

Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology

Bioconversion and valorization of cassava-based industrial wastes to bioethanol gel and its potential application as a clean cooking fuel

--Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	BAB-D-21-00117R2
Article Type:	Research Paper
Section/Category:	Bioenergy
Keywords:	Biofuel; distillation; gelling agent; starchy wastes; Lignocellulosic biomass; Waste utilization
Corresponding Author:	Andin Vita Amalia Universitas Negeri Semarang Semarang, Central Java INDONESIA
First Author:	Andin Vita Amalia
Order of Authors:	Andin Vita Amalia Fidia Fibriana, MSc Talitha Widiatningrum, Dr Risa Dwita Hardianti, MEd
Abstract:	<p>Bioethanol gel is gaining more attention for clean cooking fuel as green technology and partial replacement of burning the biomass for cooking purposes. The conversion of tapioca flour wastes to bioethanol and its production to bioethanol gel has not been performed. Tapioca flour waste is rich in sugar, and it is promising for the low-cost biomass for bioethanol production. The production of bioethanol from cassava peels and onggok and its bioethanol gel formulation was performed in this study. The research was carried out by treating tapioca starch waste with eight treatments and analyzed quantitatively. The viscosity, calorific value, burning time, flame color, and ash content of the bioethanol gel were analyzed. It can be concluded that cassava-based industrial wastes were successfully converted to bioethanol with a 35% yield resulting in a 25% bioethanol concentration at a 2.64 g/L per h conversion rate. The efficiency of bioconversion was 86%, and reflux column distillation could increase the bioethanol concentration to 92%. Carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) was an effective gelling agent and improved the viscosity at 1.338 mPa.s and burning time to 184 min. All samples' ash content was lower than 5%, meaning that it is promising for further application as a household cookstove fuel.</p>
Suggested Reviewers:	<p>Arya Rezagama, Dr Assistant Professor, Universitas Diponegoro arya_tl@ft.undip.ac.id Dr Arya Rezagama is an expert in the field of waste management and environmental engineering. His knowledge could contribute to improve our manuscript content.</p> <p>Nana Kariada Tri Martuti, Dr Associate Professor, Universitas Negeri Semarang nanakariada@mail.unnes.ac.id Dr. Nana Kariada Tri Martuti has an expertise in the field of environmental science. She could give us the idea to improve the quality of the manuscript.</p> <p>Hastuti Hastuti, Dr Associate Professor, STKIP Pembangunan Indonesia: Sekolah Tinggi Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan Pembangunan Indonesia Makassar tutibio_03@yahoo.com Dr. Hastuti is an expert in Biological treatment of waste.</p> <p>R Susanti, Dr Professor, Universitas Negeri Semarang Fakultas Matematika dan Ilmu Pengetahuan Alam r.susanti@mail.unnes.ac.id Prof. Dr. Susanti is an expert in the field of general Biology. She might give new insight</p>

	on our manuscript.
Opposed Reviewers:	
Response to Reviewers:	<p>Reviewer #1:</p> <p>(1)Remove the word 'yeast' before <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> (Section 3.3). Answer: we have removed it</p> <p>(2)Change the description of Table 4 (i.e it should be initial lignin concentration before delignification) Answer: we have changed the table caption to initial lignin concentration before and after pretreatment.</p> <p>(3)As cost analysis is haven't done, kindly remove the word "low cost attempt" from highlights. There are lot things to be considered for cost calculation. Mere using a cheap substrate does not make the process cost effective. Answer: Thank you for your suggestions, we have removed the low-cost highlight in this manuscript</p> <p>(4)The length of highlights no. 1, 3 ,4 should be reduced. Too much words has been used. Answer: Thank you, we have edited the highlights to be shorter</p> <p>The article should be considered for publication after these corrections.</p> <p>Reviewer #2: Though the authors attempted to revised the paper, most of my pervious comments were overlooked and no proper revisions/justification is provided to the my concerns. Majorly, the introduction section is poorly written and hence, need to be re-written to address my comment on previous version of the paper. Similarly, serious attention should be paid to my all previous comments. Besides, the English of the needs to be improved. The authors should get the paper proofread by language professional (such as Elsevier language editing service) Answer: Thank you for your kind suggestions, we have carefully looked at the manuscript based on your comments this time, we tried to edit it according your concerns. The introduction part was re-written. Also, we have followed your previous comments. The proofread was also performed. Hopefully now it is more readable and suitable for publication.</p> <p>NoCommentAnswer</p> <p>1Title of the paper is little long, try to make a short titleWe have edited the title Bioconversion and valorization of cassava-based industrial wastes to bioethanol gel by simple fermentation</p> <p>2Introduction: in general, the Introduction should systematically discuss the facts to support the idea of the paper being presented. Also, highlighting the research gaps, novelty as well as authors' approach to address the identified problem should clearly be reflected in the introduction part. Remember, Introduction is the first part of the paper that should be impressive to create interest in readers. Hence, re-write the introduction section.The introduction part was edited and re-written. We started the Introduction from the cooking problems and bioethanol as alternative clean cooking fuel. Then, we wrote the tapioca flour wastes as an alternative source of biomass for bioethanol production. The fermentation using tapioca flour wastes for bioethanol synthesis is still limited, and the results are still not optimized. The pretreatment using enzymes is also pricey. Therefore, we address simple pretreatment and fermentation in our research. Moreover, the bioethanol gel formulation using the bioethanol produced from tapioca flour wastes has not been well recorded. Therefore, our research presumably can fill in the research gap in this issue.</p> <p>3Material and methods: Ln 85-88: provide details of characterization/identification of yeast used. Else, cite the paper where the same strain was earlier used.</p>

Ln 94: "Onggok powder was also air" sentence looks wrong.

Ln 99: cite the source from where the Delignification protocols were adopted. also, use of NaOH for Delignification needs to be justified.

We have provided the identification method Line: 113-119.

The isolate was identified by sending the isolates to the Laboratory of Microbiology and Biochemistry, Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia. According to conventional yeast identification methods, it was identified based on the morphology, sporulation, and fermentation characteristics (Kreger-van Rij, 2013). The isolate was also tested for the ability to use mannitol and maltose in the medium. The isolate did not grow on these sugars; therefore, it was considered to be *S. cerevisiae*.

Yes, it is actually onggok, not onggok powder, we have revised it (Ln 125)

Onggok was air-dried and ground to get a smaller powder size.

The source was added to the method (Ln 140 and Ln 147).

Separately, the dry powders (125 g) were then treated by delignification by adding 3000 mL sterilized distilled water and 350 mL NaOH (10% v/v) (Heriyanti, 2020; Jung et al., 2018).

Delignification was performed by heating and stirring at 160 °C for 30 min.

Subsequently, the mixture was filtered using a vacuum pump and filter paper (Whatman No. 1). The filtered residue was washed using sterilized distilled water until neutral pH was obtained. The process was then continued by drying the residue in an oven at 105 °C for 2 h. The delignified powders were again ground and sieved to obtain a fine powder. Next, the hydrolysis of delignified cassava peel powder and cassava pomace powder was done by mixing 250 g of powder with 300 mL 15% (v/v) HCl. The mixture was heated at 100 °C for 2 h (Sutiyono, 2017).

4Result and Discussion:

Ln: 167: "The saccharification of cassava pulp by....." why this is discussed here. if writing, it should be linked with the rest of the text in the para.

Ln 175 -179: discussion with previous reports should be logical and should indicate some comparative assessments. Just writing the results of previous papers without any comparison does not work here. need revision.

* Besides the data given in figure, some major data points should also be included in the text.

Ln 181: "significantly higher" show the data along with p-values etc.,

overall, the result and discussion section is weak. Try to explain your results with data along with proper discussion in light of the previous similar studies.

We have re-wrote for the section 3.2. Pretreatment and saccharification of cassava-based industrial wastes. We emphasize more in the treatment analysis the importance and drawbacks in this method

We have improved the discussion by comparing our results with other research findings. Some major data points were also included by citing the tables and figures data.

5What was the yield of ethanol from casava and onggok? did you mention it in the paper. I could not see35%, we have added the information in Table 5

6 Conclusion: not good. should be more logical, include some perspectives also.Yes, we have already edited

7Add some yield values in the abstract and conclusion sectionsYes, we have already

edited

Universitas Negeri Semarang
Semarang, Central Java, 50229 Indonesia
Email: andinvita@mail.unnes.ac.id

June 25, 2021

Dear Prof. Dr. Ching Hou,
Editor-in-Chief
Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology

I am Andin Vita Amalia as the corresponding author, sending the revised version of an original research article entitled *Bioconversion and valorization of cassava-based industrial wastes to bioethanol gel and its potential application as a clean cooking fuel* by Amalia et al. to be re-considered for publication in *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology*. We have followed the instructions from the reviewers. This research was intended to be applied in the traditional bioethanol production by local communities in Central Java, Indonesia. We attempted the simplest and easiest method that can be used by the community. Moreover, this research result will have great impact to the provincial government policy which regulate the bioethanol production from wastes for household cooking fuel. Previously, the government prevented the bioethanol production in the excess amount as the application of the alcohol was not clear and often misconducted to be human consumption.

