd.,
184 Lindon, UK) for 10 min at 10 kHz before adding to the medium to obtain a stable suspension.
185 The plates were incubated for 10 days at 30 °C and the formation of clearing zones was
186 considered as a positive result.

187 2.3.1. Biotransformation of PET-related model substrates

188 BHET and four PET-related model substrates (Djapovic et al., 2021) were used to
189 further investigate the PET degrading potential of strain BPM12. Reactions were carried out
190 in 3 mL of MSM medium with 1 mg/mL of PET-related model substrates (added from stock
191 solutions of 30 mg/mL in methanol). Bacterial cells from fresh LB agar plates were scraped
192 with inoculating loop and resuspended in MSM medium to make resting cells suspension of
193 20 mg wet weight per mL and 100 µL of the cell suspension was added to all reactions.

194 Reactions were incubated for 5 days at 30 °C and 150 rpm (MaxQ 6000, Thermo Fisher
195 Scientific, Waltham, USA).

196 To monitor the reaction progress, reaction products were extracted from 100 µL using
197 ethyl acetate and analyzed using thin layer chromatography (TLC) on alumina plates with
198 0.25 mm silica layer (TCL Silica gel 60 F₂₅₄, Sigma Aldrich (Hamburg, Germany)). The
199 solvent system was chloroform/methanol (8:2) and visualized using UV light at 254 nm
200 (Camag UV Lamp, Camag, Wilmington, USA).

201

202 2.3.2. High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) coupled with mass spectrometry
203 (MS) analysis of biotransformation products

204 Samples were prepared by adding 1 µL of 6 M HCl to 1 mL of the reaction aliquot,
205 vortexed and centrifuged for 10 min at 12000 g (Eppendorf Centrifuge 5417 R, Hamburg,
206 Germany). The supernatant was filtered through 0.2 µm syringe filters. An UltiMate 3000
207 HPLC (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) equipped with a Eurospher II 100-3 C18A
208 150 × 4.6 mm (Knauer, Berlin, Germany) column was used for HPLC analysis. The mobile
209 phase consisted of 20% (v/v) acetonitrile and 80% (v/v) 2.5 mM sulfuric acid in ultrapure
210 water at a flow rate of 0.8 mL/min under isocratic conditions. Detection of reaction products
211 was carried out at 241 nm. The total run time was 25 min.

212 The exact masses of PET-related model substrate degradation products were confirmed
213 using the same HPLC method (at a flow rate of 0.3 mL/min) and a TSQ Fortis™ Plus triple
214 quadrupole mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) equipped with an
215 H-ESI source in mixed scan mode and single ion monitoring (SIM) scan type. The ionization
216 parameters were: 4500 V positive spray voltage, 2600 V negative spray voltage, 50 arbitrary
217 units (arb) sheath gas flow rate, 10 arb aux gas flow rate, 325 °C ion transfer tube
218 temperature and 350 °C vaporizer temperature.

219

220 2.4. BPM12 genome sequencing, annotation and analysis

221 A 350-bp insert size library was prepared and sequenced in paired-end mode (read
222 length, 150 bp) by Novogene Europe on a NovaSeq 6000 (Illumina, San Diego, USA)
223 instrument and a total of 4,607,303 paired reads were generated. Raw reads were
224 preprocessed with TrimGalore v0.6.5 and cutadapt v2.9 (Martin, 2011). The Illumina adapter
225 sequences were removed (with a stringency of 3), bases with a quality score less than 10 were
226 trimmed and reads smaller than 100 bases or with no pair were discarded. *De novo* genome
227 assembly was performed with Spades v3.13.0 (Bankevich et al., 2012). Genome
228 completeness was assessed with BUSCO v5.1.2 using the Bacillales single-copy orthologs
229 from OrthoDB v10 (Manni et al., 2021). Strain BPM12 was phylogenetically classified with
230 the Genome Taxonomy Database Toolkit v2.0.0 (Chaumeil et al., 2020) against the GTDB
231 release 207.

232 Gene prediction and functional annotation were performed with the NCBI Prokaryotic
233 Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP, release 2022-10-03) (Li et al., 2021). Protein sequences
234 were searched against the InterPro database with InterProScan v5.59-91.0 (Jones et al., 2014)
235 and for signal peptides with SignalP v6.0 (Teufel et al., 2022). This Whole Genome Shotgun
236 project has been deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under the accession [JAOYTFF010000000](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/JAOYTFF010000000).

237 The proteome of BPM12 was searched for homologs of biochemically characterized
238 plastic-active enzymes from the PAZy database (Buchholz et al., 2021) with BLAST. The
239 alignments were filtered for protein sequence identity > 40% and for >70% alignment
240 coverage of both the template and the target sequence. Next, the proteomes of 3 other
241 *Bacillus* strains with reported activity on PET from RefSeq were gathered and clustered into
242 homologous groups with the protein sequences of BPM12 using the Get_Homologues
243 software (Contreras-Moreira & Vinuesa, 2013) with the bidirectional BLAST best-hit option

244 and default settings. The three *Bacillus* strains were: *Bacillus* sp. AIIW2, *B. albus* PFYN01
245 and *B. thuringiensis* C15 (accession numbers: GCF_009932115.1, GCF_004153665.1 and
246 GCF_004153515.1, respectively).

247

248 2.5. Overexpression and deletion of BPM12 carboxylesterase

249 BPM12 carboxylesterase (*bpm12CE* gene) was amplified via PCR (FastGene TAQ
250 PCR Kit, Nippon Genetics, Düren, Germany) from BPM12 genomic DNA using BPM12CEF
251 and BPM12CER primers containing the HindIII and BamHI restriction sites (Table S1). The
252 amplicon was cloned into pGEM T-Easy (Promega, Madison, USA) vector, clones were
253 confirmed via PCR amplification of the *Bpm12CE* gene and the appropriate restriction digest.
254 The *bpm12CE* gene was then transferred to the pBE-S vector (Takara Bio, Shiga, Japan)
255 using the HindIII and BamHI restriction enzymes. The pBE-S + *bpm12CE* plasmid constructs
256 were used for the transformation of *B. subtilis* 168 Marburg (MoBiTec, Goettingen,
257 Germany) cells and *B. subtilis* BPM12 using electroporation following the previously
258 developed protocol (Yi & Kuipers, 2017). To create a *bpm12CE* knockout mutant a fusion
259 gene consisting of two 1.5 kb flanking regions of *bpm12CE* and spectinomycin resistance
260 gene was constructed using a set of primers shown in Table S1 and the NEBuilder HiFi DNA
261 Assembly kit (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, USA). The fragment was used to transform *B.*
262 *subtilis* BPM12 cells and *bpm12CE* was exchanged with the spectinomycin resistance gene.
263 The knockout mutants were selected using spectinomycin 100 µg/mL and were confirmed via
264 PCR using appropriate primers.

265 Growth and clearance of BHET by recombinant strains was assessed on LB and MSM
266 agar plates containing 5 g/L of BHET and kanamycin 50 µg/mL or spectinomycin 100 µg/mL
267 and agar 15 g/L. Recombinant strains were also used in biotransformation reactions of BHET
268 as described previously.

269 The esterase activity of the recombinant strains was tested using *p*-nitrophenyl
270 butyrate (pNPB) as substrate (Jaeger & Kovacic, 2014). The assay reagent was prepared by
271 dissolving 0.088 g/L pNPB in 20 mM Na-phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) with 0.17 g/L SDS and
272 10 g/L Triton-X-100. Protein preparations (50 μ L) were added to 150 μ L of the reagent and
273 incubated for 5 min at 30 °C. The reaction was monitored at 410 nm (Epoch Microplate
274 Spectrometer, BioTek, Winooski, USA). The protein concentration of samples was
275 determined using Bicinchoninic Acid Kit for Protein Determination (Sigma Aldrich,
276 Hamburg, Germany) and adjusted to 500 μ g/mL.

