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Biodegradation and Mineralization of Polystyrene by Plastic-Eating Mealworms. 1. Chemical and Physical Characterization and Isotopic Tests

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ABSTRACT

Polystyrene (PS) is generally considered to be durable and resistant to biodegradation. Mealworms (the larvae of *Tenebrio molitor* Linnaeus) from different sources chew and eat Styrofoam, a common PS product. The Styrofoam was efficiently degraded in the larval gut within a retention time of less than 24 h. Fed with Styrofoam as the sole diet, the larvae lived as well as those fed with a normal diet (bran) over a period of one month. The analysis of fecula egested from Styrofoam-feeding larvae, using gel permeation chromatography (GPC), solid state ^{13}C cross polarization/magic angle spinning nuclear magnetic resonance (CP/MAS NMR) spectroscopy and thermogravimetric Fourier transform infrared (TG-FTIR) spectroscopy, substantiated that cleavage/depolymerization of long-chain PS molecules and the formation of depolymerized metabolites occurred in the larval gut. Within a 16-day test period, 47.7% of the ingested Styrofoam carbon was converted into CO_2 , and the residue (ca. 49.2%) was egested as fecula with a limited fraction incorporated into biomass (ca. 0.5%). Tests with $\alpha^{13}\text{C}$ - or $\beta^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled PS confirmed that the ^{13}C -labeled PS was mineralized to $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ and incorporated into lipids. The discovery of the rapid biodegradation of PS in the larval gut reveals a new fate for plastic waste in the environment.

Key words: polystyrene, plastic waste, biodegradation, insect, mealworms,

INTRODUCTION

The current global consumption of petroleum-based synthetic plastic is approximately 299 Mt/y.^[1] Polystyrene (PS), molecular formula $[-CH(C_6H_5)CH_2-]_n$, commonly known as Styrofoam, accounted for approximately 7.1% (21 Mt/y) of the total plastic consumption in 2013.^[1] Although PS is considered a durable plastic, PS products are often designed for a short service time and one-time use due to the low cost of this material. The sharp contrast between the remarkable durability of PS and the short service time of PS products has led to the increasing accumulation of PS waste in our environment. Most of the collected PS waste is disposed along with municipal solid waste in landfills.^[2] Even more problematic is that a great amount of PS debris is also dispersed as “white pollutants” in the environment, becoming a global environmental concern.^[2–5]

To date, it has generally been thought that PS is not subject to biodegradation by microorganisms and soil invertebrates.^[6–8] Previous investigations have used ^{14}C -labeled PS tracers added to a variety of mixed microbial consortia from soil, sewage sludge, decaying garbage or manure.^[8–10] The recovery of $^{14}CO_2$ ranged from 0.01% to less than 3% over periods of 1 to 4 months, which does not yet constitute convincing results of the biodegradation of PS because PS may contain a small fraction of impurities such as styrene.^[8–10] Although a few strains of pure bacteria isolated from soils were capable of colonizing PS surfaces, the isolates have not proven that these bacteria were effective in the biodegradation of PS, changing neither the physical nor chemical properties of its long-chain molecules. Further, no traces of

43 metabolic activity were found.^[10, 11]

44 Several soil invertebrates, including earthworms, isopods, millipedes, slugs and
45 snails, have also been tested to determine whether they were able to degrade PS.
46 These soil invertebrates were fed with ¹⁴C-labeled PS tracers in their normal diets.^[10]
47 No respired ¹⁴CO₂ was recovered during a two-week test period. Some mandibulate
48 insects, as reported previously, are able to chew and eat plastic packages, including
49 polyvinyl chloride (PVC), polyethylene (PE) and polypropylene (PP) packaging
50 films.^[13–15] However, until recently, little was known about whether the ingested
51 plastic could be biodegraded in the gut of the plastic-eating insect.

52 Recently, we reported that waxworms (the larvae of the Indian mealmoth or
53 *Plodia interpunctella*) were capable of chewing and eating PE films, and two bacterial
54 strains capable of degrading PE were isolated from the gut of the worms, i.e.,
55 *Enterobacter asburiae* YT1 and *Bacillus* YP1.^[16–17] During the same research period,
56 we found that mealworms, the larvae of the mealworm beetle or *Tenebrio molitor*
57 Linnaeus (a species of darkling beetle), which are much larger in size than waxworms
58 (typically approximately 25 mm versus 12 mm in length), can eat Styrofoam as their
59 sole diet. Mealworms are pests and have four life stages: egg, larva, pupa, and adult.
60 They are also a profitable animal food available in many insect markets and pet stores.
61 They can easily be reared on fresh oats, wheat bran or grain with potato, cabbage,
62 carrots, or apple. Here, we report evidence that biodegradation and mineralization of
63 PS does occur in the gut of the mealworms, based on the changes in chemical and
64 physical properties of egested residues (fecula) after passage through the gut system,

compared to the original Styrofoam diet, with the conversion of ingested PS into CO₂ and biomass. Our results confirmed PS biodegradation in the larval gut and indicated the presence of a promising source of a petroleum-based-plastic-degrading process in environment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Test materials. The Styrofoam feedstock tested for biodegradation was obtained from SINOPEC Beijing Yanshan Company, Beijing, China. The chemical composition of the Styrofoam was identified as containing PS > 98% with the number-average molecular weight (M_n) of 40,430 and weight-average molecular weight (M_w) of 124,200 (SI, Table S1). No catalysts and additives were added, as per the manufacturing standard in China (QB/T 4009-2010).

Both α ¹³C-labeled and β ¹³C-labeled PS samples were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA. Their material numbers are 604445-SPEC and 604453-SPEC, respectively. The molecular weights of the two chemicals were characterized by gel permeation chromatography (GPC, Alliance V2000, Waters, Milford, Massachusetts, USA) and were found to be 51,920 (M_n) and 133,700 (M_w) for α ¹³C-labeled PS and 51,690 (M_n) and 159,000 (M_w) for β ¹³C-labeled PS.

