

1 OPTIMIZATION OF COMPOSTING SYSTEMS USING FOOD WASTE-DERIVED 2 MICROBIAL CONSORTIA FOR SUSTAINABLE ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT.

3 4 ABSTRACT

5 *Global food waste generation poses a significant environmental burden through greenhouse gas*
6 *emissions, resource loss, and ecosystem pollution, necessitating sustainable waste management*
7 *solutions. This review focuses on microbial consortia-based compost optimization as an effective*
8 *strategy for enhancing food waste valorization and environmental sustainability. Key themes*
9 *include food waste microbiology, microbial community structure and succession, optimization*
10 *strategies such as pH, temperature, moisture, aeration, and C/N ratio control, engineered and*
11 *natural microbial consortia, and their roles in accelerating composting efficiency. The review*
12 *also highlights advances in omics-based technologies and synthetic microbial design for*
13 *improving compost stability and functionality, alongside environmental applications in soil*
14 *fertility enhancement, bioremediation, and circular bioeconomy systems. Major insights indicate*
15 *that optimized microbial interactions significantly improve degradation rates and compost*
16 *quality. Future directions emphasize smart composting systems and AI-driven microbial*
17 *management. Overall, microbial consortia-based composting presents a sustainable pathway for*
18 *integrated food waste and environmental management.*

19 **Keywords:** Food Waste, Composting, Microbial Consortia, Compost Optimization,
20 Environmental Sustainability.

21 22 Introduction

23 Food waste (FW) has become one of the most pressing environmental challenges worldwide due
24 to its increasing generation rate and its far-reaching ecological and socio-economic
25 consequences. It is estimated that nearly one-third of all food produced for human consumption
26 is lost or wasted annually (Dey et al., 2025). Beyond the direct loss of edible resources, food
27 waste contributes significantly to environmental pollution, depletion of natural resources, and
28 widening social inequalities (Jatoi et al., 2026). Conventional methods of food waste disposal,
29 particularly landfilling and incineration, are increasingly considered unsustainable because of
30 their contribution to greenhouse gas emissions and environmental degradation. During
31 decomposition in landfills, food waste releases methane, ammonia, and volatile organic
32 compounds (VOCs), all of which are associated with air pollution and global warming (Cerda et
33 al., 2018). These concerns have intensified global interest in transitioning from linear waste-
34 disposal systems toward circular economy approaches that promote the recovery and

35 reutilization of organic waste as valuable resources for bioenergy, biofertilizers, and other
36 bioproducts (Huzir et al., 2026).

37 Among the available waste valorization strategies, aerobic composting has gained considerable
38 attention as an environmentally sustainable and economically feasible method for managing
39 organic waste. Composting involves the biological decomposition and stabilization of organic
40 materials into nutrient-rich compost through the activity of naturally occurring microorganisms
41 (Luo et al., 2024). Compared with physicochemical treatment methods, biological composting is
42 relatively cost-effective, energy-efficient, and environmentally friendly because it minimizes the
43 formation of hazardous by-products (Dey et al., 2025). In addition to reducing the volume of
44 organic waste, composting converts biomass into stable organic fertilizer capable of improving
45 soil fertility, enhancing soil structure, and supporting sustainable agricultural production (Luo et
46 al., 2024). Consequently, composting has emerged as an important component of integrated
47 waste management systems aimed at achieving environmental sustainability.

48 The efficiency of composting largely depends on the structure, diversity, and metabolic activities
49 of microbial communities involved in the degradation process. Composting occurs through a
50 sequence of mesophilic, thermophilic, cooling, and maturation phases, each characterized by
51 distinct microbial populations adapted to specific environmental conditions and substrate
52 compositions (Luo et al., 2024). These microorganisms play essential roles in the decomposition
53 of complex organic compounds such as cellulose, hemicellulose, starch, lipids, and proteins into
54 simpler and more stable forms (Ansari et al., 2025). The synergistic interactions among bacteria,
55 fungi, and actinomycetes contribute to the metabolic flexibility required for the degradation of
56 heterogeneous food waste substrates (Zhou et al., 2024). Microbial diversity therefore represents
57 a critical factor influencing compost quality, nutrient transformation, organic matter stabilization,
58 and the overall efficiency of the composting process.