277

278 2.6. Interaction of BPM12 with PET materials

279 2.6.1. Preparation of multiple mechanically recycled PET films

280 V-PET pellets were dried for 6 h at 150 °C in a Universal Oven U (Memmert GmbH,
281 Schwabach, Germany) under forced ventilation until moisture content was below 0.005%.
282 Mechanical recycling of PET was simulated by means of hot melt extrusion (Fig. S2). A
283 bench-top PrismTM twin-screw extruder (Thermo Electron GmbH, Karlsruhe, Germany) was
284 used to produce the samples used in this study. The diameter of the screws used was 16 mm,
285 with a 25/1 length-to-diameter ratio, at a screw speed of 50 rpm. A temperature profile of 70,
286 230, 250, 250 and 250 °C for the five temperature control zones, followed by a 3-roll
287 calendar configuration used to form films. The virgin resin was extruded and reprocessed to
288 produce the following materials: V-PET (0 recycling cycles), R²-PET (2 recycling cycles),
289 and R₅-PET (5 recycling cycles). Film samples were scissors cut into pieces (ca. 1 × 2 cm).

290 2.6.2. Characterization of virgin and multiple mechanically recycled PET films

291 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) was used to monitor chemical
292 changes of extruded PET samples. Infrared spectra were obtained using a Perkin Elmer
293 Spectrum One fitted with a universal attenuated total reflectance (ATR) sampling accessory

294 (PerkinElmer, Waltham, USA), recorded over 16 scan cycles with a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} in
295 the spectral range of $4000\text{--}650\text{ cm}^{-1}$ against air as background at room temperature ($20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$),
296 at a resolution of 0.5 cm^{-1} under a fixed universal compression force of 80 N. FTIR results
297 were used to determine the ester carbonyl index (CI) that is a parameter used to investigate
298 the degree of degradation of PET samples before and after chemical and biological
299 treatments, as expressed in the following Eq. (1):

$$300 \quad CI = \text{Band intensity at } 1713\text{ cm}^{-1} / \text{Band intensity at } 1408\text{ cm}^{-1} \quad (1)$$

301 The thermal behavior of extruded PET samples was studied by Differential Scanning
302 Calorimetry (DSC) recorded on a 2920 Modulated DSC (TA Instruments, New Castle, USA),
303 previously calibrated with indium standard. Samples of 6 to 9 mg were weighted on an
304 Explorer EX124 analytical balance (OHAUS Corporation, Parsippany, USA). Thermal
305 analysis was conducted from $30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $275\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ at a heating rate of $10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ using nitrogen as
306 purge gas at a flow rate of $30\text{ mL}/\text{min}$. The crystallinity index (X_c) was calculated from the
307 second heating cycle as follows (Eq. 2):

$$308 \quad X_c (\%) = ((\Delta H_m - \Delta H_c) / \Delta H_m^{\circ}) \times 100 \quad (2)$$

309 where, ΔH_m is the apparent melt enthalpy of the specimen tested, ΔH_c is the heat of
310 cold crystallization, and ΔH_m° is a reference value that represents the heat of melting if the
311 PET were 100% crystalline ($140\text{ J}/\text{g}$) (Wunderlich, 1973).

312 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were obtained using Mira XMU SEM
313 (Tescan™, Brno, Czech Republic) in backscattered electron mode for surface analysis. The
314 accelerating voltage used was 10 kV. Prior to analysis, tested samples were placed on an
315 aluminum stub and sputtered with a thin layer of gold using a Baltec SCD 005 sputter coater
316 (New York, United States) for 110 s at 0.1 mbar vacuum.

317 2.6.3. Chemical recycling of virgin and recycled PET via microwave (MW) assisted
318 hydrolysis

319 The efficiency of MW-assisted hydrolytic depolymerization of PET was evaluated
320 following previously published work with slight modification (Azeem et al., 2022).
321 Typically, V-PET, R₂-PET and R₅-PET films were separately mixed in 10% (w/v) sodium
322 carbonate (Na₂CO₃) dissolved in 1 mL of EG. The sample suspensions were then MW
323 irradiated at 350 W in a domestic microwave (MW) oven (Wavedom, LG, Seoul, South
324 Korea) for 1.5 min. Dissolved PET was precipitated by the addition of distilled water.
325 Finally, the obtained mixture was filtered, and the filtrate containing soluble monomers was
326 analyzed by HPLC. The residual PET samples were dried overnight at 70 °C and kept in
327 sealed bags for FTIR and DSC analysis. The depolymerization of PET was calculated using
328 the following Eq. 3:

$$329 \quad \text{PET Conversion (\%)} = \left(1 - \frac{\text{Weight of residual PET}}{\text{Weight of initial PET}}\right) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

330 The selectivity of soluble monomers was quantified from the HPLC chromatograms and the
331 yield of TPA was calculated using Eq. 4:

$$332 \quad \text{Yield of TPA (\%)} = \frac{(\text{Conversion of PET (\%)} \times \text{Selectivity of TPA (\%)})}{100} \quad (4)$$

333 The TPA monomer was then precipitated by the addition of 2 mL of concentrated HCl (34%,
334 v/v) to the cooled filtrate. The separated TPA from each sample was washed with water, dried
335 overnight at 70 °C and characterized by FTIR against TPA commercial standard.

336

337 2.7. Biodegradation of PET materials

338 2.7.1. *B. subtilis* BPM12 attachment to PET films

339 The attachment of *B. subtilis* BPM12 to PET films was assessed using the protocol
340 reported by Ferrero et al. (Ferrero et al., 2022). Briefly, an overnight culture of *B. subtilis*
341 BPM12 (0.1%, v/v) was used to inoculate LB medium containing pieces of PET films (rinsed
342 with EtOH (70%, v/v) and dried under laminar flow). After 7 days of incubation at 30 °C the
343 films were rinsed with water and stained with crystal violet solution (1 g/L) for 20 min. The

344 films were then destained using 30% (v/v) acetic acid and the measured absorbance (Epoch
345 Microplate Spectrometer, BioTek, Winooski, USA) at 550 nm of the remaining solution was
346 used as an indicator of cell attachment.

347 2.7.2. Biodegradation of PET films using whole cells

348 PET biodegradation experiments were performed in flasks with 25 mL of MSM
349 medium containing glucose (20 g/L) as a carbon source. PET strips (cut into pieces of
350 approximately 0.5 cm × 2.5 cm, rinsed with 70% (v/v) EtOH, dried under laminar flow and
351 weighed) were added to flasks. The flasks were then inoculated with 1% (v/v) overnight
352 culture of *B. subtilis* BPM12 (grown in MSM medium) and incubated at 30 °C, 180 rpm
353 (MaxQ 6000, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA). Appropriate controls, without the
354 addition of bacterial inoculum were also included. After 4 and 8 weeks, PET strips were
355 taken out, washed with EtOH (70%, v/v), air dried and weighed and the medium supernatant
356 was analyzed via HPLC.

