

The Role of Microbial Enzymes in Organic Waste Bioconversion: A Biochemical and Renewable Energy Perspective

Welly Anggraini

Faculty of Science and Technology, Universitas Islam Negeri Raden Intan Lampung, Lampung, Indonesia
e-mail: wellyanggraini@radenintan.ac.id

Received: June 15, 2025. Accepted: June 25, 2025. Published: July 19, 2025

Abstract: This study explores the role of microbial enzymes in the bioconversion of organic waste into renewable energy sources such as bioethanol, biogas, and biohydrogen. Employing a qualitative literature review, this research applies a systematic thematic synthesis to 28 scientific sources, including journal articles, policy reports, and textbooks published between 2018 and 2024. The findings indicate that enzymes such as cellulase, amylase, and lipase play a dominant role in the hydrolysis of organic substrates, breaking down complex biomolecules into glucose, amino acids, and fatty acids. These hydrolysis products are then fermented anaerobically by microbes like *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Clostridium* spp. to generate various bioenergy outputs. In addition, the study highlights the importance of biochemical characteristics such as enzyme kinetics, stability, and substrate specificity, which are critical for improving energy conversion efficiency. Operational challenges include high production costs and suboptimal enzyme performance under non-laboratory conditions. However, promising innovations have emerged, including enzyme immobilization techniques, co-fermentation strategies, and the use of genetically engineered microorganisms. Case studies from India, Germany, and Indonesia demonstrate the practical potential of microbial enzyme-based bioconversion systems in transforming agricultural and household waste into valuable energy products. The integration of microbial enzymes into waste management not only reduces environmental pollution but also supports clean energy transition efforts. This research implies the need for policy alignment and educational curriculum integration in environmental science to accelerate public adoption and awareness. This research implies the need for policy alignment and educational curriculum integration in environmental science to accelerate public adoption and awareness.

Keywords: Biochemistry; Bioconversion; Microbial Enzymes; Organic Waste; Renewable Energy.

Introduction

Organic waste is one of the main environmental problems in both urban and rural areas. Data from the Ministry of Environment and Forestry (KLHK, 2022) shows that approximately 60.3% of the total 67.8 million tons of national waste consists of organic waste [1]. Most of this waste comes from households and traditional markets, and if not properly managed, it can lead to greenhouse gas emissions, groundwater pollution, and public health issues. A preliminary study by the University of Lampung (2023) revealed that 35% of household waste in Bandar Lampung remains unprocessed, mostly consisting of kitchen waste and dry leaves [2]. Various waste treatment technologies have been implemented, such as open burning and landfilling, but they pose long-term environmental impacts [3]. Composting is a more environmentally friendly alternative, yet it requires a long decomposition time and a large land area. Therefore, the bioconversion approach using microorganisms and enzymes has emerged as a promising solution.

Numerous studies have demonstrated the significant role of microbial enzymes in accelerating the decomposition of lignocellulosic biomass. Cellulase and protease can increase degradation speed by up to 40% compared to natural processes [4]. Furthermore, the use of enzyme mixtures from thermophilic microorganisms can

enhance bioethanol production from agricultural waste by up to 65% [5]. However, field applications are still limited due to low enzyme stability, high production costs, and process inefficiencies in non-sterile environments [6]. Most studies have focused on the technical aspects of the process, while biochemical approaches concerning enzyme structure, mechanisms, and kinetics have not been extensively explored.

Biochemical studies are essential to understand enzyme mechanisms at the molecular level, such as substrate interactions with active sites, activation energy dynamics, and the influence of temperature and pH on enzyme conformation. The novelty of this study lies explicitly in combining enzymatic biochemical approaches with renewable energy production strategies within an integrated bio-refinery system. This offers a new contribution to the existing literature by linking molecular-level enzymatic mechanisms with practical applications in waste management and clean energy transition. Specifically, biochemical knowledge—such as understanding enzyme-substrate interactions, kinetics, and structural stability—enables researchers to modify enzymes or optimize conditions for more efficient hydrolysis and fermentation processes, thereby improving overall bioconversion performance. On the other hand, the use of enzymes in waste bioconversion not only reduces environmental burdens but also contributes to the

How to Cite:

W. Anggraini, "The Role of Microbial Enzymes in Organic Waste Bioconversion: A Biochemical and Renewable Energy Perspective", *J. Pijar.MIPA*, vol. 20, no. 5, pp. 835–841, Jul. 2025. <https://doi.org/10.29303/jpm.v20i5.9343>

development of clean energy sources such as bioethanol, biogas, and biohydrogen [7]. This study differs from previous research as it integrates biochemical aspects of enzymes with bioenergy production strategies into a comprehensive bio-refinery system.