59 Despite its environmental benefits, conventional composting systems are often constrained by
60 several operational and technical limitations. Traditional composting methods are typically
61 characterized by prolonged processing periods and inconsistent degradation efficiency, making
62 them less suitable for the increasing volume of urban food waste generated globally (Ansari et
63 al., 2025). In addition, substantial nutrient losses frequently occur during composting,

64 particularly through ammonia volatilization, resulting in reduced nitrogen content and lower
65 fertilizer quality (Cerdeja et al., 2018). Other concerns include the emission of unpleasant odors
66 and greenhouse gases, the survival of pathogenic microorganisms, and the persistence of non-
67 biodegradable contaminants in the final compost product (Cerdeja et al., 2018). These limitations
68 highlight the need for more efficient and controlled composting technologies capable of
69 improving degradation rates, minimizing environmental emissions, and ensuring biosafety and
70 compost maturity (Jatoi et al., 2026).

71 Recent advances in microbial biotechnology have shifted attention toward the development and
72 optimization of engineered microbial consortia for enhanced composting performance. Unlike
73 naturally occurring microbial communities, synthetic microbial consortia (SMCs) are
74 deliberately designed to achieve specific functional objectives through synergistic metabolic
75 interactions (Zhou et al., 2024). These engineered consortia possess enhanced substrate
76 degradation capabilities, greater environmental adaptability, and improved metabolic efficiency,
77 thereby accelerating the decomposition of complex organic materials. Through top-down and
78 bottom-up microbiome engineering approaches, researchers can selectively enrich or construct
79 microbial communities with targeted enzymatic and degradative functions (Zhou et al., 2024).
80 Furthermore, the application of advanced molecular techniques such as metagenomics,
81 transcriptomics, and metabolic engineering has improved understanding of microbial succession,
82 functional pathways, and interspecies interactions during composting (Ansari et al., 2025). Such
83 innovations provide opportunities to optimize food waste valorization processes while
84 simultaneously enhancing the recovery of high-value products and reducing environmental
85 impacts.

86 Hence, the optimization of compost-mediated systems using food waste-derived microbial
87 consortia has emerged as a promising strategy for sustainable environmental management. This
88 study therefore examines current advancements in the application of microbial consortia for
89 improving composting efficiency and food waste bioconversion. Particular attention is given to
90 emerging optimization approaches, including synthetic biology, metabolic engineering, and
91 electro-fermentation technologies, which have demonstrated potential for enhancing microbial
92 activity, accelerating organic matter degradation, and improving compost quality

93 The aim of the paper is to evaluate the role of food waste-derived microbial consortia in
94 optimizing composting processes for improved waste degradation and compost quality. It seeks
95 to synthesize current knowledge on microbial diversity, succession, and key physicochemical
96 and biological factors influencing compost performance. The review also highlights emerging
97 engineered and omics-based approaches for enhancing sustainable environmental management
98 through efficient composting systems.

99 **Food Waste as a Substrate for Microbial Consortia Development**

100 Food waste (FW) has emerged as a promising organic substrate for the development and
101 application of microbial consortia in sustainable environmental management. The increasing
102 generation of food waste across households, commercial establishments, agro-industrial sectors,
103 and municipal systems has created serious environmental concerns, particularly in relation to
104 greenhouse gas emissions, landfill overflow, and environmental pollution (Cerda et al., 2018).
105 Traditionally, food waste management depended largely on disposal methods such as landfilling
106 and open dumping, which contribute significantly to methane emissions and leachate generation.
107 However, recent waste management strategies increasingly emphasize resource recovery and
108 waste valorization approaches in which microorganisms are employed to convert food waste into
109 valuable products (Jatoi et al., 2026).

110 **1. Composition of Food Waste**

111 Food waste is primarily composed of carbohydrates, proteins, lipids, fibers, vitamins, minerals,
112 and trace elements, although the composition varies considerably depending on the source and
113 type of waste generated (Cerda et al., 2018; Huzir et al., 2026). Carbohydrates usually constitute
114 the dominant fraction of food waste and include starch, cellulose, hemicellulose, and simple
115 sugars. These compounds provide major substrates for hydrolytic and fermentative
116 microorganisms, thereby supporting rapid microbial growth and metabolic activity (Dey et al.,
117 2025). Carbohydrate-rich food residues have also been associated with enhanced hydrogen
118 production and rapid heat generation during composting because of their high biodegradability
119 (Wang et al., 2022). Proteins present in food waste provide essential nitrogen and amino acids
120 required for microbial biomass synthesis and enzyme production. However, excessive protein
121 degradation may result in ammonia accumulation, which can inhibit sensitive microbial

122 populations and contribute to odor generation during composting processes (Cerda et al., 2018;
123 Huzir et al., 2026). Lipids, although generally present in smaller quantities, possess high calorific
124 value and are associated with elevated methane yields during anaerobic digestion because of
125 their energy-rich properties (Wang et al., 2022).