357 2.7.3. Biodegradation of PET films using total protein preparations

358 Strain BPM12 was grown in LB supplemented with BHET (2 g/L) at 30 °C, 180 rpm
359 until OD₆₀₀ reached 5-6. The culture was centrifuged for 10 min at 5000 x g (Eppendorf
360 centrifuge 5804, Hamburg, Germany) and the supernatant was stored at 4 °C until use. The
361 cell pellet was resuspended in sodium phosphate buffer (20 mM, pH 7.2) supplemented with
362 lysozyme, and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C, followed by sonication of 4 pulses of 15 s at 20
363 kHz (Soniprep 150, MSE (UK) Ltd., London, UK). The suspension was clarified by
364 centrifugation for 30 min at 20000 x g, 4 °C (Eppendorf Centrifuge 5417 R, Hamburg,
365 Germany) to obtain the cell-free extract. The total protein mixture was prepared by mixing
366 cell-free extract and culture supernatant in equal volumes. The protein concentration of
367 samples was determined using Bicinchoninic Acid Kit for Protein Determination (Sigma

368 Aldrich, Hamburg, Germany) and adjusted to 500 µg/mL. Total protein preparations were
369 stored at -20 °C until use.

370 Enzymatic biodegradation of recycled PET plastic films was performed in sodium
371 phosphate buffer (20 mM, pH 7.2) using total protein mixture from strain BPM12. The
372 experiments were performed in glass flasks, in 7 mL buffer volume, at 30 °C, 180 rpm, for 4
373 and 8 weeks. Aliquots (1 mL) of total protein preparations were added every week, while
374 aliquots (1 mL) of tested samples were taken and stored at -20 °C for further HPLC analysis.
375 The same procedure was applied to controls - PET plastic films in sodium phosphate buffer,
376 which was also exchanged weekly.

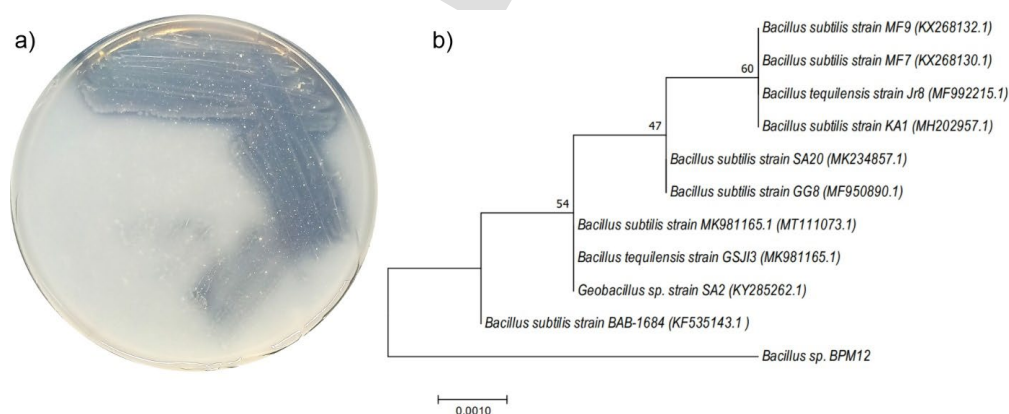
377 After biodegradation experiments, PET plastic films were washed with EtOH (70%,
378 v/v), air dried and weighed. All samples were analyzed via SEM analysis as previously
379 described for characterization of virgin and multiple mechanically recycled PET films.

380 2.8. Statistical analysis

381 The results are presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD). Statistical analysis was
382 done by comparing means using *t*-test (Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances) and one-
383 way ANalysis Of VAriance (ANOVA, Single Factor), with Fisher's Least Significant
384 Difference (LSD) post-hoc test. The level of statistical significance is expressed as a p-value
385 (probability value), and $p \leq 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. Statistical analysis
386 tests were performed in Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet Software by Data Analysis Tools add-
387 in.

388 **3. Results and discussion**389 3.1. Isolation and identification of *Bacillus* sp. BPM12

390 BPM12 is a mesophilic bacterium isolated from the pristine soil sample from the
 391 mountain slope with limited vegetation. During the phenotypic screening, it was
 392 distinguished by its ability to efficiently grow on BHET, PCL and Impranil DL 2077 as a sole
 393 carbon sources, using MSM medium. Clearing halos on BHET plates were observed after
 394 three days of incubation at 30 °C, suggesting BPM12 a potentially useful strain for PET and
 395 other plastics degradation (Fig. 1a). The strain could grow at temperatures from 20 to 47 °C
 396 and at pH values from 6 to 10. It fermented 26 out of the 49 carbohydrates, including simple
 397 sugars such as mannose, fructose, and glucose but also polysaccharides such as starch and
 398 glycogen (Table S2). It was not able to grow on TPA as the sole carbon source. The 16S
 399 rRNA gene sequence placed BPM12 within the *Bacillus* genus most closely related to *B.*
 400 *subtilis* strain BAB-1684 (Accession number: KF535143.1) with 99% sequence identity (Fig.
 401 1b). The strain was named *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 and the 16S sequence was deposited to
 402 GenBank under the accession number [OQ381249](#).



403

404 **Fig. 1.** a) *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 forming clearing zones on MSM agar plate with BHET as the
 405 sole source of carbon and energy after 3 days at 30 °C; b) Maximum likelihood tree showing
 406 the relationship of *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 to 10 of the most closely related strains. Bootstrap

407 values based on 1000 replications are displayed on the nodes of the tree. The scale bar
408 represents genetic distance.

409

410 BPM12 grew equally well on minimal and nutrient rich solid media within 24 h of
411 inoculation. It formed creamy-white and orange colonies with smooth irregular edges on
412 MSM and MSF, respectively. Colonies on LB plates were opaque and circular. The growth of
413 *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 was also compared to *B. subtilis* 168 on different media (Fig. S3a).
414 Neither strain exhibited hemolytic activity. Fluorescent microscopy revealed BPM12 cells
415 were rod-shaped with an approximate size of $0.8-1.0 \times 5-7 \mu\text{m}$ which is consistent with
416 *Bacillus* spp. morphology (Fig. S3b).

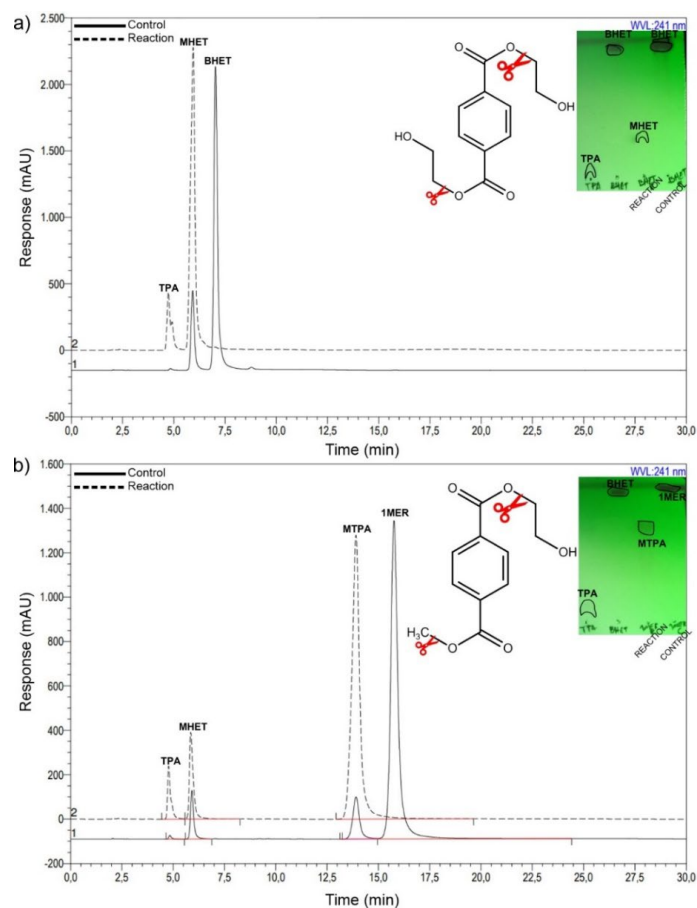
417 *Bacillus* is a remarkably diverse bacterial genera, able to grow within ecologically
418 diverse environments (Earl et al., 2008). *Bacillus* strains have been investigated for
419 xenobiotic degradation such as the degradation of pesticides cypermethrin, imidacloprid,
420 fipronil, and sulfosulfuron reaching degradation rates of up to 99 % (Gangola et al., 2021;
421 Gangola et al., 2022). Members of the *Bacillus* genus have been reported to degrade various
422 plastic polymers including PET (Ribitsch et al., 2011), polyurethanes (Shah et al., 2013) and
423 polylactic acid (Bonifer et al., 2019) and have been identified in several consortiums capable
424 of degrading recalcitrant plastics (Roberts et al., 2020; Shah et al., 2016; Skariyachan et al.,
425 2017). *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 growth profile at temperatures above 40 °C as well as tolerance
426 towards alkaline conditions matches that of some previously reported *Bacillus* strains (Ali et
427 al., 2016; Hanim, 2017; Wang et al., 2019) and is highly desirable for biotechnological
428 applications where biocatalysts need to withstand harsh conditions. Another valuable trait of
429 *B. subtilis* is the ability to form highly resistant endospores in response to nutrient deprivation
430 and other environmental stresses, which had already been used for efficient surface display of

