Review

Fermentation: A Boon for Production of Bioactive Compounds by Processing of Food Industries Wastes (By-Products)

Pardeep Kumar Sadh 1, Suresh Kumar 1, Prince Chawla 2 and Joginder Singh Duhan 1,*

1 Department of Biotechnology, Ch. Devi Lal University, Sirsa 125055, India; pardeep.sadh@gmail.com (P.K.S.); rohillasuresh@gmail.com (S.K.)
2 School of Bioengineering and Food Technology, Shoolini University, Solan 173229, Himachal Pradesh, India; princefoodtech@gmail.com
* Correspondence: duhanjs68@gmail.com; Tel.: +91-166-624-3147; Fax: +91-166-624-8123

Received: 21 August 2018; Accepted: 25 September 2018; Published: 8 October 2018

Abstract: A large number of by-products or wastes are produced worldwide through various food industries. These wastes cause a serious disposable problem with the environment. So, now a day’s different approaches are used for alternative use of these wastes because these by-products are an excellent source of various bioactive components such as polyphenols, flavonoids, caffeine, carotenoids, creatine, and polysaccharides etc. which are beneficial for human health. Furthermore, the composition of these wastes depends on the source or type of waste. Approximately half of the waste is lignocellulosic in nature produced from food processing industries. The dissimilar types of waste produced by food industries can be fortified by various processes. Fermentation is one of the oldest approaches and there are three types of fermentation processes that are carried out such as solid state, submerged and liquid fermentation used for product transformation into value added products through microorganisms. Selections of the fermentation process are product specific. Moreover, various studies were performed to obtain or fortified different bioactive compounds that are present in food industries by-products or wastes. Therefore, the current review article discussed various sources, composition and nutritive value (especially bioactive compounds) of these wastes and their management or augmentation of value-added products through fermentation.

Keywords: bioactive compounds; solid state fermentation; sub-merged fermentation; liquid fermentation; food waste

1. Introduction

1.1. Bioactive Compounds

“Bioactive compounds” are made up of two words i.e., bioactive and compounds. Scientifically, it means various molecules that have some biological activity. Thus, a definition of bioactive compounds in plants is: secondary plant metabolites prompting pharmacological or toxicological effects in man and animals. Bioactive compounds are the phytochemicals that present naturally to lesser extents in plants as well as foodstuffs [1] and have the potential to amend metabolic processes for the promotion of better health. The typical bioactive compounds produced in plants are secondary metabolites not required for the circadian functioning of the plant. Bioactive compounds are extremely heterogeneous class of compounds includes plant growth factors, alkaloids, mycotoxins, food-grade pigments, antibiotics, flavonoids and phenolic acids etc. with dissimilar chemical structures (hydrophilic or lipophilic), specific to ubiquitous distribution in nature, significant amount present
in foods and in human body, efficient against oxidative species and possess the potential biological
action [2,3].

Bio accessibility and bioavailability do not necessarily depend on the abundance of bioactive
compound in ingested food as well as the number of active metabolites in target tissues [4].
During investigating the role of each bioactive compound in human health their bioavailability
is not always well defined [2]. Bioactive compounds are available in different concentrations in fruits,
vegetables, and whole grains [5,6]. Several factors such as the source of food, molecular size, low lipid
solubility, chemical interactions among the phytochemicals or biomolecules etc. may interfere with
the bio-accessibility and bioavailability of bioactive compounds [7]. Bio-accessibility means releasing
nutrient from the food matrix and turned into a chemical form enter in gut cells and making that
nutrient bioavailable. The whole process comprises chewing, initial enzymatic digestion of the food in
the mouth, mixing with acid and gastric juice, finally into the small intestine the food is assimilated
and absorbed nutrients are rendered bio-accessible.

Different steps in food preparation involved cooking, chopping, or pureeing collaborate with
mastication and enzymatic digestibility of food matrices [8]. Bioavailability is significantly affected by
the release of bioactive compounds from plant matrix, solubility in the gastrointestinal fluid and their
passage across intestinal epithelial cells, as well as the enzymatic and chemical reactions occurring
within the GI tract [9]. Four steps are necessary for the effective absorption of bioactive compounds:

1. Releasing from the food matrix
2. Integration with bile-salt making micelles
3. Assimilation and absorption by epithelial cells, and finally
4. Incorporation into the chylomicrons with secretion into lymphatic system

Bioactive compounds absorption does not take place by simple diffusion processes as well as
their inability to pass the lipid-rich outer membrane of the small intestine [10]. Various technologies
like phytosome, nanocarriers, etc. have been developed not only to enhance bio-accessibility and
bioavailability of bioactive compounds but also to protect active substances from oxidation or
other degradation reactions in the gastrointestinal tract [11]. Another strategy for enhancing the
bioavailability and bio-efficacy of bioactive compounds is altering their structure (prodrug strategy)
to obtain a new structure having favorable kinetics and can also be transformed into the active form
in an organism [11]. Furthermore, newer techniques are still developed in order to utilize bioactive
compounds in the best possible way to get most of their health potential.

In recent years, excessive consideration towards bioactive compounds has been paid because
of their aptitude for human health, such as decrease the rate of progressive and cardiovascular
diseases like cancer, diabetes etc. [12,13]. They also exhibit anti-microbial, antioxidant, anti-mutagenic,
anti-allergenic and anti-inflammatory properties, inhibition or induction of enzymes, inhibition of
receptor activities as well as induction and inhibition of gene expression [14–19]. Table 1 shows
various bioactive compounds present in different foodstuffs. Owing to favorable features for human
health, researches have been intended to found that plants, vegetables, fruits, food industries and
agro-industrial by products as low-priced sources for the bioactive compounds.

| Food Sources | Bioactive Compounds | References |
|--------------|---------------------|------------|
| Apple        | Epicatechin, catechins, chlorogenic acid, hydroxycinnamates, phloretin glycosides, quercitin glycosides, procyanidins, anthocyanins | [20–22] |
| Avocado      | Epicatechin, catechin, gallic acid, chlorogenic acid, cyanidin 3-glucoside, homogenistis acid | [23] |
| Banana       | Galocatechin, anthocyanins, delphinidin, cyaniding, catecholamine | [24–26] |
| Berries      | Cyanidin, delphinidin, malvidin | [27] |
| Citrus       | Hesperidin, naringin, eriocitrin, narirutin | [27,28] |
Table 1. Cont.

| Food Sources | Bioactive Compounds                                                                 | References |
|--------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| Grapes       | Cinnamic acid, coumaric acid, caffeic acid, ferulic acid, chlorogenic acid, neochlorogenic acid,  
               p-hydroxybenzoic acid, protocatechuic acid, vanillic acid, gallic acid, proanthocyanidins, quercetin, resvaratrol, pullulan | [27,29–31] |
| Guava        | Catechin, cyanidin 3-glucoside, galangin, gallic acid, homogentisic acid, kaempferol | [23]       |
| Litchi       | Cyanidin-3-glucosides, cyanidin-3-rutinoside, malvidin-3-glucoside, gallic acid, epicatechin-3-gallate | [32,33]    |
| Mango        | Gallic acid, ellagic acid, gallates, gallo-tannins, condensed tannins                | [34,35]    |
| Olives       | Cyanidin, delphinidin, malvidin                                                    | [27]       |
| Palm         | Tocopherol, tocotrienols, sterols, and squalene, phenolic antioxidants              | [36,37]    |
| Pomegranate  | Gallic acid, cyanidin-3,5-diglucoside, cyanidin-3-diglucoside, delphinidin-3,5-diglucoside | [38,39]    |
| Carrot       | Phenols, beta-carotene                                                              | [40]       |
| Celery       | Cyanidin, delphinidin, malvidin                                                    | [27]       |
| Cucumber     | Chlorophyll, pheophytin, phellandrene, caryophyllene                                | [41]       |
| Onion        | Quercetin, rutin                                                                   | [27]       |
| Tomato       | Carotenoids                                                                        | [42]       |
| Parsley      | Apigenin, luteolin, quercetin                                                      | [27]       |
| Spinach      | Apigenin; luteolin                                                                 | [43]       |
| Chenopodium  | Apigenin; luteolin                                                                 | [43]       |
| Barley       | β-Glucan                                                                           | [44]       |
| Rice         | γ-Oryzanol, bran oil                                                                | [45,46]    |
| Wheat        | Phenolic acids, antioxidants                                                       | [47]       |
| Beans        | Daidzen, glycinidin                                                                | [27]       |
| Dark chocolate | Epicatechin                                                                       | [48]       |
| Green tea    | (−)-epigallocatechin, (+)-gallocatechin, (−)epicatechin-3-O-gallate                 | [49]       |

Synthesis and Purpose in Plants

Secondary metabolites are produced within the plants besides the primary biosynthetic and metabolic routes of compounds. Primary metabolites like carbohydrates, amino acids, proteins, and plants aimed to promote their growth and development synthesize lipids. Besides this small amount of secondary metabolites are also produced within the plants. In the plant cells, secondary metabolites are considered as products of biosynthetic “side tracks” and are not required for the daily functioning of the plant. Phylogenetically, the secondary metabolites in plants seem to be randomly synthesized—but they are not useless junk. Several of them like flavonoids, phenolic acids etc. are found to perform different functions such as protecting a living plant against free radicals generated during photosynthesis. Likewise, terpenoids perform specific biological functions such as they may attract pollinators or seed dispersers, or inhibit competing plants. Similarly, alkaloids protect crop plants from herbivore and insect attacks (phytoalexins). Further, other secondary metabolites produced by common food and feed plants may function as cellular signaling molecules or they may perform different biological functions in the plants. However, the typical poisonous or medicinal plants sometimes contain a higher amount of more potential bioactive compounds than food and feed plants.

1.2. Types of Bioactive Compounds

Bioactive compounds may influence physiological or cellular activities in the animals or humans after their consumption. Major classes of bioactive compounds (Figure 1) are described in the following section of this review.
1.2.1. Flavonoids

Flavonoids found the prime group of naturally occurring phenolic compounds [50]. Flavonoids consist of constituents of different types based on their chemical components e.g., flavonols, flavones, isoflavones, anthocyanin etc. (Figure 2A). These are low molecular weight compounds having a three-ring structure with several substitutions as shown in Figure 2B. Rutin, the first flavonoid was isolated from orange (genus: *Citrus*) in 1930; since then many flavonoids and their derivatives from different plants have been isolated and characterized with respect to their biochemical and biological activities [51].
Flavonols

Flavonols are ketone group containing flavonoids used for the biosynthesis of proanthocyanins. Kaempferol, quercetin, myricetin, and fisetin are most studied flavonols. Flavonols are abundant in lettuce, tomato, onions, apple, grape, berries, tea, and red wine etc. Consumption of flavonols reveals the wide range of health benefits including antioxidant property and reduced risk of vascular disease as well [52].

Flavones

Flavones are other important subgroups of flavonoids. They are abundantly found as glucosides in *Ginkgo biloba*, celery, parsley, mint, red peppers, citrus, and other fruits. Luteolin, apigenin, and tangeritin are the common flavones. Citrus fruits peels are rich in the polymethoxylated flavones such as tageretin, nobiletin, and sinensetin. They show different biological and pharmacological functions including antioxidant, antiallergic, anti-inflammatory, antiviral, anticancer and antitumor effects [53,54].

Flavonones

Flavonone is a small group of flavonoids specific for citrus fruits such as oranges, lemons, lime, and grapes, etc. Hesperitin, naringenin, and eriodictyol flavonones are responsible for the particularly bitter taste of the juice and peel of citrus fruits [55]. Flavonones have lots of health benefits because of their free-radical-scavenging properties (antioxidant) [56,57] as well as anti-inflammatory and cholesterol-lowering potential [58].

 Isoflavones

Isoflavones are extensively studied the diverse subgroup of flavonoids. Their occurrence is limited in the plant kingdom, however significant amount found in soybeans and other leguminous...
plants in the form of glucosides. Further, a significant amount of aglycones has been reported in various fermented soy products [59,60]. Some isoflavonoids have also been reported in some microorganisms [51]. Isoflavones may use as precursors for the synthesis of phytoalexins during plant-microbe interactions. Isoflavonoids have tremendous potential to combat against different diseases. Isoflavones like genistein and daidzein are generally regarded as phytoestrogens due to their estrogenic activity in certain animal models [61,62].

Anthocyanins

Anthocyanins are an array of pigments accountable for colors in plants, flowers, and fruits. Cyanidin, delphinidin, malvidin, pelargonidin, and peonidin are the most studied anthocyanin. They are widely distributed in the outer layers of fruits such as cranberry, black currant, red grape, merlot, raspberry, strawberry, blueberry, bilberry, and blackberry. Anthocyanins are stable even when they exposed to different physiochemical conditions, which have a major influence on their structure. Anthocyanins have a broad range of pharmacological activities such as anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antimicrobial, and anticarcinogenic activities [63]. Owing to health benefits of these compounds enable them to be used in the food industry in a variety of applications.

1.2.2. Alkaloids

Alkaloids are a group of naturally occurring bioactive compounds composed of basic nitrogen atoms with bitter a taste. Figure 3A shows various types of alkaloids. Alkaloids are produced by a great variety of organisms including plants, animals and microorganisms to perform a specific physiological function. On the basis of whether the nitrogen is a part of ring or not, alkaloids are classified into type i.e., non-heterocyclic alkaloids or atypical alkaloids and heterocyclic alkaloids or typical alkaloids. The various groups have diverse pharmacological properties.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{alkaloids.png}
\caption{Alkaloids.
\emph{Fa}: Various types of alkaloids. Alkaloids are produced by a great variety of organisms including plants, animals and microorganisms to perform a specific physiological function. On the basis of whether the nitrogen is a part of ring or not, alkaloids are classified into type i.e., non-heterocyclic alkaloids or atypical alkaloids and heterocyclic alkaloids or typical alkaloids. The various groups have diverse pharmacological properties.
\end{figure}
Heterocyclic Alkaloids

Structurally these have also nitrogen as a part of a cyclic ring system (Figure 3B). These are predominantly found in nature. Heterocyclic alkaloids are further subdivided into many groups based...
Molecules 2018, 23, 2560

on the ring structure containing the nitrogen. Nevertheless, in this review some of the commonly used heterocyclic alkaloids are explained.

