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Expression and synthetic activation of [FeFe]-hydrogenases in cyanobacteria

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Abstract

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Photosynthetic microbes can be utilized for hydrogen production, generating a clean, carbon neutral energy carrier from abundant substrates. Cyanobacteria are photosynthetic prokaryotes with large potential for biotechnological energy applications and several strains are capable of hydrogen production. This production is catalysed by a bi-directional [NiFe]-hydrogenase, or by nitrogenase during nitrogen fixation. However, nature's foremost hydrogen producing enzymes, the [FeFe]-hydrogenases, are not present in these organisms. Many [FeFe]-hydrogenases boast incredible catalytic activities and high bias towards proton reduction. Introduction of a suitable [FeFe]-hydrogenase in a cyanobacterial host could greatly improve the hydrogen production capacity. Unfortunately, generation and characterisation of cyanobacterial strains carrying active [FeFe]-hydrogenases is stalled by the intricate maturation process associated with these enzymes.

In this thesis, I investigate heterologous expression and artificial maturation of [FeFe]-hydrogenases in cyanobacteria. Genetic tools to reliably express [FeFe]-hydrogenases were developed and tested in the unicellular cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* PCC 6083, and in heterocysts of the filamentous cyanobacterium *Nostoc punctiforme* ATCC 29133. Following heterologous expression, functional, semisynthetic [FeFe]-hydrogenases operating *in vivo* in cyanobacterial cells were generated by synthetic activation. The procedure proved successful in both the unicellular and filamentous strain, and for [FeFe]-hydrogenases from different groups and subclasses. The semisynthetic enzymes proved capable of hydrogen production under different environmental conditions and links to the metabolism of the host cell. Hydrogen production capacity proved long-lived and was retained for several days. In *Nostoc punctiforme*, synthetic activation was confirmed to generate active [FeFe]-hydrogenase in both vegetative cells and heterocyst.

The results presented in this thesis demonstrate a novel way to explore *in vivo* hydrogen production from heterologous [FeFe]-hydrogenases in cyanobacteria. In the search for suitable candidates for H₂ production systems, synthetic activation may be used to investigate a wide range of [FeFe]-hydrogenases, strains and cultivation conditions, circumventing the need of elaborate maturation machinery optimisation.

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List of Papers

This thesis is based on the following papers, which are referred to in the text by their Roman numerals.

- I Lindblad, P., Fuente, D., Borbe, F., Cicchi, B., Conejero, J., Couto, N., Čelešnik, H., Diano, M., Dolinar, M., Esposito, S., Evans, C., Ferreira, E., Keller, J., Khanna, N., Kind, G., Landels, A., Lemus, L., Noirel, J., Ocklenburg, S., Oliveira, P., Pacheco, C., Parker, J., Pereira, J., Pham, T., Pinto, F., Rexroth, S., Rögner, M., Schmitz, H., Benavides, A., Siurana, M., Tamagnini, P., Touloupakis, E., Torzillo, G., Urchueguía, J., **Wegelius, A.**, Wiegand, K., Wright, P., Wutschel, M., Wünschiers, R. (2019) CyanoFactory, a European consortium to develop technologies needed to advance cyanobacteria as chassis for production of chemicals and fuels. *Algal Research* 41: 101510.
- II **Wegelius, A.**,* Khanna, N.,* Esmieu, C., Davide Barone, G., Pinto, F., Tamagnini, P., Berggren, G., Lindblad, P. (2018) Generation of a functional, semisynthetic [FeFe]-hydrogenase in a photosynthetic microorganism. *Energy and Environmental Sciences* 11: 3163-67.
- III **Wegelius, A.**, Land. H., Berggren, G., Lindblad, P. (2021) Novel semisynthetic [FeFe]-hydrogenase with stable expression and H₂ production capacity in a photosynthetic microbe. *Manuscript*.
- IV **Wegelius, A.**,* Li, X.,* Turco, F., Stensjö, K. (2018) Design and characterization of a synthetic minimal promoter for heterocyst-specific expression in filamentous cyanobacteria. *PloS One* 13(9): e0203898.
- V **Wegelius, A.**, Khanna, N., Zamader, A., Berggren, G., Lindblad, P. (2021) [FeFe]-hydrogenase synthetically activated in the filamentous cyanobacterium *Nostoc punctiforme* ATCC 29133. *Manuscript*.

- VI Miao, R., **Wegelius, A.**, Durall, C., Liang, F., Khanna, N., Lindblad, P. (2017) Engineering cyanobacteria for biofuel production. In: Hallenbeck, P. (Ed.), Modern Topics in the Phototrophic Prokaryotes, Environmental and Applied Aspects. Chapter 11: 351-393. Springer International Publishing, Switzerland. ISBN: 978-3-319-46259-2.

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Abbreviations

ATCC	American Type Culture Collection
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate
BCD	Bicictronic design
bp	Base pair
CCM	Carbon concentration mechanism
CO ₂	Carbon dioxide
DBMIB	2,5-dibromo-3-methyl-6-isopropyl-1,4-benzoquinone
DCC	<i>N,N'</i> -dicyclohexylmethanediimine
DCMU	3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
GFP	Green fluorescent protein
H ₂	Molecular hydrogen
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IPTG	Isopropylthio- β -galactoside
MCS	Multiple cloning site
mRNA	Messenger ribonucleic acid
NADPH	Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate
O ₂	Molecular oxygen
PAGE	Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
PCC	Pasture Culture Collection
PSI	Photosystem I
PSII	Photosystem II
RBS	Ribosomal binding site
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
SD	Shine-Dalgarno
SDS	Sodium dodecyl sulphate
TSS	Transcription start site
UTR	Untranslated region
YFP	Yellow fluorescent protein

Introduction

Motivation

Human activities have caused an approximately 1.0° C global increase in average temperature compared to pre-industrial levels, and this warming has been estimated to reach 1.5° C around year 2040 [1]. Unfortunately, greenhouse gas emissions are not decreasing. In fact, they are still increasing every year [2], and the rate of global temperature rise might be underestimated [3]. The recent report from Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), ‘Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate’ [4], describes that many of the physical impacts of the warming escalates in a non-linear fashion in relation to the temperature increase. Ice sheet and glaciers around the world are losing mass, permafrost temperatures are increasing, oceans are warming up and sea levels are rising. Even a small further increase in global temperature can have catastrophic consequences through cascade effects [5]. The difference between a 1.5° C and a 2° C global warming is predicted to be immense [4, 5]. Global society needs to take drastic measures to keep the ongoing climate change to a minimum.

Carbon dioxide emission is a main driver of climate change and we urgently need to escape our dependence on fossil carbon sources for energy production. Solar irradiation offers a practically inexhaustible source of energy, and a wide and unassuming search for sustainable and efficient ways to harvest this energy needs to be undertaken. This thesis, where I have investigated hydrogen production from cyanobacteria, is my small contribution in this search.

Cyanobacteria as fuel producers

Cyanobacteria are photosynthetic Gram-negative bacteria found in various environments all over the globe. Previously (and sometimes still inaccurately) called ‘blue-green algae’, cyanobacteria are famous for their role in the Great Oxygenation Event 2.5 billion years ago [6] and for the endosymbiotic relationship with eukaryotic organisms [7] that resulted in today’s chloroplasts and life on land as we know it. Cyanobacteria are hugely important as primary producers and, with some strains capable of diazotrophic growth, vital in the

biogeochemical nitrogen cycle. The phylum Cyanobacteria is vast and diverse, with morphologies ranging from unicellular to filamentous. Among the filamentous cyanobacteria, we find strains capable of differentiating all, or a subset of, their cells into specialized, morphologically different compartments to tackle various changes in their environment [8].

Cyanobacteria have several unique characteristics that makes them interesting as fuel producers. Their microbial, photosynthetic nature enables photoautotrophic growth with very minimal substrate requirements. Electrons from the photocatalytic water splitting by PSII are channelled in the photosynthetic electron transport chain to PSI, facilitating the creation of a proton gradient over the thylakoid membrane. In a second light driven reaction, electrons are used to produce the high energy electron carrier ferredoxin, and subsequently NADPH. The energy stored in the gradient over the thylakoid membrane drives the creation of the cellular energy carrier ATP by ATP-synthase. The NADPH and ATP are used for CO₂-fixation and synthesis of all biomolecules that the cell is made of.

Compared to plants, that also perform oxygenic photosynthesis, cyanobacteria are more attractive as fuel producers for many reasons. Their ability to grow on no-arable land, and thus not compete with food production, is often brought up [9, 10]. Cyanobacteria could even be cultivated in desert regions and/or in seawater. They also have higher solar energy capturing efficiencies [10] and boasts an impressive carbon concentration mechanism (CCM) that enhances the photosynthetic efficiency by reducing photorespiration [11–13]. Compared to higher organisms like plants, cyanobacteria are also, generally speaking, more readily approachable with genetic engineering and recombinant technologies.

The work presented in this thesis employs two cyanobacterial strains, *Nostoc punctiforme* ATCC 29133 (*N. punctiforme*) and *Synechocystis* PCC 6803 (*Synechocystis*). *N. punctiforme* is a filamentous strain with a large, almost 10 Mbp genome [14], isolated from coralloid roots of the cycad *Macrozamia* native to Australia [15]. Upon combined nitrogen starvation, it differentiates a subset of the vegetative cells along the filaments into specialized microaerobic compartments, called heterocysts. These cells host the oxygen sensitive nitrogenase that catalyzes the nitrogen fixation reaction. After differentiation, the filaments are capable of photoautotrophic, diazotrophic growth, where vegetative cells perform oxygenic photosynthesis and provide carbon substrate for nitrogen fixation in the heterocyst [16]. *N. punctiforme* is also capable of heterotrophic growth and occurs symbiotically with fungi and terrestrial plants [14].

Synechocystis is a well-studied unicellular non-diazotrophic cyanobacterium, isolated from freshwater. It is one of the most popular photosynthetic model organisms worldwide. The *Synechocystis* strain used in this work is

glucose tolerant and capable of photoautotrophic, mixotrophic and heterotrophic growth. Its 3,6 Mbp genome was the first among photosynthetic autotrophs to ever be fully sequenced [17].