126 **2 Physicochemical Characteristics**

127 The physicochemical properties of food waste strongly influence microbial growth, metabolic
128 interactions, and the efficiency of compost-mediated bioconversion systems. Moisture content is
129 one of the most important characteristics because food waste generally contains water levels
130 exceeding 70–80% (Cerda et al., 2018; Huzir et al., 2026). Although sufficient moisture is
131 necessary for microbial metabolism, excessively high moisture levels can reduce porosity and
132 limit oxygen transfer, thereby promoting anaerobic conditions within compost piles (Cerda et al.,
133 2018). Such conditions may result in the accumulation of volatile fatty acids, unpleasant odors,
134 and reduced composting efficiency. To maintain favorable aerobic conditions, moisture content is
135 commonly adjusted to an optimal range of 50–65% through the addition of bulking agents such
136 as rice straw, wheat straw, sawdust, or dry leaves (Huzir et al., 2026). These amendments
137 improve aeration and structural stability while supporting the proliferation of aerobic
138 decomposer microorganisms.

139 **3 Microbial Colonization Potential**

140 Food waste naturally contains diverse indigenous microbial communities that contribute to the
141 initiation and progression of decomposition processes. These communities include bacteria,
142 fungi, yeasts, and actinomycetes capable of degrading the wide variety of organic compounds
143 present within food residues (Luo et al., 2024). Indigenous microorganisms function as primary
144 decomposers by secreting extracellular enzymes such as cellulases, proteases, lipases, and
145 amylases that hydrolyze complex polymers into simpler compounds suitable for microbial
146 assimilation (Dey et al., 2025). The succession of microbial populations during composting is a
147 key determinant of process efficiency and compost maturity. This succession occurs in response
148 to changes in environmental conditions including temperature, pH, oxygen concentration, and
149 substrate availability (Luo et al., 2024).

150 **Microbial Diversity in Composting Systems**

151 Composting is a dynamic, controlled ecological process driven by the coordinated activity of
152 diverse microbial communities that progressively transform organic wastes into stable, nutrient-
153 rich soil amendments (Huzir et al., 2026). This transformation occurs through a succession of
154 interacting microbial groups, including bacteria, fungi, actinomycetes, and archaea, whose
155 synergistic and sometimes competitive relationships regulate the efficiency of organic matter
156 degradation and nutrient stabilization (Luo et al., 2024). The overall performance of composting
157 systems depends on maintaining environmental conditions that support these functional groups
158 across different stages of decomposition, ensuring effective breakdown of organic substrates and
159 formation of stable humus (Ansari et al., 2025).

160 **1 Bacterial Communities**

161 Bacteria represent the most abundant and metabolically active group in composting systems,
162 largely due to their rapid growth rates and ability to adapt to fluctuating environmental
163 conditions (Luo et al., 2024). They initiate the decomposition process by breaking down readily
164 available organic substrates and generating heat that drives subsequent microbial succession.

165 Mesophilic bacteria dominate the early stage of composting when temperatures are close to
166 ambient conditions. These microorganisms, mainly from the phyla Bacillota (formerly
167 Firmicutes), Pseudomonadota (formerly Proteobacteria), and Bacteroidota, actively metabolize
168 simple compounds such as sugars, amino acids, and organic acids (Ansari et al., 2025; Cerda et
169 al., 2018). Their intense aerobic respiration generates metabolic heat, which gradually increases
170 the temperature of the compost mass and triggers a transition to thermophilic conditions (Huzir
171 et al., 2026; Luo et al., 2024).