Pyrrole

Pyrrole is synthesizing by cyclization of 1,4-dicarbonyl compounds with an excess of ammonia or primary amines. It is a colorless volatile alkaloid and first identified by F. F. Runge [64]. Pyrroles and its derivatives are one of the most imperative classes of heterocyclic alkaloids. They exhibit widespread pharmacological and biological properties such as antibacterial [65], anti-inflammatory [66], antioxidant, antitumor [67], antifungal, cholesterol reducing [68] and immune suppressant activities, respectively [65].

Pyrrole itself is not a naturally occurring compound, but its derivatives are found in a variety of natural products as cofactors or coenzymes. Pyrrole is one of the main components of tobacco smoke and not as a constituent. Pyrrole is an important precursor to several drugs such as tolmetin, hygrine, stachydrine, atorvastatin, ketorolac, and sunitinib. Besides, vitamin B$_{12}$, bilirubin, biliverdin, porphyrrins, bacteriochlorins, porphyrinogens etc. are the compounds that contain pyrroles as an ingredient.

Quinoline

It is also a colorless hygroscopic alkaloid with a strong odor and was first noticed by F.F. Runge [64] from coal tar. Quinoline or benzo[b]pyridine is a nitrogen-containing heterocyclic aromatic compound. Fabaceae, Annonaceae, Moraceae, Rutaceae and Solanaceae are the excellent source of quinoline but Gymnosperms and Pteridophytes such as ferns and monocots contain this in very small amount. Most of the quinoline obtained from plants; however, some alkaloids have also been isolated from algae, fungi, insects, marine and land animals as well. Quinine, quinidine, cinchonidine, kokusagine, orixine, and dictamnine are some example of quinoline alkaloids.

Quinoline existing in several natural compounds (Cinchona alkaloids) displaying the broad range of biological and pharmacological activity. Quinoline has been found to possess antibacterial, antifungal, antimalarial, anthelmintic, anticonvulsant, anti-inflammatory, analgesic and estrogenic activity. Quinoline is usually used for making dyes, hydroxyquinoline sulfate and niacin as well as a solvent for resins and terpenes synthesis.

Indole or Benzopyrole

Indole is an oldest and the best studied aromatic bicyclic organic compound (Figure 3B) firstly obtained by Adolf Baeyer [69]. The indole structure can be found in many organic a compound that’s why also known as “privileged structures” as they exhibit high binding affinity for many receptors [70]. Owing to the excessive structural diversity of indoles, they become an important structural component in many natural products showing biological activities auxin, reserpine, tryptophol, ellipticine, vincristine, flinderole etc. [71]. They exhibit extensive pharmacological properties such as antidepressive, antihypertensive, antitumor [72], anti-microbial, anti-parasitic, antimalarial activity particularly against the

*Plasmodium falciparum*. Indole and its derivatives have always been studied in different research capacities such as pharmaceuticals, agrochemicals, pigments, fragrances, and material science.

Non-Heterocyclic Alkaloids

Non-heterocyclic alkaloids also termed as proto-alkaloids or biological amines and are rarely found in nature. These compounds contain a nitrogen atom which is not a part of any ring system (Figure 3C). Examples of these include phenylethylamine, tropolone, steroidal, ephedrine, colchicine, erythromycin, and taxol. Also in this review, some of the commonly used non-heterocyclic alkaloids are described.
1.2.3. Phenolic Acids

Phenolic acids are the plant secondary metabolites universally used to combat oxidative damage diseases (e.g., coronary heart disease and cancers) when ingested from fruits and vegetables [73]. Phenolic acids can be distributed into two groups: hydroxybenzoic acids and hydroxycinnamic acids (Figure 4A). The simplest phenolic acids found in nature are of group benzoic acids and cinnamic acids (Figure 4B) containing seven and nine carbon atoms in their structural conformation [74].

![Phenolic acids](image)

**Figure 4. (A) Phenolic acids and their types (B) Common structure of some phenolic acids.**

1.2.4. Antibiotics

Antibiotics are the bioactive compounds with low molecular weight (MW 3000) produced by different organisms i.e., bacteria, fungi, algae, lichens, green plants, etc. via fermentation [75,76]. Antibiotics are generally defensive in function and often toxic to other species (e.g., penicillin, originally produced by bread mold, is toxic to numerous human pathogens). They generally act by inhibition of cell wall synthesis (group I), disruption of cell membranes (group II), interfering with protein synthesis.
(group III) interference with nucleic acid synthesis (group IV) and henceforth lyse the targeted cells involved [77].

Inorganic (e.g., Ag, Zn etc.) molecules may also have antibiotic properties. Antibiotics can be distributed into two groups: bactericidal i.e., those that kill bacteria and bacteriostatic means those that only impair bacterial growth. Furthermore, antibiotics are also classified based on their chemical structure and mechanism of action. It has been reported by several researchers that most of the antibiotics used target bacterial functions or growth. Antibiotics like β-Lactams and glycopeptides target the bacterial cell wall or cell membrane is typically bactericidal in nature whereas aminoglycosides, tetracycline and macrolides target protein synthesis are bacteriostatic in nature [78]. Sulphonamides is a typical category of bacteriostatic antibiotics block the folic acid biosynthetic process in some microorganisms including bacteria required for nucleic acids synthesis, while humans lack this function and acquire folate through their diet [79]. Interestingly, antibiotics are further categorized based on their target specificity; for example, antibiotics will work differently for both Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria, respectively.

β-Lactams

β-Lactams is a class of antibiotics having beta-lactam ring present altogether in their molecular structures (Figure 5) (e.g., penicillin G, ampicillin, cephalosporins, monobactams, etc.) [80] that kill targeted microorganism by modifying their essential cellular function that maintain cell wall (peptidoglycan) synthesis (creation/repair) or degradation in balance [81,82]. This class of antibiotics cause cell wall disruption resulted in the death of the targeted bacteria (pathogens). Further, they are species-specific to certain pathogenic bacteria (e.g., Streptococcus, Meningococcus, and Diphtheria) and do not harm other species (e.g., man).

![Figure 5. Common structure of some major antibiotic classes.](image)

β-Lactams are the extensively used group of all commercially available antibiotics [83]. Some pathogenic bacterial strains sometimes develop resistance to β-lactam antibiotics due to the production of β-lactamase, an enzyme that attacks the β-lactam ring [84,85]. To avoid resistance, β-lactamase inhibitors such as clavulanic acid, sulbactam, and tazobactam are often given with β-lactam antibiotics. Unfortunately, the available β-lactamase inhibitors do not inhibit all types of β-lactamases [86,87].
Aminoglycosides

Aminoglycosides structure comprises two or more amino sugars linked by glycosidic bonds to an aminocyclitol ring nucleus [88]. Aminoglycosides are broad-spectrum antibiotics used against severe infections caused by rapidly multiplying bacteria which are difficult to treat [89,90]. Furthermore, they possess high antimicrobial potential against aerobic and facultative Gram-negative bacteria like staphylococci and mycobacteria, etc. [91–94].

They are also frequently used to treat infections caused by *P. aeruginosa*, *Acinetobacter*, and *Enterobacter* that are described as resistant strains against multiple antibiotics [79]. These antibiotics bind to the 30S subunit of the ribosome and do not permit the binding of the 50S subunit to the initiation complex consequently inhibiting translation process required for their survival. They can differentiate between prokaryotic (70S) and eukaryotic (80S) ribosomes, and subsequently have a comparatively high therapeutic index. Other members of this group are gentamicin, tobramycin, kanamycin, streptomycin, and neomycin. However, spectinomycin is a bacteriostatic antibiotic chemically related to the aminoglycosides. These antibiotics have proved to have undesirable side-effects such as nephrotoxicity and ototoxicity; these have led to it being replaced in most applications by safer alternatives [88]. Further, the semisynthetic aminoglycosides include amikacin, dibekacin, and netilmicin exhibiting distinct toxicological profiles for strains that had developed resistance towards previously used aminoglycosides [90].

Tetracyclines

The tetracyclines are generally bacteriostatic against atypical organisms such as chlamydiae, mycoplasmas, rickettsia, and protozoan parasites as well as Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria [91]. Tetracycline binds to the 30S subunit of the ribosome, inhibit the binding of aminoacyl-tRNA to the mRNA-ribosome complex reversibly, thereby inhibiting protein synthesis and bacterial cell growth. The antibiotics include tetracycline, doxycycline and minocycline. Tetracyclines have also shown immunosuppression, anti-inflammatory activity, inhibition of lipase and collagenase activity, wound healing and treatment of a variety of sexually transmitted diseases. In the case of pregnant women, tetracyclines should not be prescribed as the side effects subsequently appear in their babies like tooth discoloration [91].

Sulfonamides

Sulfonamides are the first modern anti-infective comparatively toxic bacteriostatic antibiotics. They specifically inhibit the conversion of *p*-aminobenzoic acid (PABA) to dihydropteroate and block microbial folate synthesis process [95]. Sulfonamides are generally used to treat infection caused by Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, although it has poor activity against *P. aeruginosa* and strict anaerobes. Furthermore, sulfonamides effectively inhibit the growth of some types of protozoa and fungi. Due to toxic properties, these antibiotics should not be prescribed to pregnant women, neonates, and infants [96].

Macrolides

Macrolides are bacteriostatic agents comprises macro cyclic lactone ring to which one or more deoxy sugars are attached. They inhibit the translation process by binding reversibly to 50S ribosomal subunits of sensitive microorganisms. Erythromycin, clarithromycin, and azithromycin are the best known of the *macrolide* group of antibiotics. This class of antibiotics is active against Gram-positive strict anaerobic cocci while poor activity against enterococci, penicillin-resistant staphylococci and most Gram-negative bacteria with the notable exception of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* [91,94].

Macrolides are mostly used for the treatment of staphylococcal and streptococcal infections as an alternative for patients who are allergic to β-lactam antibiotics.
Glycopeptides

Glycopeptides antibiotic are glycosylated cyclic or polycyclic non-ribosomal peptides initially obtained from soil bacteria and plants. They act primarily by disrupting the cell wall of susceptible microorganisms through inhibiting peptidoglycan synthesis. Glycopeptides are divided into two groups: first-generation i.e., vancomycin, teicoplanin, ramoplanin and second generation include semi-synthetic antibiotics such as oritavancin, dalbavancin, and telavancin. Glycopeptides are extensively used antimicrobial agent against most Gram-positive organisms including multi-resistant Staphylococci (MRSA) although their activity tends to be limited towards different Gram-positive organisms [92]. Glycopeptides particularly vancomycin is considered as the last effective line of defense [97].

2. Food Processing Industries and Their By-Products

Food processing industries are the industries that used various methods as well as techniques to transform the raw materials into food or food into other forms for human consumption. There are so many food processing industries worldwide and Indian food handling industry is the world’s second largest producer of food or their relative products after China. Food processing industries include fruits and vegetables, dairy, meat, poultry, marine, brewery, and grain processing industries, which produced a huge amount of residue (waste) as by-products (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Food processing wastes from various food industries.

These food industries discard their waste in the environment, only some of them re-processed their waste and used as functional food ingredients. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the
United Nations (FAO) evaluates that, every year, around 1.3 billion tons of food produced for human consumption in the world is vanished or wasted. This includes 45% of all fruit and vegetables, 35% of fish and seafood, 30% of cereals, 20% of dairy products and 20% of meat [98].

2.1. Fruit & Vegetable Processing Industries

There are numerous industries which are based on fruits as well as vegetables e.g., juice industries, pickle industries, oil industries etc. These industries processed the substrate for increases their shelf life by using canning, drying, freezing, and preparation of juices, jams, and jellies etc. The fruit and vegetable industries usually produce a huge amount of effluents as well as solid waste. The main solid waste constitutes organic materials, including discarded fruits vegetables, peel/skin, seeds, stones etc. whereas the effluents contain liquid waste of juice and wash waters.

In India, Asia’s largest vegetable, fruit and flower market i.e., Koyambedu market, Chennai spread over an area of 60 acres and produced approximately 80 tons of solid waste per day [99]. Subsequently, there is a major issue in regards to squander transfer, which can prompt issues with flies and rats around the preparing room, if not accurately managed. In most of the Asian countries there is shortage of feed for livestock e.g., in India a deficiency of 25, 159 and 117 million tons of concentrates, green forages and crop residues [100], China, have a shortage of 10, 30 and 20 million tonnes of protein feed, energy feed, and aquatic feed, respectively [101]. To overcome this problem, the fruit and vegetables waste has been used as an alternate source of livestock feed.

2.2. Meat & Poultry Industries

Meat and meat products form a vital section of the human diet because they are the good source of bioactive compounds [102] and give the vital nutrients that cannot be effectively acquired through vegetables and their determined items [103,104]. Thus, as the demand increased significantly, various industries are developed to fulfill the requirements. The impact of various livestock industries are increasing substantially in the GDP of a country which accounts for >40% of the total agricultural sector and >12% of GDP [105]. With the increase of meat and poultry industries, the productions of by-products are also increased due to non-utilization or low utilization of by-products.

Meat side-effects are created by butcher houses, meat processors, wholesalers, and rendering plant. Meat industries waste contains a high concentration of nitrogen, phosphorus, and grease depending on the type of waste. The animal blood, a kind of meat by product is an important edible by-product because it contains a high level of protein as well as iron [106]. In Asia, blood is used to make blood curd, blood cake and blood pudding [107]. Similarly, In Europe, animal blood is used in blood sausages, blood pudding, biscuits as well as bread. Animal blood has also been used in food as an emulsifier, stabilizer, clarifier, color additive, nutritional component etc. [108] and also used in pharmaceutical industries. Bah et al. [109] describes that the animal blood collected from various slaughterhouse has an emerging source for different bioactive compounds. So, with the improved or enhanced utilization of meat by-products can give a good alternative to reduce the huge amount of meat industries waste.