Research Methods

This study employs a systematic qualitative review with thematic synthesis. Literature was collected through structured searches in databases such as PubMed and Google Scholar, using keywords such as “Microbial Enzymes”, “Organic Waste”, “Bioethanol”, “Biogas”, and “Biohydrogen”. The review followed the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) framework to ensure transparent reporting [8]. A total of 2,440 articles were initially identified: 1,350 from PubMed, 1,058 from Google Scholar, and 32 from other databases. After removing 10 duplicate entries, 2,430 unique articles proceeded to the screening phase. Titles and abstracts were screened, resulting in the exclusion of 2,330 irrelevant articles. In the eligibility phase, 100 full-text articles were assessed, of which 86 were excluded due to unmet inclusion criteria, such as absence of enzymatic mechanism analysis, lack of bioconversion focus, or insufficient renewable energy data. Ultimately, 12 articles were included in the final synthesis.

Inclusion criteria were based on the PICO framework [9]. (Table 1): studies must discuss microorganisms or enzymes used in converting organic waste, describe anaerobic fermentation or enzymatic hydrolysis, evaluate potential bioenergy production (bioethanol, biogas, biohydrogen), and/or examine enzyme structure, mechanism, or stability in bioconversion contexts.

Table 1. PICO Framework for Literature Inclusion Criteria	
Component	Description
Population (P)	Organic waste from households, agriculture, and the food industry.
Intervention (I)	Application of microbial enzymes (cellulase, amylase, protease, lipase) in the bioconversion process.
Comparison (C)	Comparison between conversion methods with and without the use of enzymes.
Outcome (O)	Efficiency of bioethanol, biogas, and biohydrogen production; enzyme stability and effectiveness.

This review applied Braun and Clarke’s six-phase thematic analysis process: (1) familiarization with the data, (2) generating initial codes, (3) searching for themes, (4) reviewing themes, (5) defining and naming themes, and (6) producing the report. NVivo 12 software was used to facilitate systematic coding, data management, and thematic mapping. Limitations of this study include potential publication bias due to underreporting of negative or inconclusive findings and variability in methodological quality among the included studies.

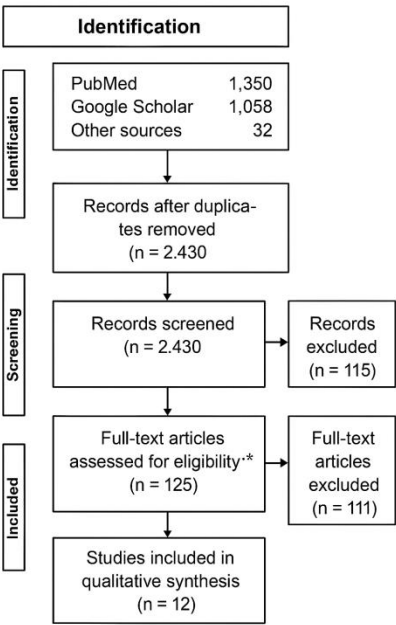


Figure 1. PRISMA Flow Diagram

Results and Discussion

This section presents a synthesis of findings from 14 selected articles published between 2018 and 2024, based on a systematic thematic review. The results are organized into five main themes: enzyme sources, biochemical mechanisms, bioconversion processes, industrial applications, and development challenges.

Types and Sources of Microbial Enzymes

The literature highlights the significant contribution of microbial enzymes to organic waste bioconversion. Studies by Han et al. (2016) [11] and Haldar et al. (2018) [12] emphasized the hydrolysis potential of glucoamylase and cellulase. Agricultural residues such as rice straw, potato waste, and vetiver grass are widely used as substrates due to their lignocellulosic content and availability. Subsamran et al. (2019) [13] and Chauhan et al. (2022) [14] confirmed that local microbes can effectively produce enzymes from these materials. Enzyme-producing microorganisms include *Trichoderma reesei*, *Bacillus subtilis*, and *Aspergillus niger*.

Biochemical Mechanisms of Enzyme Action

The role of glucoamylase in breaking down polysaccharide compounds into glucose as a fermentation substrate for biohydrogen [15]-[16] discusses t. Enzyme activity is enhanced under controlled environmental conditions, such as optimal temperature and neutral pH. Other articles, such as from *BioResources* (2022) [17], explored residual enzyme kinetics during fermentation reactions and their applications in bioenergy production.