172 As temperatures rise above 45–50°C, thermophilic bacteria replace mesophilic populations.
173 Genera such as *Bacillus*, *Geobacillus*, *Ureibacillus*, and *Thermobifida* dominate this stage due to
174 their ability to withstand high temperatures through heat-stable cellular structures and enzymes
175 (Luo et al., 2024). This phase is critical for sanitation, as sustained high temperatures eliminate
176 pathogens and weed seeds, thereby improving the safety and quality of the final compost product
177 (Cerda et al., 2018; Huzir et al., 2026).

178 **2 Fungal Communities**

179 Fungi play a crucial role in composting systems, particularly under conditions of moderate
180 moisture and slightly acidic pH, where they complement bacterial activity by targeting more
181 complex and resistant organic structures (Luo et al., 2024).

182 Their most important contribution lies in the degradation of lignocellulosic materials such as
183 plant residues and woody biomass. Fungal hyphae physically penetrate solid substrates,
184 increasing surface area and facilitating deeper microbial access to otherwise resistant plant. This
185 structural disruption is coupled with strong oxidative and hydrolytic processes that enable fungi
186 to access carbon trapped within lignin, cellulose, and hemicellulose complexes (Huzir et al.,
187 2026).

188 **3 Role of Actinomycetes**

189 Actinomycetes, belonging to the phylum Actinomycetota, are filamentous, slow-growing
190 bacteria that resemble fungi in their structure and ecological function. They become particularly
191 dominant during the later thermophilic phase and persist through the cooling and maturation
192 stages of composting (Luo et al., 2024).

193 A key ecological function of actinomycetes is their ability to produce secondary metabolites,
194 including natural antibiotics, particularly species within the genus *Streptomyces*. These
195 compounds help regulate microbial competition within the compost matrix by suppressing
196 pathogenic and fast-growing opportunistic organisms, thereby stabilizing the microbial
197 ecosystem (Cerdeira et al., 2018).

198 **4 Archaea and Minor Microbial Groups**

199 Although composting systems are primarily aerobic, localized anaerobic microenvironments can
200 develop due to compaction, high moisture content, or limited oxygen diffusion during rapid
201 decomposition phases (Cerdeira et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2022). These microzones support
202 specialized microbial processes, particularly those mediated by archaea.

203 In such conditions, methanogenic archaea, including *Methanosarcina* and *Methanobacterium*,
204 interact syntrophically with fermentative bacteria to convert substrates such as acetate, hydrogen,

205 and carbon dioxide into methane gas. While this process is natural, it represents a loss of carbon
206 from the system and contributes to greenhouse gas emissions. Operational practices such as
207 adequate aeration, proper moisture regulation, and the incorporation of bulking agents are
208 therefore essential to minimize anaerobic conditions and reduce methane formation (Huzir et al.,
209 2026).

210 **Composting Process Optimization Strategies**

211 Aerobic composting is a widely applied biological process that converts biodegradable organic
212 waste into stable, nutrient-rich soil amendments (Noor et al., 2024). It is a self-heating system
213 driven by successive microbial communities that degrade complex organic matter through
214 distinct thermal phases (Pezzolla et al., 2021).

215 To enhance degradation efficiency, improve stabilization, and reduce environmental impacts such
216 as greenhouse gas emissions and nutrient losses, composting performance must be optimized
217 through integrated control of physicochemical conditions, aeration, structure, and biological
218 inputs (Rastogi et al., 2020).

219 **1 Physicochemical Optimization**

220 Physicochemical optimization focuses on regulating environmental conditions that support
221 microbial activity and efficient organic matter transformation. These parameters directly
222 influence microbial metabolism and process kinetics (Noor et al., 2024).

223 **2 Aeration and Oxygen Transfer**

224 Aeration maintains aerobic conditions essential for efficient decomposition and energy
225 metabolism. Passive aeration relies on natural diffusion and turning but often results in uneven
226 oxygen distribution and localized anaerobic zones (Azis et al., 2023). Active aeration uses forced
227 airflow systems that improve oxygen distribution, enhance moisture control, and accelerate
228 stabilization. Adequate oxygen supports aerobic respiration, producing CO₂, water, and stable
229 humic compounds. Oxygen limitation shifts metabolism to anaerobic pathways, leading to
230 methane, nitrous oxide emissions, and odor generation (Noor et al., 2024).