Mealworms were purchased from Daxing Insect Breeding Plant, Beijing, China; Insect Breeding Plant, Qinhuangdao, Hebei, China; and the Bug Company, Ham Lake, Minnesota, the USA for the investigation of Styrofoam-eating behavior (SI, Figure S1). The mealworms (growth age at approximately 3-4 instars) from Daxing Insects

87 Breeding Plant were used for all tests.

88 **Styrofoam-feeding tests.** The mealworms purchased from various sources
89 reared on bran were placed in a polypropylene plastic container with Styrofoam
90 blocks. The mass loss of the Styrofoam block as a function of time caused by
91 mealworm consumption was measured periodically. A test of the survival of
92 mealworms reared in the laboratory solely on a Styrofoam diet in comparison with
93 those reared on the conventional diet of bran was conducted as described below.
94 Mealworms (500) were reared with 5.8 g Styrofoam blocks as a sole diet in a climate
95 chamber (RQH-250, Shanghai, China) under controlled conditions ($25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, $80 \pm 2\%$
96 humidity, 16:8 (L:D) photoperiod). During incubation, dead mealworms were
97 removed immediately after their death. The survival curves of mealworm groups fed
98 on Styrofoam were compared with those of the groups fed on bran by using a *t*-test.
99 Triplicate incubators were prepared for each test.

100 **Collection and characterization of the fecula.** The mealworms were fed with
101 Styrofoam blocks as their sole diet for 30 days. Subsequently, the mealworms were
102 transferred to a clean box in order to collect the fecula every 12 h and to avoid
103 carryover of un-ingested Styrofoam morsels mixing with the accumulated fecula. The
104 collected fecula were immediately stored in liquid nitrogen for further analysis.

105 Fresh fecula of Styrofoam-feeding mealworms (ca. 1.0 g) were extracted with 150
106 mL tetrahydrofuran (THF) as the solvent in a Soxhlet extractor at 90°C for 12 h. Then,
107 the extracted solution was concentrated to 5 mL. The molecular weights and
108 molecular weight distributions of the Styrofoam and the degraded products in the

fecula were determined using GPC with a 50 μ L injection each time. THF was used as an eluent at a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min at 40 $^{\circ}$ C.

Solid-state ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR analysis was carried out at 100 MHz on a spectrometer (AVANCE III 400, Bruker, Billerica, Massachusetts, USA) at ambient temperature. The operational parameters were 1.5 ms contact time, 4 s recycle delay, 0.013 s acquisition time, 4 μ s 90 $^{\circ}$ pulse, and 5 kHz MAS spin.

The thermal characterization was performed using a thermogravimetric analyzer (TGA-209F1, NETZSCH, Selb, Germany) interfaced with an FTIR (Nicolet Magna IR-8700, Thermo Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA). Samples of the fecula and Styrofoam (ca. 5 mg) were analyzed at a heating rate of 20 $^{\circ}$ C/min from ambient temperature to 600 $^{\circ}$ C under high purity nitrogen (99.999%) at a flow rate of 10 mL/min.

Test of carbon mass balance. Carbon balance for the Styrofoam ingested by the worms was estimated using batch trials with incubators equipped with a pre-CO₂ removal and sequential CO₂ trapping system (SI, Figure 2). The worms were fed with Styrofoam as a sole diet in 12 glass jars (500 mL in volume) in an incubator containing 40 worms each. The incubators were sealed with rubber stoppers. Compressed air passed through two CO₂ trappers with 2 M NaOH solution (250 mL) in series to remove CO₂ from the air, which was then moisturized before entering the incubator. The off-air passed through another two CO₂ trappers in series to collect CO₂ produced from the incubator. Prior to the test, the weights of Styrofoam and mealworms added were determined. The CO₂ produced from each incubator was

collected in NaOH solutions and precipitated with BaCl₂ to BaCO₃, which was measured after being dried to a constant weight. The measured dry weight of BaCO₃ was used for the calculation of trapped CO₂. The incubation time was 4, 8, 12 and 16 days, respectively. At the end of each incubation time, three incubators as a group were sacrificed. The mass changes in Styrofoam, weight of worm biomass, CO₂ produced and fecula egested were determined. A lifeless control was also used to ensure that no CO₂ was generated (SI, Figure 2). The carbon content of the dried worm biomass and fecula was determined using an Elemental Analyzer (Vario EL, Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Hanau, Germany). The conversion of ingested Styrofoam to CO₂ and mealworm biomass was estimated by using the procedures described in detail in SI, Figure S2 and Table S2.

¹³C-carbon isotope tracer experiments. α ¹³C-labeled or β ¹³C-labeled PS powder (20 mg) was mixed with bran powder (10 mg) and then was wrapped in 50 mL of 3% agar jelly to feed the mealworms (SI, Figure S3). The jelly food contained 0.4 mg PS/mL and 0.2 mg bran/mL. The glass jars (500 mL in volume) were also used as incubators with 40 mealworms each. The living control group of triplicate incubators was fed only with unlabeled bran wrapped in agar jelly. The ¹³CO₂ in off-air from the incubator sealed with a rubber stopper was trapped in the two-stage CO₂ trappers with 1 M NaOH (250 mL) and precipitated with BaCl₂ to BaCO₃ as described above. The isotopic composition (atom %) of carbon was analyzed using isotope ratio mass spectrometry (Finnigan MAT 253, Thermo Electron, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA).