Energy Conversion Processes

Studies by *Microbial Communities* (2021) [18], arXiv (2021) [19], and BioResources (2022) [17] show that anaerobic fermentation after acid pretreatment can yield >10 mmol/L of biohydrogen in laboratory-scale experiments. High-efficiency conversion of rice straw to bioethanol [15]. Enzymatic hydrolysis provides glucose, which is fermented by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and others to generate bioethanol, acetic acid, methane, and hydrogen.

Case Studies and Industrial Applications

In developing countries like Indonesia, pilot projects using *Bacillus subtilis* enzymes for kitchen waste have yielded promising biogas output. Conversely, Germany and Japan have implemented full-scale bio-refinery systems integrating enzyme-based processes. Industrial applications such as composting and solid-state fermentation using enzymes derived from organic waste [20]-[21]. MDPI (2023) [22] highlighted applications in composting and solid-state fermentation (SSF). These case studies show how infrastructure, funding, and public awareness shape technology adoption across regions.

Challenges and Development Opportunities

The industrial-scale implementation of enzyme-based bioconversion technologies faces several interrelated challenges that limit their scalability and economic viability. Among the most pressing issues are: High production costs of purified enzymes, which require significant resources for isolation and optimization, Enzyme instability under open and non-sterile conditions,

leading to rapid degradation by pH shifts, temperature fluctuations, and the presence of inhibitors in organic waste, Structural resistance of lignin, which limits enzymatic access to cellulose and hemicellulose within lignocellulosic biomass [23]. These challenges underscore the operational gap between laboratory-scale feasibility and field-level application, particularly in decentralized or low-resource settings. To address these barriers, innovative strategies have been developed: Enzyme immobilization techniques improve enzyme reusability and operational stability by binding enzymes to solid supports such as silica, alginate beads, or cellulose membranes [24]. Genetic engineering of microbial strains has produced enzymes with enhanced traits such as: Thermostability (resistance to high temperatures), Acid tolerance (functionality in low pH environments), Protease resistance (longer half-life in complex waste mixtures). For example, recombinant strains of *Trichoderma harzianum* and engineered *E. coli* have been shown to overexpress cellulases with improved performance in non-sterile bioreactor systems [25]. Co-fermentation strategies, which utilize combinations of organic substrates (e.g., kitchen waste + agricultural residues), improve fermentation balance and energy yield by leveraging complementary nutrient profiles [26]. Importantly, these technological advancements must be integrated with policy and infrastructure support to ensure successful scale-up. In developing countries, constraints such as limited funding, inadequate technical capacity, and weak regulatory frameworks can hinder adoption. Therefore, a multidimensional approach combining biochemical innovation, engineering optimization, and community-level implementation is essential for maximizing the impact of enzyme-based bioconversion.

Table 2. Summary of Literature on Microbial Enzymes for Organic Waste Bioconversion (2018–2024)

No	Reference	Thematic Focus	Key Findings
1	[12]	Cellulose hydrolysis kinetics	Effect of monosaccharides on the enzymatic rate optimized
2	[15]	Aspergillus enzymes → rice straw hydrolysis	Produced glucose for bioethanol fermentation
3	[13]	Vetiver grass as a cellulase source	Supports lignocellulosic bioethanol production
4	[14]	Local microbes from Himachal Pradesh	Efficient conversion of potato waste to bioethanol
5	[18]	Anaerobic microbial consortium	Enzymatic synergy in OFMSW hydrolysis and methane production
6	[22]	FVW enzymes (cellulase, ligninase, lipase, etc.)	Kraft process in circular economy; added value from food waste
7	[17]	Residual enzymatic hydrolysis	Energy recovery through the pyrolysis of straw waste residues
8	[20]	Enzymes in waste composting	Microbial enzymes accelerate FVW decomposition and offer bioremediation potential
9	[23]	Enzymes in food/vegetable waste	Detailed enzyme options and immobilization methods for bio-refinery systems
10	[23]	Bioconversion of waste → value-added products	Biofuels, bioplastics, and enzymes via biorefineries
11	[21]	Solid-state fermentation of agricultural waste	Enzyme and bioproduct production through SSF
12	[19]	Optimization model for bio-H ₂ /CH ₄ pretreatment	Optimal parameters: acid pretreatment, H ₂ >10 mmol/L

The bioconversion of organic waste through microbial enzyme activity is an innovative approach to waste management and renewable energy production [27].