Therefore, this manuscript reports the bioethanol production from cassava peels and cassava pomace using simple hydrolysis and simple fermentation as it is a basis of household fuel. We used our local *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* IPA1 obtained from a local traditional bioethanol industry in Central Java, Indonesia. The hydrolysis and saccharification process of cassava-based industrial wastes used a chemical method to obtain sugars to apply fermentation further. The ethanol produced was then recovered by the simple reflux batch distillation method, and the ethanol yield was subjected to formulate bioethanol gel. Bioethanol gel is gaining popularity in Central Java, Indonesia, as an alternative biofuel for the cooking and catering business since it has a long burning time and combustion efficiency. A low-cost method for bioethanol production and recovery is necessary. Therefore, to our best knowledge, there are only a few reports on this research using complete method of cassava peels and pomace hydrolysis, fermentation, distillation, and bio gel formulation in Indonesia. Cassava is one of the most staple food and abundant plant in Indonesia. The publications we found has only discussed about the production of the bioethanol itself, or the biogel production from any bioethanol or ethanol. There is no simultaneous attempt to use the bioethanol produced from the fermentation process.

Also, there are many cassava-based industries and tapioca flour industries, and as a developing country, Indonesia will be facing more challenges for the energy occurring in the coming years, as it does not have enough oil reservoirs. Such research will open the chance to develop an alternative household energy source at a low cost. We believe that our manuscript is appropriate for publication by *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology*. It reports about bioconversion of biomass to bioethanol by simple fermentation, which are included in the field of Microbiology, Agricultural Wastes Utilization, Biomass Conversion, and Biofuels as stated under the title of the aims and scope appeal to the readership of *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology*.

Finally, this manuscript does not contain any experiments using plant, animal, and human studies. This manuscript has not been published and is not under consideration for publication elsewhere. Also, we have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Thank you for your consideration of this revised manuscript. Please direct all communication concerning this manuscript to me at my email mentioned above.

Sincerely yours,

Andin Vita Amalia
Assistant Professor in Biotechnology

Reviewer #1:

- (1) Remove the word 'yeast' before *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Section 3.3).
Answer: we have removed it
- (2) Change the description of Table 4 (i.e it should be initial lignin concentration before delignification)
Answer: we have changed the table caption to initial lignin concentration before and after pretreatment.
- (3) As cost analysis is haven't done, kindly remove the word "low cost attempt" from highlights. There are lot things to be considered for cost calculation. Mere using a cheap substrate does not make the process cost effective.
Answer: Thank you for your suggestions, we have removed the low-cost highlight in this manuscript
- (4) The length of highlights no. 1, 3 ,4 should be reduced. Too much words has been used.
Answer: Thank you, we have edited the highlights to be shorter

The article should be considered for publication after these corrections.

Reviewer #2: Though the authors attempted to revised the paper, most of my pervious comments were overlooked and no proper revisions/justification is provided to the my concerns. Majorly, the introduction section is poorly written and hence, need to be re-written to address my comment on previous version of the paper. Similarly, serious attention should be paid to my all previous comments. Besides, the English of the needs to be improved. The authors should get the paper proofread by language professional (such as Elsevier language editing service)

Answer: Thank you for your kind suggestions, we have carefully looked at the manuscript based on your comments this time, we tried to edit it according your concerns. The introduction part was re-written. Also, we have followed your previous comments. The proofread was also performed. Hopefully now it is more readable and suitable for publication.

No	Comment	Answer
1	Title of the paper is little long, try to make a short title	We have edited the title Bioconversion and valorization of cassava-based industrial wastes to bioethanol gel by simple fermentation
2	Introduction: in general, the Introduction should systematically discuss the facts to support the idea of the paper being presented. Also, highlighting the research gaps, novelty as well as authors' approach to address the identified problem should clearly be reflected in the introduction part. Remember, Introduction is the first part of the paper that should be impressive to create interest in readers. Hence, re-write the introduction section.	The introduction part was edited and re-written. We started the Introduction from the cooking problems and bioethanol as alternative clean cooking fuel. Then, we wrote the tapioca flour wastes as an alternative source of biomass for bioethanol production. The fermentation using tapioca flour wastes for bioethanol synthesis is still limited, and the results are still not optimized. The pretreatment using enzymes is also pricey. Therefore, we address simple pretreatment and fermentation in our research. Moreover, the bioethanol gel formulation using the bioethanol produced from tapioca flour wastes has not been well recorded. Therefore, our research presumably can fill in the research gap in this issue.
3	Material and methods: Ln 85-88: provide details of characterization/identification of yeast used. Else, cite the paper where the same strain was earlier used.	We have provided the identification method Line: 113-119. The isolate was identified by sending the isolates to the Laboratory of Microbiology and Biochemistry, Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia. According to conventional yeast identification methods, it was identified based on the morphology, sporulation, and fermentation characteristics (Kreger-van Rij, 2013). The isolate was also tested for the ability to use mannitol and maltose in the medium. The isolate did not grow on these sugars; therefore, it was considered to be <i>S. cerevisiae</i> .

	<p>Ln 94: "Onggok powder was also air" sentence looks wrong.</p> <p>Ln 99: cite the source from where the Delignification protocols were adopted. also, use of NaOH for Delignification needs to be justified.</p>	<p>Yes, it is actually onggok, not onggok powder, we have revised it (Ln 125) <i>Onggok</i> was air-dried and ground to get a smaller powder size.</p> <p>The source was added to the method (Ln 140 and Ln 147). Separately, the dry powders (125 g) were then treated by delignification by adding 3000 mL sterilized distilled water and 350 mL NaOH (10% v/v) (Heriyanti, 2020; Jung et al., 2018). Delignification was performed by heating and stirring at 160 °C for 30 min. Subsequently, the mixture was filtered using a vacuum pump and filter paper (Whatman No. 1). The filtered residue was washed using sterilized distilled water until neutral pH was obtained. The process was then continued by drying the residue in an oven at 105 °C for 2 h. The delignified powders were again ground and sieved to obtain a fine powder. Next, the hydrolysis of delignified cassava peel powder and cassava pomace powder was done by mixing 250 g of powder with 300 mL 15% (v/v) HCl. The mixture was heated at 100 °C for 2 h (Sutiyono, 2017).</p>
4	<p>Result and Discussion:</p> <p>Ln: 167: "The saccharification of cassava pulp by....." why this is discussed here. if writing, it should be linked with the rest of the text in the para.</p> <p>Ln 175 -179: discussion with previous reports should be logical and should indicate some comparative assessments. Just writing the results of previous papers without any comparison does not work here. need revision.</p> <p>* Besides the data given in figure, some major data points should also be included in the text.</p> <p>Ln 181: "significantly higher" show the data along with p-values etc.,</p> <p>overall, the result and discussion section is weak. Try to explain your results with data</p>	<p>We have re-wrote for the section 3.2. Pretreatment and saccharification of cassava-based industrial wastes. We emphasize more in the treatment analysis the importance and drawbacks in this method</p> <p>We have improved the discussion by comparing our results with other research findings. Some major data points were also included by citing the tables and figures data.</p>

	along with proper discussion in light of the previous similar studies.	
5	What was the yield of ethanol from casava and onggok? did you mention it in the paper. I could not see	35%, we have added the information in Table 5
6	Conclusion: not good. should be more logical, include some perspectives also.	Yes, we have already edited
7	Add some yield values in the abstract and conclusion sections	Yes, we have already edited

Highlights

- Cassava peels and *onggok* bioconversion to bioethanol was successfully done
- The reflux column distillation increased the bioethanol concentration up to 92%
- CMC was a perfect gelling agent for bioethanol gel formulation
- The bioethanol gel (burning time 180 min and ash <5%) is promising for household biofuel

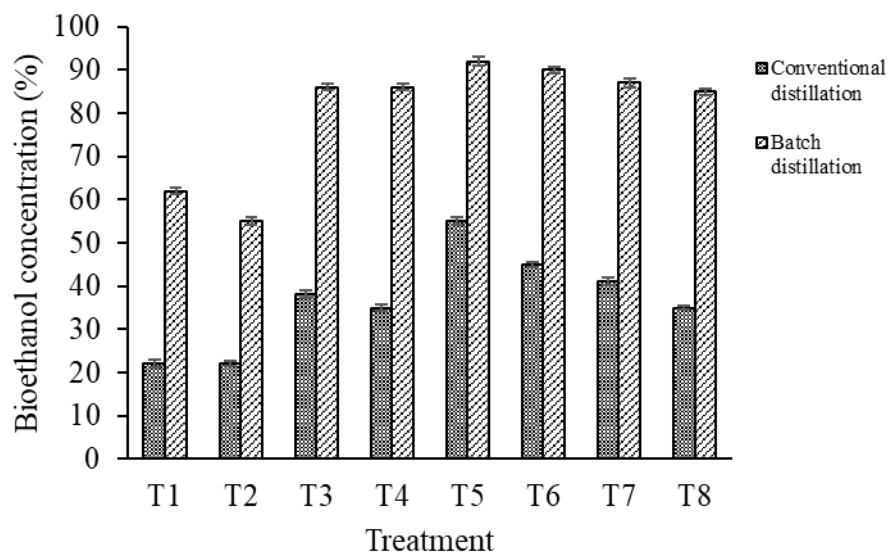


Figure 1. Bioethanol production from various fermentation treatment parameters and comparison between conventional distillation and batch distillation methods.