153 The incubation with ^{13}C -labeled PS lasted 16 days. At the end of the incubation,
154 mealworms fed both with and without ^{13}C -labeled PS were harvested separately. The
155 mealworms were first blown and then were washed and killed by submerging in
156 ethanol. This step was to avoid contamination of non-metabolized or partially
157 metabolized ^{13}C -labeled products on the exterior of the mealworms. The washed
158 mealworms then were lyophilized to produce dried bodies. After lyophilization, the
159 whole gut tissue (which might contain fecula) was easily removed from the
160 lyophilized body, which was then used for lipid extraction. All lipids were extracted
161 from the bodies using chloroform in a Soxhlet extractor for 6-8 h. The
162 lipid-chloroform solution was then evaporated under N_2 , and 100 mg dried samples
163 were resuspended with 4 mL of MeOH/ NaOH (0.5 mol/L) at 100°C for 5 min. After
164 cooling to room temperature, 5 mL of the mixture of MeOH/ ethyl ether-boron
165 trifluoride [(MEBT); 1:3; V:V] was added to the flask and methylated at 100°C for 2
166 min. After cooling to room temperature, 8 mL of saturated NaCl aqueous solution was
167 added. Finally, 2 mL *n*-hexane was added to extract the methylated derivatives. Then,
168 the extracted derivatized fatty acids were separated by gas chromatography (GC) to
169 produce individual fatty acids, which were then analyzed by combustion-isotope ratio
170 mass spectrometry (GC-C-irMS, Thermo Electron, Waltham, Massachusetts,
171 USA).^[18]

172

173 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

174 **Mealworm Styrofoam-eating behavior.** Feeding trials with Styrofoam were

performed with mealworms from Beijing and Qinhuangdao, China, and Ham Lake, MN, USA. The Styrofoam samples used were not pretreated in any way, and contained no additives (SI, Table S1). The mealworms from all sources ate Styrofoam as soon as it was fed (Figure 1a). The eating activity of the mealworms (1.5–2 cm in length) appeared high and created hollows in the Styrofoam blocks (Figure 1a). The same observations were repeated more than three times regardless of the three different sites where the mealworms were purchased (SI, Figure S1). Their eating activity resulted in a decrease in the mass of Styrofoam, which depended upon the test period, the number and growth stage of the mealworms as well as the batch of mealworms purchased. For example, a group of 500 mealworms ($n = 3$ groups) from Beijing caused a total mass loss of Styrofoam accounting for $31.0 \pm 1.7\%$ of the initial mass (5.8 g) within 30 days (Figure 1b).

A test for the determination of the survival rate (SR) over a one-month period using the same batch of mealworms from Beijing showed that the difference between the SR of Styrofoam-feeding mealworms (500 mealworms as a group, $n = 3$ groups) and the SR of conventional diet (or bran)-feeding mealworms was not significant (500 mealworms as a group, $n = 3$ groups; t -test, $p = 0.944 > 0.05$) (Figure 1b). These Styrofoam-feeding mealworms survived for one month more until they stopped eating to become pupae, which then emerged as adult beetles within two weeks. These observations imply that Styrofoam-feeding did not pose a negative impact on the survival capabilities of the mealworms.

Changes in chemical structure and composition of ingested Styrofoam.

197 According to our observation, the mealworms began to egest fecula 12-24 h after
198 ingestion of Styrofoam (inset of Figure 2a), suggesting a short retention time (< 24 h)
199 for the Styrofoam held in the gut. Fresh fecula were collected and analyzed to
200 determine whether changes in chemical structure and composition of the ingested
201 Styrofoam had occurred after passage through the gut.

202 The change in the long-chain structure of PS molecules was investigated by
203 analyzing the whole molecular weight distributions and average molecular weights of
204 the degraded products in the fecula and the control PS using GPC. The degraded
205 products were extracted from the collected fecula (ca. 1.0 g) with THF. The whole
206 molecular weight distribution curve of the fecula extract shows a shift towards lower
207 molecular weight compared to the molecular weight distribution of the control PS
208 (Figure 2a). The number-average molecular weight (M_n) and weight-average
209 molecular weight (M_w) for the fecula extract also decrease compared to the control PS
210 (M_n : 32,260 versus. 40,430, and M_w : 98,330 versus. 124,200). These results suggest
211 that depolymerization/cleavage of long chain structure of PS took place, and lower
212 molecular weight fragments were newly formed in the mealworm gut. The
213 observation of the decrease in M_n and M_w is a major indication of depolymerization
214 and degradation of polymers, which has been reported during biodegradation of PE
215 films by the two bacterial strains isolated from the guts of waxworms in our
216 laboratory.^[16, 17]

217 The chemical compositions of Styrofoam and fecula (residues of the Styrofoam
218 egested through the gut of the mealworms) were characterized using solid state ^{13}C

219 cross polarization-magic angle spinning nuclear magnetic resonance (CP/MAS NMR)
220 and thermal analysis. Analysis of the ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR is usually applied to directly
221 identify the native composition of the solid substrate without separation of
222 components.^[20–22] As shown in Figure 2b, only four resonance signals were detected
223 in the spectrum of the control PS. Two resonance signals at δ 146 and δ 128 were
224 assigned to non-protonated and protonated aromatic carbons, and two resonance
225 signals at δ 41 and δ 46 corresponded to the methylene and methyl (aliphatic)
226 carbons.

227 In the spectrum of the fecula (Figure 2c), some new resonance signals were
228 detected in the spectrum of the fecula (Figure 2c). The newly appearing alkyl- and
229 methyl-C resonance signals (δ 10 to δ 40) could be assigned to aliphatic
230 hydrocarbons.^[21] The newly emerging resonance signals at δ 175, 104, 99, 84, 75, 73,
231 61, 55, and 23 were attributed to chitin from the insect cuticle.^[21] The new aromatic-C
232 (δ 140, δ 154 and δ 160) resonance signals could be ascribed to phenyl derivatives, as
233 reported by Gilardi *et al.*^[22] The phenyl derivatives are possible proxies for the
234 fragments or smaller molecules produced during depolymerization/oxidation of PS.^[8]

235 Thermal analysis can be used to compare the changes in chemical composition of
236 the solid substrate by analyzing the gaseous compounds produced during substrate
237 pyrolysis under anoxic conditions. Thermogravimetric (TG) coupling with the Fourier
238 transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) method is based on the precise study of the
239 weight loss (thermal decomposition) of the sample during programmed temperature
240 and online analysis of the evolved gaseous compounds produced during thermal

241 decomposition. TG/differential thermogravimetric (DTG) profiles during the thermal
242 decomposition of the fecula and the control Styrofoam as a function of temperature
243 were shown in Figure 2d.