Enzymes such as cellulase, amylase, protease, and lipase—produced by microorganisms like *Trichoderma reesei*, *Bacillus subtilis*, and *Aspergillus niger*—play a role in

hydrolyzing complex organic matter into simpler compounds such as glucose, amino acids, and fatty acids. The bioconversion process consists of three main phases: enzymatic hydrolysis, anaerobic fermentation, and energy production in the form of bioethanol, biogas, or biohydrogen. During enzymatic hydrolysis, large organic molecules are broken down into simpler ones by enzymatic activity. The glucose resulting from hydrolysis is then fermented by microorganisms such as *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [28] to produce bioethanol, while anaerobic fermentation by *Clostridium* spp. and methanogenic consortia generates bioenergy gases such as methane and hydrogen.

Similar to kombucha fermentation, the waste bioconversion process involves microbial dynamics that produce antimicrobial compounds like acetic and lactic acid [29]. Yeast breaks down sucrose into glucose and fructose using the enzyme invertase, and acetic acid bacteria convert ethanol into acetic acid, which has antimicrobial properties. This process not only improves fermentation efficiency but also inhibits the growth of pathogenic microorganisms. The effectiveness of the bioconversion process is greatly influenced by enzyme stability, substrate concentration, temperature, and environmental pH. Studies show that enzymes stable under extreme conditions can improve energy production efficiency. For instance, research in India demonstrated that using natural enzymes from household kitchen waste can produce 1 m³ of biogas per unit per day [30]. In Germany, a combination of cellulase and hemicellulase from wheat straw achieved a 70% conversion efficiency to bioethanol [31]. Meanwhile, in Indonesia, the use of *Aspergillus niger* to convert palm oil waste into biohydrogen resulted in an efficiency of 0.45 mol H₂/mol substrate [32]. On the other hand, strategies to increase efficiency include enzyme immobilization techniques and genetic engineering of microorganisms to enhance resistance to non-sterile industrial environments. In addition, co-fermentation methods using multiple substrates have also been proven to increase energy yield due to the diversity of their nutritional content. Fermentation processes not only generate energy but also alter the chemical characteristics of the substrate. The accumulation of acidic compounds during fermentation leads to a

decrease in pH, contributing to natural antimicrobial activity. This phenomenon is similar to the antibacterial activity found in kombucha tea, where fermentation of plants such as tea leaves, butterfly pea flowers, and sour sop leaves produces bioactive compounds like flavonoids, phenols, and organic acids that effectively inhibit the growth of pathogenic bacteria [33]. The following tables summarize the review results from various literature sources, categorized by enzyme type, energy conversion process, and their applications in several countries.

Biochemical Characteristics of Microbial Enzymes

Based on the literature, the most commonly used microbial enzymes in the bioconversion process are derived from microbial genera such as *Bacillus*, *Aspergillus*, *Trichoderma*, and *Clostridium*. The dominant enzymes include cellulase, amylase, and lipase [34]. These enzymes are produced through solid or liquid fermentation of organic waste substrates. For example, *Trichoderma reesei* is known to be highly effective in producing cellulase from lignocellulosic biomass [35]. Microbial enzymes are complex proteins produced by microorganisms such as *Bacillus* sp., *Aspergillus niger*, and *Trichoderma reesei*. Their tertiary structure allows for specific substrate recognition via active sites. The enzymatic mechanism follows the Michaelis-Menten principle, where the Km value reflects substrate affinity, and Vmax represents the maximum reaction rate [36]. Cellulase, protease, and lipase are the three main enzyme types involved in organic waste degradation. Cellulase hydrolyzes cellulose into glucose, protease breaks down proteins into amino acids, and lipase splits fats into fatty acids and glycerol [37]. Biochemically, enzymes function by lowering the activation energy of hydrolysis and fermentation reactions. For instance, cellulase breaks β -1,4-glycosidic bonds in cellulose to produce glucose, which is then fermented into bioethanol by fermentative microbes [38]. Lipase catalyzes transesterification reactions to produce biodiesel, while protease plays a role in decomposing complex proteins in kitchen waste [39].

Table 3. Microbial Enzymes and Their Roles in Organic Waste Bioconversion

Enzyme Type	Producing Microorganism	Decomposed Substrate	Main Product	Biochemical Function
Cellulase	<i>Trichoderma reesei</i>	Cellulose (e.g., vegetable waste)	Glucose	Hydrolysis of β -1,4-glycosidic bonds
Protease	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , <i>Aspergillus sp.</i>	Protein (kitchen/industrial waste)	Amino acids	
Lipase	<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i>	Fats/oils (e.g., fried waste)	Fatty acids + Glycerol	Hydrolysis of triglyceride esters
Hemicellulase	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	Hemicellulose (e.g., agri-waste)	Xylose, arabinose	