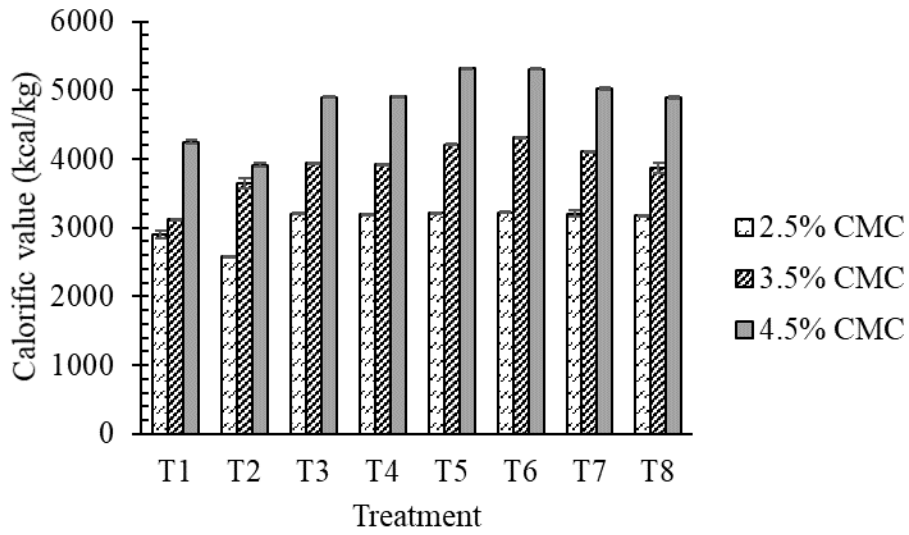


Figure 2. The calorific value of bioethanol gels with various concentrations of carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) at 2.5%, 3.5%, and 4.5%.

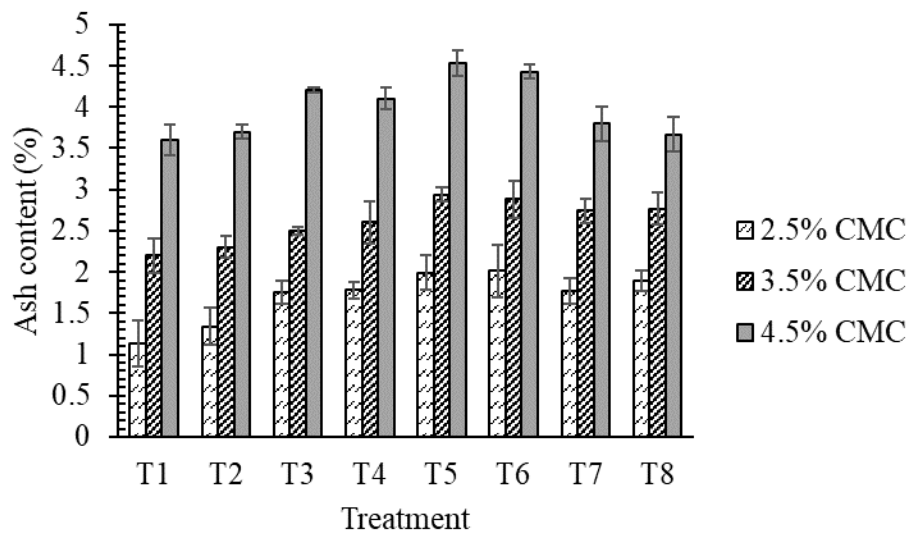


Figure 3. Ash content as results of burning of bioethanol gels with various concentrations of carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) at 2.5%, 3.5%, and 4.5%.

Table 1. Fermentation treatments by varying filtrate composition and starter culture inoculation

Code	Filtrate composition	Starter culture
T1	A mixture of 1:1 cassava peel and <i>onggok</i> filtrates	Not added
T2	<i>Onggok</i> filtrate	Not added
T3	A mixture of 1:1 cassava peel and <i>onggok</i> filtrates	Added 24 h before the incubation of the fermentation process
T4	<i>Onggok</i> filtrate	Added 24 h before the incubation of the fermentation process
T5	A mixture of 1:1 cassava peel and <i>onggok</i> filtrates	Added on the first day of incubation of the fermentation process
T6	<i>Onggok</i> filtrate	Added on the first day of incubation of the fermentation process
T7	A mixture of 1:1 cassava peel and <i>onggok</i> filtrates	Added 24 h after the day of incubation of fermentation process
T8	<i>Onggok</i> filtrate	Added 24 h after the day of incubation of fermentation process

Table 1. Chemical composition of cassava peels and cassava pomace (% , w/w air-dried materials)

Component	Cassava peels	Cassava pomace
Fibers	65.4 ± 2.4	35.9 ± 1.1
Cellulose	37.6 ± 2.2	18.3 ± 0.3
Hemicellulose	37.1 ± 3.6	4.8 ± 0.1
Lignin	17.3 ± 0.5	2.8 ± 0.2
Ash	4.5 ± 0.2	1.9 ± 0.1
Moisture content	60.3 ± 3.2	48.1 ± 0.2

Table 3. Lignin content of cassava based-industrial wastes before and after delignification process and acid hydrolysis

Biomass	Initial lignin concentration before delignification (% w/w)	Initial lignin concentration after delignification (% w/w)	Lignin concentration after acid hydrolysis (% w/w)	Lignin removal efficiency (%)
Cassava peels	17.3 ± 0.5 ^b	9.2 ± 0.3 ^b	3.3 ± 0.1 ^b	80.9 ± 2.7 ^b
Cassava pomace	2.8 ± 0.2 ^a	0.7 ± 0.1 ^a	0.1 ± 0.0 ^a	73.6 ± 0.1 ^a

Values in columns with different letter (superscripts) are significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

Values are mean ± SD for triplicate measurements.

Table 4. Reducing sugars concentration of cassava based-industrial wastes after pretreatment and hydrolysis processes

Biomass	Initial reducing sugars before delignification (g/L)	Initial reducing sugars after delignification (g/L)	Reducing sugars concentration after acid hydrolysis (g/L)	Reducing sugar yield (%)
Cassava peels	0.11 ± 0.7 ^a	5.89 ± 0.33 ^b	10.87 ± 0.43 ^b	79.2 ± 1.2 ^b
Cassava pomace	1.25 ± 0.3 ^b	4.14 ± 0.72 ^a	9.93 ± 0.28 ^a	68.3 ± 0.9 ^a

Values in columns with different letter (superscripts) are significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

Values are mean ± SD for triplicate measurements.

Table 5. Analysis of bioconversion of cassava-based industrial wastes to bioethanol by simple fermentation using *S. cerevisiae* IPA1 at 10% (v/v) for 7 days at room temperature (30 ± 2 °C)

Treatment	Bioethanol yield (%)	Remaining sugar concentration (%)	Remaining HCl concentration (%)	Bioethanol concentration (%)	Bioethanol productivity rate (g/L per h)	Bioethanol conversion efficiency (%)
T1	22	3.62	0.13	14.28	1.32	41.21
T2	22	3.55	0.13	14.40	1.65	41.95
T3	25	3.52	0.12	14.15	1.08	41.03
T4	24	3.50	0.12	14.50	1.52	42.07
T5	35	2.15	0.08	25.85	2.64	86.26
T6	32	3.25	0.09	20.66	2.43	73.24
T7	30	3.32	0.10	15.75	1.97	44.11
T8	24	3.35	0.11	12.31	0.67	33.49

Table 6. The viscosity of bioethanol gel in different concentration of carboxymethylcellulose (CMC)

Treatment	Final bioethanol concentration %	Viscosity value (mPa.s)		
		2.5% CMC	3.5 % CMC	4.5 % CMC
T1	62	660.77 ± 1.22	762.55 ± 0.87	901.34 ± 0.22
T2	55	586.19 ± 0.79	676.51 ± 0.34	799.65 ± 0.76
T3	86	916.45 ± 0.76	1.057.58 ± 0.21	1.254.99 ± 0.34
T4	86	918.33 ± 0.68	1.046.57 ± 0.29	1.249.89 ± 0.77
T5	92	980.37 ± 0.65	1.131.32 ± 1.23	1.337.62 ± 0.39
T6	90	959.06 ± 1.02	1.106.21 ± 1.01	1.308.11 ± 0.14
T7	87	927.11 ± 0.99	1.069.31 ± 0.45	1.264.52 ± 0.33
T8	85	905.77 ± 0.94	1.045.22 ± 0.23	1.235.42 ± 0.46

Values are mean ± SD for triplicate measurements.

Table 7. Characteristics of bioethanol gels after burning

Treatment	Burning time (min)			Flame color	Residue
	2.5% CMC	3.5 % CMC	4.5 % CMC		
T1	30.2 ± 2.1	47.5 ± 1.2	75.3 ± 1.1	Blue	++
T2	32.5 ± 2.2	42.3 ± 2.5	78.2 ± 1.5	Blue	++
T3	45.4 ± 1.3	76.4 ± 3.1	100.0 ± 2.1	Blue	++
T4	48.3 ± 1.3	78.2 ± 2.0	100.5 ± 2.0	Blue	++
T5	75.5 ± 1.5	101.2 ± 1.0	184.4 ± 3.4	Blue	+
T6	82.2 ± 3.2	103.5 ± 1.3	183.0 ± 2.5	Blue	++
T7	78.6 ± 2.4	120.5 ± 1.5	179.0 ± 3.2	Blue	+
T8	71.5 ± 1.4	86.0 ± 2.2	135.3 ± 2.1	Blue	+

Values are mean ± SD for triplicate measurements.