244 For the control, 98.0% of weight loss occurred during only one stage, which
245 ranged from 360 °C to 480 °C, and the maximum decomposition rate occurred at
246 421°C. In contrast, the fecula showed three weight loss stages, stage 1 of 15.8% at the
247 175 °C to 275°C, stage 2 of 23.4% at the 275 to 360 °C, and stage 3 of 26.6% at the
248 360 °C to 480 °C. The maximum decomposition rates during the three stages occurred
249 at 233 °C, 327 °C and 431 °C, respectively.

250 Under the same heating program, the fecula decomposed in more stages than the
251 control, indicating that the fecula contained not only PS but also other new
252 components produced during digestion in the mealworm gut. During stage 3, the
253 weight loss of fecula was obviously less than the weight loss of the control,
254 demonstrating the depletion of PS content in the fecula.

255 Gaseous compounds produced in the TG process were analyzed using FTIR. The
256 3D FTIR profiles (Figure 2e and f), compiled over the entire temperature range of
257 thermal decomposition, show that the evolved gaseous compounds generated from the
258 control Styrofoam and the fecula give different IR absorption.

259 For the control, the obvious absorptions were generated in the temperature range
260 from 360 °C to 480 °C (Figure 2e). A representative FTIR spectrum at 421 °C shows
261 that all absorbance peaks are attributable to styrene, which represents the main
262 decomposition product of PS (SI, Figure S4a).

For the fecula, the obvious absorptions were generated in the temperature range from 175 °C to 480 °C (Figure 2f). Representative FTIR spectra at 233 °C, 327 °C and 431 °C show that the strongest absorbance peaks at 2000-2250 cm^{-1} and 2268-2395 cm^{-1} could be respectively assigned to carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide (SI, Figure S4b and c), which often represent the decomposition products of newly produced components in the fecula. The absorbance peaks attributed to styrene, the main decomposition product of PS, were very weak, substantiating the depletion of PS content in the fecula (SI, Figure S4b to d).

As indicated by the NMR spectra (Figure 2b and c) and thermal analysis (Figure 2d to f), both native compositions and chemical components of the evolved gaseous compounds produced during thermal decomposition were different between the control and the fecula, indicating that the degradation of ingested Styrofoam and production of degraded products took place in the guts of the mealworms.

Mineralization of ingested Styrofoam.

The conversion of the carbons of Styrofoam to CO_2 , mealworm biomass and fecula residues was assessed by a series of carbon mass balance tests with different incubation periods of 4, 8, 12 and 16 days with 40 mealworms in each incubator (SI, Figure S2). The results showed that total carbon recovery efficiencies were greater than 95% (Table 1). The carbon balance estimates showed that the carbon of the ingested Styrofoam recovered as CO_2 was increased from 20.7% to 47.7%, and the carbon of the ingested Styrofoam egested as fecula was decreased from 73.6% to 49.2% from day 4 to day 15 (Figure 3a and Table 1), suggesting that the activity for the

285 digestion of ingested Styrofoam increased progressively.

286 The mineralization of PS to CO₂ was further verified through determination of
287 the production of ¹³CO₂ by the mealworms fed either α ¹³C- or β ¹³C-labeled
288 PS-containing diet (SI, Figure S3). The mealworms were continuously fed a 3%
289 solidified jelly containing each of two ¹³C- labeled PS (0.4 mg/mL) and bran (0.2
290 mg/mL) over a 16-day period. For the control, mealworms were fed on bran. The CO₂
291 released in the off-air was trapped in 1 M NaOH solution and recovered as BaCO₃ for
292 analysis. The mean δ ¹³C value of CO₂ released by the mealworms fed on bran was
293 -8.2 ‰, while the mean δ ¹³C values of CO₂ released by mealworms fed on α and β
294 ¹³C-labeled PS diet were 3.3‰ and 3.9‰, respectively (Figure 3b), indicating that,
295 compared with the control mealworms fed with bran, significant ¹³C enrichment ($p <$
296 0.05) was observed in the CO₂ released from ¹³C-labeled PS-feeding mealworms at
297 the end of the 16-day period, confirming that ¹³C-labeled PS was partially mineralized
298 into the ¹³CO₂.

299 **Assimilation of ¹³C-PS by Styrofoam-feeding mealworms.**

300 Carbon mass balance estimates showed that the carbon of the ingested Styrofoam
301 recovered as mealworm biomass remained at only approximately 0.5%, and the
302 biomass weight of Styrofoam-feeding mealworms remained almost unchanged
303 (increased by ca. 0.2%) after the 16-day test period (Figure 3a and Table 1).

304 A compound-specific stable isotopic technique with fatty acids as biomarkers has
305 been applied to determine carbon assimilation in insects.^[18] We analyzed the δ ¹³C
306 value in individual fatty acids of the mealworms fed on ¹³C-labeled PS diet or bran

307 using gas chromatography-combustion-isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC-C-irMS).
308 Figure 4 shows that the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of individual fatty acids were significantly higher
309 (Paired *t*-test, $p = 0.004 < 0.05$ and $p = 0.002 < 0.05$, respectively) in the mealworms
310 fed with either $\alpha^{13}\text{C}$ - or $\beta^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled PS than the controls fed with bran, especially in
311 the unsaturated fatty acids. Nevertheless, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values still stayed negative,
312 suggesting that ^{13}C from the ^{13}C -labeled PS was assimilated into mealworm biomass,
313 but the fraction was limited.