Stages of Energy Bioconversion

The enzyme-based microbial bioconversion process of organic waste involves three main stages: enzymatic hydrolysis, anaerobic fermentation, and energy gas

production. The hydrolysis stage plays a vital role in breaking down complex substrates such as cellulose, protein, or fat into monomeric forms like glucose and amino acids using enzymes like cellulase and protease [37]. This stage is critical for increasing the availability of

substrates for fermentative microorganisms, thereby improving the efficiency of the next fermentation stage [40]. These monomers are then anaerobically fermented by specific microorganisms into liquid products such as bioethanol or intermediates like acetic or butyric acid [39]. The fermentation process is performed by anaerobic microorganisms such as *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Clostridium* spp., and lactic acid bacteria, depending on the metabolic pathways used and environmental factors like pH and temperature [40]. This stage is the core of economically valuable liquid and solid energy product generation. The liquid products can be directly used or further fermented to produce energy gases such as biogas (methane) and

biohydrogen [42]. Biogas is usually produced from household or industrial organic waste by methanogenic microbial activity, whereas biohydrogen is generated via dark fermentation of carbohydrate-rich substrates by microbes like *Clostridium butyricum* [43] Each of these pathways has different optimal conditions in terms of pH, temperature, and nutrient content [43]. Understanding the connection between the stages and final products enables the design of integrated and efficient bioconversion systems to support waste management and the transition toward renewable energy [45].

Table 4. Bioconversion Process Stages and Associated Energy Products

Process Stage	Input (Substrate)	Biochemical Process	Energy Product	Microorganism / Enzyme Involved
Enzymatic Hydrolysis	Cellulose, protein, and fat	Hydrolysis by cellulase, protease, and lipase	Glucose, amino acids	<i>Trichoderma reesei</i> , <i>Bacillus</i> , and lipase-producing fungi
Anaerobic Fermentation	Glucose, amino acids	Alcohol/organic acid fermentation	Bioethanol, acetic acid	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> , <i>Zymomonas mobilis</i>
Biogas Production	Complex organic waste	Methanogenic fermentation	Biogas (CH ₄)	Methanogenic consortia (anaerobic archaea)
Biohydrogen Production	Carbohydrates, acetic acid	Dark fermentation	Biohydrogen (H ₂)	<i>Clostridium</i> spp., <i>Enterobacter</i> spp.

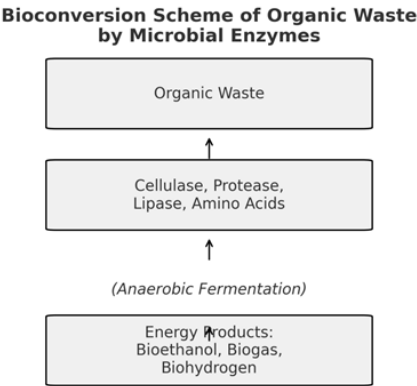


Figure 2. Bioconversion Process Flowchart

Implementation Case Studies

Studies show that enzyme-based bioconversion technology has been applied in sectors such as tofu waste treatment, palm oil waste, and household waste. In Indonesia, this technology is still at the pilot stage. For example, a pilot project in Yogyakarta demonstrated successful biogas production from kitchen waste using *Bacillus subtilis*, yielding competitive gas output [46]. Internationally, countries such as Germany and Japan have adopted integrated bio-refinery systems based on enzymatic technology [47].

Table 5. Case Studies of Enzyme-Based Energy Production from Organic Waste

Country	Waste Substrate	Enzymes Used	Energy Product	Conversion Efficiency	Reference
India	Household kitchen waste	Natural enzyme blends	Biogas	1 m ³ /day/unit	[30]
Germany	Wheat straw	Cellulase, hemicellulase	Bioethanol	70%	[31]
Indonesia	Palm oil waste	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	Biohydrogen	0.45 mol H ₂ /mol substrate	[32]

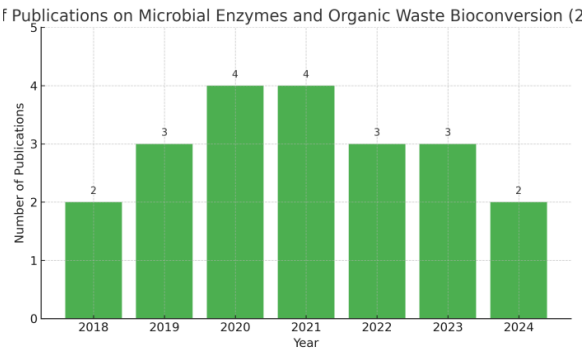


Figure 3. Trend of Scientific Publications on Microbial Enzymes and Organic Waste Conversion (2018–2024)