2.3. Dairy Industries

The dairy industries primarily comprise processing of raw milk into various foodstuffs like consumer milk, condensed milk, butter, cheese, dried milk (milk powder), yogurt and ice cream, using methods like chilling, pasteurization, and homogenization. As the demand for milk and their related products increases continually, the dairy industries also have grown rapidly in India [110]. Likewise, the waste generated from these industries caused serious environmental problems. Dairy industries produced waste especially in the form of water by different operations used during processing of milk [111]. These water effluents contain significant quantities of organic milk products, minerals, dissolved sugars, proteins, fats and possible residues of additives [112].
2.4. Marine Industries

Marine industries comprise seafood’s which prominently includes fish and shellfish. These are naturally practical and consumed by humans as food [113]. In fresh water fish production, India is the second biggest producer of fish around the world. Fish processing plants also produced a huge amount of waste and India alone generates greater than 2 million metric tons of by-products due to fish processing activities [114].

Similar to other food industries, fish processing setups produced waste in the form of solid like fish carcasses, viscera, skin, heads and liquid form like washing and cleaning water discharges, blood water from drained fish storage tanks, brine etc. [115]. Seafood’s and their by-products are an abundant source of nutraceutical and bioactive compounds. These can be extricated/secluded and added to a scope of sustenance’s, therefore updating handiness of the nourishment as far as human well-being [116].

2.5. Grain Processing Industries

India delivers in excess of 200 million tons of various sustenance grains each year. Add up to sustenance grains generation achieved 270.10 MT in FY16 (according to Ministry of Agriculture). Grain processing includes the handling of all types of grain, seed, granules and other bulk materials as well as vegetable oil, and comprises cleaning and grading, drying, seed processing, conveying and out loading, storage, vegetable oil processing, control-automation, aspiration, and filtration. The oil extraction process from the grain produced a huge amount of by products as waste (oil cakes) [117].

Similarly, biodegradable waste is created in each phase of grain handling, including the waste-water and air outflows treatment forms. Their administration causes some natural and money related issues [118]. By-products generated from the processing of cereals, pulses and other grains are promising sources of nutrients, including bioactive compounds (e.g., phytochemicals) which could be used for their favorable technological or beneficial nutraceutical properties [119].

2.6. Brewery Industries

The brewing industry is one of the leading consumers of water. The blending business utilizes various clump write activities in preparing crude materials for the last brew item. Simultaneously, vast amounts of water are utilized for the generation of the brew itself, and to wash, cleaning and sanitizing of different units after each cluster are finished [120]. Likewise, brewer spent grains, residual brewing yeast and trub called wet brewery wastes [121]. Most of the organic waste like spent malt and hops are directly used as animal feed and for soil improvement [122].

3. Fermentation Processes

Fermentation is one of the oldest approaches used for product transformation into value-added products through microorganisms. Mostly three types of fermentation processes are used such as solid state, sub-merged and liquid fermentation. Selections of the fermentation process are product specific. Solid state and sub-merged fermentation processes are used to obtained bioactive compounds of industrial interest from various substrates such as wastes. Both processes have been used for research as well as industrial level but some processes produced better yields than others did because the metabolism carried out by microorganisms is dissimilar in both processes [123].

3.1. Solid State Fermentation

Solid-state fermentation (SSF) is the fermentation procedure in which microorganisms develop on solid substrates in the lack of open liquid [124]. The main objective of SSF is to attain the maximum nutrient attention from the substrate for fermentation by using the microbes such as fungi or bacteria. SSF further classified on the basis of seed culture used for fermentation is pure or mixed. In pure
culture SSF, specific strains are used whereas, in with the mixed culture, various microorganisms are used for fermentation.

On the basis of the nature of the solid phase, the SSF can be divided into two types. In the first type of SSF, the solid help to support as well as the nutrient source. These solid substrates are the by-products of grains and grain industries, cassava, potato, beans, and sugar beet pulp etc. and obtained from food various industries [125]. Whereas, in the second type of SSF the solid contributes support is soaked with a liquid medium (sugars, lipids, organic acids, etc.).

SSF potentials high volumetric productivity with increasing the concentration of products and reduced the effluent production [126]. However, a study performed using the organic waste for the production of enzymes by SSF stated the release of volatile organic compounds (VOC) such as CH₄, N₂O and NH₃ [127]. Madhumithah et al. [128] carried out a study to produce protease from vegetable waste by SSF with *Aspergillus niger*. They used various vegetable wastes like potato, pumpkin, cauliflower, cabbage, and brinjal as a substrate for fermentation. They found maximum protein content i.e., 291.54 µg mL⁻¹ from cauliflower among all the substrates. Similarly, Dhanasekaran et al. [129] obtained single cell protein using pineapple residues as a raw material through two different strains of yeasts, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, and *Candida tropicalis*. The biomass contents increase with the increase in the concentration of pineapple waste. The highest biomass and protein content was observed on the 7th and 3rd day of fermentation with both the yeasts.

SSF was also used for the extraction of lycopene using tomato waste as substrate by Jamal et al. [130]. Lycopene is an eminent carotenoid, producing the red colour of tomatoes and used as an antioxidant agent, colouring agent in the cosmetics, pharmaceutical as well as food industries. The effect of SSF by using fungus strain i.e., *Rhizopus oryzae* on the release of phenolic contents from rice bran was studied by Schmidt et al. [131]. A transformation in phenolic contents was observed, whereas ferulic acid giving the maximum enhancement during fermentation, initially from 33 mg/g in rice bran and finally 765 mg/g in the fermented bran.

3.2. Sub Merged/Liquid Fermentation

Submerged fermentation (SmF) is the type of fermentation in which the substrate is liquefied or put off in a water source. SmF is mostly used in industrial processes for high yield, low cost, and contamination. However, SmF has some disadvantages like physical space and energy or water requirements etc. [132]. Production of the enzyme by SmF has been used over past of century as compared to SSF because of some advantageous. This fermentation process is easier to plan by researchers because of the ease of process control and sterilization [133]. Pectinase, an enzyme production from fungi has been described by Favela-Tores et al. [134] using SmF. Pectinases are a gathering of related proteins engaged with the breakdown of pectin from an assortment of plants. Pectinases have various commercial as well as industrial importance.

Pectinase production also reported by Beg et al. [135]; Debing et al. [136] and Biz et al. [137] through fermentation processes using agro-wastes. Buyukkileci et al. [138] produced a high amount of enzyme i.e., exo-polygalacturonase from orange peel by using SmF with *Aspergillus sojae*. Corn husks were used as a substrate for the production of cellulose from *Bacillus cereus* by SmF [139]. SmF was performed for the amylase production using date wastes as a substrate with *Candida guilliermondii*. The process parameters such as incubation time, incubation temperature, initial pH, starch concentration, supplementary nitrogen source, nitrogen, and phosphorus concentrations that affect the production of α-amylase were also optimized [140].

Similarly, Budihal and Asgar [141] performed the production of cellulase enzyme by *Streptomyces DSK29* under both types of bioprocesses such as submerged and solid state fermentation using agro wastes as substrates. Bioprocesses are the processes that convert the complex substrates into simple value-added products by various microorganisms. Likewise, Table 2 also describes the various utilization of food as well as agricultural base by-products using bioprocesses like fermentation.
Table 2. Various bioactive compounds produced from different microorganisms by fermentation using diverse food processing wastes.

| Bioactive Compounds | Substrate                                                                 | Microorganisms                                                                 | Fermentation Process              | References          |
|---------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|
| Single cell protein | Sweet potato, banana skin, orange peel, mango waste and pineapple peel; Dairy waste | *Saccharomyces sp.*, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Candida tropicalis*, *Lactobacillus acidophilus* | Solid state fermentation; Liquid fermentation | [142–145]         |
| Bioethanol          | pineapple waste, banana waste                                            | *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*,                                                     | Solid state fermentation          | [146,147]          |
| Indole-3-acetic acid| Cassava fibrous residue                                                     | *Bacillus subtilis*                                                             | Solid state fermentation          | [148]              |
| Protease production | Rice bran, Brewery waste (brewer's spent grain, hottrub and residual brewer's yeast); Soybean meal; Wheat bran, cotton seed meal and orange peel. | *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* sp.; *Bacillus licheniformis*; *Aspergillus niger* | Liquid fermentation; Solid state fermentation | [149–152]         |
| Lactic acid production | Dairy waste; rice bran, wheat bran, ragi bran, rice starch water, tea waste, sugar cane bagasse, groundnut and coconut oil cakes | *Lactobacillus sp.*; *R. oryzae* MTCC 8784 | Fed batch fermentation | [153,154]         |
| Ergosterol          | Dairy waste (whey)                                                         | *Cryptococcus albidus* sp. *Aerius*                                            | Liquid fermentation               | [155]              |
| Xanthan             | Potato peel                                                               | *Xanthomonas citri*                                                             | Solid state fermentation          | [156]              |
| Protein             | Orange peel                                                               | *Chaetomium* sp. (KC-06) and *Aspergillus niger*                               | Solid state fermentation          | [157]              |
| Phenolic content    | Guava and pineapple waste; Peanut waste (peanut press cake); Rice bran; plum pomaces and brandy distillery wastes; pomegranate wastes | *Rhizopus oligosporus*; *Aspergillus awamori*; *Rhizopus oryzae*; *Aspergillus niger* and *Rhizopus oligosporus*; *Punica granatum* | Solid state fermentation          | [117,158–160]     |
| Antioxidants        | Peanut waste (peanut press cake); apricot pomace; Apple pomace            | *Aspergillus awamori*; *Aspergillus niger* (ATCC-6275) and *Rhizopus oligosporus* (ATCC-22959); *Phanerocheate chrysosporium* | Solid state fermentation          | [117,161,162]     |
| Neomycin            | Apple pomace, cotton seed meal, soy bean powder and wheat bran            | *Streptomyces fradiae* NCIM 2418                                               | Solid state fermentation          | [163]              |
| Oxytetracycline     | Groundnut shell, Sweet potato residues, Cassava peels, cocoyam peels      | *Streptomyces Rimosus*, *S. vendagensis*, *S. speibonae*                       | Solid state fermentation          | [164–167]         |
| Rifamycin           | Coconut oil cake, groundnut oil cake, ground nut shell and rice husk      | *Amycolatopsis Mediterranean*                                                   | Solid state fermentation          | [168]              |
| Meroparamycin       | Rice, wheat bran, quaker, bread, and ground corn                          | *Streptomyces sp.* strain MAR01                                                 | Solid state fermentation          | [169]              |
| Bleomycin           | Date syrup                                                                | *Streptomyces mobanaensis* ATCC                                                 | Fermentation                      | [170]              |
| Poly(3-Hydroxybutyric Acid) | Orange peel                                                    | *Bacillus subtilis*                                                          | Batch fermentation                | [171]              |
| Laccase             | Peels of citrus fruits, soybean meal, tofu dreg, Brewer’s spent grain   | *Rheinheimera sp.*, *Lysinibacillus* sp., *Tranetes versicolor*                | Submerged fermentation; Solid state fermentation | [172,173]         |
Table 2. Cont.

| Bioactive Compounds                     | Substrate                                                                 | Microorganism                                                                                     | Fermentation Process          | References       |
|----------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------|
| Bioherbicide                           | Soybean bran, bagasse and corn steep liquor                               | *Phoma sp.*                                                                                      | Solid state fermentation      | [174]           |
| Biosorbents                            | Apple pomace                                                              | *Aspergillus niger*                                                                              | Solid state fermentation      | [175]           |
| Astaxanthin (pigment)                  | Wheat waste; olive pomace; bakery waste                                   | *Yamadazynia guilliermondii, Yarrowia lipolytica; Xantophylomyces dendrohous, Sporidobulus salmonicolor; Monascus purpureus* | Solid state fermentation      | [176–178]       |
| Bioactive phenolic compounds           | Wheat straw, Rice straw, Corn cob, Pea pod, Sugarcane bagasse             | *Aspergillus fumigatus, A. terreus, A. wentii, Penicillium citrinum, P. granulatum, P. expansum* | Solid state fermentation      | [179]           |
| Fibrinolytic enzyme                    | Banana peel, black gram husk, paddy straw, rice bran, and wheat bran      | *Bacillus halodurans IND18*                                                                      | Submerged fermentation        | [180]           |
| Pectin lyase                           | corn steep liquor and orange peel                                         | *Aspergillus brasiliensis*                                                                      | Solid state fermentation      | [181]           |
| Citric acid                            | Apple pomace, brewer’s spent grain, citrus waste, sphagnum peat moss; peanut shell | *Aspergillus niger NRRL 2001; Aspergillus ornatus and Alternaria alternata*                      | Solid state fermentation      | [182,183]       |
| Fumaric acid                           | Apple pomace; pulp and paper solid waste                                 | *Rhizopus oryzae 1526*                                                                           | Solid state fermentation; Sub merged fermentation | [184,185]       |
| Biosurfactant                          | Potato peels, orange peels, banana peels, and bagasse                      | *Bacillus subtilis ANR 88*                                                                     | Solid state fermentation      | [186]           |
| Wine (antioxidant rich)                | Potato, pumpkin and carrot peels                                          | *Saccharomyces cerevisiae (NCIM 3206)*                                                          | Liquid fermentation          | [187]           |
| Cellulase                              | Wheat bran, Rice bran, Corn husks                                         | *Trichoderma viride, Bacillus cereus*                                                           | Sub merged fermentation       | [188,189]       |
| Lycopene                               | Tomato waste                                                              | *Aspergillus niger*                                                                              | Solid state fermentation      | [190]           |
| Polygalactouronase                     | Wheat bran, Coffee pulp                                                   | *Aspergillus niger*                                                                              | Solid state fermentation      |                 |
| Vanillic acid and vanillin             | Pineapple canary waste                                                    | *A. niger I-1472 and Pycnoporus cinnabarinus MUCL 35933*                                      | Liquid fermentation          | [191]           |
| Proanthocyanidins, anthocyanins, phenolic acids, vitamin E and oryzanol                | Rice bran                                                                                      |                                   | -                | -               |
| Ferulic, p-coumaric, sinapic and syringic | Rice bran                                                                 | *Aspergillus oryzae and Rhizopus oryzae*                                                       | Solid state fermentation      | [192]           |
| Lipase                                 | Castor bean waste; *Jatropha curcas* seed cake; Sugarcane bagasse, sunflower seed and olive oil | *Penicillium simplicissimum; Pseudomonas aeruginosa; Burkholderia cepacia; Thermomucorindicaeaeudaticae* | Solid state fermentation      | [193]           |
| Nisin                                  | Date by product                                                           | *Lactococcus lactis*                                                                            | Solid state fermentation      | [194–197]       |

*Note: The substrates and microorganisms listed above are examples of bioactive compounds and their respective uses. The fermentation processes and references are cited according to the respective literature.*
4. Uses of Fermentation for the Production of Bioactive/Value Added Compounds

SSF is a remarkable tool to elevate nutritional and functional values of the substrate to large extent [199,200]. Several types of solid substrates generated from agro waste have been used for solid state fermentation which is consist of high nutritive value in terms of proteins, fibers, and minerals, respectively [201]. Figure 7 shows the outline to production various bioactive compounds from food industries waste through fermentation. Owing to fact that these macro and micro molecules have tremendous value in human as well as animal diet, therefore to improve their digestibility and bioavailability solid-state fermentation is an effective approach [202,203]. Functional properties are the significant properties that define the pivotal phenomena of food, which are essentially used in food application [204,205]. Also, the functional properties of food are always correlated with intrinsic components such as proteins, starch, fats, respectively.