314 A test with 40 mealworms as a group in triplicate was performed to determine the
315 weight change under three different conditions after 16 days. By comparison, the
316 biomass dry weight of the bran-feeding mealworms increased by 33.6%, but that of
317 starving mealworms decreased by 24.9% after a 16-day period (SI, Figure S5). The
318 Styrofoam-feeding mealworms did not appear to increase their biomass dry weight
319 (increased by ca. 0.2%) to the same extent as bran-feeding mealworms. Styrofoam,
320 unlike the bran, does not have the proper water content and necessary growth
321 nutrients, such as proteins, phosphorus, vitamins and minerals. Therefore, the lack of
322 nutrients and relatively poor biodegradability of Styrofoam resulted in the
323 mineralization of ingested Styrofoam to CO_2 providing a limited energy source for
324 biomass synthesis or growth. Similarly, Butler and Buckerfield's study on digestion of
325 synthetic lignin hydrocarbons by termites in the absence of other nutrients indicated
326 that 8.5-32.4% ^{14}C from ^{14}C -labeled lignin was converted to CO_2 , while only a limited
327 fraction (0.002%-0.004%) of ^{14}C was assimilated into termite bodies after a 50-day
328 test period.^[23]

329 However, it is obvious that the starving mealworms were dependent on the
330 endogenous metabolism of their body as an energy source for life activities, resulting
331 in their biomass weight loss of 24.9%. Therefore, the host mealworms received
332 marginal benefit from the mineralization of the ingested Styrofoam into CO₂, which
333 provided an energy source for life activities. Otherwise, the weight of the
334 Styrofoam-feeding group would have declined as significantly as the starving group.

335 Additional studies are needed to examine the effect of these nutrients on the
336 Styrofoam digestion and mealworm growth when fed with a Styrofoam diet. The
337 metabolic pathway of PS degradation will be further investigated in detail.

338 **Implications.**

339 This work presents convincing evidence that effective biodegradation and
340 mineralization of PS or Styrofoam, which have not been previously reported, occur in
341 the gut tract of mealworms. The mealworms are the first reported insect larvae that are
342 capable of degrading and mineralizing a common persistent petroleum-based plastic
343 PS.

344 In our companion article, we further reported that the gut microbiota play an
345 essential role in the biodegradation of PS or Styrofoam or PS.^[24] The mealworm gut
346 can be considered an efficient bioreactor. Physical and biochemical “treatment” (by
347 chewing, ingesting, mixing, reacting with gut contents, microbial degradation by gut
348 microbial consortia, taking up metabolic products by host, etc.) are possibly critical
349 for the success of rapid PS degradation in the bioreactor. The PS-degrading microbial
350 communities ubiquitously colonize in the guts of the mealworms. PS degradation is

351 thus analogous to microbial degradation of cellulose in ruminating mammals and
352 wood in termites for the mutual benefit of the metabolism of microbial consortia and
353 host. More research will be conducted to fully understand the interplay between the
354 worm metabolism and microbial metabolism and gut contents.

355 We propose a primary schematic diagram for this symbiotic degradation of
356 Styrofoam (or PS) in the gut of *T. molitor* (Fig. 5): Step 1) Styrofoam is chewed into
357 small fragments and ingested into the gut; chewing reduces the size of the plastic and
358 increases the contact surface area of PS fragments with microbes and extracellular
359 enzymes; Steps 2-3) The ingested fragments are mixed with gut microbiota that
360 excrete extracellular enzymes to catalyze the depolymerization of the fragments into
361 small molecule products; Steps 4-6) The products are mainly degraded or mineralized
362 into CO₂ by multiple functional microbes and/or the mealworm host, and limited
363 carbons of the products are further assimilated into biomass; and Step 7) The residual
364 Styrofoam fragments and other intermediates with some gut microbes are egested as
365 fecula, where further degradation could continue.

366 Our discovery that mealworms can degrade polystyrene will provide considerable
367 enthusiasm for prospecting the gut system for new bacterial strains, key enzymes and
368 system conditions that contribute to the depolymerization and biodegradation of
369 polystyrene as well as other petroleum-based plastics.

370

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379

380 **Supporting Information Available**

381 Characterization of Styrofoam feedstock (Table S1). Styrofoam-eating mealworms
382 from three different sources (Fig. S1). Procedures and calculations used to estimate
383 the carbon balance of Styrofoam loss, fecula residues, CO₂ and biomass in batch
384 Styrofoam-feeding trials (Fig. S2). Procedures for ¹³C stable carbon isotope tracer
385 experiments. (Fig. S3). TGA-FTIR thermograms (Fig. S4). This material is available
386 free of charge via the Internet at <http://pub.acs.org>.

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Table 1. Carbon balance estimates of the ingested Styrofoam converted into biomass, CO₂ and fecula in the batch Styrofoam-feeding trials with different incubation periods

Incubation Time (days)	Item	Initial Carbon (mg)	Final Carbon (mg)	Δ =Final-Initial (mg)	% of Ingested Styrofoam Recovered (%)
4	Styrofoam	592.1 \pm 19.0	501.3 \pm 24.0	-90.8	-
	Biomass	933.0 \pm 22.0	933.5 \pm 16.0	0.5	0.6
	CO ₂	0.0	18.8 \pm 0.4	18.8	20.7
	Fecula	0.0	66.8 \pm 14.8	66.8	73.6
	Total recovery				94.9
8	Styrofoam	610.0 \pm 22.0	500.0 \pm 39.0	-110.0	-
	Biomass	896.0 \pm 16.0	896.6 \pm 32.0	0.6	0.5
	CO ₂	0.0	39.2 \pm 1.0	39.2	35.6
	Fecula	0.0	65.7 \pm 15.7	65.7	59.7
	Total recovery				95.8
12	Styrofoam	720.0 \pm 5.0	563.0 \pm 26.0	-157.0	-
	Biomass	794.0 \pm 24.0	795.0 \pm 23.0	1.0	0.6
	CO ₂	0.0	65.0 \pm 12.0	65.0	41.4
	Fecula	0.0	89.0 \pm 16.0	89.0	56.7
	Total recovery				98.7
16	Styrofoam	826.0 \pm 54.0	609.0 \pm 47.0	-217.0	-
	Biomass	815.0 \pm 36.0	817.0 \pm 6.0	1.0	0.5
	CO ₂	0.0	103.6 \pm 3.0	103.6	47.7
	Fecula	0.0	106.7 \pm 10.0	106.7	49.2
	Total recovery				97.4