Metabolic engineering and genetic tools

Metabolic engineering is often defined (for example by Stephanopoulos 2012, Kerkhoven *et al.* 2015 and Teo *et al.* 2017 [18–20]) as “*the directed modulation of metabolic pathways using methods of recombinant technology for the purpose of overproducing fuels and chemical and pharmaceutical products*”. This definition is assigned to James E. Bailey’s article in Science 1991 [21]. However, these words do not appear in Bailey’s publication, and the origin of this definition is unknown. Regardless, it summarizes well the field of metabolic engineering, where the cellular metabolism is rewired, using advanced technical approaches, to produce novel compounds or increase the production of naturally occurring ones [22]. Metabolic engineering has been used to great effect on countless occasions [22, 23], especially in heterotrophic model organism like *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) and yeast.

One of the pillars that metabolic engineering rests upon is synthetic biology. This science field specifically deals with designing and combining well characterized genetic elements using engineering principles to accelerate construction of new biological systems. Ideally, these genetic elements can be used in different applications and behave in a predictable manner. In the context of metabolic engineering, synthetic biology can be described as the development and employment of reliable genetic tools for controlled expression of native or heterologous genes. To advance fuel production from cyanobacteria, and cyanobacterial biotechnology in general, we need better genetic tools for strain development and expression regulation. Compared to the situation in heterotrophic model organisms, the toolbox for genetic engineering of cyanobacteria is still limited [24].

Genetic tools are DNA sequences that mediate biological functions within the host. Examples are vectors, promoters, ribosomal binding sites (RBS), transcription factor binding sites, terminators and so on. Below, I briefly discuss a few genetic tools of special interest for this work and for cyanobacterial genetic engineering in general.

Promoters and transcription initiation

Promoters are binding sites for RNA polymerase in the genetic material which determines the position and frequency of transcription initiation. The recognition of specific promoters and regulation of transcription initiation are mediated by sigma factors, which form complexes with RNA polymerase. In bacteria, the sigma factor recognizes and binds to the -10 and -35 regions of the promoter and initiates transcription at the transcription start site (TSS), defined as position +1 [25]. In cyanobacteria (as well as in other bacteria) one

RNA polymerase is responsible for all transcription in the cell [26], and sigma factor switching can be used as a global response to environmental changes and stress conditions [27].

The choice of promoter is extremely important for the successful production of a selected compound in a biological system. Much effort has been made to discover and create promoter regions for use in cyanobacteria [28]. So far, a large part of the promoters utilized have been native sequences, originating from the same or a closely related strain. Many compounds interesting for fuel or chemical industry has been produced from cyanobacteria by employing such promoters [29]. Promoter regions related to the photosystems or the phycobilisome, such as the phycocyanin promoter *Pcpc*, are popular due to their high activity, and has been used with great success, in e.g. *Synechocystis* [24, 30–32]. The light regulated nature of these promoters, as well as the very high activity, can be problematic for some applications. To satisfy the need of more moderate expression levels, Markley *et al.* (2015) developed a library of constitutive promoters with varying activity, based on the *Pcpc* [33].

When the complexity of genetic engineering advances, or when products or intermediates are toxic, inducible promoters are strongly desirable. Even in this arena, usage of native cyanobacterial promoters has been widespread. Micronutrient and metal induced promoters, like the nickel induced *PrnsB* [34], offers wide dynamic range and inducibility [24, 35]. Apart from these, inducible promoter systems from other organisms have been adapted and deployed in cyanobacteria [24, 33, 36–39]. Such systems are advantageous as they are free of any native sequences and not laden with native regulation. Orthogonality is often brought up as one of the cornerstones of synthetic biology, but sometimes practicality forces our hands, and we need to rely on the well-repressed native metal induced promoters. In the common model strain *Synechocystis*, where the induction of lac-operated promoters with IPTG is not well-working, there is often little choice, especially considering the light sensitivity of anhydrotetracycline used to induce TetR-regulated promoters, described in [37] and reviewed in [24] and [35].

Translation initiation and ribosomal binding site

The ribosome is a complex molecular machine that, *via* the 16S ribosomal RNA, recognizes and binds to the Shine-Dalgarno (SD) sequence of the ribosomal binding site (RBS) in the mRNA. Following the recognition of the RBS, the ribosome translates the coding sequence, codon by codon, into a peptide chain. This is another key process to consider when designing genetic constructs. Most commonly, a high translation initiation is desirable in cyanobacteria, since intricate regulation and fine tuning of expression most often is engineered on transcriptional level. Looking at heterologous expression in cyanobacteria, native RBSs are commonly used, and are often deployed in expression constructs together with the associated native promoter. But also more systematic approaches, with library creation and evaluation, have been

explored [33, 40]. In *Synechocystis*, the engineered, synthetic RBS* (RBS-'star') [41] with exactly complementary SD sequence to the *Synechocystis* anti-SD, is a well-used alternative.

Plasmids as vectors

Plasmids are circular, self-maintained DNA molecules, that can be used as vectors to transfer recombinant genetic material to host cells. Vectors can be designed to be self-replicating in the target organism, or to integrate DNA into the existing genetic material. The work presented in this thesis employs only the former of the two. The RFS1010 [42] derived broad host range shuttle vector pPMQAK1 [43] is used for expression in *Synechocystis*, and variants of plasmids containing the pDC1 cyanobacterial origin of replication [44–46] are used for expression in *N. punctiforme*.

Interactions between parts

It has been noted in the field, that the usefulness of reporter-protein based characterization of genetic tools, exemplified by some of the works referred to earlier in this chapter, is questionable [40, 47, 48]. The performance of a certain promoter-RBS combination often differs greatly depending on what gene product is being expressed. This is true for cyanobacteria as well as for *E. coli* and can be an obstacle for advanced synthetic biology and metabolic engineering. Due to the longer generation time, longer segregation time and a more complicated strain generation process in cyanobacteria compared to *E. coli*, combinatorial “trial and error” approaches are not practical if we want to advance the research field. Reliability of genetic parts is another cornerstone in synthetic biology, and here, we have a long way to go.

A large part of the context dependent variation observed is suggested to be the result of secondary structures in the mRNA, obscuring the RBS and the SD in unpredictable ways [47, 49]. It is easy to imagine secondary structures, even close to the 5' end, differing dramatically between mRNAs with different coding sequence, even if the 5' UTRs remain identical. In *E. coli*, much of this unpredictability can be circumvented by the employment of standardized insulator sequences and adaptors between the 5' UTR and the CDS. Bicistronic design (BCD) and RiboJ are two examples [49, 50]. Both these devices have been investigated in *Synechocystis* [51], providing vital information for further research. Apart from that, context dependent expression variation in cyanobacteria remains largely unaddressed.

Fuel production

Many of the molecules created by cyanobacteria in the light driven autotrophic biosynthesis are directly useful as fuel compounds or fuel precursors. Certain strains have high native production of fatty acids that can be used for biodiesel

production, others produce molecular hydrogen (H_2). Unfortunately, this native production is generally too low to satisfy the yield requirements in large scale production. The lion's share of the cellular energy and reduction power generated by the photosynthetic light reaction is used for cell proliferation and survival, not to produce large amounts of high energy compounds suitable as fuels.

The metabolic network in a cell consists of a myriad of reactions catalyzed by thousands of enzymes, all expressed in a tightly regulated manner. By careful engineering of the metabolic pathways in the cyanobacterial cell, energy and reductant power can be redirected to allow substantial fuel production directly from CO_2 , light, and water [52–55]. Several fuel producing strains have been created using genetic engineering of cyanobacteria [52, 53]. Some of the most promising, recent projects are utilizing advanced metabolic engineering and involves production of ethanol [56], isopropanol [57], 1-butanol [31], isobutanol [58], and hydrogen [59]. Still, to make large scale production feasible, higher yields and better energy balances are generally required.

H_2 metabolism and production in cyanobacteria

Several characteristics make H_2 promising as energy carrier in future energy systems. The energy dense gas can be used as feedstock for production of synthetic fuels, or directly converted to electrical energy in a fuel cell [60]. Electricity production from H_2 is clean and releases water as only exhaust product. In contrast to electricity, that requires large and expensive batteries for energy storage, H_2 can be transported and/or long time stored in, for example, pressurized tanks. In the fossil fuel dependent transport sector, introduction of H_2 -powered vehicles could drastically reduce the harmful emissions [61] and several automobile manufacturers offer fuel cell electrical vehicles today. These vehicles display many of the beneficial characteristics of the battery propelled electrical cars, but have comparable range to traditional combustion engine cars. Aside from the promising prospects in transportation, large quantities of H_2 is used in refinery processes and as feedstock in chemical industry. Today, H_2 is produced nearly exclusively from fossil sources, primary natural gas.

Solar driven water splitting is a promising approach to produce clean, carbon neutral H_2 . To be sustainable in the long run, production needs to be independent of rare earth metals, easy to implement in large scale, and not produce unrecyclable waste materials. Biological H_2 production from photosynthetic microorganisms is one of few technologies that has the potential to truly fulfill these requirements.

Native production

Many cyanobacterial strains have the inherent capability to produce H_2 . This is a rare feature among photoautotrophs, and offers unique possibilities of direct production of a fuel, using only sunlight and water as substrates. Three enzymes, all oxygen intolerant metalloproteins, are directly involved in H_2 metabolism in cyanobacteria: nitrogenase, uptake hydrogenase (Hup), and bidirectional hydrogenase (Hox).

Nitrogenase is the enzyme enabling nitrogen fixation in diazotrophic cyanobacteria. It catalyzes the break of the covalent N_2 bond and the subsequent formation of ammonia, an ATP dependent process in which H_2 is produced as a biproduct. The uptake hydrogenase, Hup, is closely associated with this process, and recovers electrons wasted on H_2 production during nitrogen fixation. It is a [NiFe]-hydrogenase that catalyzes the oxidation of H_2 , and this enzyme is exclusively found in nitrogen fixing strains.

Like the uptake hydrogenase, the cyanobacterial Hox is a [NiFe]-hydrogenase. It can catalyze both the oxidation of H_2 and the reduction of protons, and thus be involved in H_2 production or uptake. The enzyme consists of a catalytic and a diaphorase complex, and the catalyzation is not dependent on ATP. The physiological function of the enzyme has long been under debate [62], but it is essential for dark aerobic growth [63] and in mixotrophic, nitrate-deprived conditions [64]. The exact electron donor to the enzyme has also been heatedly debated, see for example [64], [65] and [66]. Regardless, the bidirectional Hox is known to produce H_2 to balance the redox state of the cell during dark fermentation, and to remove excess electrons from the photosynthetic electron transport chain during transition to light [67].