The functionality of these components is related to their physicochemical properties and molecule interactions as well as environmental conditions [206,207]. Several researchers explored the effect of solid state fermentation upon functional properties of agro-industrial waste and revealed the effectiveness of solid state fermented substrate in comparison with unfermented one [208,209]. Researchers also revealed that the solid state fermentation directly influences the protein structure and physicochemical properties, which in turn enhances the functional applications of the solid substrates originated from agro industrial wastes [210]. Among all functional properties, protein solubility is a significant property, which is directly influenced by the solid state fermentation. During this process, filamentous fungi act upon the proteins and structure of proteins tends to be open. After this, higher proteins unit are converted into smaller units, hence improve the solubility of the substrate into water system [211).

Another functional property is water and oil binding which are systematized by their configuration, structural behavior and the relations of proteins with each another and with added constituents, respectively [212,213]. Both water and oil binding capacities of the component are the principle process of protein-water and oil which take place in several food classifications [214]. Solid state fermentation directly affects the hydrophobic and hydrophilic domains of the components present in the solid
substrates and significantly increase the water and oil binding properties. In addition, solid state fermentation has a tendency to open the protein structures which then attain the ability to absorb and hold bound, hydrodynamic, capillary and substantially entrapped water and oil against gravity.

Foaming property of components is the combination of both gas and liquid phase which mainly attained through the unfolding and absorption of the proteins at the air-water interface and forms the film all over the place of the air bubbles [199, 206]. SSF significantly influences the cohesive nature of the proteins and due to this proteins rapidly diminish the surface tension at the air/water interface; they form large foam volume with large air cells. Also, decreased particle size of proteins after solid state fermentation improves the foaming properties and ionic strength of the protein. In this context, Sadh et al. [117] revealed significantly improved foaming properties of solid state fermented peanut press powder as compared to raw powder. Moreover, emulsifying activity and stability are important features as the functional property of food components that helps for emulsion formation and stabilization [206, 207].

Solid state fermentation alters the physicochemical properties such as solubility, surface hydrophobicity, and molecular flexibility of solid substrates which ultimately affects the emulsion forming and stabilizing properties [199]. Moreover, emulsion stability is contingent on the degree of these interactions and solid state fermentation amends the solubility of proteins, ability to adsorb speedily at the interface, distribution of charged group and cohesive nature of the proteins, respectively [117, 211]. Validation of the significantly improved emulsifying properties was agreed with findings of Sadh et al. [215] and Chawla et al. [199], respectively.

Owing to fact that proteins have noteworthy affinity to bind with the mineral ions electrostatically this interaction depends on the type of micronutrient and available sites on the proteins of the solid substrates [213]. Researchers unveiled improved functionality of the proteins present in solid substrates after solid state fermentation and due to these structural alterations bivalent metals tends to bind with available sites of the proteins. This complex formation with proteins mineral bioavailability significantly improved after SSF. Chawla et al. [199] and Sadh et al. [117] explained in vitro mineral bioavailability of the trace minerals after solid state fermentation of peanut press cake and black eyed seed powder, respectively. In their study, they compared the mineral bioavailability of these minerals with the inorganic form of the mineral salts and unveiled significantly increased cellular absorption and transportation across the Caco-2 cells, respectively. Also, ferritin synthesis was increased in solid state fermented samples as compared to an inorganic form of the salts.

Likewise, Chafle et al. [216] utilized vegetable and fruit waste for the generation of bioenergy in the form of biofuel. Fruit wastes constitute high reducing sugars, used for the production of bio-ethanol [217]. Whereas, the composition of vegetable wastes are high in cellulose, hemicelluloses, and lignin, which are used for the production of second-generation bioethanol [218–220].

Campo et al. (2006) performed a diluted acid hydrolysis process using fresh and processed vegetable wastes as substrate. They found highest ratios of only sugar in the liquid section obtained from dilute acid hydrolysis assays for tomato and red pepper residues. Similarly, Akin-Osanaiye et al. [221] investigated the production of ethanol from Carica papaya (pawpaw) agricultural wastes, by Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Their results revealed that the production of alcohol with fermentation of pawpaw fruit waste using baker’s yeast was 2.82–6.60% (v/v) in 72 h of fermentation. Potato peel waste was used for ligninolytic enzymes production like manganese peroxidase, laccase, lignin peroxidase and aryl alcohol oxidase using solid state fermentation by Pleurotus ostreatus [222].

Laccases are polyphenol oxidases enzymes, which have various impacts in bio-pulping, bio-bleaching, detoxification of environmental pollutants, pharmaceuticals, preparation of beverages etc. Dhillon et al. [223] obtained such enzymes from agricultural wastes like sugarcane bagasse, wheat bran, rice straw, and brewer’s spent grain. Similarly, diverse studies were performed using various agro-industries by-products i.e., coconut coir, wheat bran, sugarcane bagasse, and rice straw as a solid support for the production of laccase through different microorganisms such as
Pleurotus sp., Pleurotus ostreatus, Coriolus sp., Pyrenophora phaeocomes, respectively [224–226]. Xylanases, type of enzymes which are used for hydrolysis of 1,4-\(\alpha\)-D-xylosidic linkages in xylans, mainly obtained from the hemicellulose fraction of plant cell walls [227]. Among the different type of waste, wheat and rice bran are mostly used for the production of xylanase as reported in the various study [228–234].

The palm kernel press cake (PKC) was used in the different fermentation process for ethanol production because it contains monosaccharides. Cervero et al. [235] performed a study for ethanol production using PKC as a substrate through fermentation using Saccharomyces cerevisiae, resulting in ethanol i.e., 125 g kg\(^{-1}\) of PKC. Likewise, Hashem and Darwish, [236] also produced bioethanol via Saccharomyces cerevisiae using potato starch residue.

One of the most useful agricultural by-product i.e., rice bran was used for fermentation with Aspergillus oryzae and Rhizopus oryzae by Razak et al. [193]. Rice bran is attained through the milling of rice grain which has a great amount of protein approximately 12 to 15%, 11% fiber and 20% of its weight in oil [237,238]. Xia et al. [239] suggested that the protein present in rice bran contains well-balanced amino acid and also comprises a hypoallergenic protein which is required in baby food design. Razak et al. [193] evaluated organic acid, phenolics, antioxidants and anti-pigmentation activity etc. of fermented extracts of rice bran. Anti-pigmentation effect was found the maximum in rice bran extracts when fermented using A. oryzae such as 56.18% as associated with the additional extracts. Similarly, the anti-aging result was also presented with the maximum elastase inhibition activity with a value of 60.52%. A similar type of research also studied by Jamaluddin et al. [240] using rice bran as a substrate for fermentation with Monascus purpureus and Aspergillus niger, resulted in an augmentation in tyrosinase and elastase enzyme inhibition activity in fermented rice bran as compared to the non-fermented one.

Likewise, other antioxidants, phenolic activity, and organic acid were bio-transformed during rice bran fermentation [241,242]. Schmidt and Furlong [243], performed an experimental study to know the consequence of particle size and ammonium sulphate concentration of rice bran during fermentation with Rhizopus oryzae on the production of biomass, protein and phenolic contents. They concluded that the particle size of the substrate i.e., rice bran intensely influenced fermentation. Small particle size produced protein and phenolic content, whereas large particle size produced fungal biomass. Saykhedkar and Singhal [244], produced griseofulvin is a secondary metabolite using rice bran as a solid substrate for SSF with Penicillium griseofulvum.

Various studies on rice bran through fermentation process have been completed in previous years. Fermentation of rice bran from bacterial culture has been frequently used for the production of lactic acid [245–247]. Further rice bran has also been used for the production of biomass [248], antioxidants [131] and phenolic acids [131] enzymes like protease [149,182], cellulose [249] and amylase [250]. The protein concentrate of rice bran was enhanced using baker’s yeast at optimized condition by Chinma et al. [251].

Santa et al. [252] used Beauveria bassiana for SSF to obtain bio-pesticides from wastes such as potatoes, coffee husks to control the pests of banana, sugarcane, soybean, and coffee. Another fungus i.e., Colletotrichum truncatum has been used in SSF as mycoherbicide in contrast to the weed Sesbania exaltata by Pandey et al. [253].

Khiyami et al. [254] produced polyhydroxyalkanoates using Bacillus plastic composite support (PCS) biofilm and date palm syrup. Polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) are a group of biopolymers that have wide structural variety and biodegradability. Thus, it refers to replacing synthetic plastics and making them future green materials. Similarly, date fruit and their related by-products are used in the fermentation process for the bioactive compounds. Various studies have been carried out using date and produced fermented products such as Lactic acid using Lactobacillus sp. KCP01 by Chauhan et al. [255]; Curdlan using Rhizobium radiobacter ATCC 6466 by Salah et al. [256]; Xanthan gum using Xanthomonas campestris by Moosavi-Nasab et al. [257]; Carotemoids using Corynebacterium glutamicum CECT690 and Bacillus spp. by Davati et al. [258] and Tavakkoli et al. [259]. Cheok et al. [260] presented a review of current trends of tropical fruit waste utilization. They described the recovery of
health benefit bioactive compounds as cost free fruit wastes, so decrease the waste burden. They used tropical fruit wastes such as durian (*Durio zibethinus*), mangosteen (*Garcinia mangostana* L.), rambutan (*Nephelium lappaceum*), mango (*Mangifera indica* L.), jackfruit (*Artocarpus heterophyllus*), papaya (*Carica papaya*), passion fruit (*Passiflora edulis*), dragon fruit (*Hylocereus spp.*), and pineapple (*Ananas comosus*).

5. Concluding Interpretations and Future Approaching

Agro-industry especially the food industry produces a huge volume of wastes that obtained generally from processing setups. To find substitutes for recycling of these wastes is a major objective taken into account globally. The composition, quantity, and quality of wastes depend on the raw materials as well as the processing steps. Various types of food industries produces a different type of wastes like orange peel, wheat straw and bran, rice straw and bran, sugarcane bagasse, banana and potato peel, apple pomace, soybean waste, date syrup, oil press cakes, brewery waste, dairy waste, marine waste, food waste etc.

Appropriate applications i.e., fermentations used for biotransformation of these wastes into valuable products having low cost and high nutritive value. Undeniably, use of wastes not only excludes the dumping problems but also resolves the pollution-related problems. Therefore, extra governing endorsements, as well as principal funds, are essential to bring these value-added products in the commercial market. The valorization of agro-industrial by products to beneficial substances may not only provide future dimension to researchers but also decrease the existing environmental hazards.

**Author Contributions:** P.K.S. prepared the background and completed the review article with the help of S.K. and P.C., J.S.D. proofread as well as corrected the manuscript in all respect. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

**Funding:** There is no funding source.

**Acknowledgments:** The Department of Biotechnology, Chaudhary Devi Lal University, Sirsa, Haryana, India is thankfully recognized for their help.

**Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

**References**

1. Martins, S.; Mussatto, S.I.; Martínez-Avila, G.; Montañez-Saenz, J.; Aguilar, C.N.; Teixeira, J.A. Bioactive phenolic compounds: Production and extraction by solid-state fermentation. A review. *Biotechnol. Adv.* 2011, 29, 365–373. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
2. Carbonell-Capella, J.M.; Buniewska, M.; Barba, F.J.; Esteve, M.J.; Frigola, A. Analytical methods for determining bioavailability and bioaccessibility of bioactive compounds from fruits and vegetables: A review. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* 2014, 13, 155–171. [CrossRef]
3. Porrini, M.; Riso, P. Factors influencing the bioavailability of antioxidants in foods: A critical appraisal. *Nutr. Metab. Cardiovasc. Dis.* 2008, 18, 647–650. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
4. Manach, C.; Williamson, G.; Morand, C.; Scalbert, A.; Rémésy, C. Bioavailability and bioefficacy of polyphenols in humans. I. Review of 97 bioavailability studies. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 2005, 81, 2308–2425. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
5. Carbonell-Capella, J.M.; Barba, F.J.; Esteve, M.J.; Frigola, A. High pressure processing of fruit juice mixture sweetened with *Stevia rebaudiana* Bertoni: Optimal retention of physical and nutritional quality. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* 2013, 18, 48–56. [CrossRef]
6. Joana Gil-Chávez, G.; Villa, J.A.; Fernando Ayala-Zavala, J.; Basilio Heredia, J.; Sepulveda, D.; Yahia, E.M.; González-Aguilar, G.A. Technologies for extraction and production of bioactive compounds to be used as nutraceuticals and food ingredients: An overview. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* 2013, 12, 5–23. [CrossRef]
7. Parada, J.; Aguilera, J.M. Food microstructure affects the bioavailability of several nutrients. *J. Food Sci.* 2007, 72, R21–R32. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
8. EUFIC (The European Food Information Council). 2010. Available online: https://www.eufic.org/en/food-safety/article/food-safety (accessed on 18 August 2018).
9. McClements, D.J.; Xiao, H. Excipient foods: Designing food matrices that improve the oral bioavailability of pharmaceuticals and nutraceuticals. *Food Funct.* 2014, 5, 1320–1333. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

10. Awasthi, R.; Kulkarni, G.T.; Pawar, V.K. Phytosomes: An approach to increase the bioavailability of plant extracts. *Int. J. Pharm. Pharm. Sci.* 2011, 3, 1–3.