Note: N = 3 incubators for each incubation time, 40 mealworms in each incubator. The carbon contents of Styrofoam, biomass and fecula were calculated using their dry weight and carbon contents measured by an Element Analyzer.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Styrofoam-eating behavior of mealworms (*T. molitor*). (a) Larvae of *T. molitor* chew and eat Styrofoam block. (b) Styrofoam mass loss caused by a group of mealworms eating and the survival rates (SR) of Styrofoam-fed and conventional diet (bran)-fed mealworm populations over 30 days (mean \pm SD, $n = 3$ groups for each condition, 500 mealworms each group). Survival curves are illustrated by the proportional shift in surviving mealworms over time. No significant difference (t -test, $p = 0.944 > 0.05$) in the survival curves between the Styrofoam-feeding and the bran-feeding mealworms was observed.

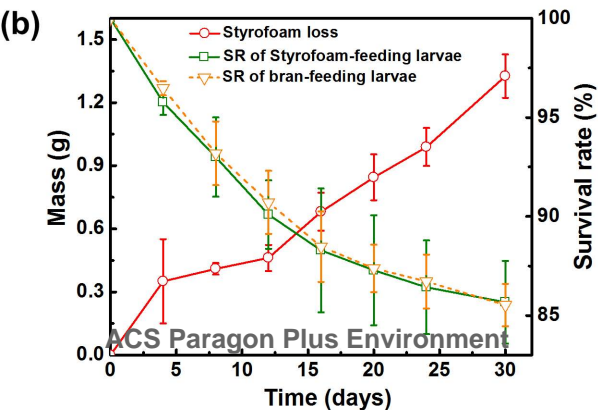
Figure 2. Changes in the chemical structure and composition of Styrofoam after passage through the mealworm gut as fecula. (a) Molecular weight distribution shift of the fecula extract versus the control PS. The inset picture is the control (up, bar = 1 cm) versus the fecula (down, bar = 1 mm). (b and c). The ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of the control and the fecula. The new appearance of phenyl derivatives at the $\delta 150$ to 160 ppm resonance regions in the fecula was indicated with a gray column. (d) The TG/DTG curves of the control PS and the fecula (TG curves are solid lines and DTG curves are dashed lines). (e and f) The 3D infrared spectra of gaseous compounds produced in the TG equipment during thermal decomposition of the control and the fecula.