431 relevant enzymes including PETases (Jia et al., 2022). Therefore, *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 was
432 further investigated as a potential biocatalyst for PET degradation.

433

434 3.2. Degradation of PET-related model substrates

435 Resting whole cells of *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 were able to hydrolyze BHET, 1MER and
436 2MER, while 1.5MER and 3MER showed only traces of degradation products, based on
437 HPLC and TLC analysis (Fig. 2; Fig. S4-S6). During the course of the reaction, 1000 mg/L of
438 BHET was completely converted to MHET and TPA within 120 h at 30 °C (Fig. 2a). The
439 ratio of TPA to MHET was 1:6 within this time period. The control reactions showed some
440 BHET auto-hydrolysis to MHET ($\leq 5\%$, w/w). These results suggest that BHET is firstly
441 converted to MHET that is subsequently converted to TPA at a considerably slower rate, a
442 trend also observed among different PET degrading enzymes (Mrigwani et al., 2022).
443 *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 is more efficient in BHET conversion when compared to *Enterobacter*
444 sp. HY1, which was able to degrade 80.8 % of BHET (1000 mg/L) in 120 h at 30 °C (Qiu et
445 al., 2020), and comparable to a *Yarrowia lipolytica* wild-type (Wt) strain which could convert
446 500 mg/L of BHET in about 48 h at 29 °C (da Costa et al., 2020). However, engineered
447 strains expressing IsPETase achieve much higher conversion rates, reaching up to 5 g/L and 2
448 g/L when the enzyme is expressed in *Y. lipolytica* PolfP and in *B. subtilis*, respectively (Qi et
449 al., 2021).



450

451 **Fig. 2.** BHET and 1MER biotransformation using whole cells of *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 was
 452 monitored via HPLC and TLC. a) BPM12 resting cells transformation of BHET; b) BPM12
 453 resting cells transformation of 1MER of PET. In the HPLC chromatograms, the full lines
 454 represent the control reactions (no biocatalyst), while the dashed lines represent the reactions
 455 containing BPM12 cells.

456

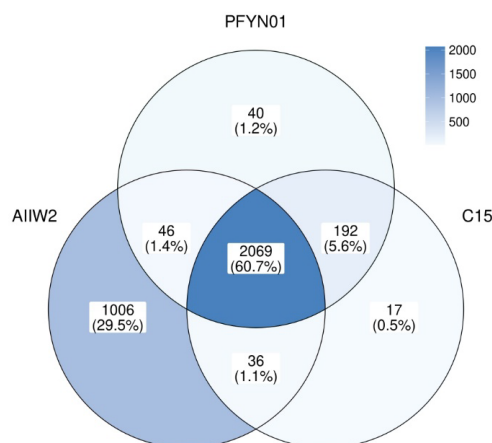
457 1MER of PET was also found to be fully converted to mono-methyl terephthalate
 458 (MTPA), MHET and TPA, suggesting that *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 can cleave both ester bonds
 459 of 1MER (Fig. 2b). Given that the main product detected was MTPA, when 1MER was used
 460 as a substrate, the preferred cleavage site was at the ethyl moiety. The slow conversion of

461 MHET and MTPA to TPA by *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 may be due to MHET inhibition as it has
462 been shown that MHET considerably inhibited the hydrolytic activity of Bs2Est (Kim et al.,
463 2021). 1.5MER and 2MER were converted to MTPA, MHET and TPA confirming both exo-
464 and endo-cleaving activity of *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 (Fig. S4 and Fig. S5). 2MER is most likely
465 firstly converted to MTPA and BHET via endo-cleaving activity and then further broken
466 down to MHET and TPA via exo-cleaving activity, a mechanism previously shown when
467 Bs2Est was used as a biocatalyst (Kim et al., 2021). 3MER was found to be much harder to
468 degrade with only traces of degradation products detected, which can be contributed to the
469 poor solubility and high hydrophobicity of this substrate (Fig. S6). Similarly, recently
470 described polyesterase from *Moraxella* sp. (MoPE) capable of degrading highly crystalline
471 PET was characterized using the same set of substrates revealing the same mode of action
472 (Nikolaivits et al., 2022).

473

474 3.3. *Bacillus* sp. BPM12 genome analysis

475 The genome assembly consisted of 137 contigs, is 4160070 bp long and is 98.6 %
476 complete based on BUSCO (Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs) analysis.
477 Strain BPM12 was confirmed to be *B. subtilis* sp. with the Genome Taxonomy Database
478 Toolkit. The predicted proteome of BPM12 consists of 4196 proteins and 3406 of them were
479 clustered in 3301 homologous groups with proteins from the other three *Bacillus* strains with
480 reported activity on PET polymer. Almost half of the total BPM12 proteins are core proteins
481 with homologs in all considered genomes and most BPM12 proteins were clustered with
482 proteins of the AIIW2 strain with which it shares 78.2 % whole-genome average nucleotide
483 identity (Fig. 3).



484

485 **Fig. 3.** *B. subtilis* BPM12 proteins clustered in homologous groups with proteins from known
 486 PET-active *Bacillus* strains (*B. albus* PFYN01, *Bacillus* sp. AIIW2, and *B. thuringiensis*
 487 C15).

488

489 *Bacillus* sp. AIIW2 is a marine isolate that was found to utilize PET as a carbon
 490 source (Kumari et al., 2021). *B. thuringiensis* C15 and *B. albus* PFYN01 are members of a 5
 491 strain consortium that grew synergistically in the presence of PET as the sole carbon source
 492 (Roberts et al., 2020). Both strains tested negative for lipase activity with C15 being unable to
 493 grow on PET in the absence of the rest of the consortium.