11. De Souza, R.J.; Mente, A.; Maroleanu, A.; Cozma, A.I.; Ha, V.; Kishibe, T.; Anand, S.S. Intake of saturated and trans unsaturated fatty acids and risk of all cause mortality, cardiovascular disease, and type 2 diabetes: Systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. *BMJ* 2015, 351. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

12. Jiménez, J.P.; Serrano, J.; Tabernero, M.; Arranz, S.; Díaz-Rubio, M.E.; García-Diz, L.; Goñi, I.; Saura-Calixto, F. Effects of grape antioxidant dietary fiber in cardiovascular disease risk factors. *Nutrition* 2008, 24, 646–653. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

13. Kim, G.N.; Shin, J.G.; Jang, H.D. Antioxidant and antidiabetic activity of Dangyuja (*Citrus grandis* Osbeck) extract treated with *Aspergillus saitoi*. *Food Chem.* 2009, 117, 35–41. [CrossRef]

14. Ham, S.S.; Kim, S.H.; Moon, S.Y.; Chung, E.K.; Chung, C.K.; Choe, M. Antimutagenic effects of subfractions of Chaga mushroom (*Inonotus obliquus*) extract. *Mutat. Res. Genet. Toxicol. Environ. Mutagen.* 2009, 672, 55–59. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

15. Parvathy, K.S.; Negi, P.S.; Srinivas, P. Antioxidant, antimutagenic and antibacterial activities of curcumin-β-diglucoside. *Food Chem.* 2009, 115, 265–271. [CrossRef]

16. Duhan, J.S.; Bhardwaj, M.; Surekha, S. Free radical-scavenging and antimutagenic potential of acetone, chloroform and methanol extracts of leaves of *Argemone maxicana*. *Int. J. Pharma. Biosci.* 2011, 2, B455–B464.

17. Duhan, J.S.; Bhardwaj, M.; Surekha, S. Free radical-scavenging and antimutagenic potential of acetone, chloroform and methanol extracts of fruit of *Argemone maxicana*. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.* 2011, 10, 8654–8661.

18. Salar, R.K.; Seasotia, L.; Rohilla, S.K. Evaluation of antioxidant and radical scavenging property of *Ficus bengalensis* L. applying various spectroscopic and spin trapping methods. *J. Biol. Act. Prod. Nat.* 2011, 7, 248–261.

19. Correia, A.L.; Bissell, M.J. The tumor microenvironment is a dominant force in multidrug resistance. *Drug Resist. Updates* 2012, 15, 39–49. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

20. Lu, Y.; Foo, L.Y. Identification and quantification of major polyphenols in apple pomace. *Food Chem.* 1997, 59, 187–194. [CrossRef]

21. Foo, L.Y.; Lu, Y. Isolation and identification of procyanidins in apple pomace. *Food Chem.* 1999, 64, 511–518.

22. Wolfe, K.; Wu, X.; Liu, R.H. Antioxidant activity of apple peels. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 2003, 51, 609–614. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

23. Deng, Y.; Feng, X.; Yang, D.; Yi, C.; Qiu, X. Pi-pi stacking of the aromatic groups in lignosulfonates. *Bioresources* 2012, 7, 1145–1156.

24. Kanazawa, K.; Sakakibara, H. High content of dopamine, a strong antioxidant, in cavendish banana. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 2000, 48, 844–848. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

25. Someya, S.; Yoshiki, Y.; Okubo, K. Antioxidant compounds from bananas (*Musa cavendish*). *Food Chem.* 2002, 79, 351–354. [CrossRef]

26. González-Montelongo, R.; Lobo, M.G.; González, M. Antioxidant activity in banana peel extracts: Testing extraction conditions and related bioactive compounds. *Food Chem.* 2010, 119, 1030–1039. [CrossRef]

27. Durga, M.; Nathiya, S.; Devasena, T. Multifarious actions of dietary flavonoids–implications in cancer and cataract. *Int. J. Pharm. Biol. Sci.* 2011, 5, 404–416.

28. Coll, M.D.; Coll, L.; Laencina, J.; Tomas-Barberan, F.A. Recovery of flavonols from wastes of industrially processed lemons. *Z. Lebensm. Unters. Forsch. A* 1998, 206, 404–407. [CrossRef]

29. Shrikhande, A.J. Wine by-products with health benefits. *Food Res. Int.* 2000, 33, 469–474. [CrossRef]

30. Negro, C.; Tommasi, L.; Miceli, A. Phenolic compounds and antioxidant activity from red grape marc extracts. *Bioresour. Technol.* 2000, 844–848. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

31. Duan, X.; Jiang, Y.; Su, X.; Zhang, Z.; Shi, J. Antioxidant properties of anthocyanins extracted from litchi (*Litchi chinensis* Sonn.) fruit pericarp tissues in relation to their role in the pericarp browning. *Food Chem.* 2007, 101, 1365–1371. [CrossRef]
34. Arogba, S.S. Mango (Mangifera indica) kernel: Chromatographic analysis of the tannin, and stability study of the associated polyphenol oxidase activity. J. Food Comp. Anal. 2000, 13, 149–156. [CrossRef]
35. Puravankara, D.; Boghra, V.; Sharma, R.S. Effect of antioxidant principles isolated from mango (Mangifera indica L.) seed kernels on oxidative stability of buffalo ghee (butter-fat). J. Sci. Food Agric. 2000, 80, 522–526. [CrossRef]
36. Choo, Y.M.; Yap, S.C.; Ooi, C.K.; Ma, A.N.; Goh, S.H.; Ong, A.S.H. Recovered oil from palm-pressed fiber: A good source of natural carotenoids, vitamin E, and sterols. J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc. 1996, 73, 599–602. [CrossRef]
37. Tan, I.A.W.; Ahmad, A.L.; Hameed, B.H. Adsorption of basic dye using activated carbon prepared from oil palm shell: Batch and fixed bed studies. Desalination 2008, 225, 13–28. [CrossRef]
38. Gil, M.I.; Tomás-Barberán, F.A.; Hess-Pierce, B.; Holcroft, D.M.; Kader, A.A. Antioxidant activity of pomegranate juice and its relationship with phenolic composition and processing. J. Agric. Food Chem. 2000, 48, 4581–4589. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
39. Noda, Y.; Kaneyuki, T.; Mori, A.; Packer, L. Antioxidant activities of pomegranate fruit extract and its anthocyanidins: Delphinidin, cyanidin, and pelargonidin. J. Agric. Food Chem. 2002, 50, 166–171. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
40. Chantarao, P.; Devahastin, S.; Chiewchan, N. Production of antioxidant high dietary fiber powder from carrot peels. LWT Food Sci. Technol. 2008, 41, 1987–1994. [CrossRef]
41. Zeyada, N.N.; Zeitoum, M.A.M.; Barbary, O.M. Utilization of some vegetables and fruit waste as natural antioxidants. Alex J. Food Sci. Technol. 2008, 5, 1–11.
42. Marti, R.; Rosello, S.; Cebolla-Cornejo, J. Tomato as a source of carotenoids and polyphenols targeted to cancer prevention. Cancers 2016, 8, 58. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
43. Hodgson, J.M.; Croft, K.D. Dietary flavonoids: Effects on endothelial function and blood pressure. J. Sci. Food Agric. 2006, 86, 2492–2498. [CrossRef]
44. Sainvitu, P.; Nott, K.; Richard, G.; Blecker, C.; Jérôme, C.; Wathelet, J.P.; Deleu, M. Structure, properties and obtention routes of flaxseed lignan secoisolariciresinol, a review. Biotechnol. Agron. Soc. Environ. 2012, 16, 115–124.
45. Ferretti, G.; Miniati, E.; Montanari, L.; Fantozzi, P. Improving the value of rice by-products by SFE. J. Supercrit. Fluid. 2003, 26, 63–71. [CrossRef]
46. Oliveira, M.S.; Feddern, V.; Kupski, L.; Cipolatti, E.P.; Badiale-Furlong, E.; Souza-Soares, L.A. Changes in lipid, fatty acids and phospholipids composition of whole rice bran after solid-state fungal fermentation. Bioresour. Technol. 2011, 102, 8335–8338. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
47. Wang, J.; Sun, B.; Cao, Y.; Tian, Y.; Li, X. Optimisation of ultrasound-assisted extraction of phenolic compounds from wheat bran. Food Chem. 2008, 106, 804–810. [CrossRef]
48. Rodriguez-Mateos, A.; Vauzour, D.; Krueger, C.G.; Shanmuganayagam, D.; Reed, J.; Calani, L.; Daniele Del, R.; Crozier, A. Bioavailability, bioactivity and impact on health of dietary flavonoids and related compounds: An update. Arch. Toxicol. 2014, 88, 1803–1853. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
49. Rodriguez-Mateos, A.; Pino-Garcia, R.D.; George, T.W.; Vidal-Diez, A.; Heiss, C.; Spencer, J.P. Impact of processing on the bioavailability and vascular effects of blueberry (poly) phenols. Mol. Nutr. Food Res. 2014, 58, 1952–1961. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
50. Baxter, H.; Harborne, J.B.; Moss, G.P. Phytochemical Dictionary: A Handbook of Bioactive Compounds from Plants; CRC Press: Boca Raton, FL, USA, 1998; p. 976.
51. Dwivedi, S.; Malik, C.; Chhokar, V. Molecular Structure, Biological Functions, and Metabolic Regulation of Flavonoids. Plant Biotechnol. Recent Adv. Dev. 2017. [CrossRef]
52. Bramati, L.; Aquilano, F.; Pietta, P. Unfermented rooibos tea: Quantitative characterization of flavonoids by HPLC–UV and determination of the total antioxidant activity. J. Agric. Food Chem. 2003, 51, 7472–7474. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
53. Dong, Y.; Zhao, M.; Sun-Waterhouse, D.; Zhuang, M.; Chen, H.; Feng, M.; Lin, L. Absorption and desorption behaviour of the flavonoids from Glycyrrhiza glabra L. leaf on macroporous adsorption resins. Food Chem. 2015, 168, 538–545. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
54. Nidhi, S.; Gahlawat, S.K.; Lather, V. Flavonoids: A nutraceutical and its role as anti-inflammatory and anticancer agent. Plant Biotechnol. Recent Adv. Dev. 2017. [CrossRef]
55. Paredes, A.; Alzuru, M.; Mendez, J.; Rodriguez-Ortega, M. Anti-Sindbis activity of flavanones hesperetin and naringenin. *Biol. Pharm. Bull.* **2003**, *26*, 108–109. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
56. Duhan, J.S.; Rana, A.; Sadh, P.K.; Saharan, P. Antimicrobial and free radical scavenging activity of selective medicinal plants combination. *World J. Pharm. Pharmacuet. Sci.* **2015**, *4*, 1202–1216.
57. Duhan, J.S.; Bhardwaj, M.; Sadh, P.K.; Surekha. In vitro antimicrobial efficacy, free radical scavenging activity and antimutagenic potential of stem extract of *Capparis decudua*. *World J. Pharm. Pharm. Sci.* **2016**, *5*, 786–803.
58. Tripoli, E.; La Guardia, M.; Giammanco, S.; Di Majo, D.; Giammanco, M. Citrus flavonoids: Molecular structure, biological activity and nutritional properties: A review. *Food Chem.* **2007**, *104*, 466–479. [CrossRef]
59. Kishida, T.; Nishiaki, K.; Izumi, T.; Ebihara, K. Soy isoflavonoid aglycons genistein and daidzein do not increase the cytochrome P-450 content of the liver microsomes of mice. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2000**, *48*, 3872–3875. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
60. Cvejic, L.; Harding, R.; Churchward, T.; Turton, A.; Finlay, P.; Massey, D.; Guy, P. Laryngeal penetration and aspiration in individuals with stable COPD. *Respirology* **2011**, *16*, 269–275. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
61. Barnes, S. The biochemistry, chemistry and physiology of the isoflavones in soybeans and their food products. *Lymphat. Res. Biol.* **2010**, *8*, 89–98. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
62. Du, H.; Huang, Y.; Tang, Y. Genetic and metabolic engineering of isoflavonoid biosynthesis. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2010**, *86*, 1293–1312. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
63. Weng, C.J.; Yen, G.C. Flavonoids, a ubiquitous dietary phenolic subclass, exert extensive in vitro anti-invasive and in vivo anti-metastatic activities. *Cancer Metast Rev.* **2012**, *31*, 323–351. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
64. Runge, F.F. Ueber einige produkte der steinko hlen destillation. *Ann. Phys.* **1834**, *107*, 65–78. [CrossRef]
65. Bhardwaj, V.; Gumber, D.; Abbot, V.; Dhiman, S.; Sharma, P. Pyrrole: A resourceful small molecule in key medicinal hetero-aromatics. *RSC Adv.* **2015**, *5*, 15233–15266. [CrossRef]
66. Wilkerson, W.W.; Copeland, R.A.; Covington, M.; Trzaskos, J.M. Antiinflammatory 4,5-Diarylpyrroles. 2. activity as a function of cyclooxygenase-2 inhibition. *J. Med. Chem.* **2005**, *48*, 3895–3901. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
67. Lee, H.; Lee, J.; Lee, S.; Shin, Y.; Jung, W.; Kim, J.H.; Park, K.; Kim, K.; Cho, H.S.; Ro, S. A novel class of highly potent, selective, and non-peptidic inhibitor of Ras farnesyltransferase (FTase). *Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett.* **2001**, *11*, 3069–3072. [CrossRef]
68. Wurz, R.P.; Charette, A.B. Doubly activated cyclopropanes as synthetic precursors for the preparation of 4-nitro- and 4-cyano-dihydropyrroles and pyrroles. *Org. Lett.* **2005**, *7*, 2313–2316. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
69. Baejer, A. Ubere in kondensations product von pyrrol mit aceton. *Ber. Dtsch. Chem. Ges.* **1886**, *19*, 2184–2185. [CrossRef]
70. Horton, D.A.; Bourne, G.T.; Smythe, M.L. The combinatorial synthesis of bicyclic privileged structures or privileged substructures. *Chem. Rev.* **2003**, *103*, 893–930. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
71. Joule, J.A.; Mills, K. *Heterocyclic Chemistry*, 4th ed.; For an Excellent Introduction to Chemistry and Reactivity of Indoles; Blackwell Science: Oxford, UK, 2000; ISBN 978-1-405-13300-5.
72. Ekhlass, N. Synthesis (in vitro) antitumor and antimicrobial activity of some pyrazoline, pyridine, and pyrimidine derivatives linked to indole moiety. *J. Fundam. Appl. Sci.* **2013**, *8*, 2184–2185. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
73. Goleniowski, M.; Bonfill, M.; Cusido, R.; Palazuez-Ortega, M. Anti-Sindbis activity of flavanones hesperidin and naringin. *Oxid. Stress* **2013**, *14*, 663–673. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
74. Giada, M.D.L.R. Food phenolic compounds: Main classes, sources and their antioxidant power. *Oxid. Stress Chron. Degener. Dis. Role Antioxid.* **2013**. [CrossRef]
75. Korzybski, T.; Kowszyk-Gindifer, Z.; Kurylowicz, W. Antibiotics: Origin, Nature and Properties; PWN-Polish Scientific Publishers: Warsaw, Poland, 2013.
76. Dezfully, N.K.; Heidari, A. Natural bioactive compounds: Antibiotics. *J. Fundam. Appl. Sci.* **2016**, *8*, 674–684. [CrossRef]
77. Hogg, S. *Essential Microbiology*; John Wiley & Sons: Manhattan, NY, USA, 2005; p. 481.
78. Khan, F.A. *Biotechnology in Medical Sciences*; CRC Press: New York, NY, USA, 2014; p. 471. ISBN 978-1-4822-2368-2.
79. Kuriyama, T.; Karasawa, T.; Williams, D.W. Antimicrobial Chemotherapy: Significance to Healthcare. In *Biofilms in Infection Prevention and Control*; Academic Press: Cambridge, MA, USA, 2014; pp. 209–244.
80. Holten, K.B.; Onusko, E.M. Appropriate prescribing of oral beta-lactam antibiotics. *Am. Fam. Phys.* **2000**, *62*, 611–620.
81. Petri, W.A. Penicillin, cephalosporins, and other β-lactam antibiotics. *Side Effects Drugs Annu.* **2006**, *18*, 258–267.
82. Yao, J.D.C.; Moellering, R.C. Antibacterial agents. In Manual of Clinical Microbiology; Versalovic, J., Carroll, K.C., Funke, G., Jorgensen, J.H., Landry, M.L., Warnock, D.W., Eds.; ASM Press: Washington, DC, USA, 2011; pp. 1043–1081.