Despite their native H_2 production capacity, cyanobacteria are still far from being implemented in large scale production systems. The oxygen sensitivity of the H_2 producing enzymes, and the low energy conversion efficiencies due to competitions for electrons with other pathways, are major obstacles [68].

Engineering for increased H_2 production

There are several ways to enhance the H_2 production from cyanobacteria. Deleting the *hup* genes, encoding the uptake hydrogenase, from the genome, and thus removing the H_2 uptake capacity, has been shown to increase the net H_2 evolution in numerous filamentous strains [69–74]. Mutating the nitrogenase, targeting either the active site [75, 76] or the presumed gas channel [77], has also been shown to increase the production. Nonetheless, H_2 production from nitrogenase is still restricted by the high energy demand of the enzyme, and this remains an uncertainty for future applications.

The bidirectional Hox hydrogenase in *Synechocystis* has been engineered to tolerate higher O_2 levels, and the changes also resulted in better reaction

bias for production [78]. Recently, Appel *et al.* (2020) reported the development of a *Synechocystis* strain where the catalytic complex of the Hox hydrogenase was fused to the PsaD subunits of PSI [59]. The fusion facilitated *in vivo* light driven H₂ production using electrons directly from PSI, and showed no uptake activity due to the lack of the diaphorase subunits. Previously, such fusions had only been reported *in vitro* [79, 80]. Although it is presented as a proof of concept study, follow up investigations and upscaling reports will hopefully follow soon.

[FeFe]-hydrogenases

Hydrogenases are divided into classes after the metal composition of the cofactor in the active site. The hydrogenases occurring in cyanobacteria belong, as discussed above, to the [NiFe] class. However, another class, the [FeFe]-hydrogenases, have long been considered superior for usage in biological and biohybrid H₂ production systems. This is attributed to very impressive catalytic activity, several thousand H₂ s⁻¹ [81, 82], and a high reaction bias towards production. [FeFe]-hydrogenase research is a very active field, with new enzymes still being discovered and detailed aspects of the H₂ turnover still being discussed [83]. All [FeFe]-hydrogenases harbor a biologically unique cofactor called the H-cluster. This cluster consists of a [4Fe-4S] cluster connected to a diiron subcluster via a cysteine bridge. The complete biosynthesis of this cofactor requires three specific maturases, HydE, HydF and HydG [84, 85], that always accompanies the [FeFe]-hydrogenase (HydA) in the natural hosts. The maturation factors assemble the diiron subcluster and insert it to the active site of the unmaturing HydA. Heterologous expression of HydA without the maturases, results in an inactive *apo*-enzyme without catalytic activity [86].

Employment of a suitable [FeFe]-hydrogenase in cyanobacteria could enable efficient H₂ production, not hampered by the energy demand of nitrogenase or the H₂ consumption activity of the [NiFe]-hydrogenases. This strategy has long been considered a possible way to move cyanobacterial H₂ production forward, but the maturation machinery co-expression requirement makes it challenging to pull off.

In 2011, Ducat *et al.* reported light dependent H₂ production from a *Clostridium acetobutylicum* [FeFe]-hydrogenase operating *in vivo* in *Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 7942 [87]. Unfortunately, no follow up studies or upscaling tests of this strain have been reported so far. Seven years later, in 2018, Avilan *et al.* showed light driven H₂ production from a similar [FeFe]-hydrogenase operating in heterocysts of the filamentous cyanobacterium *Nostoc* PCC 7120 [88]. In the same study, the heterocyst metabolism was engineered to better protect the heterologous enzyme from O₂ during oxygenic photosynthesis. This is an encouraging example of metabolic engineering towards sustainable H₂ production in cyanobacteria, and hopefully we will see more investigations of this strain or similar ones in the near future.

Aim

The aim of this thesis can be divided into three parts:

- I Develop tools to reliably express [FeFe]-hydrogenases in different cyanobacterial strains,
- II Generate functional [FeFe]-hydrogenase operating *in vivo* in cyanobacteria, focusing on alternative maturation methods, and
- III Explore hydrogen production from semisynthetic [FeFe]-hydrogenases in unicellular and filamentous cyanobacteria under different environmental conditions

Results and Discussion

Expression of [FeFe]-hydrogenase in cyanobacteria (paper I and V)

The promoter $P_{trc_{core}}$ (P_{trcO1} -core in [89]) is known to mediate constitutive expression (in the absence of Lac-repressor) in *Synechocystis* and other strains [41, 89]. RBS* (RBS-‘star’), with exactly complementary SD sequence to the *Synechocystis* anti-SD, is specifically engineered to be suitable RBS for protein expression in *Synechocystis* [41]. The specific combination of $P_{trc_{core}}$ and RBS* has been evaluated in our lab, and is known to give reliable expression of a GFP reporter. However, when we used the same transcription and translation initiation unit ($P_{trc_{core}}$ -RBS*) to express other genes in *Synechocystis*, substantial variations in performance became apparent. When $P_{trc_{core}}$ -RBS* was used to express a codon optimized *hydA1*-gene encoding the [FeFe]-hydrogenase HydA1 from *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Cr HydA1) in *Synechocystis*, confirmed positive transformants showed no sign of protein expression.

RBS34 (BBa_B0034, Registry of Standard Biological Parts [90]) is another RBS known to facilitate translation of mRNA in *Synechocystis* and has successfully been used in combination with P_{trc} [41]. When $P_{trc_{core}}$ -RBS34 was used to drive the expression of an *hydEFG* operon, encoding the three maturation factors HydE, HydF and HydG from *Clostridium acetobutylicum*, only minimal levels of HydG was expressed in confirmed positive transformants. The fact that the expressions strategies described above failed, even though the regulatory parts used have been proven to function for expression of other genes in the same host, was surprising and exemplifies the problems that can be caused by context dependence of genetic tools.

Bicistronic design

Looking for a way to achieve satisfying levels of expression, the 5' UTR regions in both constructs discussed above were replaced with the bicistronic design insulator sequence BCD2 [49]. The BCD is designed to temporally melt secondary structures around the junction between the 5' UTR and the CDS, by the translation of a standardized leader peptide, containing a second RBS imbedded in the coding sequence followed by a hybrid start/stop codon TAATG [49]. Comparison between the expression strategies is shown in Figure 1a.

Western immunoblot analysis of SDS-PAGE separated protein extracts, revealed expression of HydA1 only in strains harboring the BCD construct (Figure 1b). Similar immunoblot analysis, targeting the flag tagged (DYKDDDDK) HydG protein from the *hydEFG* operon, revealed barely detectable expression from the original construct, but strongly evident expression from the BCD counterpart (Figure 1b).

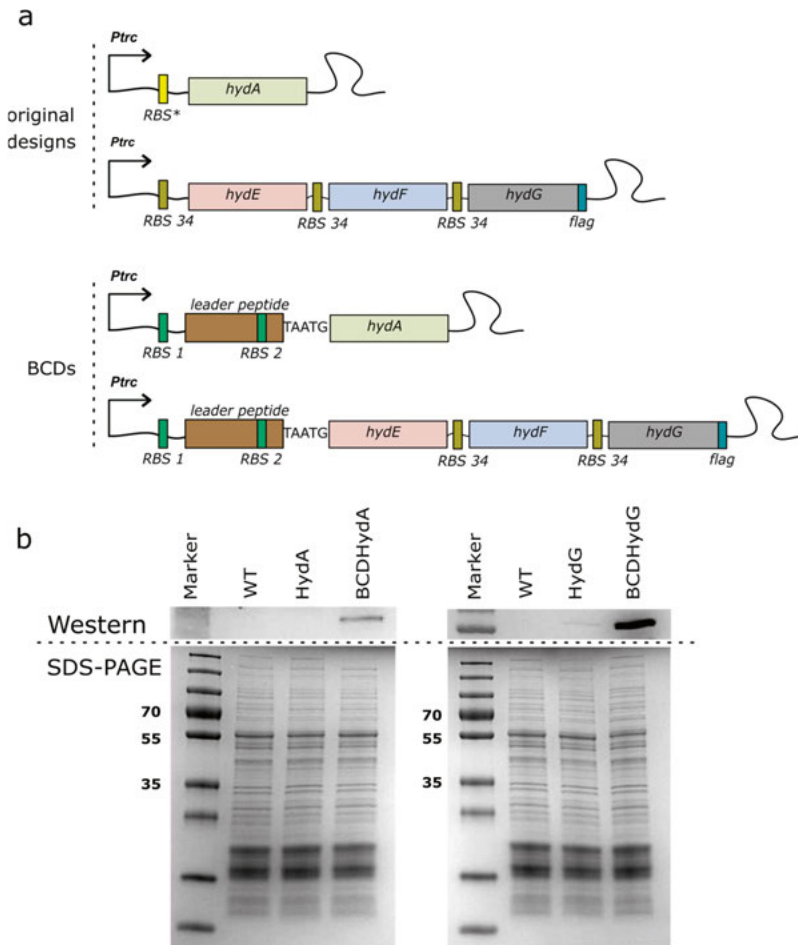


Figure 1. Employment of a bicistronic design (BCD) for heterologous expression of HydA1 and HydEFG in *Synechocystis*. (A) Representation of *hydA* and *hydEFG* expression construct designs, before (original) and after (BCDs) modification with BCD. Elements are not depicted in scale. (B) Western immunoblot analysis of crude protein extracts from *Synechocystis* wild type and engineered strains using HydA antibodies (HydA) and flag tag antibodies (HydG_{flag}). SDS-PAGE gels are included for loading reference control and numbers indicate reference molecular weights in kDa. Molecular weight of HydA1 and HydG_{flag} is 46.4 and 54.6 kDa, respectively. Figure adapted from paper I.

Semiquantitative RT-PCR confirmed the existence of mRNA from all four constructs (Figure 2), and no difference in mRNA levels were detected. It is apparent that the expression levels from *Ptrc_{core}* and RBS*/RBS34, that is known to facilitate clear expression of GFP in *Synechocystis*, change dramatically when employed in a different genetic context. In the case above, the combination failed to express detectable levels of HydA and satisfying levels of HydG, even though mRNA was confirmed from both constructs. When BCD was used, translation was enabled and protein was accumulated. This indicates secondary structure covering the RBS in the mRNA, and demonstrates the effectiveness of BCD for expression of heterologous genes in *Synechocystis*. Based on these conclusions, bicistronic designs were employed for all expressions of [FeFe]-hydrogenases in papers II, III and V.