494 The proteome of BPM12 contains 5 enzymes that share high similarity with known
 495 plastic-active enzymes from PAZy (Table 1). These 5 enzymes include three esterases and
 496 two serine proteases. The two serine proteases are core genes with homologs in all considered
 497 genomes. The CE WP_216995529.1 is almost 100 % identical to the intracellular PETase
 498 from *B. subtilis* strain 4P3-11 that can hydrolyze 3PET and PET films (Ribitsch et al., 2011)
 499 and has no homologs in the other three proteomes. No significant homology was detected
 500 with known MHET-ases such as Mle046 (Meyer-Cifuentes & Öztürk, 2021). The lipase LipA
 501 and the esterase EstB are both secreted and are members of the same InterPro family

502 (IPR002918). They form a homologous cluster with an alpha/beta hydrolase from isolate
 503 AIIW2 that lacks a signal peptide. Kumari et. al report a non-secreted CE (accession number:
 504 WP_020451834.1) displaying the highest relative fold change in the presence of PET based
 505 on quantitative reverse transcriptase–polymerase chain reaction analysis (Kumari et al.,
 506 2021). This CE clustered with the alpha/beta hydrolase WP_014480039.1 of BPM12. The
 507 two enzymes share 68 % sequence identity and have the same length.

508

509 **Table 1.** *B. subtilis* BPM12 proteins and their PAZy homologs.

BPM12	PAZy	Identity %	Active on
carboxylesterase (WP_216995529.1)	PETase (ADH43200.1)	98.9	PET
subtilisin AprE (WP_015715621.1)	<i>subtilisin</i> <i>Carlsberg</i> (P00780)	65.2	PLA
lipase LipA (WP_086343408.1)	PLaA (Q83VD0)	48.8	PLA
esterase EstB (WP_003243184.1)	PLaA (Q83VD0)	46.1	PLA
serine protease Isp (WP_029946400.1)	subtilisin Savinase (P29599.1)	45.4	PLA

510

511 The genome of BPM12 was further searched for enzymes with esterase activity, the
 512 main activity associated with PET degradation but involved in pesticide degradation as well
 513 (Gangola et al. 2018), based on the functional protein domains identified with InterProScan.
 514 This analysis identified 63 esterases with 7 of them being predicted to be secreted. Only one
 515 of the secreted esterases, the phosphodiesterase WP_264240018.1, is a core gene present in
 516 all considered genomes. The GDSL esterase WP_264240216.1 has no homologs in any other
 517 isolate and the remaining 5 secreted esterases, including LipA and estB, have homologs only
 518 in the AIIW2 genome. Recently, pangenomic analysis that included 88 *Bacillus* species,
 519 revealed many other biodegradation genes involved in plastics and plasticizers degradation
 520 through the Plastic Microbial Biodegradation Database (PMBD) apart from the genes

521 implicated in PET degradation (Edwards et al., 2022). An esterase from *B. subtilis* was
522 immobilized on halloysite nanotubes and completely degraded dibutyl phthalate (Balci et al.,
523 2023). Furthermore, *Bacillus* species were also shown to produce a number of valuable
524 proteases and enzymes involved in metal tolerance and removal (Liya et al., 2023; Sharma et
525 al., 2022).

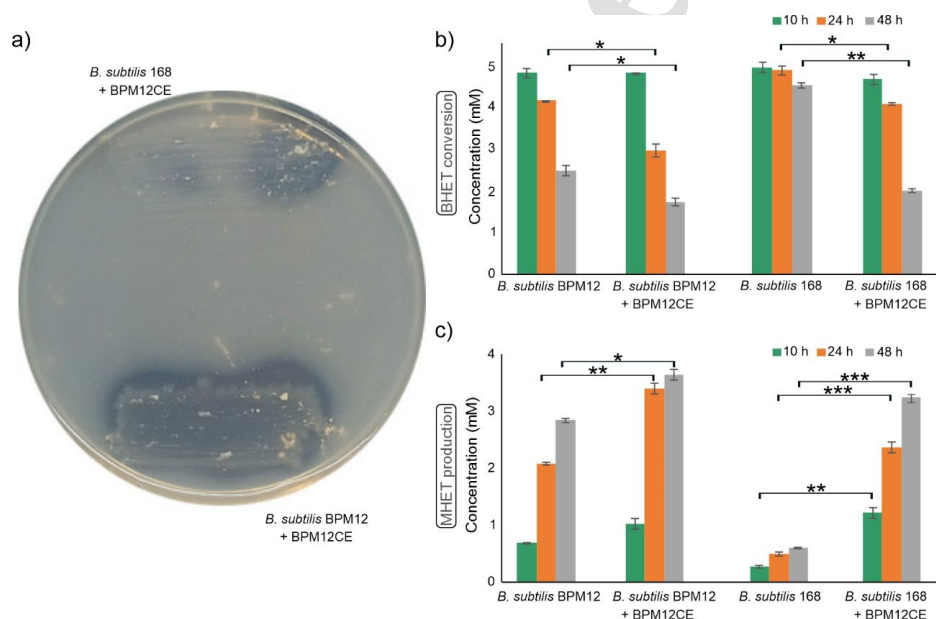
526

527 3.4. Expression of BPM12CE

528 Given the high sequence identity of BPM12CE (Table S3) to a known PETase from
529 *B. subtilis* (WP_216995529.1), BPM12CE was selected as the most likely gene responsible
530 for the PET-related substrate degradation activity. Therefore, the gene was deleted from the
531 genome of *B. subtilis* BPM12 to create a knockout mutant. The deletion of *Bpm12CE* indeed
532 led to the almost complete loss of BHET degrading activity (Fig. S7a) with only a faint
533 clearing halo visible, as well as the loss of ability to grow on BHET as the sole carbon source,
534 corroborating the hypothesis that *B. subtilis* BPM12 utilizes EG during growth on BHET.

535 To further investigate its BHET degrading activity *bpm12CE* gene was cloned into a
536 *Bacillus* expression vector and introduced into both *B. subtilis* BPM12 and 168. The general
537 esterase activity using pNPB was detected in both strains and in both intracellular and
538 extracellular protein fractions (Fig. S8). The relative intracellular esterase activity was
539 generally lower in comparison to extracellular protein fractions (between 1.4- and 5.9-fold)
540 but remained comparable between the strains. Nevertheless, the extracellular esterase activity
541 of recombinant strains increased by 1.8- and 3.2- fold in *B. subtilis* BPM12 and *B. subtilis*
542 168, respectively, compared to Wt strains. To get a better insight into specific BHETase
543 activity, the recombinant strains were tested using BHET as a substrate on plates and in liquid
544 biotransformation reactions using whole cells (Fig. 4). Initially, *B. subtilis* 168 did not form
545 clearing halos on BHET-containing plates while BPM12 did (Fig. 1, Fig. S7b). When

546 transformed, both strains exhibited BHET degrading activity, however, recombinant *B.*
 547 *subtilis* BPM12 was able to grow better and form larger zones of clearance on MSM agar
 548 containing BHET as a sole carbon source (Fig. 4a). In liquid culture, BHET degradation by
 549 *B. subtilis* 168 harboring BPM12CE showed a 6-fold increase in comparison to
 550 untransformed *B. subtilis* 168 (Fig. 4b), clearly demonstrating that BPM12CE was indeed
 551 responsible for BHET conversion. Furthermore, the activity of recombinant *B. subtilis* 168
 552 was almost identical to that of *B. subtilis* BPM12 Wt strain. Homologous expression of
 553 BPM12CE in *B. subtilis* BPM12 led to 1.6- fold increase in the MHET production within the
 554 first 24 h in comparison to the Wt strain (Fig. 4c).
 555



556

557 **Fig. 4.** Growth and activity of BPM12 Wt and *B. subtilis* 168 strains expressing BPM12CE.

558 a) MSM agar plates with BHET as the sole carbon source after 10h, 24h and 48 h at 30 °C; b)
 559 BHET conversion in liquid culture; b) MHET production in liquid culture after 10 h, 24 h and
 560 48 h incubation. Results were analyzed using ANOVA test and post-hoc Fisher's LSD test (*
 561 $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$).