83. Elander, R.P. Industrial production of beta-lactam antibiotics. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 2003, 61, 385–392. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

84. Kimball, R.N. Glossary of Biotechnology Terms; CRC Press: New York, NY, USA, 2002; p. 289.

85. Drawz, S.M.; Bonomo, R.A. Three Decades of β-Lactamase Inhibitors. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 2010, 23, 160–201. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

86. Livermore, D.M. β-lactamases in laboratory and clinical resistance. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 1995, 8, 557–584. [PubMed]

87. Jacoby, G.A. Amp C β-lactamase. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 2009, 22, 161–182. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

88. Page, C.P.; Curtis, M.; Sutter, M.C.; Walker, M.; Hoffman, B. Drug and bacteria. In Integrated Pharmacology, 2nd ed.; Mosby: St. Louis, MO, USA, 2002; pp. 111–143.

89. Gilbert, D.N. Aminoglycosides. In Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases; Mandell, G.L., Bennett, J.E., Dolin, R., Eds.; Churchill Livingstone: New York, NY, USA, 1995; pp. 279–306.

90. Mingeot-Leclercq, M.P.; Glupczynski, Y.; Tulkens, P.M. Aminoglycosides: Activity and resistance. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 1999, 43, 727–737. [PubMed]

91. Rang, H.P.; Dale, M.M.; Ritter, J.M.; Moore, P.K. Pharmacologia; Churchill Livingstone: London, UK, 2003; pp. 635–647.

92. Witte, W. Antibiotic resistance in gram-positive bacteria: Epidemiological aspects. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 1999, 44, 1–9. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

93. Chambers, H.F. Aminoglycosides. In Goodman and Gilman’s the Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics; Brunton, L.L., Lazo, J.S., Parker, K.L., Eds.; McGraw-Hill: New York, NY, USA, 2006; pp. 1155–1172.

94. Murray, P.R.; Rosenthal, K.S.; Pfaller, M.A. Medical Microbiology; Mosby: Louis Missouri, ST, USA, 2009; pp. 199–208.

95. Masters, P.A.; O’Bryan, T.A.; Zurlo, J.; Miller, D.Q.; Joshi, N. Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole revisited. Arch. Int. Med. 2003, 163, 402–410. [CrossRef]

96. Gilbert, D.N.; Moellering, R.C.; Eliopoulos, G.M.; Chambers, H.F.; Saag, M.S. The Sanford Guide to Antimicrobial Therapy; Antimicrobial Therapy: Montgomery, OH, USA, 2007; p. 204.

97. Hayden, M.K. Insights into the epidemiology and control of infection with vancomycin-resistant enterococci. Clin. Infect. Dis. 2000, 31, 1058–1065. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

98. Lipinski, B.; Hanson, C.; Lomax, J.; Kitinoja, L.; Waite, R.; Searchinger, T. Reducing food loss and waste. World Res. Inst. 2013, 22. Available online: http://www.ecdc.net.cn/2013gsd-uneP/REducING%20FOOd%20LOSS%20AND%20Waste.pdf (accessed on 18 August 2018).

99. Kameswari, S.B.; Velmurugan, B.; Thirumaran, K.; Ramanujam, R.A. Biomethanation of Vegetable Market Waste-Untapped Carbon Trading Opportunities. In Proceedings of the International Conference on Sustainable Solid Waste Management, Chennai, India, 5–7 September 2007; pp. 415–420.

100. Ravi Kiran, G.; Suresh, K.P.; Sampath, K.T.; Giridhar, K.; Anandan, S. Modeling and Forecasting Livestock and Fish Feed Resources: Requirements and Availability in India, National Institute of Animal Nutrition and Physiology. Ph.D. Thesis, National Institute of Animal Nutrition & Physiology, Bangalore, India, 2012.

101. Chen, J. Aquatic feed industry under tension in world and China’s grain supply and demand. Chin. Fish 2012, 6, 32–34.

102. Pogorzelska-Nowicka, E.; Atanasov, A.G.; Horbańczuk, J.; Wierzbicka, A. Bioactive Compounds in Functional Meat Products. Molecules 2018, 23, 306. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

103. Byers, T.; Nestle, M.; McTiernan, A.; Doyle, C.; Currie-Williams, A.; Gansler, T.; Thun, M. American Cancer Society 2001 Nutrition and Physical Activity Guidelines Advisory Committee. American Cancer Society guidelines on nutrition and physical activity for cancer prevention: Reducing the risk of cancer with healthy food choices and physical activity. CA Cancer J. Clin. 2002, 52, 92–119. [PubMed]

104. Alao, B.O.; Falowo, A.B.; Chulaya, A.; Muchenje, V. The Potential of Animal By-Products in Food Systems: Production, Prospects and Challenges. Sustainability 2017, 9, 1089. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
10. Jamal, P.; Akbar, I.; Yumi, Z.; Irwandi, J. Process development for maximum lycopene production from selected fruit waste and its antioxidant and antiradical activity. *J. Food Process. Technol.* 2016, 7, 576–581. [CrossRef]

11. Schmidt, C.G.; Gonçalves, L.M.; Prietto, L.; Hackbart, H.S.; Furlong, E.B. Antioxidant activity and enzyme inhibition of phenolic acids from fermented rice bran with fungus *Rizopus oryzae*. *Food Chem.* 2014, 146, 371–377. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

12. Knob, A.; Fortkamp, D.; Prolo, T.; Izidoro, S.C.; Almeida, J.M. Agro-residues as Alternative for Xylanase Production by Filamentous Fungi. *Biol. Res.* 2014, 9, 5338–5377.

13. Vidyalakshmi, R.; Paranthaman, R.; Indhumathi, J. Amylase production on submerged fermentation by *Aspergillus oryzae*. *World J. Chem.* 2009, 4, 89–91.

14. Favela-Torres, E.; Volke-Sepulveda, T.; Viniegra-González, G. Hydrolytic Depolymerising Pectinases. *Food Technol. Biotechnol.* 2006, 44, 221–227.

15. Beg, Q.K.; Bhushan, B.; Kapoor, M.; Hoondal, G.S. Enhanced production of a thermostable xylanase from *Streptomyces* sp. QG-11-3 and its application in biobleaching of eucalyptus kraft pulp. *Enzyme. Microb. Technol.* 2000, 27, 459–466. [CrossRef]

16. Debing, J.; Peijun, L.; Stagnitti, F.; Xianzhe, X.; Li, L. Pectinase production by solid fermentation from *Aspergillus niger* by a new prescription experiment. *Environ. Saf.* 2006, 64, 244–250. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

17. Biz, A.; Finkler, A.T.J.; Pirol, L.O.; Medina, B.S.; Krieger, N.; Mitchell, D.A. Production of pectinases by solid-state fermentation of a mixture of citrus waste and sugarcane bagasse in a pilot-scale packed-bed bioreactor. *Biochem. Eng. J.* 2016, 111, 54–62. [CrossRef]

18. Buyukkileci, A.O.; Lahore, M.F.; Tari, C. Utilization of orange peel, a food industrial waste, in the production of exo-polygalacturonase by pellet forming *Aspergillus sojae*. *Bioprocess Biosyst. Eng.* 2015, 38, 749–760. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

19. Nema, N.; Alamir, L.; Mohammad, M. Production of cellulase from *Bacillus cereus* by submerged fermentation using corn husks as substrates. *Int. Food Res. J.* 2015, 22, 1831–1836.

20. Acourene, S.; Amourache, L.; Benchabane, A.; Djaafrri, K. Utilisation of date wastes as substrate for the production of α-amylase. *Int. Food Res. J.* 2013, 20, 1367–1372.

21. Budihal, S.R.; Agsar, D. Exploration of Agrowastes for the Production of Cellulase by *Streptomyces DSK29* under Submerged and Solid State Systems. *Int. J. Curr. Microbiol. Appl. Sci.* 2015, 4, 681–689.

22. Yang, S.S.; Jang, H.D.; Liew, C.M.; Du Freez, J.C. Protein enrichment of sweet potato residue by solid-state cultivation with mono-and co-cultures of amylolytic fungi. *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 1993, 9, 258–264. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

23. Khan, M.; Khan, S.S.; Ahmed, Z.; Tanveer, A. Production of single cell protein from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* by utilizing fruit wastes. *Nanobiotechnol. Uniu.* 2010, 1, 127–132.

24. Mensah, J.K.; Twumasi, P. Use of pineapple waste for single cell protein (SCP) production and the effect of substrate concentration on the yield. *J. Food Process Eng.* 2017, 40, e12478. [CrossRef]

25. Gaur, S.; Mathur, N.; Singh, A.; Bhatnagar, P. Characterization of dairy waste and its utilization as substrate for the production of single cell protein. *J. Biotechnol. Biochem.* 2017, 3, 73–78.

26. Hossain, A.B.; Fazlina, A.R. Creation of alternative energy by bio-ethanol production from pineapple waste and the usage of its properties for engine. *Afr. J. Microbiol. Res.* 2010, 4, 813–819.

27. Dhabekar, A.; Chandak, A. Utilization of banana peels and beet waste for alcohol production. *Asiatic J. Biotechnol.* 2010, 1, 8–13.

28. Swain, M.R.; Ray, R.C. Optimization of cultural conditions and their statistical interpretation for production of indole-3-acetic acid by *Bacillus subtilis* CM5 using cassava fibrous residue. *J. Sci. Ind. Res.* 2008, 67, 622–628.

29. Chutmanop, J.; Chuichulcherm, S.; Chisti, Y.; Srinopakun, P. Protease production by *Aspergillus oryzae* in solid-state fermentation using agroindustrial substrates. *J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol.* 2008, 83, 1012–1018. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

30. Mathias, T.R.D.S.; Fernandes de Aguiar, P.; de Almeida e Silva, J.B.; Moretzsohn de Mello, P.P.; Camporese Sérulo, E.F. Brewery Waste Reuse for Protease Production by Lactic Acid Fermentation. *Food Technol. Biotechnol.* 2017, 55, 218–224. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

31. Maghsoudi, V.; Kazemi, A.; Nahid, P.; Yaghmaei, S.; Sabzevari, M.A. Alkaline protease production by immobilized cells using *B. licheniformis*. *Sci. Iran.* 2013, 20, 607–610.
152. Castro, R.J.S.; Ohara, A.; Nishide, T.G.; Bagagli, M.P.; Dias, F.F.G.; Sato, H.H. A versatile system based on substrate formulation using agro industrial wastes for protease production by *Aspergillus niger* under solid state fermentation. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* 2015, 4, 678–684.

153. Hitha, C.S.; Hima, C.S.; Yogesh, B.J.; Bharathi, S.; Sekar, K.V. Microbial utilization of dairy waste for lactic acid production by immobilized bacterial isolates on sodium alginate beads. *Int. J. Pure Appl. Biosci.* 2014, 2, 55–60.