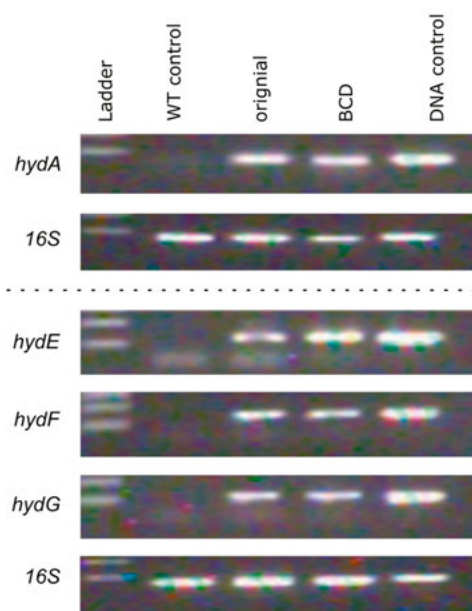


Figure 2. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR analysis of *Synechocystis* wild type (WT control) and engineered strains expressing HydA1 (above) and HydE, F and G (below) without (original) or with (BCD) use of BCD. DNA control is included as size reference. 16s amplification is included as loading reference. Figure adapted from paper I.

Interestingly, changing the RBS34 before *hydE* to a BCD in the maturation factor operon, facilitated efficient translation of the flag tagged *hydG*, starting more than 3500 bp downstream in the mRNA. I conclude that the distance between the stop codons and the following RBSs in the operon (11 bp) is small enough for the ribosome, translating the upstream CDS, to melt any secondary structures that might hinder recruitment to the downstream RBS.

Both *P_{trc}_{core}*, RBS* and RBS34 are functional genetic tools also in *E. coli*. To our surprise, both HydA1 and HydG were well expressed in the heterotopic bacterium, also from the original constructs without BCD. It appears that *Synechocystis*, by some mechanism, is a more delicate expression system when it comes to translation initiation. Whether this is true in general, or only for the [FeFe]-hydrogenase related genes in this work, needs further investigation.

Heterocyst specific expression of [FeFe]-hydrogenase

When designing a genetic construct for expression of *Cr* HydA1 in heterocysts of *N. punctiforme* (paper V), the expression problems described above were repeated, and this time with a native promoter fragment. A 316 bp *PhupSL* fragment from *N. punctiforme*, reported to facilitate heterocyst specific expression of GFP [91], was employed, together with RBS*, upstream a *hydA1-gfp* fusion CDS. RBS* is known to be a functional RBS in *N. punctiforme* and was successfully used in paper IV. Here however, when the construct was assembled and electroporated into *N. punctiforme*, heterocysts of confirmed positive transformants displayed no GFP expression. Inspired by the successful employment of BCD in *Synechocystis*, we applied the same strategy for this construct and changed the RBS* of the original construct to BCD2 [49]. The new strain exhibited significant GFP expression, and confocal microscopy confirmed a preserved heterocyst enhanced expression pattern (Figure 3).

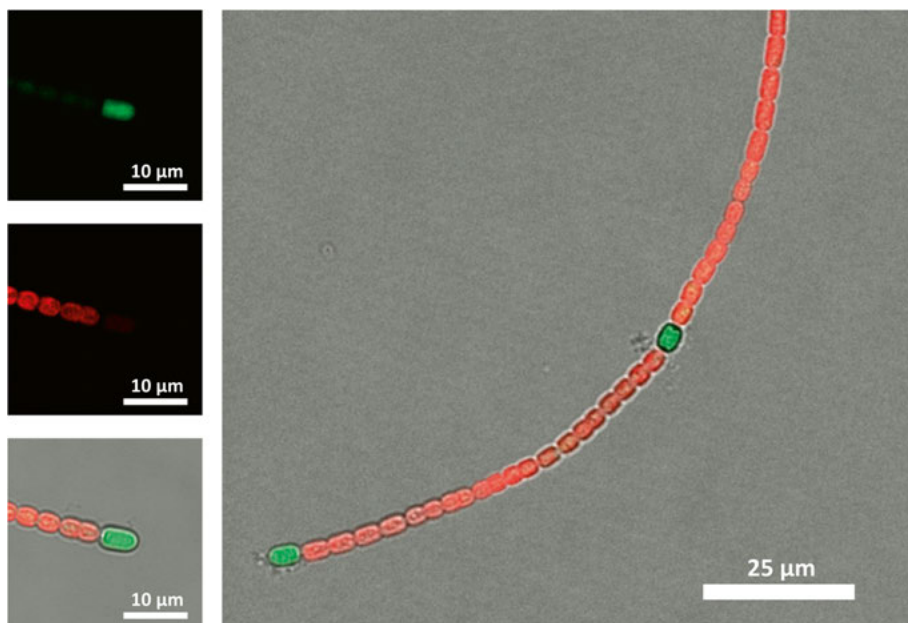


Figure 3. Confocal fluorescence images of *Nostoc punctiforme* filaments expressing the *apo*-[FeFe]-hydrogenase HydA1 from *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, fused to a green fluorescent protein (GFP). Green channel depicts florescence from GFP (500-520 nm), red channel depicts autofluorescence (600-700nm). Overlaid images display both fluorescence channels overlaid with the bright-field channel. The large cells with increased GFP fluorescence and reduced autofluorescence are heterocysts. The white bars (10 and 25 µm) indicate scale.

Evidently bicistronic translation initiation design can offer a solution when more traditional construct designs fail to express heterologous proteins in cyanobacteria. This is true even in the more special case of cell specific expression.

Semisynthetic [FeFe]-hydrogenases in *Synechocystis* (papers II and III)

Heterologous expression of an [FeFe]-hydrogenase in cyanobacteria, without the co-expression of the three maturases HydE, F and G, results in an inactive *apo*-enzyme. This is an inconvenience when developing [FeFe]-hydrogenase based H₂ producing strains. Reliable and controlled expression of all four genes in the same cell is required to allow *in vivo* H₂ production. Only two examples of this being executed in cyanobacteria exists in literature (discussed in Introduction) [87, 88]. In both cases the group A, subclass M3, *Clostridium acetobutylicum* [FeFe]-hydrogenase was utilized. Investigations of new or

modified [FeFe]-hydrogenases, in cyanobacteria or other microbes, could potentially be simplified by bypassing the biological maturation system.

Generation of semisynthetic hydrogenase

A few years back, it was discovered that a purified *apo*-HydA can be matured by direct introduction of a synthetic analog of the diiron subcluster $[\text{Fe}_2(\text{adt})(\text{CO})_4(\text{CN})_2]^{2-}$ (from now on $[\text{2Fe}]^{\text{adt}}$, $\text{adt} = ^-\text{SCH}_2\text{NHCH}_2\text{S}^-$) (Figure 4) [92, 93], a process referred to as artificial maturation or synthetic activation. This technique was later expanded to enable *in vivo* synthetic activation of heterologous expressed, unmaturing *Cr* HydA1 in *E. coli* [94].

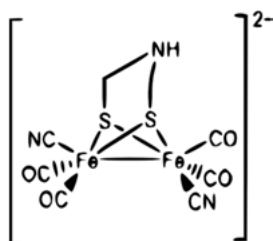


Figure 4. Schematic representation of the inorganic diiron subcluster mimic $[\text{Fe}_2(\text{adt})(\text{CO})_4(\text{CN})_2]^{2-}$ ($[\text{2Fe}]^{\text{adt}}$ $\text{adt} = ^-\text{SCH}_2\text{NHCH}_2\text{S}^-$), used to artificially mature *apo*-HydA.

Paper II describes the first artificial maturation of an [FeFe]-hydrogenase in cyanobacteria. A *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* HydA1 (*Cr* HydA1), expressed and synthetically activated in a hydrogenase deficient (*ΔhoxYH*) [95] strain of the unicellular cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* (*Synechocystis* *Δhox*), proved capable of H_2 production under fermentative conditions (Figure 5). Fermentative H_2 production from WT *Synechocystis* was improved by expressing and activating *Cr* hydA1, side-by-side to the native Hox hydrogenase (Figure 5). However, the *Cr* hydA1-expressing strain without the bidirectional [NiFe]-hydrogenase produced the same amount of H_2 , or more, as the strain with two active hydrogenases. The artificially matured *Cr* HydA1 is, to my knowledge, the first semisynthetic enzyme to ever operate *in vivo* in cyanobacteria. Further, it is the first example of a subclass M1 [FeFe]-hydrogenase active *in vivo* in cyanobacteria.

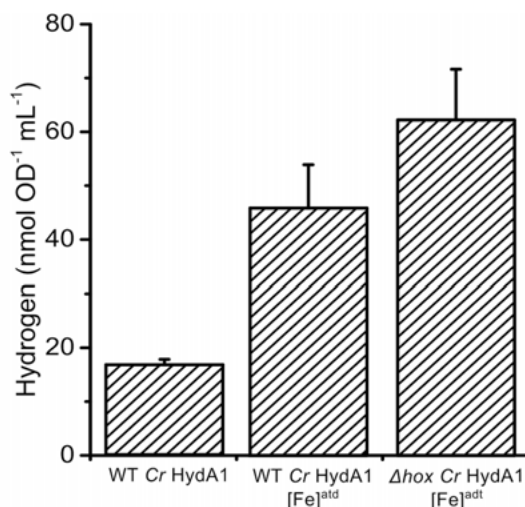


Figure 5. Accumulated H₂ from *Synechocystis* wild type (WT) and *Synechocystis* Δhox expressing *Cr* HydA1. Columns represent nmol H₂ accumulated per mL culture after 48 h glucose supplemented, dark incubation with ([2Fe]^{adt}) or without synthetic activation, normalized to optical cell density. Data points represent means of 2-4 independent experiments. Error bars represent s.d. Figure adapted from paper II.