562 *Bacillus* is a more favorable expression system in comparison to *E. coli* due to
563 intrinsic secretion capacity and better protein folding resulting in a higher yield of more
564 stable enzymes (Souza et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2019). Four enzymes with PETase activity
565 have been successfully expressed in *Bacillus* species so far. *T. fusca* hydrolase (TfH) was
566 obtained using *B. megaterium* with an excellent yield of 240 µg/L at a 2 L scale (Yang et al.,
567 2007). Subsequently, a highly similar enzyme TfCut2 was also obtained from *B. subtilis* with
568 higher purity and its activity on PET materials was demonstrated. It was shown that TfCut2 is
569 more thermostable when expressed in *Bacillus* compared to *E. coli* with a 4 °C higher
570 melting point (Wei et al., 2019). Signal peptide optimization allowed for the enhanced
571 secretion of IsPETase (Huang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020) and BhrPETase (Xi et al.,
572 2021). Given that *B. subtilis* BPM12 possesses intrinsic activity towards PET-related
573 substrates it could serve as an ideal platform for the expression of various PETases and other
574 auxiliary enzymes to increase polymer degrading capacity.

575

576 3.5. Preparation, characterization and chemical recycling of PET materials

577 Mechanical recycling has been the most common method used to recover PET and
578 other recyclable plastics because it is relatively easy and economical (Faraca et al., 2019).
579 Nevertheless, the cleavage of the long polymer chains caused by thermomechanical
580 degradation is a common problem that affects the properties of mechanically recycled PET
581 during reprocessing and lifetime (Makkam & Harnnarongchai, 2014). The resulting shorter
582 polymer chains are expected to be more susceptible to biodegradation, which succeeds
583 abiotic degradation (Mohanani et al., 2020).

584 The properties of the virgin and recycled PET materials obtained from the chemical
585 and thermal analysis are shown in Table 2. Chemical analysis by FTIR accessed possible
586 chemical changes due to thermomechanical degradation of PET chains over the reprocessing

587 cycles (Holland & Hay, 2002). The IR spectra of virgin and recycled PET samples are shown
588 in the 1900 – 650 cm^{-1} range (Fig. S9). The band at 1570 cm^{-1} is related to a conjugated
589 aromatic structure in the PET samples, while the region from 950 to 750 cm^{-1} is attributed to
590 C–H deformation. On one hand, no significant changes in the aforementioned bands were
591 observed for both R₂-PET and R₅-PET in comparison to the IR spectrum of V-PET,
592 suggesting no clear sign of thermal degradation resulting from the extrusion process.
593 Accordingly, it can be seen from Table 2 that the mechanical recycling process had no
594 significant impact on the *CI* for the studied wavenumber that rather decreased slightly from
595 4.84 in the V-PET to 4.42 and 4.18 in the R₂-PET and R₅-PET materials, respectively. On the
596 other hand, there were clear changes in the intensity of the bands at 1470, 1370 and 1340 cm^{-1}
597 assigned to CH₂ bending and wagging modes of trans conformers, which have been
598 associated with the degree of crystallinity of the PET materials (Sammon et al., 2000). This is
599 evidenced by a subsequent increase in both the glass transition temperature (*T_g*) and
600 crystallinity index calculated from the second heating step of the DSC thermograms of
601 reprocessed R₂-PET and R₅-PET materials when compared to the values obtained for V-PET
602 (Fig. S10). In particular, the role of the crystalline phase in the performance of recycled PET
603 has been investigated elsewhere (Badia et al., 2012). Therefore, the increase of the
604 crystallinity index observed herein ranging from 34.99 in the V-PET to 44.48 in the R₅-PET
605 material was attributed to the growth of more crystalline domains promoted by the formation
606 of shorter polymer fragments that resulted from the cleavage of the polymer backbone, and
607 possibly act as nuclei upon crystallization.
608

609 **Table 2.** Properties of the untreated virgin and recycled PET films and their respective
 610 residues obtained from post MW-assisted depolymerization treatment.

Sample	Untreated			MW-assisted treatment		
	T_m (°C) ^a	X_c ^b	CI ^c	T_m (°C) ^a	X_c ^b	CI ^c
V-PET	246.1	34.9	4.8	246.8	19.5	0.6
R ₂ -PET	249.0	38.6	4.4	232.3	24.8	3.2
R ₅ -PET	250.2	44.5	4.2	220.9	11.1	1.4

611 ^a melting temperature; ^b crystallinity index; ^c carbonyl index.

612

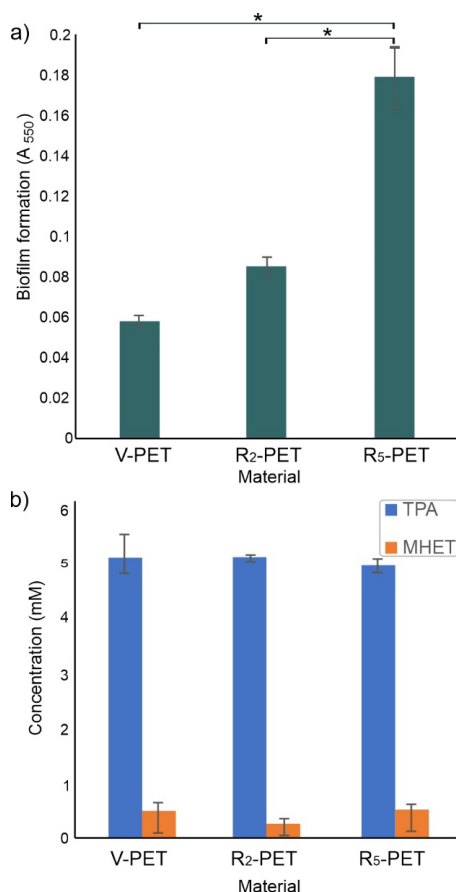
613 V-PET, R₂-PET and R₅-PET underwent chemical recycling via MW-assisted
 614 hydrolysis. The residual PET obtained was weighed and the conversion of PET (%) was
 615 calculated. The reaction products dissolved in the cooled filtrate were analyzed by HPLC.
 616 The effects of different PET pretreatment on the conversion of PET, the selectivity of soluble
 617 monomers and the yield of TPA are illustrated in Fig. S11. It was observed that the rate of
 618 conversion was only 75.4% when applying MW-assisted hydrolysis reaction on untreated
 619 virgin PET and then increased to 86.9 and 94.2% when hydrolyzing R₂-PET and R₅-PET,
 620 respectively. Such a significant increase in depolymerization efficiency with the
 621 mechanically recycled PET at only 1.5 min MW irradiation time could be attributed to the
 622 modifications that took place in the properties of the virgin PET after several cycles of
 623 mechanical recycling. The yield of TPA increased from 36.5% for the virgin PET sample to
 624 38.1% and 56.1% for R₂-PET and R₅-PET, respectively (Fig. S11). Noticeably, the selectivity
 625 of MHET was much higher than that of BHET for all samples. It was also observed that the
 626 selectivity of BHET and MHET were almost the same for all chemically treated samples
 627 indicating that modifications that occurred by the pretreatment process did not have a
 628 significant effect on the selectivity of depolymerization products obtained post chemical
 629 recycling. Moreover, the residual PET obtained post chemical recycling process for the

630 studied PET samples showed a decrease in the crystallinity and carbonyl index from the
631 original samples as demonstrated in Table 2. The crystallinity index of the obtained residues
632 ranged between 11 and 25 while the carbonyl index ranged between 0.6 and 3.2. It is also
633 worth mentioning that the DSC results of the obtained residues post chemical recycling
634 process, especially R₂-PET and R₅-PET, have shown a decrease in the melting point
635 temperatures in comparison to the original samples. This could be attributed to the production
636 of lower molecular weight PET oligomers after the chemical recycling process exhibiting a
637 melting endotherm peaking at temperatures lower than that of untreated PET (Chaudhary et
638 al., 2013). The identity of the TPA white powder monomer precipitated post the MW-assisted
639 hydrolysis process was confirmed using FTIR analysis (Fig. S12). FTIR spectra of
640 precipitated TPA from all treated PET samples were almost identical to standard TPA and
641 TPA reported in the literature (Azeem et al., 2022).