1 **1) Title:**

2 Bioconversion and valorization of cassava-based industrial wastes to bioethanol gel and
3 its potential application as a clean cooking fuel

4 **2) Authors' name and Affiliations:**

5 Andin Vita Amalia^{1*}, Fidia Fibriana^{1,2}, Talitha Widiatningrum³, Risa Dwita Hardianti¹

6 ¹Department of Integrated Science, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences,
7 Universitas Negeri Semarang, Kampus Sekaran, Gunungpati Semarang Central Java
8 50229 Indonesia (Permanent Address)

9 ²Faculty of Agro-Industry, Prince of Songkla University, Hatyai Campus, Hatyai
10 Songkhla 90110 Thailand (Present Address)

11 ³Department of Biology, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, Universitas
12 Negeri Semarang, Kampus Sekaran, Gunungpati Semarang Central Java 50229
13 Indonesia (Permanent Address)

14 **3) Corresponding author**

15 Mrs. Andin Vita Amalia, M.Sc.

16 Corresponding author email address: andinvita@mail.unnes.ac.id

17

18 **Abstract**

19 Bioethanol gel is gaining more attention for clean cooking fuel as green technology and
20 partial replacement of burning the biomass for cooking purposes. The conversion of tapioca
21 flour wastes to bioethanol and its production to bioethanol gel has not been performed. Tapioca
22 flour waste is rich in sugar, and it is promising for the low-cost biomass for bioethanol
23 production. The production of bioethanol from cassava peels and *onggok* and its bioethanol gel
24 formulation was performed in this study. The research was carried out by treating tapioca starch
25 waste with eight treatments and analyzed quantitatively. The viscosity, calorific value, burning
26 time, flame color, and ash content of the bioethanol gel were analyzed. It can be concluded that
27 cassava-based industrial wastes were successfully converted to bioethanol with a 35% yield
28 resulting in a 25% bioethanol concentration at a 2.64 g/L per h conversion rate. The efficiency
29 of bioconversion was 86%, and reflux column distillation could increase the bioethanol
30 concentration to 92%. Carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) was an effective gelling agent and
31 improved the viscosity at 1.338 mPa.s and burning time to 184 min. All samples' ash content
32 was lower than 5%, meaning that it is promising for further application as a household
33 cookstove fuel.

34 Keyword: biofuel, distillation, gelling agent, starchy wastes, lignocellulosic biomass, waste
35 utilization

36

37

38 1. Introduction

39 Cooking is essential in life, and there are still approximately 2.4 billion people in the
40 world who rely on biomass such as firewood, charcoal, and crop residues as the primary source
41 for traditional cookstoves (Rehfuess, 2006). Bioethanol production is now gaining attention
42 because of its potential as green technology and partial replacement of burning the biomass
43 and fossil fuels to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, inefficient combustion, and deforestation
44 only for cooking purposes (Murphy & Kendall, 2015; Öhgren et al., 2007; Oketch et al., 2012;
45 Rehfuess et al., 2006). Bioethanol gel is a clean cooking fuel and has several advantages, such
46 as non-smoky, non-volatile, burns slowly with a high heat output, and its high viscosity
47 minimizes the danger of its distribution to avoid an accidental spillage (Hermawan &
48 Sudarmanta, 2018; Oketch, 2014). Bioethanol gel has shown great potential to meet household
49 cooking needs and is now becoming popular in the community since it reduces the drawbacks
50 of liquid ethanol for distribution and utilization. Also, it is suitable for cooking, heating for fast
51 food in restaurants, traveling, and catering (Ariyani, 2013; Hermawan, 2018). Moreover, the
52 conversion of liquid bioethanol to the gel form is easy by adding a thickener agent, such as a
53 carbopol and carboxymethyl cellulose (Ariyani, 2013).

54 One of the efforts to maintain bioethanol availability is converting lignocellulosic
55 wastes to bioethanol using the fermentation technique. The green bioethanol production by
56 fermentation method usually employs *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Zymomonas mobilis*, and
57 *Pichia stipitis* (Cha et al., 2012; Inal & Yiğitoğlu, 2011). In this technique, the raw materials
58 are usually obtained from sap, sugar palm, sweet potato, cassava, bamboo, rice straw, bagasse,
59 and corn cobs. However, non-edible biomass is preferred to reduce the competition with food
60 production. Therefore, some bioethanol productions recently used agro-industrial wastes,
61 including cassava peels, banana peels, pineapple peels, and flour wastes (Baeyens et al., 2015;
62 Binod et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2012; H. Yang et al., 2019).

63 In this case, the flour wastes are favorable since the world demand for tapioca flour
64 increases by 10% every year. In Indonesia, the production of tapioca tubers is nearly 20 million
65 tons from 1.93 million hectares per year. Indonesia is also the world's second-largest tapioca
66 starch producer, which produces not less than 2 million tons per year, with Lampung Province
67 holding over 80% of the total production. The cassava productivity can reach 100 tons/ha
68 (Sukara et al., 2020; Unteawati & Mutaqin, 2018). Tapioca starch production is divided into
69 three categories, i.e., traditional factory, semi-traditional factory, and modern factory. Most
70 modern and semi-traditional factories have been well equipped to optimize starch factory waste
71 utilization. The traditional one still lacks waste management, leading to increased tapioca
72 industrial residues, such as cassava peels and cassava pomace.

73 Improper handling of these starchy wastes can cause environmental problems.
74 Generally, the piles of cassava peels and pomace are dumped in a pond next to the factory.
75 Then, many farmers who raise cows, chickens, and ducks take the waste and use them as animal
76 feed. However, the farmers could not carry all wastes, leading to the unpleasant aroma, dirty,
77 and clogging the drainage. The companies have conducted various efforts to reduce tapioca
78 industrial residues by the bioconversion into value-added products, including organic fertilizers
79 and low-grade Asia flour (Indrianeu & Singkawijaya, 2019). Nevertheless, the attempt to
80 convert these wastes to biofuel is still limited. The starch-rich waste of tapioca flour industries
81 or so-called *onggok* in the local Indonesian language is rich in sugar and can be utilized in
82 bioethanol production. Also, the cassava peels is urgently potential lignocellulosic biomass for
83 bioethanol synthesis. In this matter, *onggok* and cassava peels are a potential alternative source
84 of starchy and lignocellulosic biomass to support the low-cost production process.

85 The significant limitations of current bioethanol production processes using the
86 lignocellulosic biomass are biomass pretreatment technology, the cost of cellulolytic enzymes
87 for hydrolysis, and the yeast strain performance for fermentation (Olofsson et al., 2008; Rajak

88 & Banerjee, 2018). Our previous preliminary research result showed that *onggok* simple
89 fermentation employing *S. cerevisiae* produced 6.2% ethanol after eight incubation days
90 without distillation (Heriyanti et al., 2020). Also, the duration of fermentation usually takes 7-
91 14 days. The conversion of cassava peels to bioethanol by fermentation was performed for 7-
92 8 days (Oyeleke et al., 2012). Various fermentation periods for converting cassava peels and
93 *onggok* to bioethanol, i.e., 7, 14, 21, and 28 days resulted in a 55% alcohol optimum at seven
94 days (Amalia et al., 2021). The bioethanol thickening process by adding carboxymethyl
95 cellulose (CMC) was influential for gel fuel characteristics. The calorific value will increase
96 by adding the amount of CMC (Hermawan, 2018). **Reportedly, the research on the**
97 **bioconversion of cassava-based industrial wastes, such as cassava peels and cassava pomace**
98 **(onggok) to bioethanol and its bioethanol gel formulation and their characterization, have not**
99 **been well recorded. Therefore, in this research, the tapioca flour starchy wastes and**
100 **lignocellulosic bioethanol generation comprise three steps: pretreatment to degrade starch and**
101 **lignin with alkaline, the hydrolysis of polymers process using acid into fermentable sugars, and**
102 **the fermentation process using microorganisms. Simple pretreatment and fermentation should**
103 **be performed for bioethanol production to reduce the cost, and the use of these chemicals can**
104 **reduce the cost of pricy enzymes (Sutiyono et al., 2017).** The improvement of bioethanol yield
105 production from *onggok* and cassava peels by separate hydrolysis and fermentation (SHF),
106 reflux column distillation to extract more bioethanol, bioethanol gel formulation from
107 bioethanol produced, and bioethanol gel characterization were conducted in this study.

108 **2. Materials and methods**

109 **2.1. Materials**

110 Cassava peels and cassava pomace or *onggok* were obtained from the local tapioca flour
111 industry PT Suryapati Kencana, Pati, Indonesia. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* IPA1 was derived
112 from the culture collection kept in 30 % (v/v) glycerol stock at -20 °C in the Laboratory of

113 Integrated Science, Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia. It was initially obtained from a
114 local bioethanol industry in Central Java and purified and maintained. The isolate was
115 identified by sending the isolates to the Laboratory of Microbiology and Biochemistry,
116 Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia. According to conventional yeast identification
117 methods, it was identified based on the morphology, sporulation, and fermentation
118 characteristics (Kreger-van Rij, 2013). The isolate was also tested for the ability to use mannitol
119 and maltose in the medium. The isolate did not grow on these sugars; therefore, it was
120 considered to be *S. cerevisiae*. All chemicals include CMC, ethanol, yeast growth media, were
121 purchased from local distributors of Merck (Germany), Oxoid (England), HiMedia (India) with
122 analytical grade.

123 2.2. Cassava-based industrial wastes chemical characteristics

124 Cassava peels were washed from soil and other contaminants. Then it was cut into 2-5
125 cm and washed to eliminate sand and other contaminants. The peel was air-dried and ground
126 to 0.40 to 0.45 mm. Onggok was air-dried and ground to get a smaller powder size. Both
127 samples were kept in clean and tight containers before analyses. The chemical compositions of
128 samples were determined using the test method following the Technical Association of the
129 Pulp and Paper Industry (TAPPI). The water content, ash content, and moisture content were
130 measured. The amount of lignin, cellulose, hemicellulose, and holocellulose were assessed
131 following respective standard methods: T222 om-06, Chlorination, and Kurschner-Hoffner
132 Methods. All experiments were conducted in triplicates (Aripin et al., 2013).