Cr HydA1 belongs to the group A prototypical [FeFe]-hydrogenase, subclass M1. This is the structurally simplest subclass known and has only one protein domain. This domain is called the H-domain and is present in all [FeFe]-hydrogenases [83]. In paper III, we expressed and synthetically activated two newly discovered [FeFe]-hydrogenases [96], *Sm* HydA from *Solobacterium moorei* and *Tam* HydS from *Thermoanaerobacter mathranii*, in *Synechocystis* Δhox . Like *Cr* HydA1 and the *Clostridium acetobutylicum* HydA, *Sm* HydA belongs to the group A [FeFe]-hydrogenase, but is of a different subclass called M2. Enzymes from the M2 subclass encompass an N-terminal domain with two [4Fe-4S]-cluster binding sites, in addition to the H-domain. *Sm* HydA was, upon discovery, partially characterized in *E. coli* where it showed indications of a specific activity surpassing that of *Cr* HydA1 [96]. *Tam* HydS, belongs to group D and subclass M2e. Enzymes of this subclass has the same domains as the M2 subclass, but features an additional uncharacterized C-terminal domain. It is a putative sensory hydrogenase and exhibits only low activity compared to *Sm* hydA and *Cr* HydA1 when expressed in *E. coli* [96, 97].

In vivo H₂ production activity was detected from both *Sm* HydA and *Tam* HydA after activation with [2Fe]^{adt} in *Synechocystis* Δhox . *Tam* HydS showed only very limited activity, and only in light with DCMU inhibition. The *Sm* HydA showed significant activity under a number of environmental conditions. Before, no [FeFe]-hydrogenases of the M2 or M2e subclasses had been employed in a cyanobacterium. It is evident that artificial maturation in *Syn-*

echocystis is a reliable and convenient way to investigate novel [FeFe]-hydrogenases in a photosynthetic context. I believe that this will be of great use for further developments in the field.

Effect of light and nitrate

When different incubation conditions were investigated, it was quickly discovered that darkness was far more favorable for H₂ production, than light with DCMU inhibition. This was true for both *Sm* HydA and *Cr* HydA1 in *Synechocystis* Δ *hox*. This was a surprising observation, since the light condition (80-100 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) would allow for anoxygenic photoreduction of ferredoxin. This was anticipated to be favorable for H₂ production, especially for *Cr* HydA1 considering that photosynthetically reduced ferredoxin is an electron donor to the enzyme in the native host [98, 99]. However, especially in nitrate-deprived conditions without addition of glucose, H₂ production in darkness vastly outperformed the production in light.

The highest H₂ production, both in light with DCMU inhibition and in darkness, was measured without nitrate in the cultivation medium (BG11₀). This is due to elimination of the reductant-demanding nitrate assimilation, freeing up reduction capacity for H₂ production [100]. Similar behavior has been observed for Hox catalyzed H₂ production in WT *Synechocystis* [101]. The fact that H₂ production from the synthetically activated hydrogenases increases and decreases in response to environmental changes is a clear indication that the semisynthetic enzyme links to the metabolism of the cells. It is an artificially activated, semisynthetic enzyme that operates *in vivo* and accepts metabolically produced reduction power for H₂ production.

In paper III, the *in vivo* activities of *Cr* HydA1 and *Sm* HydA were compared under nitrogen deprived conditions. The *Cr* HydA1 used in paper II differs slightly from the one used in paper III. The former one is a differently truncated and untagged version, expressed from a differently codon optimized gene. The *Cr* HydA1 in paper III (from now on *Cr* HydA1_{strep}) is carrying a step tag II (WSHPQEF) for fair activity comparison to the similarly tagged *Sm* HydA. However, no differences in *in vivo* activity could be detected between *Cr* HydA1 and *Cr* HydA1_{strep} when the enzymes were activated in *Synechocystis* Δ *hox*. When comparing H₂ accumulation data after 48 h dark incubation with [2Fe]^{adt} in nitrate free media (BG11₀) without glucose, no significant differences are noted between the two (Figure 6). H₂ accumulation from *Synechocystis* Δ *hox* expressing *Sm* HydA (paper III) was also very similar under the corresponding condition (Figure 6).

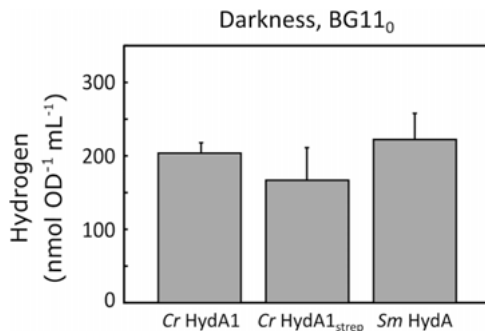


Figure 6. Comparison of H₂ production from *Synechocystis* Δ hox cells individually harboring one of the three, synthetically activated, group A apo-HydA used in this work. Columns represent nmol H₂ accumulated per mL culture after 48 h dark incubation in BG11₀ (nitrate free cultivation media), normalized to optical cell density. Data points represent means of 2-4 individual experiments and error bars represent s.d.

In darkness, as seen in Figure 6, strains expressing Cr HydA1_{strep} and Sm HydA had accumulated similar amounts of H₂ 48 h after synthetic activation. Looking at time resolved H₂ accumulation, the strains production pattern was observed to be very similar in all tested nitrogen deprived dark conditions (Figure 7).

Interestingly, the highest H₂ production was recorded from cultures in BG11₀ without glucose supplementation. In these culture vials, H₂ levels in the headspace were above 2% at the 72 h measurement. These samples have not, before or during the experiment, been exposed to external organic carbon sources. Consequentially, this production, albeit evidently fermentative, is thus facilitated completely by reduction power from photosynthetically accumulated substrates, an indirect photobiological H₂ production. We propose that these conditions force complete shutdown of most anabolic cell processes, forcing the cells to rely fully on catabolism of internal substrates resulting in a very reduced cellular environment, suitable for H₂ production.

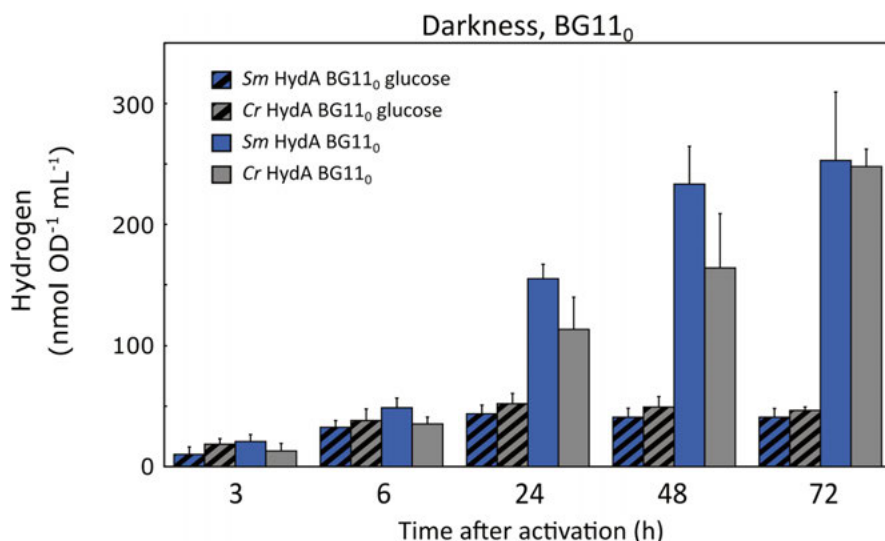


Figure 7. H₂ production comparison between synthetically activated *Sm* HydA, (blue bars) and *Cr* HydA_{flag} (grey bars) in cells of *Synechocystis* *Δhox*. Bars represent accumulated H₂ in BG11₀ in darkness with (black-striped bars) or without (clean bars) glucose. Figures display nmols of accumulated H₂ per mL culture, normalized to optical density. Data points represent means of 2-4 individual experiments and error bars depicts s.d. Figure adapted from paper III.

In glucose free BG11₀ under light (80 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) with DCMU inhibition, the strains expressing *Cr* HydA1_{strep} and *Sm* HydA produced only limited amount H₂, below 3 nmol H₂ OD⁻¹ mL⁻¹ (data not shown). Contrary to the situation in darkness (Figure 7), glucose supplementation increased this production. Time resolved production for glucose supplemented strains under light in BG11₀ can be seen in Figure 8. *Synechocystis* *Δhox* harboring an activated *Cr* HydA1_{strep} did not show any signs of H₂ production after 24 h. Cells harboring the *Sm* HydA1 hydrogenase however, shows significant increase in accumulated H₂ between 24 and 72 h (Figure 8). This reveals a clear difference in production performance between the two group A hydrogenases. This is, so far, the only example of sustained H₂ production in light from a synthetically activated [FeFe]-hydrogenase in *Synechocystis*. Possibly, the different domain setup of the M2 subclass hydrogenase facilitates more favorable electron donation to the hydrogenase under these conditions, however this need further investigation.

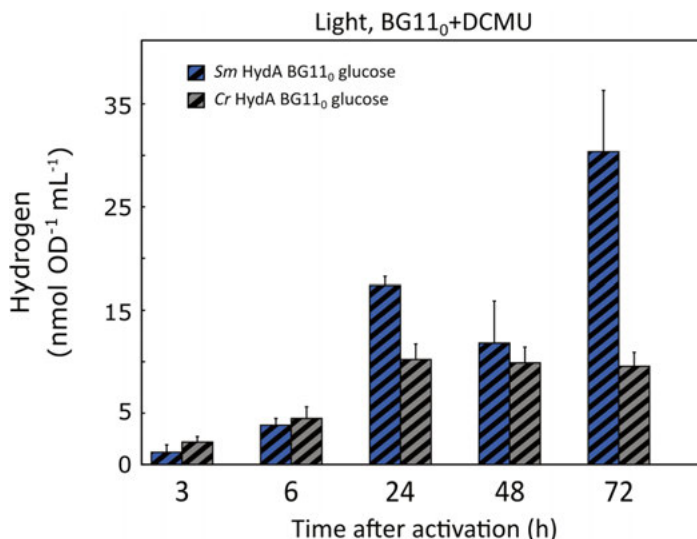


Figure 8. H₂ production comparison between synthetically activated *Sm* HydA, (blue bars) and *Cr* HydA_{flag} (grey bars) in living cells of *Synechocystis* *Δhox*. Bars represent accumulated H₂ in BG11₀ with DCMU under light (80 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) with glucose supplementation. Figures display nmols of accumulated H₂ per mL culture, normalized to optical density. Data points represent means of 2-4 individual experiments and error bars depicts s.d. Figure adapted from paper III.