154. Ranjit, C.; Srividya, S. Lactic acid production from free and Polyurethane immobilized cells of *Rhizopus oryzae* MTCC 8784 by direct hydrolysis of starch and agro-industrial waste. *Int. Food Res. J.* 2016, 23, 2646–2652.

155. Németh, Á.R.O.N.; Kaleta, Z.O.L.T.A.N. Complex utilization of dairy waste (whey) in Biorefinery. *WSEAS Trans. Environ. Dev.* 2015, 11, 80–88.

156. Vidhyalakshmi, R.; Vallinachiyar, C.; Radhika, R. Production of Xanthan from Agro-Industrial Waste. *J. Adv. Sci. Res.* 2012, 3, 56–59.

157. Yalemtesfa, B.; Alemu, T.; Santhanam, A. Solid substrate fermentation and conversion of orange waste in to fungal biomass using *Aspergillus niger* KA-06 and *Chaetomium* Spp KC-06. *Afr. J. Microbiol. Res.* 2010, 4, 1275–1281.

158. Sousa, B.A.; Correia, R.T.P. Phenolic content, antioxidant activity and antiAmyloytic activity of extracts obtained from bioprocessed pineapple and guava wastes. *Braz. J. Chem. Eng.* 2012, 29, 25–30. [CrossRef]

159. Dulf, F.V.; Vodnar, D.C.; Socaciu, C. Effects of solid-state fermentation with two filamentous fungi on the total phenolic contents, flavonoids, antioxidant activities and lipid fractions of plum fruit (*Prunus domestica* L.) by-products. *Food Chem.* 2016, 209, 27–36. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

160. Verotta, L.; Panzella, L.; Antenucci, S.; Calvenzani, V.; Tomay, F.; Petroni, K.; Caneva, E.; Napolitano, A. Fermented pomegranate wastes as sustainable source of elagic acid: Antioxidant properties, anti-inflammatory action, and controlled release under simulated digestion conditions. *Food Chem.* 2018, 246, 129–136. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

161. Dulf, F.V.; Vodnar, D.C.; Dulf, E.H.; Pintea, A. Phenolic compounds, flavonoids, lipids and antioxidant potential of apricot (*Prunus armeniaca* L.) pomace fermented by two filamentous fungal strains in solid state system. *Chem. Cent. J.* 2017. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

162. Ajila, C.M.; Brar, S.K.; Verma, M.; Tyagi, R.D.; Valéro, J.R. Solid-state fermentation of apple pomace using *Phanerocheate chrysosporium*—liberation and extraction of phenolic antioxidants. *Food Chem.* 2011, 126, 1071–1080. [CrossRef]

163. Vastrad, B.M.; Neelagund, S.E. Optimization and production of neomycin from different agro industrial wastes in solid state fermentation. *Int. J. Pharm. Sci. Drug Res.* 2011, 3, 104–111.

164. Okorie, P.C.; Asagbra, A.E. Production of oxytetracycline in solid state fermentation of groundnut shell. *World J. Biotechnol.* 2005, 4, 124–130.

165. Okorie, P.; Asagbra, A. Oxytetracycline production by mix culture of *Streptomyces rimosus* and *S. vendagensis* in solid–state fermentation of cassava peels. *J. Ind. Res. Technol.* 2008, 2, 43–47.

166. Yang, S.S.; Yuan, S.S. Oxytetracycline production by *Streptomyces rimosus* in solid state fermentation of sweet potato residue. *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 1990, 6, 236–244. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

167. Ezejiofor, T.I.N.; Duru, C.I.; Asagbra, A.E.; Ezejiofor, A.N.; Orisakwe, O.E.; Afonne, J.O.; Obi, E. Waste to wealth: Production of oxytetracycline using *Streptomyces* species from household kitchen wastes of agricultural produce. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.* 2012, 11, 10115–10124.

168. Vastrad, B.M.; Neelagund, S.E. Optimization of process parameters for rifamycin b production under solid state fermentation from *Anycalogopsis mediterranea* MTCC14. *Int. J. Curr. Pharm. Res.* 2012, 4, 101–108.

169. El- Naggar, M.Y.; El-Assar, S.A.; Abdul-Gawad, S.M. Solid-state fermentation for the production of mero paramycin by *Streptomyces* sp. strain MAR01. *J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 2009, 19, 468–473. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

170. Radwan, H.H.; Alanazi, F.K.; Taha, E.I.; Dardir, H.A.; Moussa, I.M.; Alsarraf, I.A. Development of a new medium containing date syrup for production of bleomycin by *Streptomyces mobaraensis* ATCC 15003 using response surface methodology. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.* 2010, 9, 5450–5459.

171. Sukam, A.; Roy, I.; Keshavarz, T. Agro-industrial waste materials as substrates for the production of poly (3-hydroxybutyric acid). *J. Biomater. Nanobiotechnol.* 2014, 5, 229–240. [CrossRef]
172. Sharma, A.; Gupta, V.; Khan, M.; Balda, S.; Gupta, N.; Capalash, N.; Sharma, P. Flavonoid-rich agro-industrial residues for enhanced bacterial laccase production by submerged and solid-state fermentation. *3 Biotech* 2017, 7, 200. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

173. Dhillon, G.S.; Kaur, S.; Brar, S.K. *In-vitro* decolorisation of recalcitrant dyes through an ecofriendly approach using lac-case from *Trametes versicolor* grown on brewer’s spent grain. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* 2012, 72, 67–75. [CrossRef]

174. Haque, M.A.; Kachrimanidou, V.; Koutinas, A.; Lin, C.S.K. Valorization of bakery waste for biocolorant and enzyme production by *Monascus purpureus*. *J. Biotechnol.* 2016, 231, 55–64. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

175. Chandra, P.; Arora, D.S. Production of Antioxidant Bioactive Phenolic Compounds by Solid-State Fermentation on Agro-residues Using Various Fungi Isolated from Soil. *Asian J. Biotechnol.* 2016, 8, 8–15. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

176. Vijayaraghavan, P.; Vincent, S.G.P.; Arasu, M.V.; Al-Dhabi, N.A. Bioconversion of agro-industrial wastes for the production of fibrinolytic enzyme from *Bacillus halodurans* IND18: Purification and biochemical characterization. *Electron. J. Biotechnol.* 2016, 20, 1–8. [CrossRef]

177. Das, R.K.; Brar, S.K.; Verma, M. A fermentative approach towards optimizing directed biosynthesis of fumaric acid by *Rhizopus oryzae* 1526 utilizing apple industry waste biomass. *Fungal Biol.* 2015, 119, 1279–1290. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

178. Das, R.K.; Brar, S.K.; Verma, M. Potential use of pulp and paper solid waste for the bio-production of fumaric acid through submerged and solid state fermentation. *J. Clean. Prod.* 2016, 112, 4435–4444. [CrossRef]

179. Rane, O.K.; Wai, T.B.; Ling, L.S. Pineapple cannery waste as a potential substrate for microbial biotranformation to produce vanillic acid and vanillin. *Int. Food Res. J.* 2014, 21, 953–958.
192. Huang, Y.P.; Lai, H.M. Bioactive compounds and antioxidative activity of colored rice bran. J. Food Drug Anal. 2016, 24, 564–574. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

193. Razak, D.L.A.; Rashid, N.Y.A.; Jamaluddin, A.; Sharifudin, S.A.; Kahar, A.A.; Long, K. Cosmeceutical potentials and bioactive compounds of rice bran fermented with single and mix culture of Aspergillus oryzae and Rhizopus oryzae. J. Saudi Soc. Agric. Sci. 2017, 16, 127–134.

194. Godoy, M.G.; Gutarrá, M.L.E.; Castro, A.M.; Machado, O.L.T.; Freire, D.M.G. Adding value to a toxic residue from the biodiesel industry: Production of two distinct pool of lipases from Penicillium simplicissimum in castor bean waste. J. Ind. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 2011, 38, 945–953. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

195. Joshi, C.; Mathur, P.; Khare, S.K. Degradation of phor-bol esters by Pseudomonas aeruginosa PseA during solid-state fermentation of defoiled Jatropha curcas seed cake. Bioresour. Technol. 2011, 102, 4815–4819. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

196. Liu, Y.; Li, C.; Meng, X.; Yan, Y. Biodiesel synthesis directly catalyzed by the fermented solid of Burkholderia cenocepacia via solid state fermentation. Fuel Process. Technol. 2016, 160, 303–309. [CrossRef]

197. Ferrarezi, A.L.; Ohe, T.H.K.; Borges, J.P.; Brito, R.R.; Siqueira, M.R.; Vendramini, P.H., Jr.; Quilles, J.C.; Nunesa, C.D.C.C.; Bonilla-Rodriguez, G.O.; Boscoloa, M., et al. Production and characterization of lipases and immobilization of whole cell of the thermophilic Thermomucor indicae seudaticae N31 for trans esterification reaction. J. Mol. Catal. B Enzym. 2014, 107, 106–113. [CrossRef]

198. Khiyami, M.; Aboseide, B.; Pometto, A., III. Influence of complex nutrient sources: Dates syrup and dates Pits on Lactococcus lactis growth and nisin production. J. Biotechnol. 2008. [CrossRef]

199. Chawla, P.; Bhandari, L.; Sadh, P.K.; Kaushik, R. Impact of Solid-State Fermentation (Aspergillus oryzae) on Functional Properties and Mineral Bioavailability of Black-Eyed Pea (Vigna unguiculata) Seed Flour. Cereal Chem. 2017, 94, 437–442. [CrossRef]

200. Sadh, P.K.; Duhan, S.; Duhan, J.S. Agro-industrial wastes and their utilization using solid state fermentation: A review. Bioresour. Bioprocess. 2018. [CrossRef]

201. Sadh, P.K.; Saharan, P.; Duhan, J.S. Bio-antioxidation of antioxidants and phenolic content of Lablab purpureus by solid state fermentation with GRAS filamentous fungi. Res. Effic. Technol. 2017, 3, 285–292. [CrossRef]

202. Oloyede, O.O.; James, S.; Ocheme, B.O.; Chinma, C.E.; Akpa, V.E. Effects of fermentation time on the functional and pasting properties of defatted Moringa oleifera seed flour. Food Sci. Nutr. 2016, 4, 89–95. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

203. Chi, C.H.; Cho, S.J. Improvement of bioactivity of soybean meal by solid-state fermentation with Bacillus amyloliquefaciens versus Lactobacillus spp. and Saccharomyces cerevisiae. LWT Food Sci. Technol. 2016, 68, 619–625. [CrossRef]

204. Singh, H. Functional properties of milk proteins. Ref. Modul. Food Sci. 2011. [CrossRef]

205. Bhandari, L.; Sodhi, N.S.; Chawla, P. Effect of acidified methanol modification on physico chemical properties of black-eyed pea (Vigna unguiculata) starch. Int. J. Food Prop. 2016, 19, 2635–2648. [CrossRef]

206. Shilpashree, B.G.; Arora, S.; Chawla, P.; Tomar, S.K. Effect of succinylation on physicochemical and functional properties of milk protein concentrate. Food Res. Int. 2015, 72, 223–230. [CrossRef]

207. Shilpashree, B.G.; Arora, S.; Sharma, V.; Chawla, P.; Vakkalagadda, R. Changes in physicochemical and functional properties of whey protein concentrate upon succinylation. Int. J. Dairy Technol. 2016, 69, 1–9. [CrossRef]

208. Guan, G.; Zhang, Z.; Ding, H.; Li, M.; Shi, D.; Zhu, M.; Xia, L. Enhanced degradation of lignin in corn stalk by combined method of Aspergillus oryzae solid state fermentation and H2O2 treatment. Biomass Bioenergy 2015, 81, 224–233. [CrossRef]

209. Sadh, P.K.; Saharan, P.; Duhan, S.; Duhan, J.S. Bio-enrichment of phenolics and antioxidant activity of combination of Oryza sativa and Lablab purpureus fermented with GRAS filamentous fungi. Res. Effic. Technol. 2017, 3, 347–352. [CrossRef]

210. Sadh, P.K.; Chawla, P.; Bhandari, L.; Duhan, J.S. Bio-enrichment of functional properties of peanut oil cakes by solid state fermentation using Aspergillus oryzae. J. Food Meas. Charact. 2018, 12, 622–633. [CrossRef]

211. Xiao, Y.; Xing, G.; Rui, X.; Li, W.; Chen, X.; Jiang, M.; Dong, M. Effect of solid-state fermentation with Cordyceps militaris SN-18 on physicochemical and functional properties of chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.) flour. LWT Food Sci. Technol. 2015, 63, 1317–1324. [CrossRef]

212. Darwish, G.A.; Bakr, A.A.; Abdallah, M.M.F. Nutritional value upgrading of maize stalk by using Pleurotus ostreatus and Saccharomyces cerevisiae in solid state fermentation. Ann. Agric. Sci. 2012, 57, 47–51. [CrossRef]
213. Kaushik, R.; Swami, N.; Sihag, M.; Ray, A. Isolation, characterization of wheat gluten and its regeneration properties. *J. Food Sci. Technol*. 2015, 52, 5930–5937. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

214. Shilpashree, B.G.; Arora, S.; Chawla, P.; Vakkalagadda, R.; Sharma, A. Succinylation of sodium caseinate and its effect on physicochemical and functional properties. *LWT Food Sci. Technol*. 2015, 64, 1270–1277. [CrossRef]

215. Sadh, P.K.; Chawla, P.; Bhandari, L.; Kaushik, R.; Duhan, J.S. In vitro assessment of bio-augmented minerals from peanut oil cakes fermented by through Caco-2 cells. *J. Food Sci. Technol*. 2017, 11, 3640–3649. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

216. Chafle, S.; Parmar, V.; Biya, S. Utilization of vegetable and fruit waste for bio-energy generation. *J. Autom. Control Eng*. 2014, 2, 143–145. [CrossRef]

217. Joshi, V.K.; Sandhu, D.K. Preparation and evaluation of animal feed of an animal feed byproduct produced by solid-state fermentation of apple pomace. *Bioresour. Technol*. 1996, 56, 251–255. [CrossRef]