133 2.3. Cassava-based industrial wastes pretreatment and saccharification

134 Cassava peels were cut into small pieces ($5 \times 5 \text{ cm}^2$) and soaked for three days in
135 sterilized distilled water. Then, it was dried at room temperature ($30 \pm 2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) for five days. The
136 cassava peels were then ground using a blender until a fine powder was obtained. Onggok was
137 air-dried for 5 days and ground to get a smaller powder size to a moisture content of 10.5%.

138 After drying, cassava peels powder and *onggok* powder were sieved using a sieve with 40 mesh
139 size. Then, the powders were separately dried in an oven at 105 °C for 2 h. Separately, the dry
140 powders (125 g) were then treated by delignification by adding 3000 mL sterilized distilled
141 water and 350 mL NaOH (10% v/v) (Heriyanti, 2020; Jung et al., 2018). Delignification was
142 performed by heating and stirring at 160 °C for 30 min. Subsequently, the mixture was filtered
143 using a vacuum pump and filter paper (Whatman No. 1). The filtered residue was washed using
144 sterilized distilled water until neutral pH was obtained. The process was then continued by
145 drying the residue in an oven at 105 °C for 2 h. The delignified powders were again ground
146 and sieved to obtain a fine powder. Next, the hydrolysis of delignified cassava peels powder,
147 and cassava pomace powder was done by mixing 250 g of powder with 300 mL 15% (v/v)
148 HCl. The mixture was heated at 100 °C for 2 h (Sutiyono, 2017). The filtrate was further used
149 for the fermentation processes. The amount of released glucose was measured using the glucose
150 oxidase or peroxidase assay, whereas reducing sugar was measured using the dinitrosalicylic
151 acid (DNS) method.

152 **2.4. Yeast strain inoculum preparation**

153 One scrap of 30% (v/v) of glycerol stock was streaked on potato dextrose agar (PDA)
154 and incubated at 37 °C for 2 days. One yeast colony was inoculated into 10 mL potato dextrose
155 broth (PDB) and incubated at 37 °C for 24 h (150 rpm shaking). Then, 10 mL of culture broth
156 was transferred into 90 mL fresh PDB to obtain 10% (v/v). It was then incubated at the same
157 condition for 10 h, reaching OD₆₀₀ at 1.5. The viability of the yeast cells was observed by cell
158 count using the counting chamber, and at this absorbance, the cells reached 5×10^7 cells/mL.
159 The yeast culture broth was withdrawn 10% (v/v) and transferred into a 90 mL fermentation
160 medium.

161 **2.5. Fermentation and bioethanol production**

162 The fermentation for bioethanol production was performed by using the filtrate from

163 the hydrolysis results as the substrate. The pH of the filtrates was adjusted to 4.5 by adding 6M
164 NaOH solution. After pH adjustment, 0.5% (w/v) $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ was added, and the mixture was
165 pasteurized at 80 °C for 15 min. Next, the substrates (90 mL filtrates) were prepared with
166 various treatments in the fermentation process, as shown in Table 1. Then, the filtrates'
167 fermentation was performed at room temperature (30 ± 2 °C) on a rotary shaker at 150 rpm for
168 7 days. The ethanol was then distilled using the reflux column method on the batch distillation
169 initiated at constant reflux (reflux ratio 2). After the unit temperatures stabilized at a stationary
170 state, the distillate samples were removed consecutively and continued until the ethanol was
171 exhausted. The bioethanol concentration was measured by an alcohol meter. The data were
172 presented as the mean of triplicates, and at least three parallel samples were applied in all
173 analytical determinations.

174 **2.6. Formulation of bioethanol gels**

175 Carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) was used as the thickener agent. Three CMC
176 concentrations (2.5%, 3.5%, and 4.5%) were prepared by mixing with distilled water and
177 stirred continuously to reach boiling point. After boiling, the mixture was let to cool down to
178 60 °C. Then, CMC was mixed with bioethanol derived from the production and stirred for 4-6
179 h using a magnetic stirrer. After stirring, the mixture was rest overnight.

180 **2.7. Characteristics test of bioethanol gels**

181 Bioethanol gel was measured for its viscosity using viscometer spindle no 1
182 (Brookfield, model DVII, Engineering Lab, Middleboro, MA). The viscosity of sols was
183 measured using Brookfield viscometer (model DVII, Engineering Laboratories, Middleboro,
184 MA) at room temperature and 20 rpm. The calorific value of bioethanol gel was measured
185 using a calorimeter (Oxygen Bomb Calorimeter 6200, Paar, MO, USA). Then, the combustion
186 test was performed to observe the burning time of the bioethanol gel. Ash content, fire color,

187 and residues were observed during and after burning. The measurement experiment was carried
188 out in triplicate.

189 **3. Results and discussion**

190 **3.1. Chemical characteristics of cassava-based industrial wastes**

191 The chemical composition of cassava peels and cassava pomace were analyzed and
192 summarized in Table 2. The non-starch polysaccharide in cassava peels and cassava pomace
193 are fibers, cellulose, hemicelluloses, and lignin (Djuma'ali et al., 2011). Cassava peels contain
194 higher fibers and other components compared to cassava pomace. The high fibers component
195 in cassava peels (65.4%) represents that the factory used aged cassava since fibers will increase
196 following the age of the plant. The fiber components, including cellulose and hemicellulose,
197 increase cassava-based wastes' capacity to absorb and hold water, resulting in high moisture
198 content at nearly 50% and 60% in cassava pomace and cassava peels, respectively. Besides,
199 cellulose and hemicellulose of cassava pomace were a little lower in this study than those
200 previously reported (35.9%), but the lignin was commonly found in this level ($2.8 \pm 0.2\%$)
201 (Kosugi et al., 2009; Rattanachomsri et al., 2009). Starch was the main polysaccharide in
202 cassava pomace (more than 60% of dry matter). The drying as the preservation method prevents
203 the gelatinization process, thus retaining the physical characteristics of starch, hemicelluloses,
204 and lignin (Salvador et al., 2000). The ash substances of the waste were low, which supports
205 easy hydrolysis (Djuma'ali, 2011). However, the lignin in cassava peels was high (17.3%), and
206 this is the challenge in the step of delignification.

207 **3.2. Pretreatment and saccharification of cassava-based industrial wastes**

208 Several alternative substrates from various wastes could be utilized for bioethanol
209 production, including starchy wastes and lignocellulosic biomass to take care of the residues
210 in an environmentally sustainable process (Gutiérrez-Rivera et al., 2012; Ishola et al., 2014).
211 Cassava-based industrial wastes, including cassava pulp, cassava pomace, and cassava peels,

212 have been utilized as the alternative sources of starchy wastes for bioethanol production using
213 fermentation technique due to its small lignocellulosic fibers' size and high starch content.
214 Cassava peels and *onggok* contain sugars in the form of polysaccharides (starch, lignocellulose,
215 hemicellulose), which are needed to be converted to simple sugars (glucose, maltose, or
216 cellobiose). The conversion will allow the yeast to utilize the nutrients efficiently and transform
217 them into bioethanol effectively.

218 Various pretreatments of lignocellulosic biomass have different effects, and lignin
219 could be removed effectively in alkaline conditions (Steinbach et al., 2017). The composition
220 of lignin in cassava-based industrial wastes was relatively low, especially in cassava pomace.
221 Based on Table 3, the lignin content in the product was sharply reduced, with lignin removal
222 efficiency at 80.9% in cassava peels and 73.6% in cassava pomace. Lignin is a large and
223 complex structure present in the primary cell wall with cross-linked polymers of phenolic
224 monomers, preventing the hydrolysis process (Pérez et al., 2002). In this study, physical
225 grinding, heating, and stirring the biomass in an alkaline hydrolysis pretreatment process
226 effectively enhanced lignin removal. Grinding has the purpose of reducing the cellulose
227 crystallinity to improve biomass digestibility, whereas base hydrolysis utilizes lower
228 temperatures and pressures compared to other pretreatment technologies (Mosier et al., 2005).
229 Also, the alkaline pretreatment causes less sugar degradation compared to the acid processes.
230 However, some lignin remains in the solids phase after the pretreatment, but this method is still
231 regarded as potential since it promises cost-effective lignin pretreatment (Kumar et al., 2009).

232 The pretreatment and hydrolysis aimed to obtain sugars in the form of glucose or
233 disaccharides. The saccharification process of cassava peels and *onggok* produced reducing
234 sugars for further application in the fermentation process. After the hydrolysis process of
235 cassava peels and cassava pomace were performed, the filtrates were evaluated for reducing
236 sugar concentration (g/L). Based on Table 4, the pretreatment and hydrolysis significantly

237 affected the reducing sugar yield at 0.79 g/g dry cassava peels and 0.68 g/g *onggok*.
238 Pretreatment and hydrolysis processes increased reducing sugar concentration compared to the
239 initial concentration, as shown in Table 4. The initial reducing sugars after delignification of
240 cassava peels and cassava pomace using alkaline solution were less than 6%. After acid
241 hydrolysis, the reducing sugars increased up to 10%. Acids such as HCl and H₂SO₄ have been
242 used for the hydrolysis of lignocellulosic materials. Acids are powerful agents but need dilution
243 to reduce their toxicity, corrosive, and hazardous effects (Kumar, 2009). Dilute-acid
244 pretreatment can improve the digestion of cellulose in some research, but the neutralization of
245 pH is necessary when the enzymatic hydrolysis process is needed.

246 Similarly, the acid hydrolysis of cassava peels was performed with 7% HCl, and the
247 degradation of hemicellulose and cellulose was effective (Widyastuti, 2019). Also, the acid
248 hydrolysis of cassava pulp with H₂SO₄ for 30 min and followed by cellulase saccharification
249 at 40 °C for 9 h resulted in glucose at 79.8% (w/w) (Akaracharyana et al., 2011). The purpose
250 of hydrolysis is to obtain glucose where the H⁺ group of HCl will change the fiber from the
251 biomass to the free radical group, bind with the OH⁻ group of the water molecule, and produce
252 glucose. The amount of glucose produced depends on the concentration of the chemical used.
253 However, the hydrolysis process would have been incomplete and leaving some lignocellulose
254 components in the biomass with high crystallinity. In this research, the concentration of soluble
255 sugars in the filtrate was still moderate, with glucose is the most soluble sugar, and the filtrate
256 might contain unknown sugars, xylose, cellobiose, or maltose (Kongkiattikajorn &
257 Sornvoraweatn, 2011).

258 **3.3. Bioconversion of sugars from cassava-based industrial wastes to bioethanol**

259 The fermentation treatments by varying the substrate composition occurred for 7 days,
260 resulting in Treatment 5 (T5) reached the highest bioethanol yield at 35%, whereas the
261 bioethanol concentration before the distillation process was at 25.85%, as shown in Table 5.

262 This result is in line with the previous research of bioethanol synthesis, which produced
263 maximum bioethanol from red seaweed for 5-7 days (Candra et al., 2011). Similarly, another
264 experiment using cassava peels as the carbohydrate source for bioethanol production was
265 performed using *S. cerevisiae* with the highest ethanol production at 6% with 8 days
266 fermentation time (Guntama et al., 2019). A shorter fermentation period was achieved in
267 bioethanol production using cassava bagasse with enzymatic hydrolysis followed by
268 fermentation and distillation, which was performed for only 24 h, and the average ethanol yield
269 was relatively high at 30% (Martinez et al., 2018).

270 In this research, bioethanol production from cassava-based industrial wastes in various
271 treatments for seven days was performed, and the method of batch distillation with a reflux
272 column showed significant results. The reflux column distillation was significantly improved
273 the bioethanol concentration. Also, the batch distillation method of separating bioethanol from
274 the mixture was performed. The results showed that the method was effectively enhanced
275 bioethanol concentration. The separation aimed to remove the impurities obtained from the
276 fermentation process, affecting the quality of the bioethanol product. Bioethanol must meet the
277 standard of ethanol quality regarding the use of bioethanol for bio gel formulation. Also, the
278 consideration of all production stages must be performed to calculate and reduce bioethanol
279 production costs. The choice of the distillation method with low-energy consumption for its
280 unit operation was presented in this research. The conventional distillation process has
281 approximately 5-20% in total thermodynamic efficiency (De Koeijer & Kjelstrup, 2000).

282 On the other hand, the batch distillation using a single column employed in this research
283 was feasible and appropriate for bioethanol production in a small production unit compared to
284 the conventional distillation method. A low-cost ethanol recovery from banana culture waste
285 using the reflux ratio at 2 in a batch distillation unit gave the maximum ethanol concentration
286 at 67% (Coelho et al., 2012). Reflux is widely used in industries that use large-scale distillation

287 columns and fractionators. Reflux refers to the portion of the overhead liquid product from the
288 distillation column returned to the top of the column. The downflowing fluid reflux in the
289 column provides cooling and condensation of the upflowing vapor, increasing the distillation
290 column's efficiency. This reflux column distillation technique is the same as simple distillation,
291 only differs in the repeated condensation process.

292 As shown in Figure 1, all treatments showed efficacy in bioethanol production, reaching
293 a minimum bioethanol concentration at 55% and maximum at 93%. Treatment 5 (T5) and
294 treatment 6 (T6) are significantly higher than other treatments, achieving 93% and 90%,
295 respectively. The addition of starter culture on the day of fermentation (0 h) affected bioethanol
296 production since yeast's growth was in the mid-log phase or ready to convert simple sugars to
297 bioethanol in the filtrate medium. The starter culture can produce high quality and optimum
298 bioethanol yield with consistency and may facilitate bioethanol industrial production
299 (Luangkhlaypho et al., 2014). In this research, *S. cerevisiae* IPA1 used was a defined starter
300 culture obtained from a traditional bioethanol industry in Central Java, Indonesia. *S. cerevisiae*
301 is defined as one of the widely used yeast strains, and even though it is at a household level, it
302 could produce ethanol as the primary fermentation product. Various physiological
303 characteristics, including generally regarded as safe (GRAS) for human consumption, its
304 tolerance to a wide range of pH and optimum at acidic pH, also it is high tolerance the ethanol
305 products make *S. cerevisiae* is advantageous and superior (Lin et al., 2014; Ortiz-Muñiz et al.,
306 2010; Prasertwasu et al., 2014). *S. cerevisiae* grows well over a wide range of pH but grows
307 better in acidic pH due to its ability to neutralize added H⁺ to maintain pH homeostasis in acid
308 stress (Chen et al., 2009). The buffering mechanism could help the cells to accommodate the
309 rapid intracellular pH adjustment (Brandão et al., 2014). Cassava peels gave higher bioethanol
310 at 16% after 7 days of fermentation mediated by *S. cerevisiae* (Isah et al., 2019). *S. cerevisiae*
311 BY4743 was employed in the ethanol fermentation process using the hydrolysate from cassava

312 peels for 36 h, and it gave an ethanol yield of 0.53 g/g suggesting the cassava peels waste
313 potential for bioethanol production (Aruwajoye et al., 2020).

314 **3.4. The viscosity of bioethanol gels**

315 Bioethanol products from various treatments were subjected to bioethanol gel
316 formulation by mixing it with various carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) concentrations at 2.5%,
317 3.5%, and 4.5% (w/v). The results of the viscosity value determination are shown in Table 6.

318 According to Table 6, the higher the CMC concentration, the viscosity level of the
319 bioethanol gel was also higher. In this study, the highest viscosity value was achieved by adding
320 4.5% CMC in Treatment 5 (T5) at 1.338 mPa.s and the lowest value at 586 mPa.s in T2 with
321 2.5% CMC added. The CMC level is inversely proportional to the water content used, which
322 caused the increase in bioethanol gel viscosity. The higher the viscosity value of a solution, the
323 higher the thickness. A high CMC concentration is needed to improve low bioethanol
324 concentration due to the excessive water content in bioethanol products.

325 Carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) plays an essential role as a thickener agent (Santoso
326 et al., 2018). CMC is a linear cellulose polymer ether. It is a biodegradable, colorless, odorless,
327 and non-toxic emulsifier agent in the form of granules or powder that dissolves in water. It
328 does not dissolve in organic solutions with a pH range of 6.5 to 8.0 and stable in the pH range
329 2–10. It can react with heavy metal salts to form an insoluble film in water, transparent, and
330 not react with organic compounds. CMC is widely used in food, chemistry, petroleum, paper
331 making, textiles, and building materials to form subtle textures. The viscosity of CMC can
332 decrease with increasing ionic strength and decrease pH due to its polymer structure (Ariyani,
333 2013; Candido & Gonçalves, 2016; Santoso, 2018; X. H. Yang & Zhu, 2007). CMC and
334 carbopol are often used to effectively formulate bioethanol gels to improve their viscosity
335 (Ariyani, 2013). CMC gave better characteristics in a bioethanol gel formulation, such as
336 burning time, ash content, calorific value, and specific gravity compared to other samples using

337 other thickening agents such as carbopol, and the price is considered more economical (Hanun
338 & Sutjahjo, 2018).

339 **3.5. The calorific value of bioethanol gels**

340 The calorific value of bioethanol gels of all treatments with various
341 carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) concentrations was measured, and the results are presented in
342 Figure 2.

343 The addition of CMC concentration and the high concentration of bioethanol gels can
344 increase the calorific value. Bioethanol concentration in treatment 5 (T5) was 92%, whereas
345 T6 was 90%, significantly gave the highest calorific value at more than 5000 kcal/kg. Besides,
346 the calorific value also has a relationship with water content. High and low heat levels are very
347 much influenced by water content. The low water content will be inversely proportional to the
348 heat content produced in bioethanol gel testing (Ariyani, 2013; Hanun, 2018; X. H. Yang,
349 2007). Carbon and hydrogen in CMC can increase bioethanol gels' calorific value, where
350 burning requires carbon to react with oxygen to produce heat. The carbon bonds in the fuel are
351 mostly obtained from ethanol and CMC. Therefore, the higher the CMC concentration
352 increased the heating value. This result is in line with the optimization results performed to
353 obtain a high calorific value at more than 7000 kcal/kg of bioethanol gels by adding 2.5 g CMC
354 to 96% bioethanol (Hermawan, 2018).

355 **3.6. Burning time, color, and residue of bioethanol gels**

356 The bioethanol gels were analyzed for burning time, color during burning, and residues
357 left after burning. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 6.

358 Based on the results of the analysis with a bioethanol gel weight of 250 g, it can be seen
359 that all treatments could ignite for a long time of about 180 minutes in treatment 5, 6, and 7
360 (T5, T6, T7). The flame color of the bioethanol gel burning was blue, and there was no
361 relationship between carboxymethylcellulose concentration with flame color. However, CMC

362 concentration affected the burning time due to the properties of CMC that bind to bioethanol.
363 Bioethanol is a volatile compound, and when the vapor is mixed with oxygen, it could form a
364 flammable mixture. Therefore, the higher the bioethanol concentration, the faster it evaporates
365 into the air, and the combustibility is higher and faster. The presence of a CMC and water is
366 the critical factor for a longer burning time. CMC holds the rate of bioethanol evaporation since
367 it is trapped in the CMC and released slowly. The bioethanol gel combustion ability depends
368 on bioethanol concentration and thickening agent used, and environmental factors. The
369 environmental factors include the availability of a surface to evaporate bioethanol, temperature,
370 vapor flow rate to the combustion area, and the oxygen around the combustion area (Ariyani,
371 2013; Hermawan, 2018). The results of this research show that CMC could dissolve perfectly
372 into bioethanol and water. In a bioethanol gel stove, the stove inlet diameter can affect the
373 burning performance (Hermawan, 2018). The ash content determination was carried out to
374 observe residue production. As shown in Table 4, the residues after burning the bioethanol gels
375 were low to moderately produced. The ash content analysis result is presented in Figure 3.

376 The ash content in various samples with each treatment showed significant results. The
377 addition of a different CMC concentration gave the significant effect of burning the bioethanol
378 gel produced. As presented in Figure 3, the increase in the CMC concentration of each
379 treatment is proportional to the increase in ash content. The non-flammable chemical nature of
380 CMC causes residual combustion. The ash content in all bioethanol gels combustion treatments
381 shows a good result of less than 5%. Therefore, this bioethanol gel formula can be further
382 applied in heating as a household fuel.

383 **4. Conclusion**

384 Cassava-based industrial wastes, including cassava peels and cassava pomace
385 (*onggok*), are rich in lignocellulosic biomass, which was effective as the source of sugars
386 bioethanol production. Alkaline delignification and acid hydrolysis processes in cassava-based

387 industrial wastes indicated a practical breakdown of lignocellulosic materials as
388 saccharification converted it to sugars at 0.79 g/g dry cassava peels and 0.68 g/g *onggok*. The
389 fermentation process using local strain *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* IPA1 effectively
390 transformed wastes to bioethanol at conversion efficiency at 86% with 35% bioethanol yield,
391 resulting in 25% of bioethanol concentration fermentation. The reflux column batch distillation
392 could effectively increase the bioethanol yield and concentration up to 92%. Carboxymethyl
393 cellulose was effectively enhanced the viscosity value of the bioethanol gels to 1.338 mPa.s.
394 Also, the lower the water content caused each sample to have a higher heating value. All
395 treatments effectively ignited the fire with a maximum duration of up to 184 min, and the
396 increase in CMC in each treatment was proportional to the increase in ash content. However,
397 all treatments showed less than 5% ash content. These results suggested that the cassava-based
398 industrial wastes is potential for bioethanol gel production in both small scale (traditional
399 method) and large scale (industrial method) with further application as a household cookstove
400 fuel.

401 **CRedit Authorship Contribution Statement**

402 Andin Vita Amalia: Data curation, Visualization, Investigation, Software, Writing -
403 original draft. Talitha Widiatningrum: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation,
404 Supervision, Writing - review & editing. Risa Dwita Hardianti: Supervision, Writing - review
405 & editing. Fidia Fibriana: Supervision, Writing - review & editing.

406 **Acknowledgment**

407 The authors would like to thank Research and Community Service Centre Universitas
408 Negeri Semarang for funding and support in this research through the Basic Research Scheme
409 (DIPA Universitas Negeri Semarang Number: SP DIPA-023.17.2.677507/2020 according to
410 the letter of agreement for Research Implementation Assignment DIPA UNNES 2020 Number:
411 173.23.4/UN37/PPK.3.1/2020).

412 **Conflict of interest**

413 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare. All co-authors have seen and agree
414 with the manuscript's contents, and there is no financial interest to report.

415 **Ethical approval**

416 This article does not contain any studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

417 **References**

- 418 Akaracharanya, A., Kesornsit, J., Leepipatpiboon, N., Srinorakutara, T., Kitpreechavanich,
419 V., & Tolieng, V. (2011). Evaluation of the waste from cassava starch production as a
420 substrate for ethanol fermentation by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Annals of*
421 *Microbiology*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13213-010-0155-8>
- 422 Amalia, A. V., Widiatningrum, T., & Herdiyanti, R. D. (2021). Optimization of bioethanol
423 production from tapioca flour waste through the addition of a starter and fermentation
424 duration. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*, *1918*(5), 52015.
- 425 Aripin, A. M., Kassim, A. S. M., Daud, Z., & Hatta, M. Z. M. (2013). Cassava peels for
426 alternative fibre in pulp and paper industry: chemical properties and morphology
427 characterization. *International Journal of Integrated Engineering*, *5*(1).
- 428 Ariyani. (2013). Perbandingan karbopol dan karboksimetil selulosa sebagai pengental pada
429 pembuatan bioetanol gel. In *Biopropal Industri*.
- 430 Aruwajoye, G. S., Faloye, F. D., & Kana, E. G. (2020). Process optimisation of enzymatic
431 saccharification of soaking assisted and thermal pretreated cassava peels waste for
432 bioethanol production. *Waste and Biomass Valorization*, *11*(6), 2409–2420.
- 433 Baeyens, J., Kang, Q., Appels, L., Dewil, R., Lv, Y., & Tan, T. (2015). Challenges and
434 opportunities in improving the production of bio-ethanol. In *Progress in Energy and*
435 *Combustion Science*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pecs.2014.10.003>
- 436 Binod, P., Sindhu, R., Singhanian, R. R., Vikram, S., Devi, L., Nagalakshmi, S., Kurien, N.,

437 Sukumaran, R. K., & Pandey, A. (2010). Bioethanol production from rice straw: An
438 overview. *Bioresource Technology*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2009.10.079>

439 Brandão, R. L., Rosa, J. C. C., Nicoli, J. R., Almeida, M. V. S., do Carmo, A. P., Queiros, H.
440 T., & Castro, I. M. (2014). Investigating acid stress response in different *Saccharomyces*
441 strains. *Journal of Mycology*, 2014.

442 Candido, R. G., & Gonçalves, A. R. (2016). Synthesis of cellulose acetate and
443 carboxymethylcellulose from sugarcane straw. *Carbohydrate Polymers*.
444 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2016.07.071>

445 Candra, K. P., Sarwono, & Sarinah. (2011). Study on bioethanol production using red
446 seaweed *Eucheuma cottonii* from Bontang sea water. *Journal of Coastal Development*.

447 Cha, C., Kim, S. R., Jin, Y. S., & Kong, H. (2012). Tuning structural durability of yeast-
448 encapsulating alginate gel beads with interpenetrating networks for sustained bioethanol
449 production. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bit.23258>

450 Chen, A. K.-L., Gelling, C., Rogers, P. L., Dawes, I. W., & Rosche, B. (2009). Response of
451 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* to stress-free acidification. *The Journal of Microbiology*,
452 47(1), 1–8.

453 Coelho, T. C., Souza, O., Sellin, N., Medeiros, S. H. W., & Marangoni, C. (2012). Analysis
454 of the reflux ratio on the batch distillation of bioethanol obtained from lignocellulosic
455 residue. *Procedia Engineering*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proeng.2012.07.403>

456 De Koeijer, G. M., & Kjelstrup, S. (2000). Minimizing entropy production rate in binary tray
457 distillation. *ECOS 2000*. <https://doi.org/10.5541/ijot.39>

458 Djuma'ali, D., Soewarno, N., Sumarno, S., Primarini, D., & Sumaryono, W. (2011). Cassava
459 Pulp as a Biofuel Feedstock of an Enzymatic Hydrolysis Proces. *Makara Journal of*
460 *Technology*, 15(2), 14.

461 Guntama, D., Herdiana, Y., Sujiana, U. A., Endes, R. L., & Sunandar, E. (2019). Bioethanol

462 Dari Limbah Kulit Singkong (*Manihot esculenta* Crantz) Melalui Metode Hidrolisa Dan
463 Fermentasi Dengan Bantuan *Saccharomyces Cerevisiae*. *Jurnal Teknologi*, 7(1), 86–96.

464 Gutiérrez-Rivera, B., Waliszewski-Kubiak, K., Carvajal-Zarrabal, O., & Aguilar-Uscanga,
465 M. G. (2012). Conversion efficiency of glucose/xylose mixtures for ethanol production
466 using *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* ITV01 and *Pichia stipitis* NRRL Y-7124. *Journal of*
467 *Chemical Technology and Biotechnology*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jctb.2709>

468 Hanun, V., & Sutjahjo, D. H. (2018). Komparasi Karakteristik Bioetanol Gel Dengan
469 Pengental Karbopol Dan Carboxy Methyl Cellulose (Cmc) Sebagai Bahan Bakar
470 Alternatif. *Jurnal Pendidikan Teknik Mesin*, 7(2).

471 Heriyanti, A. P., Fibriana, F., & Tirtasari, N. L. (2020). Bioethanol production from cassava-
472 based industrial wastes using acid hydrolysis and simple fermentation. *Journal of*
473 *Physics: Conference Series*. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1567/2/022024>

474 Hermawan, B. M., & Sudarmanta, B. (2018). Characterization of bioethanol gel and
475 applications on bioethanol gel stove. *AIP Conference Proceedings*.
476 <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.5046216>

477 Inal, M., & Yiğitoğlu, M. (2011). Production of bioethanol by immobilized *Saccharomyces*
478 *cerevisiae* onto modified sodium alginate gel. *Journal of Chemical Technology and*
479 *Biotechnology*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jctb.2678>

480 Indrianeu, T., & Singkawijaya, E. B. (2019). Pemanfaatan Limbah Industri Rumah Tangga
481 Tepung Tapioka Untuk Mengurangi Dampak Lingkungan. *JURNAL GEOGRAFI*
482 *Geografi Dan Pengajarannya*, 17(2), 39–50.

483 Isah, Y., Kabiru, H. D., Danlami, M. A., & Kolapo, S. F. (2019). Comparative analysis of
484 bioethanol produced from cassava peels and sugarcane bagasse by hydrolysis using
485 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Journal of Chemical Society of Nigeria*, 44(1).

486 Ishola, M. M., Isroi, & Taherzadeh, M. J. (2014). Effect of fungal and phosphoric acid

487 pretreatment on ethanol production from oil palm empty fruit bunches (OPEFB).
488 *Bioresource Technology*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2014.02.053>

489 Jung, W., Savithri, D., Sharma-Shivappa, R., & Kolar, P. (2018). Changes in lignin chemistry
490 of switchgrass due to delignification by sodium hydroxide pretreatment. *Energies*, *11*(2),
491 376.

492 Kongkiattikajorn, J., & Sornvoraweatn, B. (2011). Comparative study of bioethanol
493 production from cassava peels by monoculture and co-culture of yeast jirasak. *Kasetsart*
494 *Journal - Natural Science*.

495 Kosugi, A., Kondo, A., Ueda, M., Murata, Y., Vaithanomsat, P., Thanapase, W., Arai, T., &
496 Mori, Y. (2009). Production of ethanol from cassava pulp via fermentation with a
497 surface-engineered yeast strain displaying glucoamylase. *Renewable Energy*, *34*(5),
498 1354–1358.

499 Kreger-van Rij, N. J. W. (2013). *The yeasts: a taxonomic study*. Elsevier.

500 Kumar, P., Barrett, D. M., Delwiche, M. J., & Stroeve, P. (2009). Methods for pretreatment
501 of lignocellulosic biomass for efficient hydrolysis and biofuel production. *Industrial &*
502 *Engineering Chemistry Research*, *48*(8), 3713–3729.

503 Lee, W. S., Chen, I. C., Chang, C. H., & Yang, S. S. (2012). Bioethanol production from
504 sweet potato by co-immobilization of saccharolytic molds and *Saccharomyces*
505 *cerevisiae*. *Renewable Energy*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2011.08.024>

506 Lin, Y., Zhang, W., Li, C., Sakakibara, K., Tanaka, S., & Kong, H. (2014). Factors affecting
507 ethanol fermentation using *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* BY4742. *Biomass and Bioenergy*.
508 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2012.09.019>

509 Luangkhlaypho, A., Pattaragulwanit, K., Leepipatpiboon, N., & Yompakdee, C. (2014).
510 Development of a defined starter culture mixture for the fermentation of sato, a Thai
511 rice-based alcoholic beverage. *ScienceAsia*. <https://doi.org/10.2306/scienceasia1513->

512 1874.2014.40.125

513 Martinez, D. G., Feiden, A., Bariccatti, R., & Zara, K. R. de F. (2018). Ethanol production
514 from waste of cassava processing. *Applied Sciences (Switzerland)*.
515 <https://doi.org/10.3390/app8112158>

516 Mosier, N., Wyman, C., Dale, B., Elander, R., Lee, Y. Y., Holtzapple, M., & Ladisch, M.
517 (2005). Features of promising technologies for pretreatment of lignocellulosic biomass.
518 *Bioresource Technology*, 96(6), 673–686.

519 Murphy, C. W., & Kendall, A. (2015). Life cycle analysis of biochemical cellulosic ethanol
520 under multiple scenarios. *Gcb Bioenergy*, 7(5), 1019–1033.

521 Öhgren, K., Vehmaanperä, J., Siika-Aho, M., Galbe, M., Viikari, L., & Zacchi, G. (2007).
522 High temperature enzymatic prehydrolysis prior to simultaneous saccharification and
523 fermentation of steam pretreated corn stover for ethanol production. *Enzyme and*
524 *Microbial Technology*, 40(4), 607–613.
525 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enzmictec.2006.05.014>

526 Oketch, P. O. (2014). *Optimization of performance of bio-ethanol gel cookstove*. JOMO
527 KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY.

528 Oketch, P. O., Ndiritu, H. M., & Gathitu, B. B. (2012). *Experimental Study of Fuel Efficiency*
529 *and Emissions Comparison from Bio-ethanol Gel Stoves*.

530 Olofsson, K., Bertilsson, M., & Lidén, G. (2008). A short review on SSF—an interesting
531 process option for ethanol production from lignocellulosic feedstocks. *Biotechnology for*
532 *Biofuels*, 1(1), 1–14.

533 Ortiz-Muñiz, B., Carvajal-Zarrabal, O., Torrestiana-Sanchez, B., & Aguilar-Uscanga, M. G.
534 (2010). Kinetic study on ethanol production using *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* ITV-01
535 yeast isolated from sugar canemolasses. *Journal of Chemical Technology and*
536 *Biotechnology*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jctb.2441>

537 Oyeleke, S. B., Dauda, B. E. N., Oyewole, O. A., Okoliegbe, I. N., & Ojebode, T. (2012).
538 Production of bioethanol from cassava and sweet potato peels. *Advances in*
539 *Environmental Biology*, 241–246.

540 Pérez, J., Munoz-Dorado, J., De la Rubia, T., & Martinez, J. (2002). Biodegradation and
541 biological treatments of cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin: an overview. *International*
542 *Microbiology*, 5(2), 53–63.

543 Prasertwasu, S., Khumsupan, D., Komolwanich, T., Chaisuwan, T., Luengnaruemitchai, A.,
544 & Wongkasemjit, S. (2014). Efficient process for ethanol production from Thai Mission
545 grass (*Pennisetum polystachion*). *Bioresource Technology*.
546 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2014.04.043>

547 Rajak, R. C., & Banerjee, R. (2018). An eco-friendly process integration for second
548 generation bioethanol production from laccase delignified Kans grass. *Energy*
549 *Conversion and Management*, 157, 364–371.

550 Rattanachomsri, U., Tanapongpipat, S., Eurwilaichitr, L., & Champreda, V. (2009).
551 Simultaneous non-thermal saccharification of cassava pulp by multi-enzyme activity and
552 ethanol fermentation by *Candida tropicalis*. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering*,
553 107(5), 488–493.

554 Rehfuss, E. (2006). *Fuel for life: household energy and health*. World Health Organization.

555 Rehfuss, E., Mehta, S., & Prüss-Üstün, A. (2006). Assessing household solid fuel use:
556 multiple implications for the Millennium Development Goals. *Environmental Health*
557 *Perspectives*, 114(3), 373–378.

558 Salvador, L. D., Sukanuma, T., Kitahara, K., Tanoue, H., & Ichiki, M. (2000).
559 Monosaccharide composition of sweetpotato fiber and cell wall polysaccharides from
560 sweetpotato, cassava, and potato analyzed by the high-performance anion exchange
561 chromatography with pulsed amperometric detection method. *Journal of Agricultural*

562 *and Food Chemistry*, 48(8), 3448–3454.

563 Santoso, S. P., Sanjaya, N., & Ayucitra, A. (2018). Pemanfaatan kulit singkong sebagai
564 bahan baku pembuatan Natrium Karbosimetil Selulosa. *Jurnal Teknik Kimia Indonesia*.
565 <https://doi.org/10.5614/jtki.2012.11.3.1>

566 Steinbach, D., Kruse, A., & Sauer, J. (2017). Pretreatment technologies of lignocellulosic
567 biomass in water in view of furfural and 5-hydroxymethylfurfural production-a review.
568 *Biomass Conversion and Biorefinery*, 7(2), 247–274.

569 Sukara, E., Hartati, S., & Ragamustari, S. K. (2020). State of the art of Indonesian agriculture
570 and the introduction of innovation for added value of cassava. In *Plant Biotechnology*
571 *Reports* (Vol. 14, Issue 2, pp. 207–212). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s11816-020-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11816-020-00605-w)
572 00605-w

573 Sutiyono, S., Soemargono, S., Edahwati, L., & Siswati, N. D. (2017). Etanol dari hasil
574 hidrolisis onggok. *Jurnal Teknik Kimia*, 8(1), 33–36.

575 Unteawati, B., & Mutaqin, Z. (2018). IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental
576 Science The Mapping of Agroindustry Based on Cassava The Mapping of Agroindustry
577 Based on Cassava. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 209,
578 012019. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/209/1/012019>

579 Widyastuti, P. (2019). Pengolahan Limbah Kulit Singkong Sebagai Bahan Bakar Bioetanol
580 Melalui Proses Fermentasi. *Jurnal Kompetensi Teknik*, 11(1), 41–46.

581 Yang, H., Shi, Z., Xu, G., Qin, Y., Deng, J., & Yang, J. (2019). Bioethanol production from
582 bamboo with alkali-catalyzed liquid hot water pretreatment. *Bioresource Technology*.
583 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2018.11.088>

584 Yang, X. H., & Zhu, W. L. (2007). Viscosity properties of sodium carboxymethylcellulose
585 solutions. *Cellulose*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10570-007-9137-9>

586

Declarations of interest: none

We are all authors of this manuscript have agreed and understand each other and we declare that there is no conflict of interest.