It is interesting to note that the best condition for H₂ production in darkness, BG11₀ without addition of glucose, facilitates almost no production in light with DCMU. Control experiment in darkness has shown that the PSII inhibitor does not have any direct negative effect on H₂ production from the activated [FeFe]-hydrogenases. In light with DCMU inhibition, circular electron flow around PSI is operating, allowing light driven ATP production. The low production of H₂ in light with DCMU, compared to darkness, indicates competition for electrons between the hydrogenase and cyclic electron flow. Also, high levels of ATP could inhibit glycolytic pathways [102], possibly limiting the production of fermentatively reduced ferredoxin or NADH/NADPH. To address the limited production in light, and possibly elucidate the electron flow towards the activated hydrogenase, H₂ production from *Synechocystis* *Δhox* harboring an activated *Cr* HydA1 was investigated under the influence of specific inhibitors (Figure 9a). Experiments were carried out under light (100 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) in BG11₀ with and without glucose.

Inhibition of cyclic electron flow by DBMIB, in addition to the DCMU inhibition, increased the H₂ production. Under these conditions, both linear and cyclic photosynthetic electron transport is inhibited. The increase was most dramatic in BG11₀ without glucose, where 34 times higher H₂ accumulation was recorded after 48 h, compared to only DCMU inhibition (Figure 9b). ATPase inhibition by DCC resulted in an approximately 5-fold increase

both in presence and absence of glucose (Figure 9 b and c). Under these conditions, cyclic electron flow is operating, but light driven ATP production is limited. The increase in H₂ production is possibly a result of released ATP inhibition of glycolytic reactions, increased NADPH/NADP⁺ ratio [100], or a combination of both.

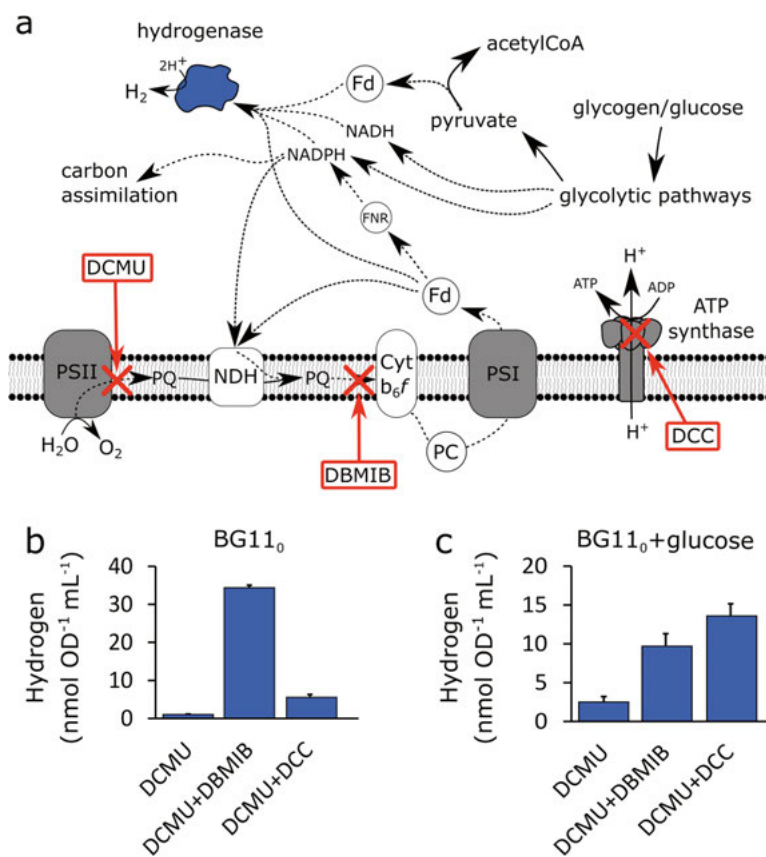


Figure 9. (a) Schematic representation of electron donors to hydrogenase and selected parts of cell metabolism in unicellular cyanobacterium *Synechocystis*. Inhibitors used in this study, DCMU, DBMIB and DCC, are indicated in red. (b and c) Accumulated H₂ from *Synechocystis* Δhox harboring an activated HydA after 48 h under light (100 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) with different inhibitor combinations in (b) BG11₀ and (c) BG11₀ with glucose. Data points represent means of 2–4 independent experiments. Error bars represent s.d. Abbreviations: Cyt b₆f: Cytochrome b₆f; Fd: Ferredoxin; FNR: Ferredoxin-NADP reductase; NDH: NADPH dehydrogenase I; PC: Plastocyanin; PSI and PSII: Photosystem I and II. Figure adapted from paper II.

The high production in darkness, together with the clear positive effect of DBMIB inhibition, indicate a fermentative, PQ independent source of electrons as the main driver of the H₂ production. Considering the similarities in production pattern between *Cr* HydA1 and *Sm* HydA (Figures 6, 7 and 8), I

propose the same for the M2 subclass enzyme. However, strains carrying activated *Sm* HydA has not been investigated in presence of DBMIB or DCC, and the difference between this enzyme and *Cr* HydA1 in glucose supplemented, nitrate deprived light condition (Figure 8) needs to be further investigated.

Long lived production capacity

The inhibition studies and the H₂ production patterns in light and dark, indicates a reductant supply limitation as the main factor for the limited production in light with DCMU inhibition. However, it does not completely rule out other explanations. To investigate the lifetime of the synthetically activated hydrogenase in light, and possibly further elucidate the reasons for the limited production, *Synechocystis* *Δhox* harboring activated *Sm* HydA was exposed to a period of darkness after a 72 h incubation in light. After synthetic activation with [2Fe]^{adt} in non-glucose supplemented BG11₀ with DCMU, cell culture vials were incubated under light (80 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) for 72 h. During this initial incubation, H₂ production was monitored and is shown in Figure 10a. After the initial incubation, cultures were either sparged with argon and moved to darkness (Figure 10b), sparged with argon and put back in light (Figure 10c) or moved to darkness without sparging with argon (Figure 10c).

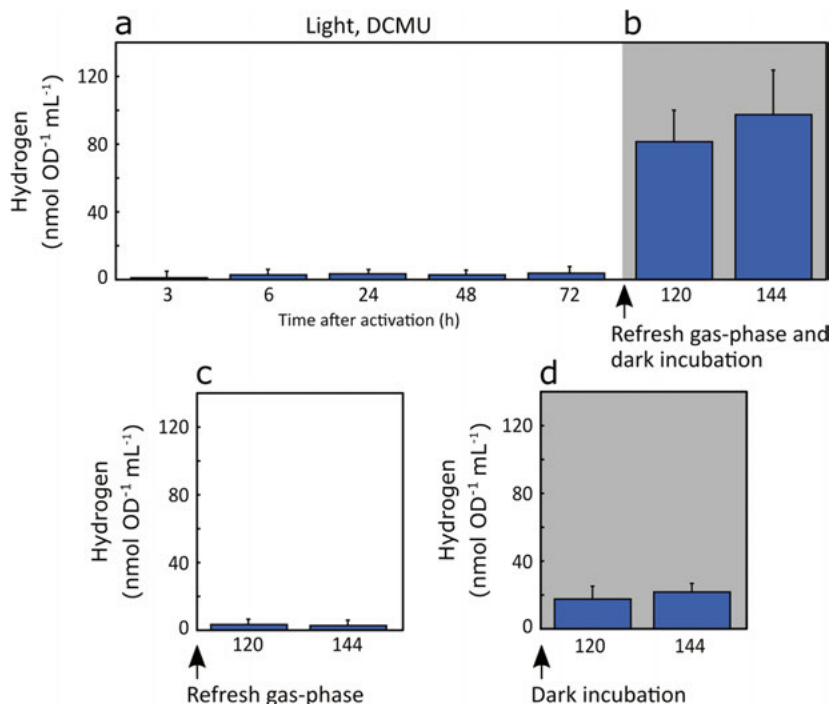


Figure 10. Accumulated H_2 by *Synechocystis Ahox* harbouring a synthetically activated *Sm HydA* under nitrogen starved conditions. H_2 accumulation was monitored during (a) initial incubation in light with DCMU inhibition in an argon atmosphere followed by (b) sparging with argon gas and transition to darkness, (c) sparging with argon gas and continued incubation in light and (d) transition to dark incubation without any sparging. Blue bars display nmols of accumulated H_2 gas per mL culture, normalized to optical density. Data points represent means of 2-4 individual experiments and error bars depicts s.d. Figure reproduced from paper III.

During the initial light incubation, net H_2 production was, as observed before, low and stopped after 24 h. However, cultures showed a dramatic increase in H_2 production when moved to dark incubation after sparging with argon (Figure 10b). When sparged and put back under light, H_2 production recovered but accumulation stopped at the same levels as during the initial incubation (Figure 10c). When transferred to dark incubation without sparging, production increased but accumulated H_2 did not reach the levels of samples sparged before transfer to darkness (Figure 10d).

This result proves the presence of functional hydrogenase in the cells beyond 72 h after artificial maturation, even in light. The limited production in light can therefore not be attributed to high degree of damage to the activated enzyme or incorporated $[2Fe]^{adt}$ during these conditions. It also confirms the effectiveness of the DCMU inhibition, since oxygen is expected to permanently damage a matured $[FeFe]$ -hydrogenase [103, 104]. The positive effect

of sparging is interesting and indicates accumulation of inhibiting, but not permanently damaging, gaseous compounds during light incubation.

Genetic tools for H₂ production in *N. punctiforme* (paper IV)

The heterocysts of filamentous cyanobacteria provide a micro-aerobic environment for the oxygen sensitive nitrogenase to operate in. These specialized cells are of particular interest for biological H₂ production for mainly two reasons. First, nitrogenase is an obligate H₂ producer during nitrogen fixation, as described above. Second, the heterocyst environment could be hijacked for expression and protection of a heterologous hydrogenase or other oxygen sensitive enzymes [88, 105].

The *P_{trc}* promoter can be used to express proteins in all cells of the filaments, including heterocysts [43]. However, coordinating the expression of a heterologous protein, for example a hydrogenase, with the heterocyst differentiation offers a neater solution that does not burden vegetative cells with unnecessary protein expression in an unsuitable environment.

Up to this point, all heterocyst specific expressions have been carried out using native promoter sequences found upstream heterocyst specific genes [88, 106–109]. These, often poorly characterized and several hundred nucleotides long, native sequences can be heavily regulated and give rise to unforeseen behavior. Also, long sequences are, naturally, less convenient in cloning. In paper IV, a minimal synthetic promoter for heterocyst specific expression in *N. punctiforme* was developed together with a pair of self-replicating cloning vectors.