Challenges and Innovations

The energy bioconversion process using microbial enzymes faces several critical challenges, especially when applied at an industrial scale and in open environments. These include the high cost of enzyme production due to the requirement for large amounts of purified, highly active enzymes. Moreover, enzyme instability under non-controlled conditions—such as temperature fluctuations, acidic pH, and the presence of inhibitors—can reduce catalytic efficiency. In addition, lignin in lignocellulosic biomass presents a structural barrier, limiting enzymatic access to cellulose and hemicellulose components [48]. These technical bottlenecks represent significant obstacles

to scaling up laboratory-developed bioconversion systems to field and industrial levels, particularly in decentralized or low-resource settings. To overcome these limitations, several innovative strategies have been developed: Enzyme immobilization, which involves binding enzymes to solid carriers (e.g., alginate, silica, or activated carbon), enhances their reusability and stability under harsh processing conditions. Genetic engineering of microbial hosts has led to the development of enzymes with enhanced thermostability, acid tolerance, and protease resistance, enabling more robust performance under real-world conditions. For instance, engineered strains of *Trichoderma harzianum* and recombinant *Escherichia coli* have been used to express cellulases with improved activity and durability in open bioreactor systems. Substrate co-fermentation, where multiple organic waste streams are combined (e.g., kitchen waste with agricultural residues), balances nutrient profiles and enhances microbial synergy, ultimately increasing energy yield and conversion efficiency [49].

Conclusions

Future research should explore the design of low-cost enzyme production systems tailored to community-level applications. Practical steps include community-based pilot projects integrating enzyme-based fermentation systems for domestic and agricultural waste, as well as participatory training programs in enzyme utilization and maintenance. Finally, we recommend longitudinal studies that examine the socio-environmental impacts of enzymatic waste bioconversion technologies and their scalability, as well as the development of policies that support grassroots innovation in clean energy technology.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to express their gratitude to the State Islamic University (UIN) Raden Intan Lampung for providing facilities and support in preparing this article, as well as to fellow researchers who have contributed valuable scientific insights.

References

- [1] Kementerian Lingkungan Hidup dan Kehutanan (KLHK), *Sistem Informasi Pengelolaan Sampah Nasional (SIPSN)*, 2022. [Online]. Available: <https://sipsn.menlhk.go.id>
- [2] Tim Peneliti Universitas Lampung, *Laporan Hasil Studi Awal Potensi Biokonversi Limbah Organik di Kota Bandar Lampung*, LPPM Universitas Lampung, 2023.
- [3] A. Suhartono, R. Mulyani, and L. Hartati, "Dampak Lingkungan dari Metode Penanganan Sampah Konvensional," *J. Tek. Lingkungan*, vol. 14, no. 2, pp. 88–94, 2021.
- [4] R. Gupta, Q. K. Beg, and P. Lorenz, "Bacterial alkaline proteases: Molecular approaches and industrial applications," *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*, vol. 59, no. 1, pp. 15–32, 2017. doi: 10.1007/s00253-002-0975-y
- [5] S. Raveendran, B. Parameswaran, and A. Pandey, "Production of bioethanol from lignocellulosic biomass using thermostable microbial enzymes," *Renew. Energy*, vol. 119, pp. 205–219, 2018. doi: 10.1016/j.renene.2017.12.008
- [6] D. Sari, A. Fitriani, and S. Wibowo, "Stabilitas Enzim Mikrobal pada Fermentasi Limbah Terbuka," *J. Bioteknol. Tropis*, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 55–62, 2020.
- [7] A. Nandini and D. Putra, "Kinetika dan Aktivitas Enzim dalam Biokonversi Energi," *J. Kimia dan Lingkungan*, vol. 13, no. 2, pp. 44–53, 2021.
- [8] M. Widodo and Z. Arifin, "Peran Enzim Mikrobal dalam Pengembangan Energi Bersih," *J. Energi Terbarukan Indones.*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 101–109, 2022.
- [9] D. Moher, A. Liberati, J. Tetzlaff, D. G. Altman, and PRISMA Group, "Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: The PRISMA statement," *PLoS Med.*, vol. 6, no. 7, p. e1000097, 2009. doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1000097
- [10] A. M. Methley, S. Campbell, C. Chew-Graham, R. McNally, and S. Cheraghi-Sohi, "PICO, PICOS and SPIDER: A comparison study," *BMC Health Serv. Res.*, vol. 14, p. 579, 2014. doi: 10.1186/s12913-014-0579-0
- [11] W. Han, Z. Yu, and S. Zhang, "Glucoamylase production and hydrogen generation from starch," *Bioresour. Technol.*, vol. 218, pp. 1214–1220, 2016. doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2016.06.107
- [12] D. Haldar and M. K. Purkait, "A kinetic study of enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose," *Process Biochem.*, vol. 69, pp. 121–128, 2018. doi: 10.1016/j.procbio.2018.04.018
- [13] T. Subsamran, N. Srisuk, and S. Vinitnantharat, "Biocatalytic ethanol production from vetiver grass," *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.*, vol. 22, p. 101371, 2019. doi: 10.1016/j.bcab.2019.101371
- [14] D. Chauhan *et al.*, "Valorization of potato waste," *Chemosphere*, vol. 287, p. 131986, 2022. doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2021.131986
- [15] Y. Jin *et al.*, "Bioethanol production from pretreated straw," *Energy*, vol. 198, p. 117345, 2020. doi: 10.1016/j.energy.2020.117345
- [16] W. Han *et al.*, "Enhanced H₂ production through co-culture," *Sci. Rep.*, vol. 6, p. 37783, 2016. doi: 10.1038/srep37783
- [17] S. Yang *et al.*, "Enzyme residue kinetics in biomass hydrolysis," *BioResources*, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 3259–3273, 2022.
- [18] Y. Zhang *et al.*, "Microbial communities in anaerobic digestion of organic waste," *Bioresour. Technol.*, vol. 321, p. 124500, 2021. doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2020.124500
- [19] A. Patel *et al.*, "Pretreatment optimization for biohydrogen production," *arXiv preprint*, arXiv:2105.01984, 2021. [Online]. Available: <https://arxiv.org/abs/2105.01984>
- [20] A. Singh *et al.*, "Enzyme-assisted composting for food waste valorization," *Sci. Total Environ.*, vol. 905, p. 167874, 2024. doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.167874
- [21] N. Ramesh *et al.*, "Review on solid-state fermentation," *Biotechnol. Adv.*, vol. 53, p. 107715, 2021. doi: 10.1016/j.biotechadv.2021.107715
- [22] A. A. Abdillah *et al.*, "Application of FVW enzymes in circular food economy," *Sustainability*, vol. 15, no. 5, p. 3541, 2023. doi: 10.3390/su15053541