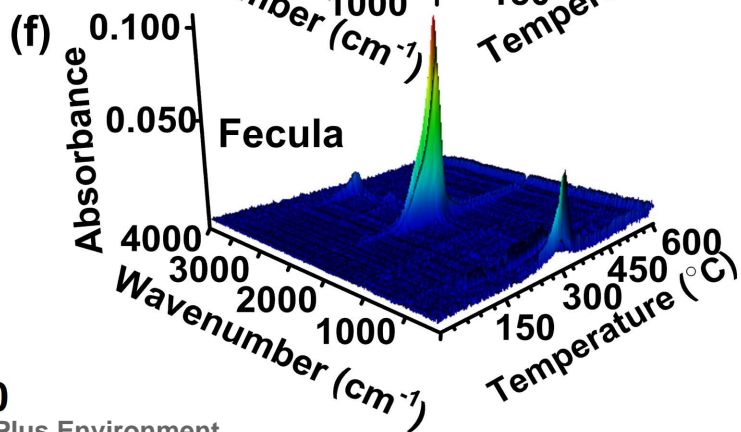
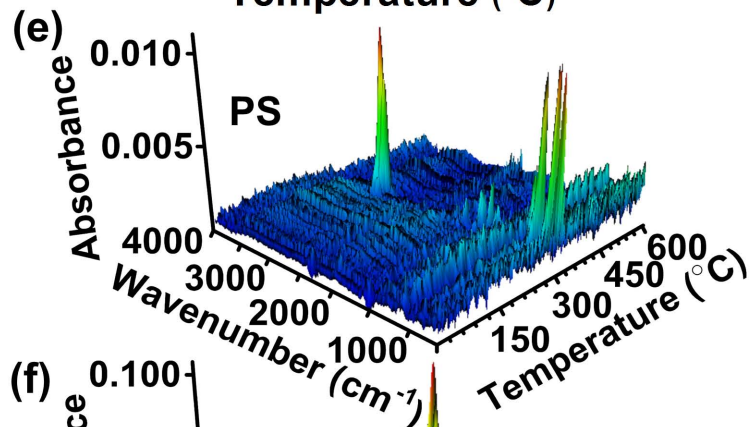
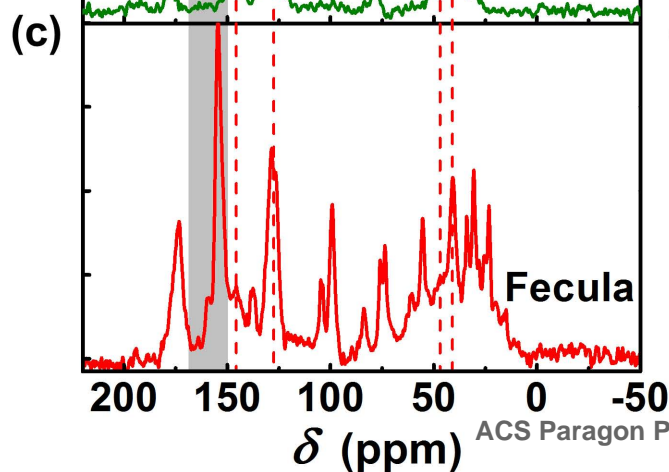
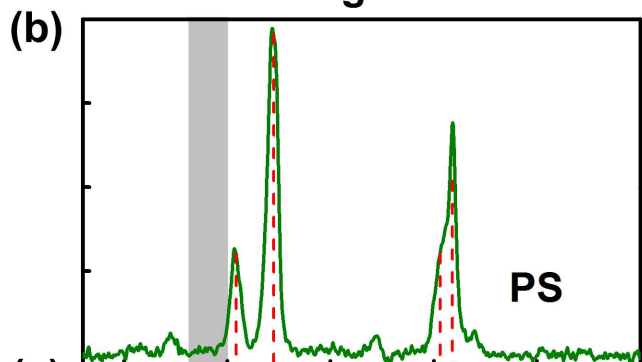
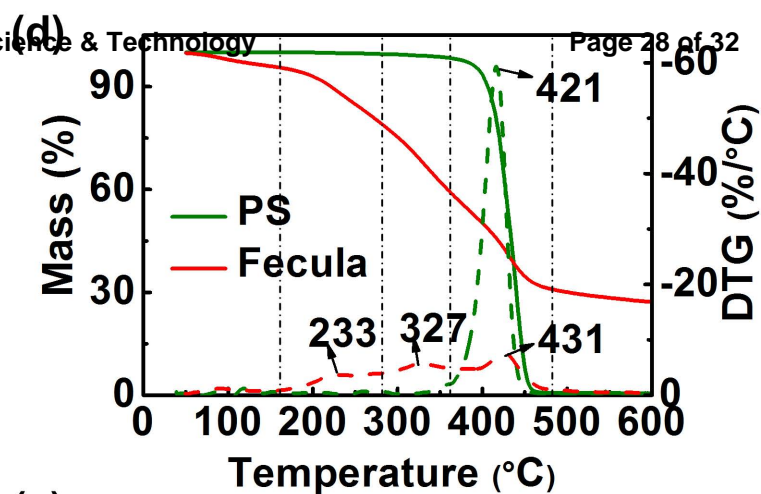
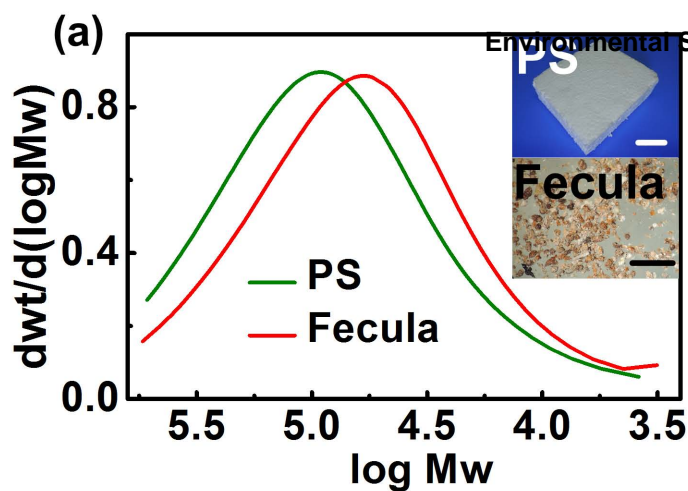
Figure 3. Conversion of PS into CO_2 . (a) The carbon proportion of the ingested Styrofoam recovered as CO_2 , mealworms biomass and fecula residues based on the carbon balance estimates over different incubation times of 4, 8, 12 and 16 days (mean value, $n = 3$ groups for each condition, 40 mealworms each group). Detailed calculations shown in SI, Table S2. (b) ^{13}C signatures of CO_2 produced by the mealworms fed with ^{13}C labeled PS (α or β ^{13}C -PS) versus unlabeled bran over a 16-day incubation period (mean \pm SD, $n = 3$ groups for each condition, 40 mealworms as one group).

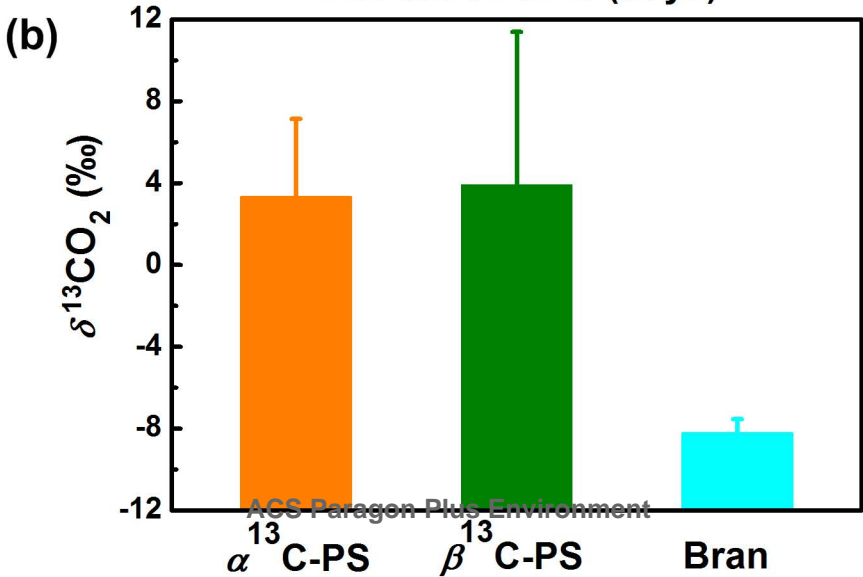
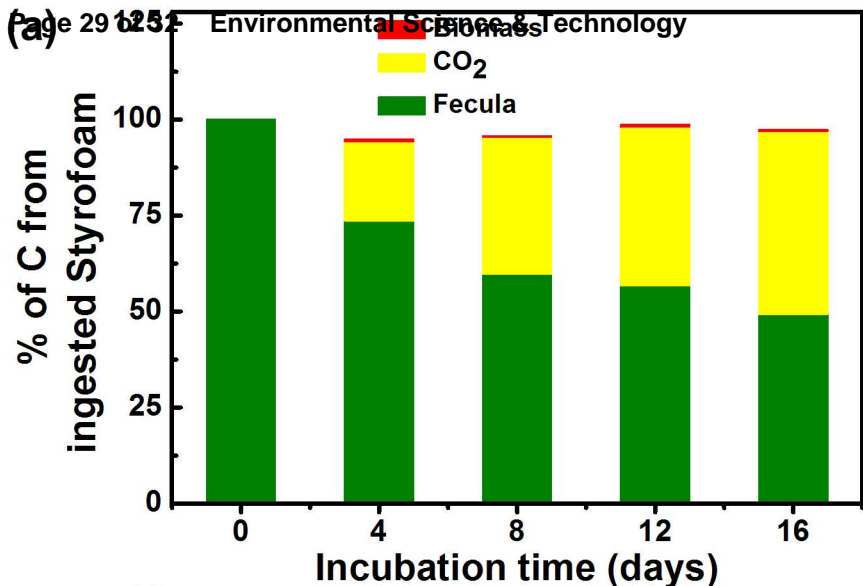
Figure 4. ^{13}C signatures of individual fatty acids (FAs) extracted from the mealworms