218. Delcampo, I.; Alegria, I.; Zazpe, M.; Echeverria, M.; Echeverria, I. Diluted acid hydrolysis pretreatment of agri-food wastes for bioethanol production. *Ind. Crops Prod*. 2006, 24, 214–221. [CrossRef]

219. Zheng, Y.; Fan, N.Z.; Zhang, R.; Donghai, W.D. Enzymatic saccharification of dilute acid pretreated saline crops for fermentable sugar production. *Appl. Energy* 2009, 86, 2459–2465. [CrossRef]

220. Kumar, A.; Sadh, P.K.; Kha, S.; Dhuan, J.S. Bio-ethanol production from sweet potato using co-culture of Bacillus pumilus xylanase in lesser duration by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* MTCC170. *J. Adv. Biotechnol*. 2016, 6, 822–828. [CrossRef]

221. Akin-Osanaive, B.C.; Nzelibe, H.C.; Agbaji, A.S. Ethanol Production from Carica papaya Fruit Waste. *Asian J. Biochem*. 2008, 3, 188–193. [CrossRef]

222. Ergun, S.O.; Urek, R.O. Production of ligninolytic enzymes by solid state fermentation using *Pleurotus ostreatus*. *Annu. Agrar. Sci*. 2017, 15, 273–277. [CrossRef]

223. Dhillon, G.S.; Brar, S.K.; Kaur, S.; Verma, M. Screening of agri-industrial wastes for citric acid bioproduction by *Aspergillus niger* NRRL 2001 through solid state fermentation. *J. Sci. Food Agric*. 2013, 93, 1560–1567. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

224. Bhattacharyya, S.S.; Garlapati, V.K.; Banerjee, R. Optimization of laccase production using response surface methodology coupled with differential evolution. *New Biotechnol*. 2011, 28, 31–39. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

225. Karp, S.G.; Faraco, V.; Amore, A.; Biolo, L.; Giangrande, C.; Soccol, V.T.; Pandey, A.; Soccol, C.R. Characterization of laccase isoforms produced by *Pleurotus ostreatus* in solid state fermentation of sugarcane bagasse. *Bioresour. Technol*. 2012, 114, 735–739. [CrossRef]

226. Rastogi, S.; Soni, R.; Kaur, J.; Soni, S.K. Unravelling the capability of *Pyrenophora phaseolae* S-1 for the production of ligno-hemicellulolytic enzyme cocktail and simultaneous bio-delignification of rice straw for enhanced enzymatic saccharification. *Bioresour. Technol*. 2016, 222, 458–469. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

227. Soccol, C.R.; da Costa, E.S.F.; Letti, L.A.J.; Karp, S.G.; Woiciechowski, A.L.; de Souza Vandenberghe, L.P. Recent developments and innovations in solid state fermentation. *Biotechnol. Res. Innov*. 2017, 1, 52–71. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

228. Nagar, S.; Mittal, A.; Kumar, D.; Kumar, L.; Kuhad, R.C.; Gupta, V.K. Hyper production of alkali stable xylanase in lesser duration by *Bacillus pumilus* SV-8SS using wheat bran under solid state fermentation. *New Biotechnol*. 2011, 28, 581–587. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

229. Kumar, M.; Joshi, A.; Kashyap, R.; Khanna, S. Production of xylanase by *Promicromonaspora* spp. MARS with rice straw under non sterile conditions. *Process. Biochem*. 2011, 46, 1614–1618. [CrossRef]

230. Duhan, J.S.; Kumar, A.; Tanwar, S.K. Bioethanol production from starchy part of tuberous plant (potato) using *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* MTCC-170. *Afr. J. Microbiol. Res*. 2013, 7, 5253–5260.

231. Pirotta, R.D.P.B.; Tonelotto, M.; Da Silva Delabona, P.; Fonseca, R.F.; Paixão, D.A.A.; Baleeiro, F.C.F.; Farinas, C.S. Enhancing xylanases production by a new Amazon Forest strain of *Aspergillus oryzae* using solid-state fermentation under controlled operation conditions. *Ind. Crops Prod*. 2013, 45, 465–471. [CrossRef]

232. Irfan, M.; Nadeem, M.; Syed, Q. One-factor-at-a-time (OFAT) optimization of xylanase production from *Trichoderma viride*-IR05 in solid-state fermentation. *J. Radiat. Res. Appl. Sci*. 2014, 7, 317–326. [CrossRef]

233. Pandey, A.K.; Edgard, G.; Negi, S. Optimization of concomitant production of cellulase and xylanase from *Rhizopus oryzae* SN5 through EVOP-factorial design technique and application in sorghum stover based bioethanol production. *Renew. Energ*. 2016, 98, 51–56. [CrossRef]
234. Duhan, J.S.; Mehta, K.; Sadh, P.K.; Saharan, P. Bio-enrichment of phenolics and free radicals scavenging activity of wheat (WH-711) fractions by solid state fermentation with Aspergillus oryzae. Afr. J. Biochem. Res. 2016, 10, 12–19.

235. Cervero, J.M.; Skovgaard, P.A.; Felby, C.; Sørensen, H.R.; Jorgensen, H. Enzymatic hydrolysis and fermentation of palm kernel press cake for production of bioethanol. Enzyme Microb. Technol. 2010, 46, 177–184. [CrossRef]

236. Hashem, M.; Darwish, S.M.I. Production of bioethanol and associated by-products from potato starch residue stream by Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Biomass Bioenergy 2010, 3, 1–7. [CrossRef]  

237. Oliveira, R.; Oliveira, V.; Aracava, K.K.; da Costa Rodrigues, C.E. Effects of the extraction conditions on the yield and composition of rice bran oil extracted with ethanol—A response surface approach. Food Bioprod. Process. 2012, 90, 22–31. [CrossRef]

238. Zhang, H.J.; Zhang, H.; Wang, L.; Guo, X.N. Preparation and functional properties of rice bran proteins from heat-stabilized defatted rice bran. Food Res. Int. 2012, 47, 359–363. [CrossRef]

239. Xia, N.; Wang, J.; Yang, X.; Yin, S.; Qi, J.; Hu, L.; Zhou, X. Preparation and characterization of protein from heat stabilized rice bran using hydrothermal cooking combined with amylase pretreatment. J. Food Eng. 2012, 110, 95–101. [CrossRef]

240. Jamaluddin, A.; Rashid, N.Y.A.; Razak, D.I.A.; Sharifudin, S.A.; Long, K. Effect of fungal fermentation on tyrosinase and elastase inhibition activity in rice bran. Agric. Agric. Sci. Procedia 2014, 2, 252–256. [CrossRef]

241. Saharan, P.; Sadh, P.K.; Duhan, J.S. Comparative assessment of effect of fermentation on phenolics, flavonoids and free radical scavenging activity of commonly used cereals. Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol. 2017, 12, 236–240. [CrossRef]

242. Sadh, P.K.; Saharan, P.; Duhan, J.S. Bioaugmentation of phenolics and antioxidant activity of Oryza sativa by solid state fermentation with Aspergillus spp. Int. Food Res. J. 2017, 24, 1160–1166.

243. Schmidt, C.G.; Furlong, E.B. Effect of particle size and ammonium sulfate concentration on rice bran fermentation with the fungus Rhizopus oryzae. Bioresour. Technol. 2012, 123, 36–41. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

244. Saykhedkar, S.S.; Singhal, R.S. Solid-state fermentation for production of griseofulvin on rice bran using Penicillium griseofulvum. Biotechnol. Progr. 2004, 20, 1280–1284. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

245. Hashem, M.; Darwish, S.M.I. Production of bioethanol and associated by-products from potato starch residue stream by Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Biomass Bioenergy 2010, 3, 1–7. [CrossRef]  

246. Li, Z.; Lu, J.; Yang, Z.; Hu, L.; Zhou, X. Preparation and characterization of protein from heat stabilized rice bran using hydrothermal cooking combined with amylase pretreatment. J. Food Eng. 2012, 110, 95–101. [CrossRef]

247. Oliveira, R.; Oliveira, V.; Aracava, K.K.; da Costa Rodrigues, C.E. Effects of the extraction conditions on the yield and composition of rice bran oil extracted with ethanol—A response surface approach. Food Bioprod. Process. 2012, 90, 22–31. [CrossRef]

248. Zhang, H.J.; Zhang, H.; Wang, L.; Guo, X.N. Preparation and functional properties of rice bran proteins from heat-stabilized defatted rice bran. Food Res. Int. 2012, 47, 359–363. [CrossRef]

249. Xia, N.; Wang, J.; Yang, X.; Yin, S.; Qi, J.; Hu, L.; Zhou, X. Preparation and characterization of protein from heat stabilized rice bran using hydrothermal cooking combined with amylase pretreatment. J. Food Eng. 2012, 110, 95–101. [CrossRef]

250. Jamaluddin, A.; Rashid, N.Y.A.; Razak, D.I.A.; Sharifudin, S.A.; Long, K. Effect of fungal fermentation on tyrosinase and elastase inhibition activity in rice bran. Agric. Agric. Sci. Procedia 2014, 2, 252–256. [CrossRef]

251. Saharan, P.; Sadh, P.K.; Duhan, J.S. Comparative assessment of effect of fermentation on phenolics, flavonoids and free radical scavenging activity of commonly used cereals. Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol. 2017, 12, 236–240. [CrossRef]

252. Sadh, P.K.; Saharan, P.; Duhan, J.S. Bioaugmentation of phenolics and antioxidant activity of Oryza sativa by solid state fermentation with Aspergillus spp. Int. Food Res. J. 2017, 24, 1160–1166.

253. Schmidt, C.G.; Furlong, E.B. Effect of particle size and ammonium sulfate concentration on rice bran fermentation with the fungus Rhizopus oryzae. Bioresour. Technol. 2012, 123, 36–41. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

254. Saykhedkar, S.S.; Singhal, R.S. Solid-state fermentation for production of griseofulvin on rice bran using Penicillium griseofulvum. Biotechnol. Progr. 2004, 20, 1280–1284. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

255. Gao, M.T.; Kaneko, M.; Hirata, M.; Toorisaka, E.; Hano, T. Utilization of rice bran as nutrient source for fermentative lactic acid production. Bioresour. Technol. 2008, 99, 3659–3664. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

256. Li, Z.; Lu, J.; Yang, Z.; Han, L.; Tan, T. Utilization of white rice bran for production of lactic acid. Biomass Bioenergy 2012, 39, 53–58. [CrossRef]

257. Watanabe, M.; Makino, M.; Kaku, N.; Koyama, M.; Nakamura, K.; Sasano, K. Fermentative L−(+−)−lactic acid production from non-sterilized rice washing drainage containing rice bran by a newly isolated lactic acid bacteria without any additions of nutrients. J. Biosci. Bioeng. 2013, 115, 449–452. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

258. Oshoma, C.E.; Ikenebomeh, M.J. Production of Aspergillus niger biomass from rice bran. Pak. J. Nutr. 2005, 4, 32–36.

259. Rajesh, M.J.; Rajesh, L.; Abachire, L.W. Optimization of solid state fermentation conditions for the production of cellulase by using Trichoderma reseesi. Eur. J. Appl. Eng. Sci. Res. 2012, 1, 196–200.

260. Grover, A.; Maninder, A.; Sarao, L.K. Production of fungal amylase and cellulase enzymes via solid state fermentation using Aspergillus oryzae and Trichoderma reesei. Int. J. Adv. Res. Technol. 2013, 2, 108–124.

261. Chima, C.E.; Ilowefah, M.; Muhammad, K. Optimization of Rice Bran Fermentation Conditions Enhanced by Baker’s Yeast for Extraction of Protein Concentrate. Niger. Food J. 2014, 32, 126–132. [CrossRef]

262. Santa, H.S.D.; Santa, O.R.D.; Brand, D.; Vandenbergh, L.P.D.S.; Soccol, C.R. Spore production of Beauveria bassiana from agro-industrial residues. Braz. Arch. Biol. Technol. 2005, 48, 51–60. [CrossRef]

263. Pandey, A.; Soccol, C.R.; Mitchell, D. New developments in solid state fermentation: I-bioproducts and products. Process Biochem. 2000, 35, 1153–1169. [CrossRef]

264. Khiyami, M.A.; Al-Fadual, S.M.; Bahkla, A.H. Polyhydroxyalkanoates production via Bacillus plastic composite support (PCS) biofilm and date palm syrup. J. Med. Plant. Res. 2011, 5, 3312–3320. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

265. Chauhan, K.; Trivedi, U.; Patel, K.C. Statistical screening of medium components by Plackett–Burman design for lactic acid production by Lactobacillus sp. KCP01 using date juice. Bioresour. Technol. 2007, 98, 98–103. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
256. Salah, R.B.; Jaouadi, B.; Chaari, K.; Blecker, C.; Derrouane, C.; Besbes, S. Fermentation of date palm juice by curdlan gum production from Rhizobium radiobacter ATCC 6466™: Purification, rheological and physico-chemical characterization. LWT Food Sci. Technol. 2011, 44, 1026–1034. [CrossRef]

257. Moosavi-Nasab, M.; Yousefi, A. Biotechnological production of cellulose by Gluconacetobacter xylinus from agricultural waste. Iran J. Biotechnol. 2011, 9, 94–101.

258. Davati, N.; Hamidi, E.Z.; Shoja, A.S. Study on producing possibility of amino acids from date palm wastes by two mutant Corynebacterium glutamicum CECT690 & CECT77. FSCT 2007, 4, 55–64.

259. Tavakkoli, M.; Hamidi-Esfahani, Z.; Azizi, M.H. Optimization of Corynebacterium glutamicum glutamic acid production by response surface methodology. Food Bioprocess Technol. 2012, 5, 92–99. [CrossRef]

260. Cheok, C.Y.; Mohd Adzahan, N.; Abdul Rahman, R.; Zainal Abedin, N.H.; Hussain, N.; Sulaiman, R.; Chong, G.H. Current trends of tropical fruit waste utilization. Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr. 2018, 58, 335–361. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

**Sample Availability**: Samples of the compounds are not available from the authors.