231 **3 Particle Size and Structural Optimization**

232 Physical structure controls airflow, microbial access, and decomposition efficiency. Smaller
233 particle size increases surface area and enhances microbial enzymatic degradation, accelerating
234 early-stage decomposition (Azis et al., 2023). Excessive size reduction reduces porosity, restricts
235 oxygen flow, and increases compaction risk. Bulking agents such as wood chips or straw are
236 used to maintain structure, improve aeration, and prevent anaerobic conditions (Pezzolla et al.,
237 2021).

238 **4 Inoculum Optimization (Bioaugmentation)**

239 Bioaugmentation enhances composting by introducing selected microbial strains to improve
240 degradation efficiency. Targeted microbial inoculants (e.g., cellulolytic fungi and *Bacillus* spp.)
241 accelerate breakdown of complex organic compounds, shorten lag phases, and enhance
242 thermophilic activity (Noor et al., 2024). Microbial consortia provide functional diversity and
243 metabolic cooperation, improving resilience and stability under variable composting conditions
244 (Rastogi et al., 2020).

245 **5 Additives and Amendments**

246 Additives improve nutrient balance, process stability, and final compost quality. Biochar
247 enhances aeration, moisture retention, and nutrient adsorption. It reduces ammonia volatilization,
248 limits odor emissions, and supports microbial activity through porous habitat formation (Omoni
249 et al., 2024).

250 Mineral additives such as gypsum, bentonite, and wood ash stabilize pH, reduce nutrient losses,
251 and improve fertilizer quality through nutrient binding and buffering effects. Exogenous
252 enzymes directly accelerate hydrolysis of complex substrates, bypassing microbial lag phases
253 and reducing overall composting time (Noor et al., 2024).

254 **Mechanisms of Organic Waste Degradation**

255 Organic waste is a complex and heterogeneous material composed mainly of carbohydrates,
256 proteins, lipids, and lignin-rich structural compounds. The decomposition of these components
257 occurs through coordinated biochemical activities mediated by diverse microbial communities.
258 During composting and other biological treatment processes, microorganisms produce

259 extracellular and intracellular enzymes that convert complex organic materials into simpler
260 compounds suitable for microbial uptake and metabolism. These degradation pathways play
261 important roles in carbon and nitrogen cycling, nutrient recovery, and organic matter stabilization
262 (Luo et al., 2024).

263 **1 Carbohydrate Degradation**

264 Carbohydrates constitute a major portion of organic waste, particularly in agricultural residues
265 and municipal solid waste (Huzir et al., 2026). Cellulose and hemicellulose are the principal
266 structural polysaccharides within plant cell walls and are relatively resistant to degradation
267 because of their complex architecture (Jatoi et al., 2026). Cellulose is composed of linear chains
268 of D-glucose linked by β -1,4-glycosidic bonds, whereas hemicellulose consists of branched
269 heteropolymers containing pentose and hexose sugars (Zhou et al., 2024). The degradation of
270 cellulose requires the synergistic action of cellulolytic enzymes, including endo- β -1,4-
271 glucanases, exo- β -1,4-glucanases, and β -glucosidases, which collectively hydrolyze cellulose
272 into glucose units (Dey et al., 2025; Jatoi et al., 2026). Hemicellulose degradation involves
273 enzymes such as xylanases, β -xylosidases, and accessory debranching enzymes that target the
274 heterogeneous xylan structure (Zhou et al., 2024).

275 Microbial succession strongly influences carbohydrate degradation during composting. Genera
276 such as *Bacillus* and *Cellulomonas* dominate during mesophilic and thermophilic phases due to
277 their high cellulolytic capacity (Dey et al., 2025; Jatoi et al., 2026). Under anaerobic conditions,
278 hydrolytic bacteria convert structural carbohydrates into volatile fatty acids, which subsequently
279 serve as intermediates for methane production (Wang et al., 2022).

280 **2 Protein Decomposition**

281 Proteins are important nitrogen-containing components of food waste, sewage sludge, and
282 slaughterhouse residues. Their degradation is essential for nitrogen recycling and microbial
283 growth. However, excessive protein concentrations may lead to ammonia accumulation and
284 inhibit anaerobic digestion processes (Dey et al., 2025).

285 Protein degradation begins with extracellular proteases and peptidases secreted by bacteria and
286 fungi, which hydrolyze proteins into peptides and amino acids. The resulting amino acids are

287 further metabolized through deamination and decarboxylation pathways. Deamination releases
288 ammonia or ammonium, while the remaining carbon skeletons enter metabolic pathways such as
289 the tricarboxylic acid cycle for energy production (Wang et al., 2022).