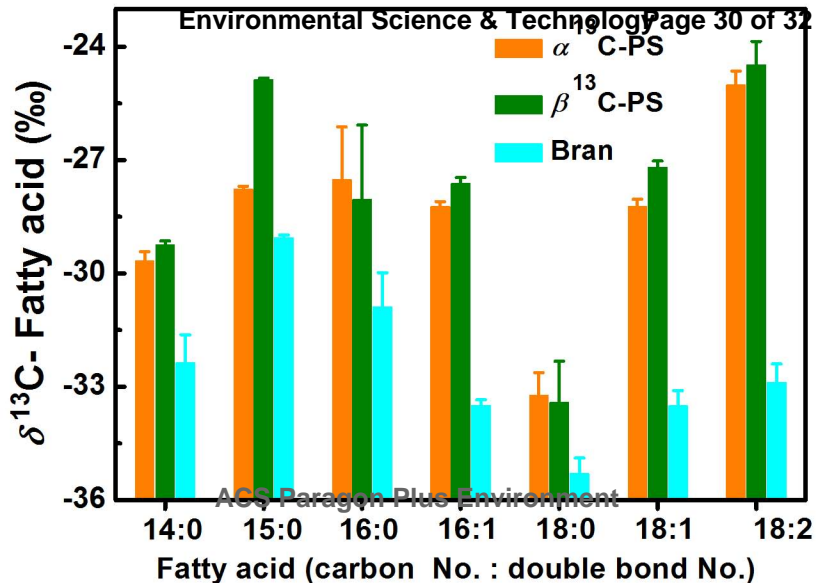
fed with ^{13}C labeled PS (α or β ^{13}C -PS) versus unlabeled bran after a 16-day incubation period (mean \pm SD, $n = 3$ groups for each condition, 40 mealworms each group). The paired t -test was used to evaluate the difference of ^{13}C signatures of individual FAs between the bran-feeding mealworms and the α or β ^{13}C labeled PS-feeding mealworms ($p = 0.004 < 0.05$ and $p = 0.002 < 0.05$, respectively). The δ ^{13}C values are assigned relative to the Pee Dee Belemnite (PDB) standard. C14:0, myristic acid; C15:0, pentadecanoic acid; C16:0, palmitic acid; C16:1 ($\Delta 9$), palmitoleic acid; C18:0, stearic acid; C18:1 ($\Delta 9$), oleic acid; C18:2 ($\Delta 9 + \Delta 12$), linoleic acid.

Figure 5. Schematic diagram of the proposed system for PS degradation in the gut.



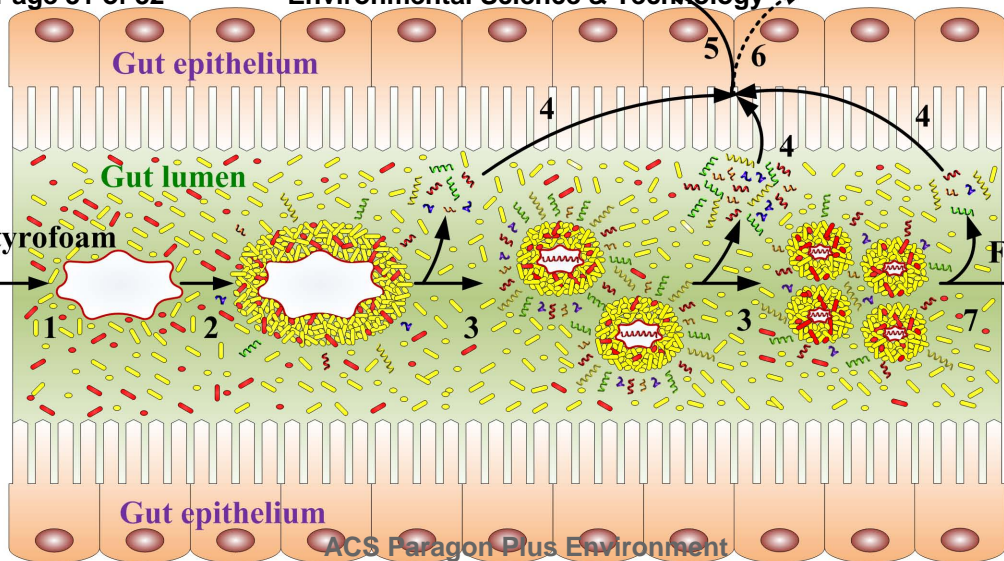






Styrofoam

Fecula



Gut microbiota



Split Styrofoam fragments



Small molecules of depolymerized products

Styrene-chewing mealworms

Environmental Science & Technology of 32



ACS Paragon Plus Environment

2 cm