642

643 3.6. Degradation of PET material samples by *B. subtilis* BPM12 whole-cells and total protein
644 extracts

645 As previously reported, biofilm formation is an important factor contributing to the
646 initiation of plastic degradation (Maheswaran et al., 2023), therefore the ability of *B. subtilis*
647 BPM12 to attach to PET films was assessed. *B. subtilis* BPM12 showed the ability to form
648 biofilms on both, virgin and recycled PET films (Fig. 5a).



649

650 **Fig. 5.** *B. subtilis* BPM12 attachment on PET materials (a) and biodegradation products (TPA
 651 and MHET) detected after 8 weeks (b) of incubation of PET materials with total protein
 652 preparation at 30 °C. Results were analyzed using ANOVA test and post-hoc Fisher's LSD
 653 test, $p \leq 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

654

655 The recycling process apparently increased the ability of cell attachment to the films,
 656 possibly due to changes on the surface of the films. However, whole-cell degradation of PET
 657 materials using *B. subtilis* BPM12 did not lead to any detectable weight changes after 8
 658 weeks of incubation, while weight changes after enzymatic biodegradation of virgin and
 659 recycled PET films are represented in Table S4. Although the weight loss of PET materials

660 was minimal and comparable amongst samples, HPLC analysis revealed the release of PET
 661 degradation products, mostly TPA and MHET when cell-free enzymes from this strain were
 662 incubated with materials over this time period (Fig. 5b). Although the initial attachment of
 663 the whole cells was 2-fold higher in the case of re-extruded materials, the yield of
 664 degradation products using enzymes from this strain was comparable for all used materials.
 665 As in the case of PET MW-assisted hydrolysis, material properties after enzymatic treatment
 666 were assessed (Table 3). Indeed, enzymatic treatment did not have a significant effect on the
 667 materials' T_m or CI . However, the X_c for R₅-PET has increased by 40% in comparison to that
 668 of the untreated R₅-PET material (Table 2), which further implies that enzymatic activity was
 669 focused on amorphous regions of the material.
 670

671 **Table 3.** Properties of the virgin and recycled PET residues obtained post BPM12 enzymatic
 672 treatment

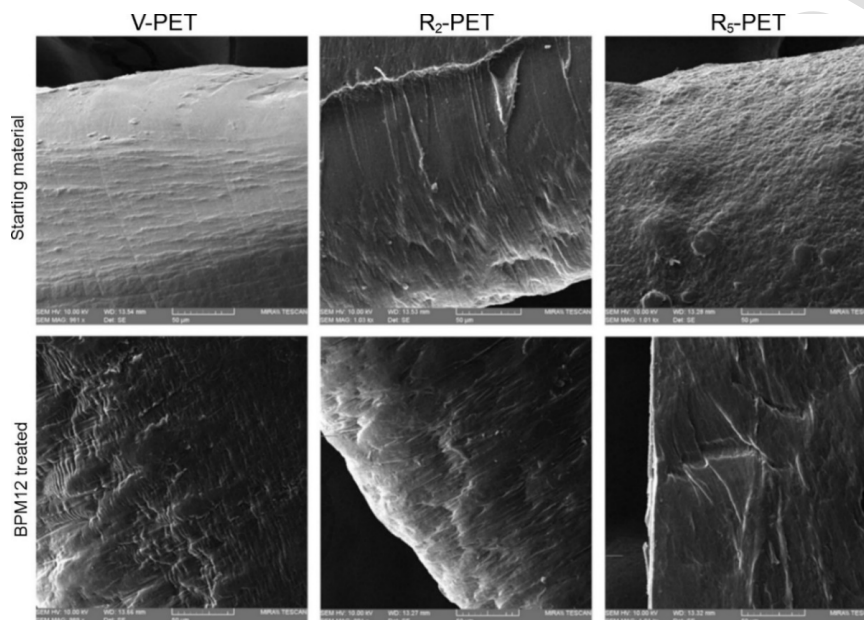
Sample	T_m (°C) ^a	X_c ^b	CI ^c
V-PET	246.1	34.9	4.9
R ₂ -PET	249.0	38.6	4.3
R ₅ -PET	250.0	62.3	4.2

673 ^a melting temperature; ^b crystallinity index; ^c carbonyl index

674

675 These results were further confirmed by SEM analysis of non-treated and
 676 enzymatically treated materials. As presented in Fig. 6, the surface of non-treated virgin PET
 677 is smooth, with few abrasions, while in the case of recycled (re-extruded) PET, multiple
 678 surface plications were detected (Fig. 6a), which explains biofilm formation susceptibility of
 679 these samples (Perera-Costa et al., 2014). Furthermore, a clear difference between treated and
 680 control samples has been observed. Surface modifications in the form of cracks and dents

681 could be a result of degradation of the preferred amorphous regions in the materials while
 682 crystalline structures have remained intact.



683
 684 **Fig. 6.** SEM images of V-PET, R₂-PET, and R₅-PET films before and after the exposure to
 685 BPM12 biodegradation for 8 weeks (1000 × magnification, scale bar = 50 µm).

686 The preference of PET-degrading enzymes towards amorphous regions has been
 687 discussed in various studies (Kawai et al., 2019; Tournier et al., 2020), however further
 688 analysis is required in order to determine the exact fractions composition of the samples
 689 (rigid amorphous fraction, mobile amorphous fraction, crystallinity degree). Changes on the
 690 surface of examined materials imply that enzymatic treatment has led to materials surface
 691 erosion which is in accordance with the biodegradation product release detected (Fig. 5b).
 692 Additionally, erosion degree appears to correlate with BHET and MHET release. Similar
 693 surface modifications have been previously reported by Chen et al. in a study where the
 694 whole-cell biocatalyst was engineered to improve degradation of highly crystalline PET
 695 materials (crystallinity over 45 %) (Chen et al., 2022). After the exposure of materials to

696 BPM12, virgin PET (sample with the lowest crystallinity percentage) has shown the most
697 significant surface modification correspondingly with the study by Thomsen et al., where it
698 was shown that PET degradation is directly correlated to crystallinity percentage (Thomsen et
699 al., 2022).

700 Taken together, polymeric PET both mechanically recycled and virgin, is not a
701 suitable substrate for microbial or enzymatic attack for this strain. However, enzymatic
702 treatment would be suitable as follow up treatment of mild hydrolysis, where there is
703 oligomeric byproduct of considerable amount generated (25 % in the case of virgin PET
704 material; Fig. S11). This substrate would be suitable for biocatalytic depolymerization, as it
705 was shown that crude enzyme preparations from strains that can use BHET as sole source of
706 carbon and energy can efficiently depolymerase PET oligomers (Fig. 2; Fig. S4-S6).

707

708 **4. Practical applications and future research prospects**

709 Keeping in mind the high volume of newly produced PET materials, it is of high
710 importance to develop mixed mechano/bio-degradation processes to achieve decreased
711 carbon footprint and increase the scope of PET recycling beyond high-grade high-purity PET
712 waste streams. Further research should be directed towards biocatalyst improvement through
713 enzyme engineering and other optimizations of the biocatalytic process. Namely, the
714 possibility to drive the degradation to completeness and efficiently recover EG and TPA
715 produced should be further explored. The research should also be extended with other types
716 of PET materials, including mixed and postconsumer ones.