Vector for promoter studies

Genetic tools developed specifically for use in for *N. punctiforme* are rare to say the least. Fortunately, tools developed for other more commonly used cyanobacteria often work reasonably well. The broad host range, self-replicating shuttle vector pPMQAK1 [43] and its descendant plasmids pEEK and pEEC [110], are example of this. They are RSF1010 [111] based plasmids, specifically engineered for convenient cloning and application in cyanobacteria. Unfortunately, The RSF1010 derived plasmids are not suitable for electroporation which is the most reliable and time efficient method of transformation in *N. punctiforme*. pDC1 [44] derived plasmids, like pSCR and pSUN [45] are easily electroporated into *N. punctiforme*, but lacks many of the convenient features of pPMQAK1, pEEK and pEEC.

For the promoter study in paper IV, I created an improved shuttle vector, convenient to use in construct assembly and easy to electroporate into *N. punctiforme*, based on pSCR119 [45]. The plasmid, pSAW_{ccdB} (Figure 11), contains the kanamycin resistance gene *ntp* and origin of replication for propagation in both *E. coli* (ColE1) and *N. punctiforme* (pDC1). The multiple cloning site (MCS) consists of a *ccdB* toxin encoding, killer gene [112], flanked by restriction sites. In restriction-digestion, SacI, XbaI and SalI cut upstream the *ccdB*, while XhoI, PstI and KpnI cut downstream. The MCS is in turn flanked by terminators to eliminate unwanted transcriptions in or out of the cloning site. The two innermost restriction sites, SalI and XhoI, have compatible overhangs after digestion and facilitates multiple, step-by-step restriction-ligation insertions, in a BioBrick [90] like manner .

The similar pSAW_{yfp} (Figure 11) was created to enable convenient and standardized promoter studies in *N. punctiforme*. In this plasmid, an *eyfp* reporter gene is cloned downstream the *ccdB* gene. In cloning, *ccdB* is cut out and replaced with a promoter-RBS fragment, using one of the upstream restriction sites and XhoI. The reformed XhoI site will act as a 6 bp spacer between the RBS and the start codon of *eyfp*. The vector can also be useful for expression of YFP-fusion proteins, where the reformed XhoI-site will be translated into Leu-Glu.

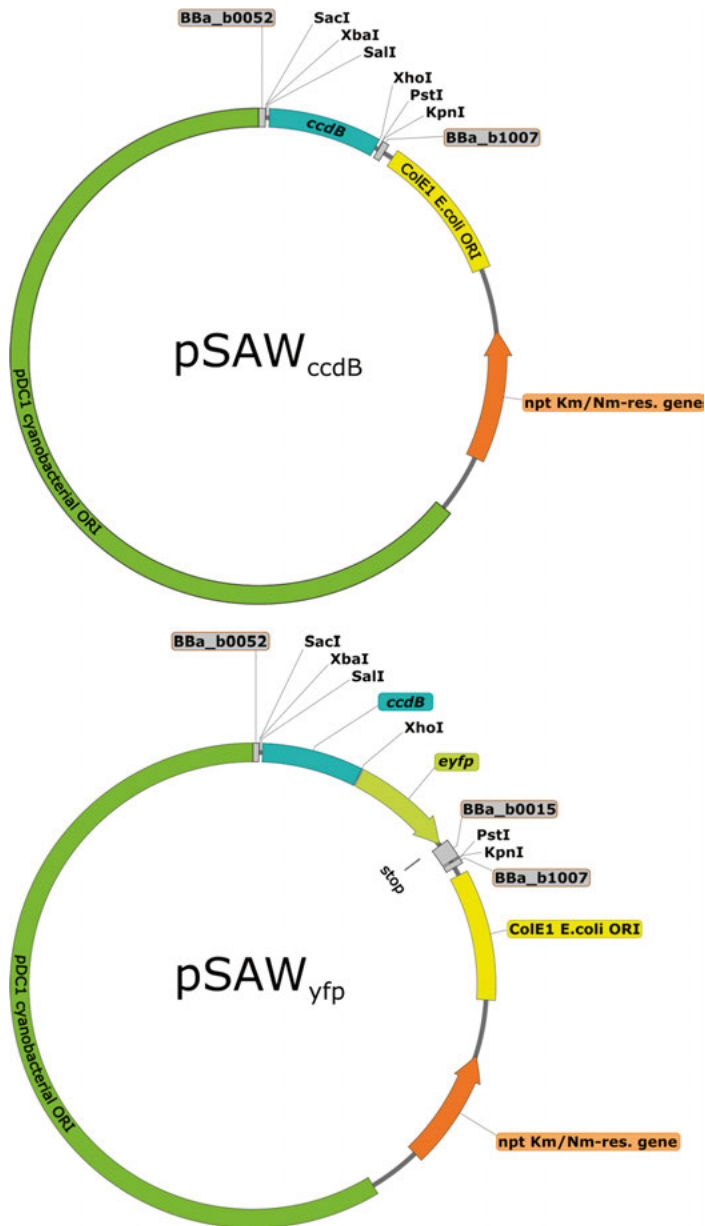


Figure 11. Overview map of the plasmids pSAW_{ccdB} and pSAW_{yfp}, with key elements and recommended restrictions sites indicated. Figure adapted from paper IV.

A detailed description of the plasmid creation is available in paper IV, Materials and Methods. Information about all parts of the plasmids are available in paper IV, Supplementary Information.

Minimal, synthetic heterocyst-specific promoter

The DIF⁺ class promoters are native to filamentous cyanobacteria and controls the expression of various heterocyst specific or heterocyst enhanced gene products [108, 113]. The DIF⁺ class promoters all display a conserved sequence pattern at the -35 region with consensus sequence 5'-TCCGGA-3'. This sequence is called the DIF1 motif [113]. In paper IV, we hypothesized that the heterocyst-specific expression pattern of the DIF⁺ promoters should be a consequence only of conserved sequence patterns in the promoter regions, and wanted to use this to develop the first synthetic heterocyst-specific promoter. 58 unique DIF⁺ class promoters, identified by Mitschke *et al.* in 2011 [108], were aligned and visualized as a weighted sequence logo (WebLogo 3.0) [114].

Except the already discovered DIF1 motif around position -35, a stretch of 13 conserved nucleotides was identified between position -13 and the TSS. This was interpreted as a conserved extended -10 region. Apart from this, no conserved regions were found. That fact that no conserved regions were present upstream the DIF1 motif, indicated that a very compact promotor could be enough to facilitate heterocyst-specific expression. A minimal promoter design was developed based on the conserved regions in the weighted sequence logo, including a randomized sequence between the DIF1 motif and the -10 region, and a short, randomized spacer upstream the DIF1 motif. The promoter was named P_{synDIF}, and the design is visualized in Figure 12.

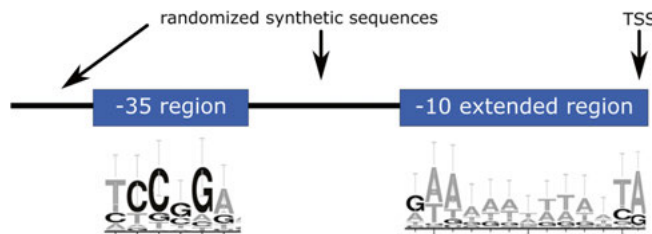


Figure 12. Graphical representation of the P_{synDIF} promoter design. Transcription start site (TSS), extended -10 region, -35 region and randomized spacer sequences are indicated. Consensus sequences from the alignment of 58 DIF⁺ promoters are depicted as WebLogos underneath their respective part.

To investigate the promoter, it was cloned, together with RBS* [41], into the self-replicating fluorescence reporter vector pSAW_{yfp} described above. To identify the isolated functions of the DIF1 motif and the conserved extended -10 region in P_{synDIF}, two minimal control promoters were developed in parallel. In these control promoters, the nucleotides making up either the extended -10 region, or the -35 region, were exchanged into the corresponding nucleotides from *Ptrc*. The two control promoters, in this text called P-10c and P-35c respectively, were similarly deployed in pSAW_{yfp}. The three resulting reporter constructs can be seen in Figure 13.

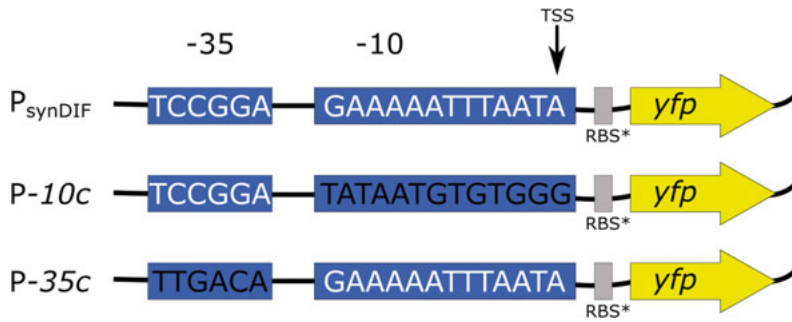


Figure 13. Schematic representations of the synthetic promoter-reporter constructs used to determine the roll of the DIF1 motif and the conserved extended -10 region. Black colored letters indicate nucleotides changed from the P_{synDIF} to the corresponding nucleotides from *P_{trc}*.

After sequence confirmation, the reporter plasmids were electroporated into *N. punctiforme*. Strains carrying the plasmids were, after 12 h of combined nitrogen starvation, investigated using fluorescence confocal microscopy (Figure 14). Filaments carrying the P_{synDIF} reporter construct displayed clear YFP fluorescence, distinctly restricted to cells identified as heterocyst according to their reduced autofluorescence (Figure 14). All cells of the filaments carrying the reporter construct with P-35c showed clear YPF expression, and niter higher or lower expression could be distinguished in heterocyst. As seen in Figure 14, exchanging the DIF1 motif to -35 region from *P_{trc}* while keeping the extended -10 from P_{synDIF}, rendered the promoter inactive in both vegetative cells and heterocysts.