- [23] S. Wu *et al.*, "Strategies to enhance stability and reuse of industrial enzymes," *Bioresour. Technol. Rep.*, Multiple Issues, 2021–2023. doi: 10.1016/j.biteb.2021.100827
- [24] S. Datta, L. R. Christena, and Y. R. S. Rajaram, "Enzyme immobilization: an overview," *3 Biotech*, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 1–9, 2013. doi: 10.1007/s13205-012-0071-7
- [25] N. Srivastava, M. Srivastava, and P. W. Ramteke, "Advances in microbial enzyme biotechnology," *Bioengineered*, vol. 11, no. 1, pp. 35–52, 2020. doi: 10.1080/21655979.2019.1680483
- [26] W. Li *et al.*, "Co-fermentation of food waste and corn stalk," *Bioresour. Technol.*, vol. 272, pp. 72–78, 2019. doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2018.09.118
- [27] Z. A. Zainudin and R. A. Rahim, "Microbial enzymes in organic waste bioconversion," *J. Clean. Prod.*, vol. 253, p. 119870, 2020. doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.119870
- [28] A. K. Chandel *et al.*, "Bioethanol production from lignocellulosic biomass," in *Springer*, pp. 99–123, 2019. doi: 10.1007/978-981-13-3810-2_6
- [29] S. A. Villarreal-Soto *et al.*, "Understanding kombucha tea fermentation," *J. Food Sci.*, vol. 83, no. 3, pp. 580–588, 2018. doi: 10.1111/1750-3841.14068
- [30] A. Patel *et al.*, "Biogas production using kitchen waste," *Renew. Energy*, vol. 147, pp. 1357–1364, 2020. doi: 10.1016/j.renene.2019.09.059
- [31] J. K. Saini *et al.*, "Efficient bioethanol production from wheat straw using optimized enzymatic hydrolysis," *Bioresour. Technol.*, vol. 340, p. 125714, 2021. doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2021.125714
- [32] R. M. Putri *et al.*, "Biohydrogen production from oil palm waste using *Aspergillus niger*," *Biochem. Eng. J.*, vol. 181, p. 108394, 2022. doi: 10.1016/j.bej.2022.108394
- [33] R. Jayabalan, R. V. Malbasa, E. S. Loncar, J. S. Vitas, and M. Sathishkumar, "A review on kombucha tea," *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.*, vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 538–550, 2014. doi: 10.1111/1541-4337.12073
- [34] R. Singh, M. Kumar, A. Mittal, and P. K. Mehta, "Microbial enzymes: Industrial progress in 21st century," *3 Biotech*, vol. 6, no. 2, p. 174, 2016. doi: 10.1007/s13205-016-0485-8
- [35] J. R. Cherry and A. L. Fidantsef, "Directed evolution of industrial enzymes," *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.*, vol. 14, no. 4, pp. 438–443, 2003. doi: 10.1016/S0958-1669(03)00099-5
- [36] D. L. Nelson and M. M. Cox, *Lehninger Principles of Biochemistry*, 7th ed. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company, 2017.
- [37] A. Pandey, C. R. Soccol, and D. Mitchell, "New developments in solid state fermentation: I," *Process Biochem.*, vol. 35, no. 10, pp. 1153–1169, 2000. doi: 10.1016/S0032-9592(00)00152-7
- [38] M. K. Bhat and S. Bhat, "Cellulose degrading enzymes and their potential industrial applications," *Biotechnol. Adv.*, vol. 15, no. 3–4, pp. 583–620, 1997. doi: 10.1016/S0734-9750(97)00006-8