290 **3 Lipid Degradation**

291 Lipids, including fats, oils, and greases, are highly energy-rich constituents of food waste.
292 Despite their high biodegradability potential, lipids can inhibit waste treatment processes by
293 forming hydrophobic layers that reduce mass transfer and microbial accessibility (Cerdeira et al.,
294 2018).

295 Lipid degradation is primarily mediated by extracellular lipases, which hydrolyze triglycerides
296 into free fatty acids and glycerol. Lipolytic microorganisms such as *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, and
297 several filamentous fungi produce these enzymes to utilize lipid substrates efficiently. Industrial
298 applications also employ stable microbial lipases for biodiesel and ester production from waste
299 oils (Dey et al., 2025).

300 Following hydrolysis, glycerol enters glycolytic pathways, while fatty acids are degraded
301 through β -oxidation to generate acetyl-CoA units. In anaerobic digestion systems, syntrophic
302 interactions between fatty acid-oxidizing bacteria and methanogens are essential for preventing
303 the accumulation of toxic long-chain fatty acids (Wang et al., 2022).

304 **4 Lignin Breakdown**

305 Lignin is one of the most recalcitrant components of organic waste because of its irregular
306 aromatic structure and resistant carbon-carbon and ether linkages. It surrounds cellulose and
307 hemicellulose fibers, thereby limiting microbial access to structural carbohydrates and slowing
308 waste degradation (Jatoi et al., 2026).

309 Unlike polysaccharides, lignin cannot be degraded through hydrolytic reactions. Its
310 decomposition depends mainly on extracellular oxidative enzymes such as lignin peroxidase,
311 manganese peroxidase, and laccase. These enzymes generate reactive radicals that cleave
312 complex aromatic structures and destabilize lignin polymers (Zhou et al., 2024). White-rot fungi

313 and actinobacteria, particularly *Streptomyces* species, are major lignin degraders in composting
314 systems (Jatoi et al., 2026).

315 **5 Nitrogen and Carbon Cycling**

316 Carbon and nitrogen transformations are fundamental to organic waste. During microbial
317 metabolism, organic carbon is mineralized into carbon dioxide under aerobic conditions or
318 converted into methane and carbon dioxide under anaerobic conditions. Simultaneously, nitrogen
319 compounds undergo several biochemical transformations that influence nutrient retention and
320 compost quality. Ammonification is the initial stage of nitrogen conversion in which organic
321 nitrogen compounds are transformed into ammonium or ammonia through microbial
322 deamination processes (Luo et al., 2024). This process is carried out by heterotrophic
323 microorganisms producing intracellular deaminases and amidases.

324 Excessive ammonification may increase pH and promote ammonia volatilization, leading to odor
325 generation, nitrogen loss, and environmental pollution. Therefore, maintaining suitable moisture
326 conditions and balanced carbon-to-nitrogen ratios is necessary for efficient nitrogen conservation
327 during composting (Huzir et al., 2026).

328 **Environmental Applications of Optimized Compost Systems**

329 **1 Soil Fertility Enhancement**

330 Optimized composting converts food waste and other organic residues into stable humic
331 substances that improve soil quality and long-term fertility. The application of mature compost
332 increases soil organic carbon, enhances soil aggregation, and improves water-holding capacity.
333 Engineered microbial consortia accelerate the degradation of complex compounds such as
334 lignocellulose, proteins, and lipids, thereby producing nutrient-rich organic matter that supports
335 soil structure and resilience (Huzir et al., 2026).

336 Composting promotes the recovery and reuse of essential nutrients from food waste and
337 agricultural residues. Microbial communities mineralize organic compounds and convert
338 nutrients into plant-available forms, particularly nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium. This
339 process reduces dependence on synthetic fertilizers and minimizes environmental problems such

340 as groundwater contamination, atmospheric pollution, and eutrophication caused by excessive
341 chemical fertilizer use (Dey et al., 2025; Jatoi et al., 2026; Luo et al., 2024).

342 **2 Bioremediation of Contaminated Soils**

343 Optimized compost systems can reduce the mobility and bioavailability of heavy metals in
344 contaminated soils. Microbial activity and humic substances within compost facilitate
345 biosorption and stabilization of toxic metals, thereby limiting their uptake by plants. This
346 contributes to the restoration of polluted agricultural lands and improves environmental safety
347 (Jatoi et al., 2026).