717

718 **5. Conclusions**

719 A new *B. subtilis* BPM12 strain with high BHET degradation activity and the ability
720 to attach and form biofilms on PET films was described. A novel carboxylesterase, highly
721 homologous to a previously described intracellular PETase was identified through genome
722 sequencing and overexpressed in both *B. subtilis* BPM12 and 168, resulting in increased
723 BHET-ase activity. It was also demonstrated that *B. subtilis* BPM12 could serve as an ideal
724 platform for the expression of PETases and other auxiliary enzymes to increase polymer
725 degrading capacity. In pursuit of a combined mechano/bio-degradation approach, mixed
726 mechanical and green chemical hydrolysis recycling was carried out resulting in by-products
727 containing PET oligomers and other partially degraded products. This treatment resulted in
728 substrates that are much more suited for biocatalytic treatment and has the potential to be an
729 important step in achieving more favorable and sustainable routes to advance plastic waste
730 circularity and upcycling.

731

732 **Author contributions statement**

733 **Brana Pantelic:** Methodology, Validation, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Writing –
734 review & editing, **Jeovan A. Araujo:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – original draft.
735 **Sanja Jeremic:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – original draft. **Muhammad Azeem:**
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741 Writing – review & editing, Supervision. **Jasmina Nikodinovic-Runic:** Conceptualization,
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743 acquisition. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

744

745 **Declaration of competing interest**

746 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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753

754 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

755 PET-related model substrates used to investigate the biocatalytic potential of *B. subtilis*
756 BPM12 (Fig. S1); Illustration of the mechanical recycling process using a twin-screw
757 extruder for the fabrication and reprocessing of PET films (Fig. S2). Growth of *B. subtilis*
758 BPM12 compared to *B. subtilis* 168 on LA, MSF, and MSM and blood agar plates (a) and
759 fluorescent microscopy of *B. subtilis* BPM12 under 100 000 x magnification (b). 1.5MER,
760 2MER and 3MER biotransformation using whole cells of *B. subtilis* BPM12 was monitored
761 via HPLC and TLC (Fig. S4-S6). Growth of *B. subtilis* BPM12 and the knockout mutant *B.*
762 *subtilis* BPM12 $\Delta bpm12CE$ on MSM plates containing BHET as the sole carbon source b)
763 Growth of *B. subtilis* 168 on MSM plates containing BHET as the sole carbon source; c)
764 Growth of recombinant *Bacillus* strains transformed with BPM12CE on MSM plates
765 containing BHET as the sole carbon source 5 g/L (Fig. S7). General esterase activity of
766 intracellular and extracellular enzyme fractions of recombinant and Wt *B. subtilis* BPM12
767 and *B. subtilis* 168 (all values are standardized based on protein concentration) (Fig. S8).
768 FTIR spectra of the V-PET, and the reprocessed R₂-PET and R₅-PET materials are shown in

769 the wavenumber range 1900–650 cm^{-1} (Fig. S9). DSC thermograms of the second heating
770 step of V-PET, R₂-PET, and R₅-PET from 30 °C to 275 °C (10 °C/min) under nitrogen
771 atmosphere (30 mL/min) (Fig. S10). The effect of re-extrusion process on the conversion of
772 PET to BHET, MHET and the yield of TPA via MW-assisted hydrolysis using Na₂CO₃ in
773 ethylene glycol (Fig. S11). FTIR spectra of [a] TPA standard, [b] TPA obtained from V-PET
774 depolymerization, [c] TPA obtained from R₂-PET depolymerization and [d] TPA obtained
775 from R₅-PET depolymerization (Fig. S12). Primers used for *bpm12CE* cloning and
776 construction of the knockout mutant *B. subtilis* BPM12 Δ *bpm12CE* (Table S1). The ability of
777 *B. subtilis* BPM12 to metabolize different carbohydrates (Table S2). Nucleotide and amino
778 acid sequence of BPM12CE (Table S3). Weight changes after enzymatic degradation of PET
779 films (Table S4).

780

781

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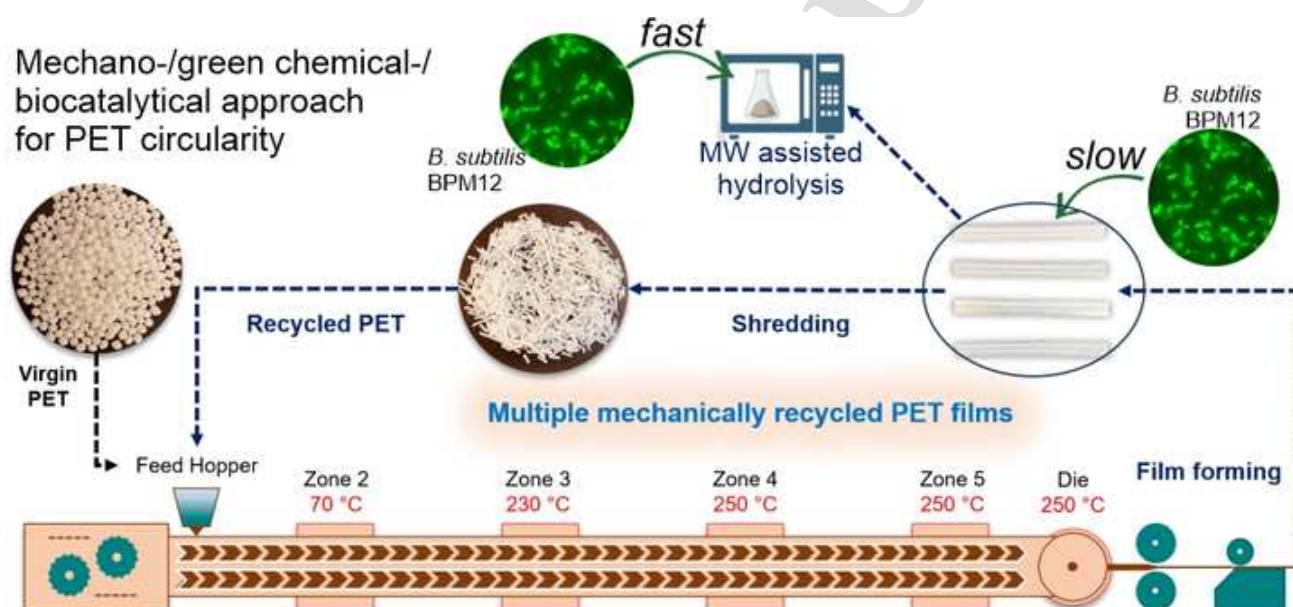
Bacillus subtilis BPM12 with an excellent BHET degradation potential is reported

The interaction of BPM12 with virgin and re-extruded PET films examined

Carboxylesterase BPM12CE was identified through genome analysis and expressed

Mechanical recycling resulted in PET materials that are more susceptible to chemical hydrolysis

Graphical Abstract

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Author contributions statement

Brana Pantelic: Methodology, Validation, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, **Jeovan A. Araujo:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – original draft. **Sanja Jeremic:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – original draft. **Muhammad Azeem:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – original draft. **Olivia A. Attallah:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Visualization, **Romanos Siaperas:** Investigation, Methodology, Writing – original draft. **Marija Mojicevic:** Conceptualization, Validation, Writing – review & editing, **Margaret Brennan Fournet:** Conceptualization, Validation, Writing – review & editing, **Evangelos Topakas:** Methodology, Resources, Investigation, Writing – review & editing, Supervision. **Jasmina Nikodinovic-Runic:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Resources, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: