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# Genetic engineering contribution to developing cyanobacteria-based hydrogen energy to reduce carbon emissions and establish a hydrogen economy *Gulzhanay*

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# highlights

· Genetic engineering findings of cyanobacterial nitrogenase enzyme are described.

 $\cdot$  Recent genetic engineering methods to obtain hydrogenase mutants are discussed.

- $\cdot$  Engineering photosynthetic H<sub>2</sub> production is shown as an efficient method.
- $\cdot$  Development of a non-waste  $H_2$  production technology is explained.

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#### abstract

Growing concerns over greenhouse gas emissions and energy insecurity caused by the depletion of conventional fuels have led to a search for sustainable fuel alternatives. As an alternative energy carrier, hydrogen  $(H_2)$  is particularly attractive as only water is released

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during combustion. The process of H<sub>2</sub> production from genetically engineered photo- trophic microorganisms through biophotolysis leads the way to solve energy

shortages. Genetically engineered cyanobacteria species are potential candidates due to their superior properties for reducing greenhouse gases and using solar energy as an energy source. The review discusses the mechanisms and enzymes involved in  $H_2$  production by cyanobac- teria and applications of genetic engineering. A critical analysis of the fundamental issues attributed to the technical advancement of photobiological cyanobacteria-based  $H_2$  pro- duction is provided, as well as the perspectives for future research to reduce carbon dioxide emissions through the creation of waste-free technology.

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#### Introduction

The major environmental challenge of the new millennium is global warming and air pollution caused by fossil fuel burning. This problem has necessitated the search for new renewable energy sources that are non-polluting and could replace non- renewable energy sources when they become scarce and more expensive [1]. Therefore, scientists focus on producing bio- fuels from secure, inexhaustible feedstocks, such as hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>), by photocatalytic decomposition of water (H<sub>2</sub>O). Among the various gaseous and liquid biofuels, H<sub>2</sub> is one of the most valuable and cleanest fuels, and it may serve as an environ- mentally safe and forthcoming renewable energy carrier [2]. As of today, H<sub>2</sub> is primarily produced by thermochemical processes [3]. However, biological H<sub>2</sub> production is of great scientific and practical relevance since it avoids the use of fossil fuels, whose reserves are diminishing each year, and the environmental pollution resulting from using conventional energy sources [4e6]. In conjunction with the issue related to energy production, the intermittency of renewable energy sources is another point to be considered, from which the necessity to accumulate and store part of the H<sub>2</sub> energy pro- duced emerges. Although there are several excellences in the field of photovoltaic PV and H<sub>2</sub> storage around the world, both at the academic and industrial levels, only a portion of the scientific community has prioritized the appropriate and innovative integration of energy generation and storage de- vices [7e10].

Currently, in numerous research studies, cyanobacteria are being investigated as a solution to such environmental problems [11,12]. Moreover, only cyanobacteria are capable of performing oxygenic photosynthesis among prokaryotes. Solar energy,  $H_2O$ , carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ), and mineral nutrients are used to create a considerable amount of oxygen ( $O_2$ ) and organic assimilation for an aerobic food chain [9]. In addition, cyanobacteria are considered prospective "low-cost" cell factories to capture and store carbon, as well as to produce

separated  $O_2$  and  $H_2$  evolution processes and producing  $H_2$  in an  $O_2$ -contained environment can carry out light-dependent  $H_2$  production. This process is appealing because both solar energy and the substrate (water) are inexhaustible and renewable, and the by-product ( $O_2$ ) is non-toxic [17]. The ge- netic ability to synthesize the essential enzymes, as well as the internal and external metabolic and environmental con- ditions that supply the necessary energy, control the rate of cyanobacteria-based  $H_2$  production.

A growing variety of molecular tools has recently unleashed the potential of cyanobacteria [18]. These ad- vancements have coincided with an increase in the ability to modify endogenous genetic sequences and transfer exoge- nous DNA into a wide range of cyanobacterial strains [19,20]. Furthermore, breakthroughs in sequencing technology have enabled the genomes of over 200 cyanobacteria to be sequenced [21], considerably simplifying the use of system- level approaches such as transcriptomics and proteomics. With the help of new sequencing tools, modification of the genes of the nitrogenase enzyme, obtaining hydrogenase mutants, increasing electron transport by changing the photosynthesis complex, and obtaining mutants resistant to external environmental factors can be the most effective methods of biological  $H_2$  production. Three main aspects must be considered simultaneously to produce  $H_2$ from modified cyanobacterial cells: technological limitations, metabolic characteristics, and genetic engineering [22e24] (Fig. 1).

Although many cyanobacterial species worldwide have been studied in the laboratory for  $H_2$  production, high  $H_2$  amounts have not yet been obtained under industrial condi- tions. In this context, this review analyzes the main ways of obtaining promising  $H_2$  production mutants that can be used for industrial purposes and evaluates their economic and so- cial effects. Next, an examination was made to reduce the amount of  $CO_2$  in production fields by creating a zero-waste technology for  $H_2$  energy production based on cyanobacte- rial biomass.

sustainable biofuel, due to the basic nutritional requirements,

physiological stability (as they can colonize many biotopes, transportation costs can be potentially reduced by enabling industrial production nearby), and strong genome-based properties of some model strains [13,14]. It should be noted that cyanobacteria are up-and-coming  $H_2$  producers consid- ering their morphological and metabolic characteristics

[15,16]. Indeed, heterocystic cyanobacteria having spatially

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# Cyanobacteria-based H<sub>2</sub> production enzymes

Two groups of cyanobacterial enzymes are involved in  $H_2$  metabolism: nitrogenases (N<sub>2</sub>ase) and hydrogenases (H<sub>2</sub>ase) [25]. Nitrogenases are typically present in unicellular or fila- mentous cyanobacteria that fix nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) and reduce it to ammonium ion (NH<sup>b</sup>), thereby producing H as a by-product

4

2



Fig. 1 e Pathways to increase H<sub>2</sub> cleavage in cyanobacterial strains.

[26]. Furthermore, two types of cyanobacterial [NiFe]-N<sub>2</sub>ases, namely bidirectional and uptake N<sub>2</sub>ases, are found. The dif- ference between bidirectional N<sub>2</sub>ase and bidirectional H<sub>2</sub>ase (reabsorbs H<sub>2</sub> produced by N<sub>2</sub>ase) is that the latter is found primarily in diazotrophic microorganisms [27].

- (1) heterocyclic filamentous cyanobacteria spatially engage in O<sub>2</sub> evolving photosynthesis (in vegetative cells) and N<sub>2</sub> fixation (in heterocysts with an O<sub>2</sub> deficiency) [28,29];
- (2) heterocystic cyanobacteria accomplish  $N_2$  fixation and arecapable of  $H_2$  production, usually under  $O_2$  deficiency, rarely under  $O_2$ -rich conditions (e.g., by managing the

daily circadian rhythm or intracellular sections) [30].

ends. The nifH gene encodes the small homo-dimeric (g2) protein. The significant component, which is a tetrameric  $(a_2b_2)$  protein, has a molecular weight of 240 kDa and binds to each **ab** dimer. Two types of molybdenum metal-dependent nitrogenase enzymes have been found in cyanobacteria. The first enzyme (nitrogenase, encoded by the *nif1* gene cluster) is activated in heterocysts; the second enzyme (encoded by the *nif2* gene cluster) functions only under anaerobic/anaerobic conditions in vegetative cells.

In general, all  $H_2$  as types follow the following basic for- mula (eq. (1)):

16ATP þ 16H<sub>2</sub>O þ N<sub>2</sub> þ 10H<sup>p</sup> þ 8e<sup>-</sup> / ðN<sub>2</sub>aseÞ 16ADP

þ 16Pi þ 2NH<sub>4</sub> þ H<sub>2</sub> (1)

Nitrogenases

The primary function of  $N_2$  ase is to convert atmospheric  $N_2$  into  $NH^b$ ; H production is negligible, considering it a negative

Nitrogenases function differently, depending on the structure of the clusters they contain, and genes directly control the function of the clusters within them. The overall structure of  $N_2$  as consists of two parts [31]: while the di- $N_2$  as protein occupies the first part, the second part consists of the di- $N_2$  as reductase protein. The di- $N_2$  as is an  $a_2b_2$ -heterotetramer

 $(M_r \ \ 220 e240 \ kDa)$  that splits N<sub>2</sub> atoms [4], whereas the di-

N<sub>2</sub>ase reductase is a homodimer ( $M_r$   $\frac{1}{4}$  60e70 kDa). The pro- tein's primary function is transporting electrons from the

external environment (ferredoxin) to di-N2ase. Three distinct di-N2ase proteins have been identified, each with a unique metal cofactor. The first type

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# contains molybdenum (Mo), the second is vanadium (V), and the third type is iron (Fe) [32].

In cyanobacteria, Mo nitrogenase consists of two proteins (Fe protein and MoFe protein), which are connected by their

and undesirable side reaction [33]. Nitrogenases exclusively catalyze  $H_2$  production on  $N_2$ -free substrates [34]. In native, intact cyanobacterial cultures,  $H_2$  production by  $N_2$  as is functionally tied with  $H_2$ -scavenging *Hup*- $H_2$  as e, leading to zero net  $H_2$  production. However, by changing certain envi-ronmental conditions, such as switching from an  $O_2$ -rich to an  $O_2$ -free phase, a considerable  $H_2$  yield might be achieved [35]. As shown in Fig. 2, cyanobacteria can be divided into three categories depending on the  $H_2$  enzymes they contain.

- (1) multicellular cyanobacteria (Synechocysts sp. PCC6308) with [NiFe)-hydrogenase (bidirectional hydrogenase) located only in vegetative cells;
- (2) types of filamentous cyanobacteria (Anabaena sp. PCC7120) with [NiFe)-hydrogenase (bidirectional and uptake hydrogenases) in vegetative cells and
- (3)

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Fig. 2 e Mechanisms of H<sub>2</sub> production in different cyanobacterial species. Modified from Refs. [34,35]. *Abbreviations:* PSI e photosystem I; PSII e photosystem II; NDH-1 e NAD(P)H dehydrogenase complex; PQ pool e plastoquinone pool; Cyt  $b_{d}$  e cytochrome  $b_{d}$  complex; PC e plastocyanin; Fdx e ferredoxin; FNR e ferredoxin-NADP<sup>(p)</sup> reductase; NADPH e nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate; CO<sub>2</sub> e carbon dioxide; ATP e adenosine triphosphate; ATPase e adenosine triphosphatase; Flv e flavodiiron proteins; H<sup>b</sup> e protons; OPP pathway e oxidative pentose phosphate pathway; N<sub>2</sub>ase e nitrogenase; H<sub>2</sub>ase e hydrogenase.

nitrogenase and bidirectional [NiFe)-hydrogenase in heterocyst cells;

(4) multicellular cyanobacterial species with active bidi- rectional [NiFe]-hydrogenase and weak nitrogenase (Cyanothece sp. ATCC 51142).

# Hydrogenase

Hydrogenase is the second most abundant enzyme involved in  $H_2$  production in cyanobacteria. Many cyanobacteria contain various types of  $H_2$  as enzymes. Uptake  $H_2$  as (encoded *hup*SL) can oxidize  $H_2$ , while the bidirectional  $H_2$  as (encoded *hox*FUYH) enzyme can absorb or produce  $H_2$  [36]. Uptake  $H_2$  as is mainly observed in the thylakoids of fila- mentous bacterial heterocysts. Oxy-hydrogenation, or the *Knallgas* reaction, implies a transfer of electrons from  $H_2$  via the respiratory chain to perform  $O_2$  reactions [37]. This enzyme is composed of two subunits. The *hup*L-encoded protein functions as an uptake  $H_2$  ase, while the *hup*S-encoded component carries out the reduction process (Fig. 2). As the resulting  $H_2$  is usually re-oxidized by  $H_2$  as (according to the

*Knallgas* reaction), strains containing uptake  $H_2$  as do not produce pure  $H_2$  under environmental conditions [38]. Thus, if  $H_2$  production needs to be scaled up to an industrial scale, a considerable amount of net  $H_2$  production is required between the uptake and  $H_2$ -producing  $H_2$  as . The uptake  $H_2$  as cata-lyzes the reaction, which follows the formula (eq. (2)) [39]:

$$H_2 / \delta H_2 ase P 2H^p \not = 2e$$

(2)

The biological function of bidirectional and uptake  $H_2$  as is not considerably clear, and maintaining ionic concentration in cells could be a possible purpose. Uptake  $H_2$  as is bound to the cytoplasmic membrane and serves as an electron acceptor for NADH and  $H_2$  [40]. Reversible  $H_2$  as is a multimeric enzyme consisting of four or five (depending on the species) different subunits. It is encoded by the *hox*YH gene, which controls [NiFe]- $H_2$  ase. The activity of auxiliary proteins known as *hyp* is required to develop bidirectional  $H_2$  as [41]. Contrary to the uptake  $H_2$  as the bidirectional ones are directly involved in  $H_2$  production [42].

[FeFe]-hydrogenases are another type of hydrogenase found in microorganisms. This type of hydrogenase has two different cofactors: iron and sulfur.

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In addition, this enzyme is

attached to the protein skeleton by three cysteine residues. The iron cluster is connected to the di-iron part by a fourth cysteine residue. Hydrogenase in this cluster is not found in cyanobacteria. However, as a group of foreign genes, it can activate in cyanobacterial cells.

An anoxic environment is created in cyanobacterial cells by separating the processes of  $O_2$ -evolving photosynthesis and  $O_2$ -sensitive enzymes spatially or temporally, in combi- nation with efficient cellular respiration [43]. The phosphor- ylation process that generates the necessary ATP energy requires the bidirectional H<sub>2</sub>ase found in about half of all cyanobacteria. This evolutionary process demonstrates that bidirectional (*hox*) H<sub>2</sub>ase has functions other than cell-specific H<sub>2</sub> separation [44]. Many cyanobacterial species, however, can live freely in nature without bidirectional (*hox*) H<sub>2</sub>ase and are competitive with other organisms. The biological functions of bidirectional (*hox*) H<sub>2</sub>ase in cyanobacteria include cellular redox processes, such as the release of energy stored as H<sub>2</sub> to the external environment under stress conditions, ensuring cell safety [35,45].

Several known cyanobacterial H<sub>2</sub> production reactions can

be utilized in large-scale production [46]. While growing in an alternating dark light mode (i.e., photosynthesis and respira- tion occurring under circadian regulation in response to light similar to a sleep-wake cycle), some unicellular and filamen- tous cyanobacteria (e.g., *Spirulina* sp. [47], *Synechocystis* sp. RF-1 [48], *Cyanothece* sp. Atcc51142 [49], *Desertifilum* sp [31]. and *Oscillatoria* sp [31]) contain an active N<sub>2</sub>ase. The circadian rhythm regulates N<sub>2</sub> fixation, photosynthesis, and respiration and prevents O<sub>2</sub> from inhibiting N<sub>2</sub>ase. N<sub>2</sub> fixation via N<sub>2</sub>ase catalysis is primarily observed in a wide range of heterocyst- forming cyanobacteria and azotobacter [50]. However, the strain *Cyanothece* devoid of heterocysts can fix N<sub>2</sub> using light by N<sub>2</sub>ase. The circadian rhythm is most often observed in a dark environment. The cell is considered to revert to a reduced state when photosynthesis resumes in the light. When O<sub>2</sub> release occurs, however, this activity is rapidly suppressed [51].

#### Genetic engineering of cyanobacterial enzymes for efficient H<sub>2</sub> production

The use of modern methods to increase or eliminate the desired characteristics of wild species is called genetic engi-neering [52]. Genetic engineering methods are mainly imple- mented via the transfer of genes [53]. Transcription and translation processes are implemented using advanced syn- thetic biology techniques [54]. Despite scientific advances, only about 2000 species of cyanobacteria have been fully sequenced, including *Cyanothece* sp. ATCC 51142, *Synechocystis* sp. PCC6803, *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120, and *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7942 [55e57]. As whole gene groups have not yet been identified and only partial sequencing has been conducted, the remaining cyanobacterial species are unsuitable for genetic studies and modifications (Fig. 2). Natural, artificial, causative, and inducible promoters are required to regulate the tran- scription of heterologous genes [58]. Non-natural (orthogonal) promoters do not affect cellular regulation or metabolism [59]. The capacity of cyanobacteria to produce H<sub>2</sub> directly from solar energy and H<sub>2</sub>O is of great interest to the scientific

community [60]. However, photobiological  $H_2$  production by natural cyanobacteria faces several challenges, including inefficient use of solar energy, enzyme  $O_2$  sensitivity, and inefficient metabolism [61]. In general, the highest production of a particular molecule or product from biological systems is typically uncommon, and competition and survival exert evolutionary constraints on natural cyanobacteria [62]. Natu- ral cyanobacterial cells that produce and release  $H_2$  lose en- ergy and electrons, negatively influencing their competitive environment *in situ* [63].

Exploring the genetic control of  $H_2$  production and using genetic approaches to obtain efficient, productive strains is one way to optimize the process of bio-H<sub>2</sub> production [64]. Therefore, creating genetic mutants to obtain photobiological H<sub>2</sub> is economically viable and the only way to achieve a higher yield in the future [65]. Genetic approaches to increasing H<sub>2</sub> yield by phototrophic microorganisms, including cyanobac- teria, include gene knockout, insertion, and overexpression [66]. Thus, H<sub>2</sub> evolution in some cyanobacterial species is significantly higher after genetic modification than in wild species. N<sub>2</sub>ase and H<sub>2</sub>ase enzyme engineering are primary genetic engineering approaches to increase H<sub>2</sub> yield. Studies on H<sub>2</sub>ase enzymes are primarily concerned with eradicating or inactivating the uptake H<sub>2</sub>ase and generating NH<sub>4</sub>-insensitive mutants. In contrast, studies on N<sub>2</sub>ase enzymes are concerned with increasing the number of heterocysts in filamentous cyanobacteria (Table 1) [67].

#### Genetic engineering of the nitrogenase

Nitrogenase converts molecular nitrogen into  $NH^p$  while releasing  $H_2$ . For the following reasons, the improvement of an  $N_2$  as based  $H_2$  production system may be of particular interest.

- N<sub>2</sub>ase biochemistry and proteins crystal structures are well-studied and available [78];
- N<sub>2</sub>ase in heterocysts is naturally protected from O<sub>2</sub> released during photosynthesis in PSII (photosystem II) [79];
- some filamentous cyanobacteria of the order *Nostocales* (*Nostoc, Anabaena*, etc.) can fix carbon via photosynthesis and simultaneously release H<sub>2</sub> using N<sub>2</sub>ase [80];
- at high partial pressure, the enzyme can produce H<sub>2</sub> [81].

 $H_2$ ase-mediated  $H_2$  production lacks the above features. However,  $H_2$ ase engineering is also promising to boost cyanobacteria-based  $H_2$  yield [82].  $N_2$ ase converts atmo- spheric  $N_2$  to  $NH^p$  and protons to H [83]. The N ase system is the principal source of  $H_2$  during photosynthesis, and  $N_2$  limitation occurs in many photosynthetic bacteria. Moreover, bio- $H_2$  production efficiency is heavily reliant on  $N_2$ ase, as well as the availability of ATP and electrons in the cell [62,84]. Skizim et al. [85] evaluated the ratio of  $H_2$  produced by  $N_2$ asecompared to  $H_3$ ase in *Cyanothece* Miami BG 043511 (light-vs. dark-induced).

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This species is capable of actively releasing hydrogen during illumination. Therefore, the transition be- tween light and dark and the intensity of light have a direct effect on the amount of hydrogen produced. Moreover, the generation of the  $N_2$  as mutant library by random

Table 1 e Hydrogen production in engineered native enzymes of cyanobacterial strains using different strategies.					
Cyanobacterial strains	Engineered	$H_2$ production rate	$H_2$ production assay condition	References	
, 	genes	2.1	21 5		
Synechocystis PCC6803	HoxW	4.5 nmol $H_2$ 10 <sup>-9</sup> cells s <sup>-1</sup>	2500 lux; 31.25 mE m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> , on BG-11	[24]	
			medium enriched with 3.78 mM Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>		
Anabaena variabilis AVM13	hupSL	135 mmol $H_2$ mg <i>Chl</i> a <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	Ar; 100 mEm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ; N <sub>2</sub> -fixing	[68]	
Nostoc punctiforme NHM5	hupL	14 mmol $H_2$ mg <i>Chl</i> $a^{-1}$ $h^{-1}$	Light and N <sub>2</sub> -fixing	[69]	
Anabaena sp. PCC 7120	hupL/hoxH	53 mmol $H_2$ mg <i>Chl</i> $a^{-1}$ $h^{-1}$	Ar; 10 Wm <sup>e2</sup> ; N <sub>2</sub> -fixing	[70]	
Nostoc sp. PCC 7422	hupL	100 mmol $H_2$ mg <i>Chl</i> a <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	Ar þ 5% CO <sub>2</sub> , 70 mEm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ; N <sub>2</sub> -fixing	[71]	
Anabaena siamensis TISTR 8012	hupS	29.7 mmol H <sub>2</sub> mg <i>Chl</i> a <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	Ar; 200 mEm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ; N <sub>2</sub> -fixing	[72]	
Synechocystis M55	ndhB	200 nmol $H_2$ mg <i>Chl</i> a <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	Anaerobic and N <sub>2</sub> deprivation	[73]	
Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803	ctaI/cyd	190 nmol $H_2$ mg <i>Chl</i> a <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	Anaerobic and N <sub>2</sub> deprivation	[74]	
Synechococcus sp. PCC 7002	ldhA	14.1 mol H <sub>2</sub> day <sup>-1</sup> 10 <sup>17</sup> cell <sup>-1</sup>	Dark anaerobic fermentation	[75]	
Anabaena sp. PCC 712	hupW	$3.3 \text{ mmol H}_2 \text{ mg } Chl \text{ a}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$	Dark anaerobic fermentation	[76]	
Cyanothec 51,142	hupS	$373 \text{ mmol H}_2 \text{ mg } Chl \text{ a}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$	Photoautotrophic growth under ambient	[77]	
			CO <sub>2</sub> concentrations, argon incubation		
Anabaena 29,413 (PK84 mutant)	hup	$167.6 \text{ mmol H}_2 \text{ mg } Chl \text{ a}^1 \text{ h}^1$	2% CO <sub>2</sub> , 24 argon incubation		
Synechocystis 6803 (M55 mutant)	ndhB <sup>-</sup>	56 mmol $H_2$ mg <i>Chl</i> a <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	Glucose, glucose oxidase, sulfur		
			deprivation argon incubation		

mutagenesis and gene shift could significantly contribute, although developing high-throughput screening methods is required. Furthermore, understanding the biochemical criteria for efficient  $H_2$  synthesis by [Mo]-N<sub>2</sub>ase is essential as a foundation for its re-engineering [85].

This is because mutants obtained by these methods are not  $NH_4$ -sensitive, which increases  $H_2$  yield [94]. In the case of specific residual mutant strains that are not  $NH_4$ -sensitive, the cyanobacterial mutant strains obtained in this manner may have advantages when using wastewater with very high  $NH^b$ 

The N<sub>2</sub>ase enzyme requires an O<sub>2</sub>-free environment to function properly [86]. This process can occur in cyanobac- teria under two conditions: transiently in unicellular cells and permanently in filamentous cells, where O<sub>2</sub> accumulates as a result of photosynthesis in vegetative cells. As a result, fila- mentous cyanobacteria can fix N<sub>2</sub> in free space without re- striction and form an efficient respiratory system [87]. Filamentous cyanobacteria (*Anabaena, Nostoc*, etc.) are domi- nant in N<sub>2</sub>- and O<sub>2</sub>-free environments. Heterocysts contribute 5e10% of vegetative cells. This process occurs in response to N<sub>2</sub> deficiency to maintain the vital activity of cells [88]. Moreover, H<sub>2</sub>ase is sensitive to O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>. Studies show that many filamentous cyanobacterial heterocysts form in N<sub>2</sub>-free environments, although heterocysts also form in nitrogen- rich environments [89,90]. N<sub>2</sub>ase occurs in heterocysts, and some studies have found it in multicellular species of *Oscil- latoria, Desertifilum*, and *Synechococcus* [91]. The following genetic engineering studies are conducted in conjunction with obtaining NH<sub>4</sub>-insensitive mutants. The de- gree of N<sub>2</sub> fixation by filamentous cyanobacteria is based on the highly effective regulatory genes responsible for NH<sub>4</sub> concen-

tration. A high NH<sup>p</sup> concentration hinders the process of H

#### concentrations [95].

Another study on genetic engineering of the enzyme  $N_2$  as was conducted by transferring 35 genes of the *nif* cluster (*nif*H, *nif*D, *nif*K, etc.) from the strain *Cyanothece* sp. ATCC 51142 to *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803. The  $O_2$  resistance of  $H_2$  as in *Syn-echocystis* 6803 was improved by the introduction of  $N_2$  as reception genes, which showed that this was a functional way to enhance the activity of  $H_2$  as under microoxic conditions. As a result, the  $N_2$  fixation capacity of the *Synechocystis* sp. 6803 strain was 30% higher than in wild species, which is the highest activity found in a non-diazotrophic photosynthetic organism [96]. Furthermore, Li et al. [97] showed that the *suf* operon electron transport genes of *Paenibacillus* sp. WLY78 can increase  $H_2$  as activity. Therefore, about 28 genes were selected from WLY78 and expressed in recombinant *E. coli* 78e7. The derived mutant cells produced 50.1% more  $H_2$  than the wild-type cells.

#### Genetic engineering of heterocyst formation

Certain  $N_2$ -fixing filamentous cyanobacteria develop hetero- cysts under  $N_2$  deficiency. Heterocysts have stronger cell walls than the neighboring vegetative cells, lack PSII, and show

2

cleavage due to the suppression of N<sub>2</sub>ase catalysis and the discontinuation of its activity. A reduction in nitrogenase ac- tivity could boost H<sub>2</sub> production by lowering the sensitivity of N<sub>2</sub>ase to NH<sup>p</sup> ions [92]. Point mutations in the *nif*A gene orknockout of the *gln*A (glutamine synthetase) gene make the *NifA* protein NH<sub>4</sub>-insensitive and lead to average H<sub>2</sub> production and N<sub>2</sub> fixation even in an NH<sub>4</sub>-containing environment, which can yield such outstanding outcomes [92]. With 2- and 4-mM ammonium concentrations in the medium, the wild-type cells produced 1558 ± 12 mL L<sup>-1</sup> of H<sub>2</sub>. Mutant cells produced 1678 ± 57 mL L<sup>-1</sup> of H<sub>2</sub>, much higher than the wild type [93].

Furthermore, N<sub>2</sub>ase activity can be increased or normal- ized by modulating the genes that transport NH<sup>b</sup> into the cell. enhanced respiratory activity,

resulting in microoxic condi- tions that preserve  $O_2$ -sensitive  $N_2$ ases [45,98]. Fdx reduced by PSI yields electrons for  $N_2$  fixation. Clostridial [FeFe]- $H_2$ ases produced in heterocyst cells can scavenge photosynthetic electrons before they reach the  $N_2$ ase and produce a higher  $H_2$ 

yield (0.22 mmol  $H_2 dry^{\cdot 1}$  wt  $h^{\cdot 1}$ ) at a rate exceeding that of the

original strain [46]. However, [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase proved to be more  $O_2$ -sensitive than  $N_2$  as and was even inactivated in hetero- cysts. The *Flv3B* gene

(encoding a flavo-diiron protein) over- production boosted heterocystic  $H_2$  production, most likely via increased  $O_2$  consumption, and may promote the expres- sion of [FeFe]- $H_2$  as as well. However,  $H_2$  production in het- erocysts is laborious and needs electrons and carbon

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skeletons from functioning vegetative cells, which is less efficient than direct photolysis [98].

The process of active  $H_2$  evolution in  $N_2$ -fixing cyanobac- teria is accompanied by an increase in heterocyst numbers in the filaments. The number of heterocysts can be artificially increased, which raises the concentration of  $N_2$ ase [99]. This method can now be implemented by treatment with 7-azatriptophan or other genetic methods. Therefore, key genes involved in or controlling the formation of heterocysts need to be deciphered [100]. By over-expressing or introducing these genes, the number of heterocysts in the filaments can be regulated. It is currently known that more than 1000 genes directly or indirectly influence the formation of heterocysts. All genes mainly belong to the group of *het* genes, of which the *hetR* gene is the most actively studied. While the *hetR* gene is responsible for heterocyst formation, the gene products of *patS* and *hetN* [101] are mainly responsible for heterocyst elimination. So far, numerous researchers have investigated the turnover of heterocysts under various conditions. For example, Buikema et al. [102] increased heterocyst formation in *Anabaena* PCC 7120 by 30% by regulating the *hetR* gene, although this number decreased to 30% under  $N_2$  starvation.

During heterocyst formation, the HetR (serine protease)

and *PatA* (responsible regulator) genes impart signals that are crucial for the differentiation process [103]. However, there are no comprehensive studies on the production of bio- $H_2$  by genetically modified free-living cells to increase heterocyst content. Although such elements can theoretically produce a higher yield of  $H_2$ , they still need to be investigated. However, despite continued research efforts,  $N_2$ ase-based  $H_2$  produc- tion requires increased energy in the form of ATP: for each mole of  $H_2$  produced, at least 4 mol of ATP are needed [104].

The *patS* and *hetN* genes are often used to increase the activity of N<sub>2</sub>ase. Moreover, they have been shown to influ- ence the structure of heterocysts indirectly. For example, black et al. [105] revealed that the *hglK* gene's main function was to form the outer, thick layer of the heterocysts. The thick layer stimulates the N<sub>2</sub>ase enzyme by blocking O<sub>2</sub> passage from the external environment to the heterocysts. It was observed that, in cells deprived of the *hglK* gene, H<sub>2</sub> yield decreased sharply.

As mentioned earlier, heterocyst formation in filamentous cyanobacteria in an  $O_2$ -free environment affects the  $N_2$  cycle [106]. However, the process of heterocyst formation is not fully understood, although some studies suggest that heterocyst cells arise from older vegetative ones. Interestingly, free-living cyanobacterial strains show a heterocyst abundance of 5e10%, while modified strains gradually increase to 30e35% with a concomitant increase in  $N_2$  fixation. Moreover, the mutant strains increase the transport of cellular products by performing high levels of  $N_2$  fixation [107]. The H<sub>2</sub> content of D*nblA* mutant filamentous cyanobacterium *Anabaena* sp. 33,047 grown in bioreactors is 2e10-fold higher (100 mm H<sub>2</sub>)

mg<sup>-1</sup> Chl a h<sup>-1</sup>) than that of wild species, and the number of

heterocysts increases. Genetically modified cyanobacteria can be ideal model systems for effective cell development that can be used in future photobioreactors. This is due to the avail- ability of various theories and genetic methods that control the differentiation of heterocysts.

Furthermore, enhanced  $H_2$  production requires the sepa- ration of metabolic  $H_2$  from microbial growth by increasing heterocyst abundance. Jeffries et al. [108] physiologically established constant  $H_2$  production in *Anabaena cylindrica* under N<sub>2</sub>-deficient conditions. In heterocyst cells,  $H_2$  was produced using stored carbohydrates and PSI. In addition, ferredoxin and RNR play a crucial role in cyanobacterial  $H_2$  yields [109]. In addition, some studies have shown that the Fe content of the culture medium positively influences hetero- cyst formation. The abundance of heterocysts is significant as they serve as a chassis for  $H_2$  production [106].

Only [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ases that can be active during ethylene and H<sub>2</sub> production by the N<sub>2</sub>ase enzymes are found in heterocyst cells. Introducing non-native [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase to cyanobacteria cells resulted in a higher H<sub>2</sub> yield than its wild type. One of the most significant tasks in bio-H<sub>2</sub> research is introducing H<sub>2</sub>-producing [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase into heterocysts of filamentous diaz- otrophic cyanobacteria to boost H<sub>2</sub> production [46]. Despite the incorporation of clostridial [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase into *Nostoc* sp. PCC 7120, sufficient levels of H<sub>2</sub> production have not yet been attained. When Fe-limited filaments are effectively converted into heterocysts, [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase requires Fe during Fe-limited culture. [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase requires the same amount of Fe as other H<sub>2</sub>ases: more than 10 Fe atoms for every functional H<sub>2</sub>ase protein complex [46]. Therefore, all heterologously expressed H<sub>2</sub>ases can influence the photosynthetic Fe requirement and remaining Fe-containing enzymes such as N<sub>2</sub>ase [110]. Longstanding Fe deficiency (~90 days) in wild-type *Nostoc* PCC 7120, on the other hand, revealed that the Fe ho- meostasis mechanism is tightly controlled and maintains photosynthesis and N<sub>2</sub> fixation at a reduced but stable level after a few days of culture. Given H<sub>2</sub>ases fast turnover rate [111], the primary goal should be a well-regulated expression level that fits the metabolic capability of H<sub>2</sub> production while minimizing the metabolic burden of H<sub>2</sub>ase on available intracellular Fe.

Moreover, a robust process of H2ase activation can be

implemented at the transcriptional level to synchronize expression with the onset of Fe-limiting effects. Since  $N_2$  as activity naturally decreases under Fe deficiency [112], the remaining Fe used for  $N_2$  fixation can be redistributed to [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase. On the other hand, a basic level of  $N_2$  fixation is required to stabilize the culture and maintain the proteome, i.e., the PSII repair mechanism. Therefore, Fe-limited cultures can be used to support heterocyst-based H<sub>2</sub> production while the activity of  $N_2$ ase remains negligible. Since Fe-limitation inhibits the growth of cyanobacterial cells and increases intracellular carbohydrate storage, this is a promising culture strategy for utilizing energy stored photosynthetically for H<sub>2</sub> biosynthesis. Rather than enabling cyanobacteria to grow continuously in photobioreactors, as has been advocated in the last 30 years of biofuel research [113], solar energy should be converted directly into H<sub>2</sub> or other fuels.

#### Genetic engineering of heterocysts can be performed to

increase their abundance, the thickness of the cell membrane, the amount of sugar coming from the vegetative cell, and the speed of arrival. In addition, the modification of genes contributing to the formation of heterocysts in a nitrogen or oxygen environment is also of interest.

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#### Construction of the O2-resistant hydrogenase

Biocatalysts will play an increasing role in processes aimed at providing alternative and clean fuel sources [114]. However, producing enzyme cells in the presence of hydrogenases is currently difficult because  $O_2$  inhibits their activity. The enzyme sensitivity to  $O_2$  is the main impediment that must be addressed to develop effective photobiological  $H_2$  production. [NiFe]- $H_2$ ases are cyanobacterial hydrogenases that include both uptake *Hup*- $H_2$ ase (2H<sup>p</sup> /  $H_2$ ) and bidirectional *Hox*-

H<sub>2</sub>ase (2H<sup>b</sup> ⇔ H<sub>2</sub>). Common [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ases are resistant to microaerobic conditions and are only transiently inhibited by

 $O_2$ . Several microorganisms with  $O_2$ -resistant [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ases, such as *Ralstonia eutropha*, have  $O_2$ -resistant H<sub>2</sub>ases that can oxidize H<sub>2</sub> in the presence of atmospheric pO<sub>2</sub> [115]. Although not all species can accommodate these plasmids, the research on transporting genes encoding natural proteins in this organism to the necessary cyanobacteria appears very prom- ising [116,117]. The genes responsible for the growth of the bacterium *R. eutropha* in a microanaerobic medium were fully studied. Nevertheless, *R. eutropha* H<sub>2</sub>ase is considered a model system to inspire the development of effective  $O_2$ -resistant hydrogenases [118].

Genetic engineering techniques to increase  $H_2$  synthesis by shifting electron flow towards  $H_2$  metabolism have recently received much interest. An engineering approach to removing competing electron routes, such as the respiratory ETC, the nitrate absorption system, and C fixation via the Calvin-Benson cycle, might be a potential technique to improve  $H_2$  production. Thus, decreasing nitrate uptake reduces electron flow for  $H_2$  metabolism, while increasing its yield. *Synechocystis* PCC 6803 D*Har* and D*Hir* mutants (deletions of the D*Har* and D*Hir* genes) with impaired nitrate uptake produced a higher  $H_2$  yield. Furthermore, inactivating hiloxidase in *Synechococcus* PCC 7002 increased  $H_2$  production *in vivo* [97]. According to

McNeely et al. [75], increasing the NADPH/NADP <sup>b</sup> ratio also

increases H<sub>2</sub> production by NADPH-dependent, bidirectional [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase. H<sub>2</sub> synthesis can thus be enhanced by lowering or removing competing metabolic processes.

Fritsch et al. [119] presented a novel crystalline biological active substance (membrane-bound  $H_2$  ase from *R. eutropha* H16-MBH). This crystal enters the thylakoid membrane and retains  $O_2$  without allowing it to enter the domain of enzymes that cleave  $H_2$  molecules. Since there is no  $O_2$ -resistant component in the structures of [NiFe]- $H_2$  ases, the crystal structure of  $O_2$ -resistant  $H_2$  ase is a mechanism used by some of these enzymes to protect them from  $O_2$ , and this control may pave the way for  $H_2$  ases in many biotechnological de- velopments. Goris et al. [120] also engineered a membrane of

*R. eutropha* H16 that allows the  $O_2$ -resistant [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase to produce H<sub>2</sub> in an  $O_2$ -rich environment. The authors demon-strated that  $O_2$  resistance is critically related to changes in the internal ETC. Six instead of four conservative coordination cysteines surrounded the [FeeS] cluster near the active site.  $O_2$  tolerance is not only based on the limited  $O_2$  access to the active site but also on reducing  $O_2$  species guided by the electronic relay's unique structure.

Genetic engineering of O2-resistant hydrogenase enzymes

is carried out by modification of their responsible genes. In this context, studies aimed at reducing the amount of  $O_2$ 

released by PSII in an anoxic environment will undoubtedly bear fruit. The hydrogenase enzyme can be made O2-resistant by replacing the cluster.

#### Engineering of [NiFe]-hydrogenase to enhance hydrogen production

The indicators of  $H_2$  production by cyanobacteria species ob- tained from many natural fields have been studied, and opti- mization work has been carried out in laboratory conditions. However, despite the efforts made for half a century, indus- trially useable  $H_2$  has not yet been isolated from cyanobac- teria. In this context, the importance of obtaining mutant strains through genetic engineering before implementing metabolic and technical strategies is increasing. [NiFe]- hydrogenase is the main enzyme activated in cyanobacterial strains under anoxic conditions [18].

Hydrogenase reabsorbing  $H_2$  produced by  $N_2$  ase is one of the major constraints to the efficient conversion of solar en- ergy into  $H_2$  [2,121]. *Hup*-H<sub>2</sub> ase catalyzes the almost unidi- rectional uptake of  $H_2$ , whereas *Hox*-H<sub>2</sub> ase catalyzes both  $H_2$  uptake and production. Generally, heterocystic cyanobacteria have *Hup* and *Hox*, though some only have *Hup* [122]. To improve  $N_2$ -based  $H_2$  production, *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120 was selected as a model strain [123] as its entire genome sequence is available. Since *Anabaena* sp. contains two types of  $H_2$ ases, targeted gene disruption was used to inactivate each type and both  $H_2$  production rate by 4e7- fold relative to wild-type cells, whereas inactivating *Hox* ac- tivity did not affect  $H_2$  production. *Hup*-damaged mutants have also been shown to increase  $H_2$  production in another *Anabaena* and *Nostoc* sp [125].

Since  $O_2$ -resistant [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ases in *R. eutropha* are always inactive, studies suggest that the *NiB* genes are responsible for tolerance. Instead, structural changes in proximal [FeS] clus- ters facilitate  $O_2$  transport. The crystal structure of [NiFe]- H<sub>2</sub>ase bound to an  $O_2$ -resistant membrane from *R. eutropha* H16 has a high resolution [119]. A new [3Fe4S] cluster coordinated to six S atoms of cysteine residues, two of which are identical to  $O_2$ -resistant hydrogenases, is responsible for  $O_2$  tolerance [126]. When Lenz et al. [127] substituted glycine for conven- tional cysteines, the enzyme became more sensitive to  $O_2$ . As result, the previously unique proximal [3Fe<sub>4</sub>S] cluster was converted to the normal [4Fe<sub>4</sub>S] cluster. In addition, all future research should concentrate on the proximal [FeS] cluster and its probable significance in determining  $O_2$  sensitivity.

A chemical mutagenesis study was conducted using

mutant strains of the filamentous N<sub>2</sub>-fixing cyanobacteria *Nostoc punctiforme* PCC 73102, *Anabaena variabilis* ATCC 29413, and *Nostoc* PCC 7422 to increase H<sub>2</sub> production by several folds [69,76]. Some authors [22,128] claim that changes in H<sub>2</sub>ase activity or functional relationships with the N<sub>2</sub>ase complex in the mutant cells are linked to a general regulatory system that regulates cell differentiation. Furthermore, H<sub>2</sub>ase is influenced by a disruption of ETC linked to active N<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> metabolism. Masukawa et al. [129] compiled the amino acids dc-Q193S and dc-R284H, which are in proximity to the [FeMo] cofactor of N<sub>2</sub>ase, and described mutants of *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120 that lacks *Hup*-H<sub>2</sub>ase. The wild D*Hup* strain had a lower

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optimal temperature for  $H_2$  production, and unlike the parent strain,  $H_2$  splitting in the mutant strain was not completely inhibited in the  $N_2$  gas phase. From a practical standpoint, this is very promising, as it authorizes utilizing a less expensive gas phase instead of argon in the process. A defective *Syn- echocystis* 

sp. PCC 6803 M55 mutant in the *ndh*B gene with limited *Hup*-H<sub>2</sub>ase activity also produced a higher H<sub>2</sub> yield [73]. In the case of N<sub>2</sub> fixation, H<sub>2</sub>ase is involved in processing the H<sub>2</sub> produced by N<sub>2</sub>ase. Therefore, H<sub>2</sub>ase elimination can potentially yield a higher H<sub>2</sub> volume when considering and analyzing cyanobacterial metabolism. For a long time, genetic research on this alteration has been conducted and described in numerous papers. In particular, the gene knockout of the regulator *Hup*R protein reduces *Hup*SL-H<sub>2</sub>ase expression and

#### thus increases H<sub>2</sub> yield [130].

A possible technique for improving photobiological  $H_2$  production under oxygenated conditions is starting with parent strains with high  $H_2$  as activity and further inactivat- ing *Hup* activity. The acetylene reduction assay revealed that *Nostoc* sp. PCC 7422 had the highest  $H_2$  as activity among the 13 heterocystic strains tested [94]. Following the identification of the nucleotide sequences of *Nostoc* sp. PCC *Hup*-encoding genes, a *Hup*-minus (D*Hup*) mutant was engineered by inser- tion and *hup*L disruption. When grown in the original head-

space over Ar þ 5% CO2 gas under constant light, DHup mutant

cultures collected H<sub>2</sub> at rates of 20e30% (w/w) with O<sub>2</sub> evolu- tion. H<sub>2</sub> accumulation was reduced by <20% when 20% O<sub>2</sub> was added to the initial airspace of the D*Hup* cultures, indicating that the mutant H<sub>2</sub>ase is not sensitive to O<sub>2</sub>. At incoming light energy of 70 mmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, the D*Hup* mutant converted light energy to H<sub>2</sub> with a high efficiency of 1.8% relative

to total solar radiation. Under lab (optimal) conditions, more than 1% of efficiencies relative to total solar irradiance have been reported [129]. However, this was achieved only at a low light intensity, while with increasing light intensity, efficiency decreases significantly, as demonstrated for the D*Hup* mutant PCC 7120 [129,131,132]. The maximum efficiency under bright sunlight was around 0.1% [133]. Targeted mutagenesis to lower the quantity of light-harvesting complexes and/or the concentration of reaction centers, as well as a selection of wild-type strains with greater tolerance to high light intensity, might be used to solve the problem of low light saturation in cyanobacteria.

#### Engineering O<sub>2</sub>-resistant mutants

Manipulating  $O_2$ -resistant  $H_2$  ase genes is another approach for cyanobacteria-based  $H_2$  production [134]. Many studies [135e137] aim to increase  $H_2$  production by replacing or de- leting hydrogenase structural genes. The primary goal of recent  $H_2$  ase studies has been to solve problems associated with increasing  $H_2$  production by identifying, copying, and cutting genes not sensitive to  $O_2$  to maintain stable  $H_2$  pro- duction in cyanobacteria [138]. Many studies have been con- ducted, even though the results are minimal [139,140]. In addition, several recombinant cyanobacterial species with  $O_2$  resistance have been obtained. Thus, some of the structural and auxiliary plasmid genes required for the synthesis of  $H_2$  ase in *Thiocaspa roseoperscina* were introduced into *Syn- echococcus* PCC 7942 [141]. One of the most important funda- mental studies is incorporating [Fe]-encoding structural genes

of H<sub>2</sub>ase into *S. elongatus* PCC 7942 and synthesizing a func- tional H<sub>2</sub>-producing enzyme. In addition, two recombinant structural H<sub>2</sub>ase genes from *Synechocystis* PCC 6803 were ob- tained using *Rubrivivax gelatinosus* [142]. When such mutant cyanobacterial strains with high production of  $O_2$ -resistant H<sub>2</sub>ase are developed and employed, it is unnecessary to aerate the culture medium with an inert gas to induce anaerobic conditions.

The main properties of oxygen-resistant enzymes are directly related to the metals they contain. The unique cluster [3Fe4S] not only ensures  $O_2$  transport through the H<sub>2</sub>ase bound to the *R. eutropha* membrane but also suggests that auxiliary *HoxR* and *HoxT* proteins may be involved in  $O_2$  transport [119]. The disruption of *Hox*R or *HoxT* genes leads to an increase in  $O_2$  sensitivity and a change in the unique [3Fe4S] cluster composition, as demonstrated experimentally. The predictive corresponding *HoxR* functions in forming a unique [3Fe4S] cluster are inconsequential for cofactor sta-bility development.

Obtaining  $O_2$ -insensitive mutants in cyanobacteria is currently an essential issue, so research in this direction will undoubtedly be of interest. In this context, *Hox*R and *Hox*T proteins from *R. eutropha* are important factors that need further investigation.

#### Hydrogenase behavior in an anoxic environment

Accidental gene insertion (*hox, hyp, hup*) can increase the ac- tivity of the natural enzyme  $H_2$ ase. Neighboring relatives of cyanobacteria or other prokaryotic microorganisms act as donors. Research has been conducted on plasmid introduc- tion into the cytoplasm by cross-cutting cells. Related studies [143,144] reported that the rate of  $H_2$  production in the [FeFe]-  $H_2$ ase encoding strains *C. acetobutylicum* and *C. saccha- robutylicum* increased by 67% on average compared to the natural strain. In addition, the *Synechococcus elongatus* strain UTEX 2973 showed a relatively higher  $H_2$  yield. It co-existed with *C. saccharobutylicum* in nature, and the sequencing showed that this cyanobacteria strain contains a unique [FeFe]- $H_2$ ase gene responsible for  $H_2$  production.  $H_2$ ase activ- ity was found to be 1.3-fold higher in this study. The utility of such strategies in producing  $O_2$ -sensitive or non- $O_2$ -sensitive mutant species is enormous, and all genetic studies aimed at increasing  $H_2$  production use cyanobacteria [NiFe]- $H_2$ ase and  $N_2$ ase enzymes.

Active species containing new and unique hydrogenases

with the functions and properties required for  $H_2$  production can be isolated from the environment, particularly in cells living in specific environmental conditions (extreme regions). For example, numerous changes in [FeFe]-hydrogenase adapted to living in an  $O_2$ -free environment have been observed in studies of the  $H_2$  as enzyme diversity. It was discovered that strictly conservative amino acids undergo distinct changes in redox properties and active site  $O_2$  sensi- tivity. Similar methods can be used to create effective and non- $O_2$ -sensitive  $H_2$  as s, such as [NiFe]- $H_2$  as [145]. Ideas for genetic engineering research can be obtained by studying microorganisms that have altered their properties to survive and adapt to such natural conditions.

Moreover, research in this realm involves expressing and introducing O<sub>2</sub>-resistant [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ases into the cell. For

example, *Hyd*SL H<sub>2</sub>ase expressed by the sulfur bacterium purple *Thiocapsa roseopersicina* was incorporated into unicel- lular *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7942 [141]. However, the introduced foreign [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase requires an extra maturation system and a consistent electron supply for H<sub>2</sub> production. Therefore, the

O<sub>2</sub>- and heat-resistant NiFe-HynSL H<sub>2</sub>ase (*HynSL*) was incor- porated into the *S. elongatus* chromosome along with 11 indi- rect *Atheromonas macleodii* genes [141]. As a result, a 3-fold higher H<sub>2</sub> production was obtained in the recombinant strain. Genetic engineering accomplishments also include enhanced expression of the inserted genes, O<sub>2</sub> tolerance, and effective integration of the H<sub>2</sub>ase into the photosynthetic

ETC [16].

# Incorporation of heterologous hydrogenase into cyanobacteria cells

The N<sub>2</sub>ase or natural bidirectional [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase activity is tightly linked to cyanobacteria-based bio-H<sub>2</sub> production. However, H<sub>2</sub> production with natural enzymes remains very low and far from economic productivity. Therefore, genetic engineering studies need to be conducted, albeit at high in- tensity, for which the host cell and primary enzymes are necessary. All N<sub>2</sub>ases have a low cycle number and require 2 ATP molecules to reduce one electron. In addition, they secrete at least 1 mol of H<sub>2</sub> for each mole of N<sub>2</sub> absorbed [146]. In cyanobacterial cells, uptake, or bidirectional [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase, degrades H<sub>2</sub> molecules in relatively small amounts [147]. In contrast, H<sub>2</sub> production based on [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase is not depen- dent on the ATP molecule and has a high rate. [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase is a relatively well-studied enzyme for genetic engineering. Therefore, [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase can be used as a model enzyme when implementing recombinant expressions in synthetic systems [148]. However, no naturally occurring [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase has been discovered in cyanobacteria [66]. Thus, one of the most important strategies is to isolate [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase and introduce it into cyanobacterial cells. This enzyme is most commonly found in enzymatically aerobic *Clostridium* [149]. Another model system is [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase (*Hyd*A1) from the microalga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, which consists only of the F- domain and lacks the FeS cluster [150]. The ability of

metabolic [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ases isolated from microalgae to connect with water oxidation by PSII and photosynthetic ETCs sets them apart. However, the

expression of  $[FeFe]-H_2$  as in nat- ural cyanobacteria is fraught with complications. This is because cyanobacteria can only produce gene signals that target the maturation of their  $[NiFe]-H_2$  as under natural conditions. With the extraction of  $[FeFe]-H_2$  as from *Clos- tridium* sp. and its successful introduction into the unicellular cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* sp. [151], there has been a small breakthrough in this direction in the last decade. *In vitro* and *in vivo*, the heterologous, foreign  $[FeFe]-H_2$  as was also active. *In vivo*  $[FeFe]-H_2$  as activity was light-dependent and associ-

ated with ETC reactions. This study showed that AMC414 lacks Hup activity, and increased H<sub>2</sub> (3.75 nmol H<sub>2</sub> *Chl<sup>-1</sup> a*  $h^{-1}$ ) was observed compared to the wild type (1.5 nmol H<sub>2</sub> *Chl a*  $h^{-1}$ ). Again, [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase was degraded in filamentous heter- ocystic *Nostoc* PCC 7120 blue-green algae. The *hetR* gene, which

is only expressed and functions in heterocystic cyanobacteria, was used as a promoter for this purpose [152]. The [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase protein is found not only in cyanobacteria but also in *Escherichia coli*. The H<sub>2</sub> yield increased when [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase was delivered into the cell along with *HydE*, *HydF*, and *HydG* genes [153]. However, no biochemical or genetic evidence supports the maturation of [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ases in cyanobacteria. This research is not limited to bacteria but is also carried out in eukaryotes. It has been shown that the [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase of *Clos- tridium* sp., which lacks the genes responsible for the maturation system, is expressed in the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* PCC 7942 under *in vivo* and *in vitro* conditions [154]. Similar findings were attained in a study on transferring the *HydA* gene from *Chlamydomonas* to *Synechocystis* PCC 6803. Activation of an enzyme transferred into a foreign cell may occur due to the taxonomy of genes copied along with the maturation system. As shown in the preceding study [155], when [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase was transferred to *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803, without additional maturation genes, was activated differently in each organism. Why [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase is activated in some organisms without maturation operons and why some organisms do not need to express it is an area of research that still requires clarification (Table 2).

Table 2 e Hydrogen production in engineered non-native enzymes of cyanobacterial strains using different strategies.							
Cyanobacterial strains	Engineered genes	H <sub>2</sub> production rate	H <sub>2</sub> production assay condition	References			
Synechosystis sp. PCC 6803	hydA from Chlamydomonas	130 nmol $H_2$ mg <i>Chl</i> a <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	Anaerobic; 50 mEm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ;	[155]			
	reinhardtii		5 mm DCMU				
Anabaena sp. PCC 7120	$H_2$ ase operon ( <i>hyd</i> A, <i>hyd</i> B,	$3.4 \text{ nmol H}_2 \text{ mg } Chl \text{ a}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$	Light and nitrate	[152]			
(Hup <sup>-</sup> )	hydE, hydF, hydG along with		deprivation				
	two additional genes,						
	S03922 and S03924, from						
	Shewanella oneidensis MR-1)						
Synechococcus elongatus	hydA and maturation	$2.8 \text{ mmol H}_2 \text{ mg } Chl \text{ a}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$	Light; 5 mm DCMU; bubbling	[151]			
	operon (hydEFG) from		with 2.5% CO <sub>2</sub> and 97.5% N				
	Clostridium acetobutylicum						
Synechococcus elongatus	[NiFe]-H <sub>2</sub> ase from Thiocapsa	~0.07 nmol H2 mg protein h-1	Anaerobic; 40 mEm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	[141]			
	roseopersicina						
Synechococcus elongatus	[NiFe]-H <sub>2</sub> ase (hynSL along	~4.2 nmol $H_2$ mg protein h <sup>-1</sup>	Anaerobic; 40 mEm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	[141]			
	with 11 adjacent proteins)						
	from Alteromonas macleodii						
Synechococcus PCC7942	hydA from C. acetobutylicum	$\sim 6.8 \text{ mmol H}_2 \text{ mg } Chl \text{ a}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$	Ar, dark adaptation	[154]			

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Studies on [FeS] cluster ligation in [NiFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ases small subunits have recently changed the enzyme proclivity to accept H<sub>2</sub>ases. Yonemoto et al. [156] developed an O<sub>2</sub>-tolerant enhanced H<sub>2</sub> production scheme in cyanobacterial strains by introducing site-directed mutations into *A. macleodii* O<sub>2</sub>- tolerant [NiFe] HynSL hydrogenase, a membrane-associated H<sub>2</sub>ase. Due to its 2% O<sub>2</sub> tolerance, this H<sub>2</sub>ase is appealing for biotechnological applications. The ligand modification was based on the mutagenesis of uptake H<sub>2</sub>ase from *D. fructoso- vorans* [157]. Yonemotto et al. [158] also continued the inves- tigation of *A. macleodii* H<sub>2</sub>ase to obtain an enzyme with considerably higher H<sub>2</sub> production activity than previously reported. The substitutions in *A. macleodii* HynSL were thor- oughly investigated, with aspartic acid, histidine, asparagine, or glutamine substituted for each of the 12 amino acid sites linking three [FeS] clusters in the small subunit, as well as alternate coordinating ligands.

In general, all H<sub>2</sub>ase use direct or auxiliary mechanisms to

transport electrons to the donor, i.e., Fdx. An unanswered question is whether the functional foreign [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase can effectively interfere with the main metabolism, specifically whether it can transfer or accept electrons to the cell redox zone. Artificial [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase introduction into the whole redox system and complete contact with the host cell is a very questionable process. This statement is supported by research on *Synechococcus elongatus* [151]. The electron transfer to the introduced [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase and the energy stored in reserve are handled differently by distinct Fdx. As a result, Fdx that can modulate the introduced foreign H<sub>2</sub>ase into the cell must be created. Consequently, continuous electrons can reach the introduced artificial [FeFe]-H<sub>2</sub>ase.

Cyanobacteria-based H<sub>2</sub> production can achieve higher

yields with O2- and heat-resistant enzymes. This might offer benefits over O2-labile [FeFe]-H2ases.

#### Engineering a photosynthetic apparatus to enhance H<sub>2</sub> production

The mechanism of photosynthesis evolved over millions of years to operate under unfavorable environmental conditions and competition, but not as efficiently as possible. The ratio of PSI and PSII, linear-cyclic electron transport, the volume of the LHC, and the number of cells all play essential roles in the efficient operation of the photosynthetic process [110]. The traits mentioned above can be genetically engineered to improve the photosynthetic structure operation. Cyanobac- teria have a lower PSII/PSI ratio than microalgae and plants, resulting in better cyclic electron transport performance than linear electron transport [159]. Many mutant strains were ob- tained to increase the H<sub>2</sub> yield by enlarging the antennae. For example, the mutant Olive (*apcE* and *apcAB* operons deleted) cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 without phycocy- anin antennae produced more H<sub>2</sub> than the wild species [160]. As a result, the cyanobacterial species do not consume redundant energy sources, leading to an increment in PSI/PSII ratio. Ac- cording to the findings, the Olive mutant is an encouraging H<sub>2</sub> production contender. An increase in the pool of photosyn- thetically derived NADPH regenerators and linear electron transport between photosystems of the Olive mutant were

weakened by the pigment phycocyanin [160]. Moreover, to compensate for the excessive reduction in cellular metabolism, the mutant strain enhanced the amounts of oxidative and os- motic stress-related enzymes and carbon fixation. It can be concluded that the mutant Olive, whose phycocyanin pigment was removed, is the most promising candidate for further ge- netic modification as a constructive cyanobacterial cell [161].

Indeed, genetic engineering methods are being used to reduce phycobilin pigments and chlorophyll antennae to in- crease cyanobacteria-based  $H_2$  yield. As only two photons are required for the transfer of electrons acquired from the water decomposition, theoretically, at high light intensities, a cell PSA absorbs and wastes fewer photons. Therefore, engineer- ing mutants by reducing the quantity of light-absorbing pig- ments in the PSA allows for a 10% efficiency in turning solar energy into carbohydrates. Moreover,  $H_2$  can be obtained from these cells [162]. Bernat et al. [160] demonstrated that continuous growth of a mutant *Synechocystis* PCC 6803 with

shortened or reduced antennae could produce 200 mL H2 h1

A-1 culture. Linear electron transport was 6-fold faster in a

*Synechocystis* PCC 6803 mutant missing a phycobilisome than in a wild strain, whereas cyclic electron transport was the same in both strains. The main prerequisite for increasing  $H_2$  production under conditions of increasing sunlight absorption is an enhancement of the linear electron flow rate.

Recently, it was discovered that protein synthesis tech- nology could significantly improve photosynthetic electron transport efficiency to the  $H_2$  ase. To prevent competing with Fdx-NADP<sup>p</sup> oxidoreductase (FNR), Fdx can be combined with

H<sub>2</sub>ase [163]. Eilenberg et al. [117] found that combining [FeFe]-

 $H_2$  as with Fdx *in vivo* increased photosynthesis 4-5-fold and improved  $O_2$  resistance over wild-type [FeFe]- $H_2$  as. Alterna- tively, PSI can also directly combine [FeFe]- $H_2$  ase. Kanygin et al. [52] used this approach to develop the PSI  $H_2$  as chimaera, which is integrated into the *HydA* chain unit. Under anoxic conditions, the engineered *C. reinhardtii* strain pro- duced stable  $H_2$  for 5 days at a rate of 14 mmol  $H_2$  mg *Chl*<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>. Moreover,  $H_2$  photoproduction occurs independently of the

Calvin cycle in nutrient-rich algae.

Cyanobacteria *Acaryochloris marina* having a high *Chl d* con- tent could be another impressive H<sub>2</sub> producer. Its plasmid (pREB4) contains the *hyp*ABCDEF gene, which encodes a com- plete set of bidirectional H<sub>2</sub>ase subunits [164]. *A. marina* can utilize light until the near-infrared region, as the absorption maximum of *Chl d* is near red. *A. marina* is a natural mutant because its unique redox potential of electron-carrier components in photosynthesis is directly tied to it. One of the fundamental studies is the study of H<sub>2</sub> splitting under the red color spectrum of a strain with unique photosynthetic pig- ments [165].

Berna't et al. [160] used Synechocystis PCC 6803 strains with

genetically modified antennae to produce H<sub>2</sub>. The authors made a potential hydrogen production strain using antenna- deleted *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803, and their results showed that decreasing or missing PBS antenna gave the mutant strains (Olive and PAL mutants) the capability to grow under limited light. Also, the group showed that the linear electron transport rate increased by 1.5-fold in PC- and PBS-depleted Olive and PAL mutants. Furthermore,

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the effects of the strain on the ETC and the environment were determined.

When photoautotrophic mutants with shortened phycobili- some antennas were grown under the light, they produced the most  $H_2$  (200 mL  $H_2$  h<sup>-1</sup> by a 1 L culture).

Numerous literature data cover H<sub>2</sub> production pathways in

anoxygenic organisms and their relevance to photosynthesis [166e169]. However, further studies are needed to increase the efficiency, productivity, and reliability of photosynthetic  $H_2$  production in direct solar energy conversion.

#### Effects of resistance to oxidative and sugar stress

Cyanobacteria are of global interest as biological instruments for carbon capture and storage. They are considered pro- ducers of sustainable biofuels due to their excellent photo- synthetic endowment. Their genetic simplicity and physical stability may one day make them the most important indus- trial species. A well-developed complex group of enzymes is expected to contribute to the current energy deficit, making cyanobacteria-based  $H_2$  production a promising industry [170].

With each study, the structure of the cyanobacterial enzyme types involved in  $H_2$  production becomes more complex [39]. Therefore, the strain *Synechocystis* PCC6803, whose genome has been fully sequenced, was used. A bidi-rectional pentameric  $H_2$  as that is reversibly  $O_2$ -inactivated

can produce  $H_2$ . For photosynthesis and/or sugar catabolism, the  $H_2$  reaction (2H<sup>b</sup> p 2e<sup>-</sup> 4  $H_2$ ) relies on electrons from NAD(P)H, as well as redox cofactors from the [NiFe] center and

multiple [FeS] clusters. The *HoxEFUYH* operon is controlled by a feeble promoter [171] expressed by 168 bp in the upper stream of the proximal *hoxE* gene codon. Meanwhile, the *HoxEFU* subunits work together to form a diaphorase compo- nent, which transports electrons to the *Hox*HY H<sub>2</sub>ase unit, which uses NAD(P)H to produce H<sub>2</sub> from protons. Physiolog- ical studies have revealed that H<sub>2</sub>ase operates as an emer- gency electrical valve, releasing extra photosynthetic electrons, such as switching from (anaerobic) dark to light conditions, resulting in debilitated and temporary H<sub>2</sub> production.

According to Ortega-Ramos et al. [171], overexpression of the HoxEFUYH operon protects cells from stress caused by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, glycerine, and glucose. Simultaneous overexpression of the HoxEFUYH and HypABCDEF proteins resulted in a 20-fold increase in H<sub>2</sub>ase activity. The authors concluded that the increased cellular production of H<sub>2</sub> proteins positively affects H<sub>2</sub> yield and that future increases in H<sub>2</sub> yield can only be achieved through genetic engineering.

Germer et al. [103] used the *psb*AII promoter to increase H<sub>2</sub>ase activity in *Synechocystis* sp. via the expression of the endogenous *hox*EFUYH operon of strain *Nostoc* PCC7120 and the heterologous *Noshyp*ABCDEF operon. As a result, the

mutant strain H<sub>2</sub> yield increased from 2.9 (wild type) to 9.4 (mutant) nmol H<sub>2</sub> mg Chl a<sup>-1</sup> min<sup>-1</sup> [103].

Despite the preceding investigations, H<sub>2</sub> metabolism re-

mains a mystery. More profound knowledge is required to identify favorable environmental conditions and to carry out powerful genetic alterations to speed up the rate of  $H_2$  pro- duction [172]. Obtaining mutants of cyanobacteria that are resistant to sugar and various salts, in turn, opens the way to

rapid biomass production and increases the H<sub>2</sub> yield. This is because the amount of biomass is vital in obtaining any bio-logical component.

# Developing a zero-waste H<sub>2</sub> production technology using genetically engineered cyanobacteria

A promising future research direction is the development of a zero-waste H<sub>2</sub> technology based on cyanobacterial strains. Many technologies are currently proposed to produce bio- diesel and bioethanol from cyanobacteria [170], but there are no plans yet to develop a zero-waste energy technology based on cyanobacterial H<sub>2</sub>. According to the current envi- ronmental policies, one of the most important activities is to develop energy production technologies that do not pollute nature.

Nutrients (macro- and microelements) are extracted from municipal wastewater (1) to cultivate mutant strains, as shown in Fig. 3. This technology is implemented by con- structing special photobioreactors in manufacturing areas. Household or industrial wastewater is treated in two stages:

(2) before being purified in natural ponds and (3) until entering the photobioreactor. The conditions for  $H_2$  production are then created, and the nutrients are transported into the pho- tobioreactor, where the cyanobacteria grow. Since the pho- tobioreactor is located in an external environment (4), solar energy is sufficient. The CO<sub>2</sub> required for cell growth is transported via special hoses from nearby manufacturing fa- cilities and fed directly or indirectly to the photobioreactors

(5). The H<sub>2</sub> energy produced is stored in special H<sub>2</sub> cylinders

(6). The resulting pure  $H_2$  energy is stored in bacteria (7) as electrical energy or used for lighting and motor vehicles (8). Hydrogen energy can also be used directly as a high-power energy source in the heating system (9) and the space in- dustry (10).

As shown in Fig. 3, in the future, by creating smart cities, it will be possible to reduce the current main problem - the temperature of the Earth's surface. At the same time, the technologies of waste remediation, reuse of wastewater, and creation of new, inexhaustible energy sources can be considered the main plan to prevent the energy crisis. Furthermore, by constructing the photobioreactors for growing cyanobac- teria in production facilities, industrial  $CO_2$  can be directly used for cell growth. In this context, one of the future genetic research's main goals is to create new strains capable of actively growing and releasing H<sub>2</sub> energy in an environment with high  $CO_2$  (1e10% of air).

The main advantage of the cyanobacteria-based  $H_2$  pro- duction technology is higher biomass productivity. However, since cell division occupies an important place in the pro- duction of any biological product, it is also critical that the mutant strain's growth intensity is high for  $H_2$  energy. Table 3 summarises the most important characteristics of the cya- nobacterial strains for  $H_2$  production technology.

However, culturing cyanobacterial strains in wastewater has its challenges. This is because wastewater contains very high amounts of lignocellulosic

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materials (LMs) [173]. LM is a composite based on cross-linked biopolymers on a dry basis,



Fig. 3 e Zero-waste technology for  $H_2$  production based on genetically modified cyanobacteria. *Note:* 1 e municipal wastewater; 2 e treatment facilities; 3 e aero tank; 4 e open bioreactor for cyanobacterial biomass; 5 e transfer of CO<sub>2</sub> from flue gas of thermal power plants to the bioreactor; 6 e  $H_2$  storage; 7 e storage of  $H_2$  generated electricity; 8 e the electricity generated can be used in the transport industry and as a light source; 9 e  $H_2$  can be used as an energy source for heating generators; 10 e  $H_2$  can be used as the main energy source in the space industry.

with 35e45% cellulose, 25e30% hemicellulose, and 25e30% lignin [174]. These are classified into four main proportions based on their source, namely woody biomass, agricultural waste, energy crops, and cellulosic waste groups [175]. It is likely that LMs negatively affect the growth of cyanobacterial cells and lead to a decrease in H<sub>2</sub> content. However, using LMs as biofilms, their toxicity can be eliminated, and cell growth is stimulated. For example, Zhang et al. [173] made the first attempt to develop a new biofilm technology using LMs as biofilm carriers. The authors selected LMs pine sawdust, rice husks, sugar cakes, and oak sawdust, which are produced in large quantities around the world every year. Finally, the toxicity of LMs to cells was determined by measuring the growth parameters and chemical composition of *C. vulgaris* grown in biocarrier leachate. Next, Zhang et al. [176] obtained five different LMs and used microalgae strains for their utili- zation. The effect of the physicochemical properties and toxicity of biocarriers on the growth and attachment of cells was determined. *C. vulgaris* cell growth was promoted by pine sawdust filtrate (15.5%), whereas shoot bark filtrate (15.5%) and sugarcane (13.2%) inhibited cell growth during light cultivation.

Phototrophic cells attach to LMs and use them as natural materials for biofilm formation. After cultivation, the cyano- bacterial biomass can be harvested together with LMs or separately for disposal [177]. Interestingly, the collected mixture (LMs and cyanobacterial biomass) can be used directly in the laboratory or industrial conditions as a raw material for  $H_2$  production. However, although the use of LMs as carriers in industrial photobioreactors is economically beneficial, the following conditions should be taken into ac- count first.

- (1) Choosing the optimal materials for fixing the cells that increase the efficiency of the new technology;
- (2) Assessment of the chemical composition of the collected cyanobacterial biomass;
- (3) Determining the effect of material surface properties on algae productivity;
- (4) Identification of factors that positively affect the growth of cyanobacterial cells.

The abundance of fossil fuels, which is still running out, is the primary reason for the lack of development of biological  $H_2$  energy. Since the cost of implementing investment projects is so high, many countries purchase cheap fossil fuels to compensate for household needs. Despite intensive study, bio- $H_2$  production is lagging, and most  $H_2$  produced is derived via cracking.

# Challenges and future perspectives

Although the mechanics behind the primary steps of  $H_2$  pro- duction by phototrophic microbial cells are fully established, bio- $H_2$  production is still a long way from being implemented. The main constraints for sustainable  $H_2$  production are the enzyme  $O_2$  sensitivity and electron competition across distinct pathways that use reduced electrons. Therefore, cyanobacteria-based  $H_2$  production has only been observed in lab conditions thus far. To reach an industrial scale, the pace and duration of  $H_2$  production must be increased. Many alternative ways are being investigated to increase  $H_2$  pro- duction. These techniques have three major components, namely, metabolic, genetic, and technological (Fig. 4) [33,34].

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international j ournal of hydrogen e ne rgy xxx (xxxx) xxx Uses only regenerating substrates: sun and water High growth rate Flexible to genetic modifications Can grow on cheap salts Independent of geographical location and weather conditions Easy to handle Expensive photobioreactor materials Reliant on electricity Difficulty in separating H<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> The complexity of H<sub>2</sub> gas storage technology High transport costs Lack of supporting infrastructure in the fuel industry Large-scale development of mutants with higher H<sub>2</sub> yields The necessity of high-level governmental and international programs Launch of high-level H<sub>2</sub> capture and storage projects Granting of rebates for the transport of bio- H2 energy High cost of bio-H2 energy Lack of international support Low demand for non-renewable energy sources Inability to withstand competition Strengths

#### Weaknesses

Opportunities

#### Threats

The emerging demand for the development of sustainable solutions to utilize solar energy with the subsequent produc- tion of energy sources for the social community arouses sci- entific interest [15]. However, along with solar cells to produce electricity, there are other ways to produce solar fuel. One of the most challenging fields of biotechnology to tackle envi- ronmental concerns is the development of photosynthetic cyanobacterial cells to generate sustainable solar fuels. Native and photosynthetic cyanobacteria have long been utilized as model systems to investigate, demonstrate, and develop photobiological H<sub>2</sub> production. However, the level of H<sub>2</sub> pro- duction attained is negligible from the perspective of indus- trial production of competitive energy carriers. Therefore, solutions to boost bio-H<sub>2</sub> production in cyanobacterial must be discovered through research. As shown in Fig. 4, recent breakthroughs in genetic engineering, which employs synthetic biology to engineer a cyanobacterial cell to produce the desired product, such as H<sub>2</sub>, open up new possibilities and alternatives.

High-throughput assays and screening technologies, along with computational and systems biology breakthroughs, have enabled the examination of vast volumes of data to predict cell metabolism and physiology at the systems level. In addition, synthetic biology will enable the production of spe- cifically tailored cyanobacterial cells capable of producing considerable volumes of renewable  $H_2$  [97].

To investigate an organism at the systems level, systems biology can utilize a number of genome-wide technologies,

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Fig. 4 e Prospects for cyanobacteria-based H<sub>2</sub> production using metabolic engineering systems to design and create cyanobacterial strains that convert solar energy and water directly into the preferred solar fuel, H<sub>2</sub>.

such as high-throughput analytical methods and computa- tional and ohmic studies encompassing the genome, tran- scriptome, proteome, and metabolome levels. The findings of such studies can be used extensively in strain construction using metabolic engineering. Generally, the entire procedure is repeated until the desired phenotype and performance are achieved. Based on *in silico* modeling, knockouts and inserts will be possible in the future. The development of synthetic biology will allow the creation of modified cyanobacterial cells with predicted responses and/or the development of bio- reactors. Still, it will also have implications for economic costs, public acceptance, and the development and use of  $H_2$  energy systems in our society. Due to their rapid growth and simplicity, Cyanobacteria offer an ideal foundation for ambi- tious metabolic engineering projects.

# Conclusion

Hydrogen production has only been determined on a labora- tory scale thus far, as the yield remains insufficient for the industrial scale. Consequently, to regulate the  $H_2$  production rate, the design and operational parameters must be opti- mized for maximal  $H_2$  yield. Currently, efforts to increase the  $H_2$  production capabilities of cyanobacteria species are carried out mainly in four directions: modification of nitrogenase enzyme genes, obtaining hydrogenase mutants, increasing electron transport by changing the photosynthesis complex and obtaining mutants resistant to external environmental factors. However, due to the low  $H_2$  yields of the obtained mutants and the high costs involved, their introduction into production is ineffective. In this context, developing a waste- free technology using a genetically modified active  $H_2$  pro- ducer is of great importance. The zero-waste technological system realizes hydrogen production and contributes to the reduction of the price of bio- $H_2$  in the future. Furthermore, the construction of zero-waste technology with mutant species in the production of bio- $H_2$  will not only alleviate future energy concerns but also lower CO<sub>2</sub> levels in the environment.

# Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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