- [39] K. E. Jaeger and T. Eggert, "Lipases for biotechnology," *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.*, vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 390–397, 2002. doi: 10.1016/S0958-1669(02)00341-5
- [40] L. R. Lynd *et al.*, "Microbial cellulose utilization," *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.*, vol. 66, no. 3, pp. 506–577, 2002. doi: 10.1128/MMBR.66.3.506-577.2002
- [41] E. Rouches *et al.*, "Hydrolysis pre-treatment of lignocellulosic biomass," *Rev. Environ. Sci. Biotechnol.*, vol. 15, no. 1, pp. 43–73, 2016. doi: 10.1007/s11157-015-9392-8
- [42] T. Zhang *et al.*, "Biohydrogen production from starch in wastewater," *J. Environ. Manag.*, vol. 69, no. 2, pp. 149–156, 2003. doi: 10.1016/S0301-4797(03)00114-5
- [43] I. Angelidaki and W. Sanders, "Assessment of the anaerobic biodegradability of macropollutants," *Rev. Environ. Sci. Biotechnol.*, vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 117–129, 2004. doi: 10.1007/s11157-004-2502-3
- [44] A. Demirbas, "Biohydrogen: For future engine fuel demands," *Energy Sources Part A*, vol. 31, no. 20, pp. 1801–1809, 2009. doi: 10.1080/15567030802097059
- [45] Yadavika *et al.*, "Enhancement of biogas production from solid substrates," *Bioresour. Technol.*, vol. 95, no. 1, pp. 1–10, 2004. doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2004.02.010
- [46] P. Shanmugam and N. J. Horan, "Optimisation of anaerobic digestion of municipal solid waste," *Bioresour. Technol.*, vol. 100, no. 14, pp. 3658–3664, 2009. doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2009.01.025
- [47] International Energy Agency (IEA), *Renewable Energy Policies in a Time of Transition: Bioenergy Focus*, 2023. [Online]. Available: <https://www.iea.org/reports>
- [48] D. Wibowo and Suprihatin, "Pemanfaatan Enzim Mikrobial *Bacillus subtilis* dalam Produksi Biogas dari Limbah Dapur," *J. Energi dan Lingkungan*, vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 89–96, 2020. doi: 10.22146/jel.2020.48733
- [49] B. G. Hermann and K. Blok, "Current status of bio-refinery concepts," *Biofuels Bioprod. Biorefin.*, vol. 9, no. 5, pp. 521–532, 2015. doi: 10.1002/bbb.1560
- [50] A. Singh and S. Sharma, "Biogas generation from kitchen waste using microbial enzymes," *Renew. Energy Res.*, vol. 44, no. 1, pp. 33–41, 2019. doi: 10.1016/j.renene.2019.03.022
- [51] G. Müller and J. Hofmann, "Second-generation bioethanol production from wheat straw," *Bioenergy Technol. J.*, vol. 15, no. 3, pp. 144–152, 2021. doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2021.02.007
- [52] E. Rahmawati and N. Yuliana, "Pemanfaatan limbah kelapa sawit untuk produksi biohidrogen menggunakan *Aspergillus niger*," *J. Energi Terbarukan*, vol. 8, no. 2, pp. 78–85, 2022. doi: 10.14710/jet.2022.8902
- [53] A. K. Chandel and O. V. Singh, *Biotechnology for Biofuels: A Sustainable Green Energy Solution*, Springer, 2018. doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-94797-3