348 Engineered microbial consortia possess diverse metabolic pathways capable of degrading toxic
349 organic pollutants in industrial and agricultural soils. Through synergistic microbial interactions,
350 complex contaminants are transformed into less harmful compounds. These processes also
351 support rhizosphere health by reducing toxic stress and suppressing harmful pathogens (Jatoi et
352 al., 2026).

353 **3 Greenhouse Gas Mitigation**

354 Composting stabilizes organic carbon in the form of humic substances, preventing its rapid
355 release into the atmosphere as carbon dioxide or methane. When applied to soil, compost acts as
356 a long-term carbon reservoir by increasing soil carbon storage. This contributes to climate
357 change mitigation while improving soil productivity (Huzir et al., 2026; Luo et al., 2024).

358 **4 Circular Bioeconomy Integration**

359 Optimized composting supports the circular bioeconomy by converting food waste and biomass
360 residues into valuable products such as biofertilizers, bioenergy, bioplastics, and biofuels.
361 Engineered microbial systems enhance resource recovery and provide an environmentally
362 sustainable alternative to landfilling and incineration (Ansari et al., 2025; Dey et al., 2025; Jatoi
363 et al., 2026).

364 The integration of compost-based microbial systems into agriculture promotes sustainable food
365 production and aligns with global sustainability goals, particularly SDG 12 on responsible
366 consumption and production. Compost application reduces the use of chemical inputs, improves

367 crop productivity, and supports environmentally safe agricultural practices (Dey et al., 2025;
368 Jatoi et al., 2026).

369 **Challenges and Limitations**

370 **1 Environmental Sensitivity**

371 The efficiency of microbial composting systems depends strongly on environmental conditions
372 such as temperature, moisture content, pH, and nutrient availability. Fluctuations in these factors
373 can inhibit microbial activity and reduce composting efficiency (Huzir et al., 2026).

374 **2 Community Collapse Risk**

375 Microbial imbalance may occur when compost substrates change abruptly or environmental
376 stress increases. Such disturbances can disrupt microbial interactions, reduce degradation
377 efficiency, and lead to odor generation and process instability (Jatoi et al., 2026).

378 **4 Lack of Uniform Inoculum Protocols**

379 The absence of standardized microbial inoculum formulations limits the consistent performance
380 of engineered compost systems. Variations in waste composition often affect the adaptability and
381 effectiveness of microbial consortia across different composting conditions (Jatoi et al., 2026).

382 **5 Safety Concerns in Compost Products**

383 Inadequate composting conditions may allow pathogens to survive in the final compost product.
384 Maintaining thermophilic temperatures and implementing regular microbial monitoring are
385 therefore essential to ensure biosafety and product quality (Jatoi et al., 2026).

386 **6 Cost of Optimization Technologies**

387 The adoption of advanced composting technologies, including automated aeration systems and
388 molecular monitoring tools, requires substantial financial investment. Limited infrastructure and
389 funding remain major barriers to large-scale implementation, particularly in developing countries
390 (Dey et al., 2025).

391 **Conclusion**

392 Food waste-derived microbial consortia play a crucial role in optimizing composting through
393 enhanced organic matter degradation, nutrient stabilization, and compost maturation. Engineered
394 microbial consortia further improve composting efficiency and support sustainable
395 environmental management through waste valorization, soil health improvement, and pollution
396 reduction. Therefore, integrating advanced microbiological approaches with innovative
397 composting technologies is essential for developing efficient and sustainable waste management
398 systems.

399 **Recommendations**

- 400 1. Advanced microbial consortia engineering should be integrated into composting systems
401 to enhance food waste degradation efficiency and compost quality.
- 402 2. Future studies should employ metagenomic and omics-based tools to better understand
403 microbial interactions during composting processes.
- 404 3. Optimization of key physicochemical parameters such as temperature, aeration, moisture,
405 and C/N ratio should be prioritized for sustainable compost production.
- 406 4. Governments and environmental agencies should promote large-scale composting
407 technologies as part of circular bioeconomy and waste management policies.
- 408 5. Interdisciplinary collaboration among microbiologists, environmental scientists, and
409 biotechnologists is necessary to develop smart and efficient composting systems.

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