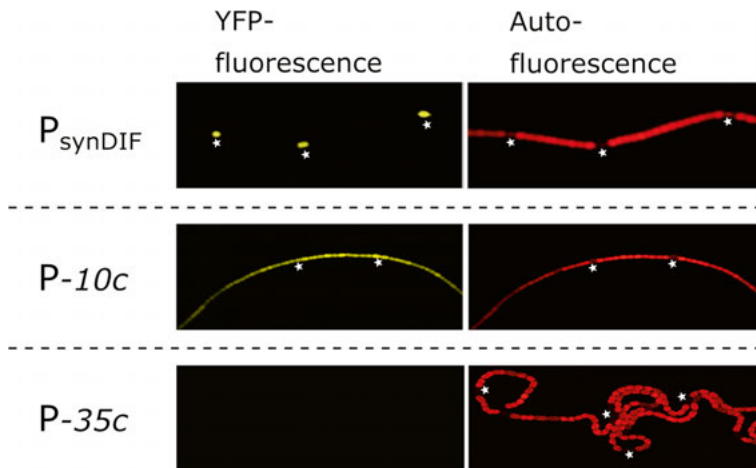


Figure 14. Representative confocal fluorescence images of *Nostoc punctiforme* filaments with fluorescence from the three promoter-YFP constructs. YFP fluorescence is shown in yellow (530-540nm), and autofluorescence in red (600-700nm). Heterocysts, identified by the reduced autofluorescence, are indicated by stars. Figure adapted from paper IV.

The results from the fluorescence investigation shows, without doubt, that the DIF1 motif at -35 must be combined with a suitable -10 region to mediate heterocyst-specific expression. DIF1 motif alone is not, as speculated previously, responsible for the heterocyst-enhanced transcription.

To investigate the activity during different stages of heterocyst differentiation, single filaments were monitored during adaption to diazotrophic growth. Ammonium grown filaments were transferred to BG11₀ agar plates, and images of individual filaments were taken at 6, 12, 24 and 48 h. Figure 14 depicts a representative filament during the differentiation process. Heterocysts displayed distinct YFP fluorescence at 48 h after start of nitrogen starvation. Considering that the lifetime of the fluorescent protein used in this study (EYFP) have been confirmed to have an *in vivo* half-life of about 13 h in a cyanobacterial host [115], we can conclude that P_{synDIF} is active in mature heterocysts.

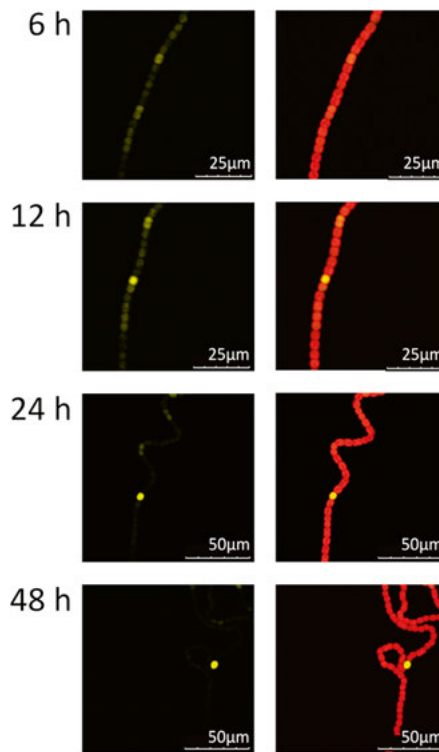


Figure 15. Confocal fluorescence images of a representative *Nostoc punctiforme* filament expressing YFP from the P_{synDIF} reporter construct, at 6, 12, 24 and 48 h after nitrogen deprivation immobilized on agar plate. Autofluorescence (600-700nm) is shown in red, YFP fluorescence (530-540nm) is shown in yellow. Rightmost column shows overlaid images of autofluorescence (600-700nm) and YFP fluorescence (530-540nm). Figure adapted from paper IV.

The P_{synDIF} is a fully synthetic promoter for heterocyst-specific expression. It is active from relatively early during the heterocyst differentiation process,

and stays active in mature heterocysts. With its 48 nucleotides, including the upstream spacer, it is a minimal promoter that can easily be added in any cloning strategy without extra steps, for example in the overhang of an amplification primer.

Synthetic [FeFe]-hydrogenase in *N. punctiforme* (paper V)

Papers II and III describe *in vivo* H₂ production from two different group A [FeFe]-hydrogenases artificially matured in *Synechocystis*. In both cases, the highest H₂ production was observed from nitrogen-starved cells, incubated in darkness without glucose. In paper V, the [FeFe]-hydrogenase *Cr* HydA1, C-terminally fused to GFP, was expressed and activated in *N. punctiforme*.

To direct the expression to heterocysts, the *hydA1* gene was preceded in the construct by the 316 bp long, native promoter fragment P_{hupS} [91] from the genome of *N. punctiforme*. As described above, a BCD device had been deployed to express the heterologous hydrogenase-GFP fusion (Figure 3). Investigation with fluorescent confocal microscopy revealed the *Cr* HydA1-GFP chimeric protein to be highly expressed in the cytoplasm of heterocyst, but with lower levels also in vegetative cells. *N. punctiforme* has no bidirectional hydrogenase, like some other filamentous and unicellular strains, but the heterocysts harbor an uptake hydrogenase besides the nitrogenase. Upon successful synthetic activation of the *Cr* HydA1, the diazotrophic filaments would harbor three different enzymes directly involved in the H₂ metabolism, a slightly more complex situation compared to paper II and III.

Similarly to the procedure described for *Synechocystis*, synthetic activation was carried out in diazotrophic filaments of *N. punctiforme*. Before addition of [2Fe]^{adt}, cultures were kept 1 h in anaerobic darkness to reduce nitrogenase activity. After the synthetic activation, cultures were incubated in either darkness or under continuous illumination (80 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹). The cultures under light were incubated with or without DCMU in the culture media. H₂ accumulation in the culture vials were measured 6 h after activation, and then every day for 5 continuous days (Figure 16). In parallel to the samples treated with [2Fe]^{adt}, control samples without addition were identically prepared to monitor H₂ evolution from nitrogenase. In light without DCMU inhibition limited H₂ production from nitrogenase was detected (Figure 16). In darkness and in light with DCMU inhibition, no net H₂ production was observed without addition of [2Fe]^{adt}.

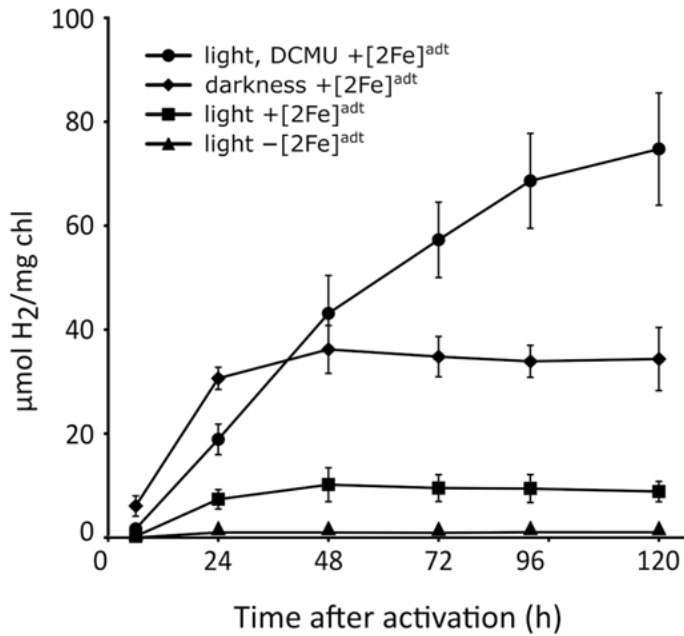


Figure 16. Time resolved H₂ accumulation from diazotrophic *N. punctiforme* cultures expressing the *Cr* HydA1-GFP fusion protein, in light with DCMU inhibition and with addition of [2Fe]^{adt} (circles), darkness with addition of [2Fe]^{adt} (diamonds), light without DCMU inhibition with addition on [2Fe]^{adt} (cubes) and light without DCMU without [2Fe]^{adt} (triangles). Figure displays μmol accumulated H₂, normalized to chlorophyll *a* content. Data points represent means of 2 individual experiments and error bars represent s.d. Figure adapted from paper V.

As seen in Figure 16, sustained H₂ production was measured from activated samples in light with DCMU inhibition, whereas the production in darkness, albeit initially faster, is comparably short-lived. This result is intriguing considering that the opposite pattern was observed when the same [FeFe]-hydrogenase was activated in *Synechocystis* (Figure 7 and 8). Clearly the prerequisites for efficient H₂ production from [FeFe]-hydrogenases, differs completely between the two different cyanobacteria. The sustained production in light with DCMU observed here proves an impressive, *in vivo* life-time of the artificially induced H₂ production capacity. This is the first report of light driven H₂ production from an artificially matured [FeFe]-hydrogenase.

Given the lack of PSII activity in these conditions, it is possible that some part of the accumulated H₂ in light with DCMU inhibition, originates from activated *Cr* HydA1 in vegetative cells. The H₂ production in light without DCMU inhibition however, we attribute to *Cr* HydA1 in heterocyst (Figure 14). Any activated [FeFe]-hydrogenase in vegetative cells would be quickly inactivated by oxygen evolution under these conditions [103, 104], and only very low nitrogenase activity was observed. It can therefore be concluded that the production arises from activated *Cr* HydA1 in heterocyst, protected by the microaerobic environment and the spatial separation from water splitting by PSII.

Conclusions and Future Directions

This thesis demonstrates how [FeFe]-hydrogenases can be reliably expressed and synthetically activated *in vivo* in cyanobacteria. I have demonstrated successful synthetic activation and subsequent *in vivo* H₂ production in unicellular *Synechocystis* PCC 6803, as well as in both vegetative cells and heterocysts of filamentous *Nostoc punctiforme* ATCC 29133. In total, enzymes from three different subclasses of [FeFe]-hydrogenases have been activated and investigated under different environmental conditions and metabolic regimes. The semisynthetic [FeFe]-hydrogenases are evidently linked to the cellular metabolism and are capable of significant and sustained H₂ production. Artificially matured enzymes stay functional *in vivo* beyond 72 h after activation by [2Fe]^{adt}, an impressive life-time for a hydrogenase-based technology with artificial components.

The highest and most long-lived H₂ production from semisynthetic [FeFe]-hydrogenase in *Synechocystis* was recorded in darkness, during nitrogen deprivation without glucose. Thus, the production appears to be highest in conditions where neither light, nitrate or external carbon substrates are provided. Heterologously expressed, synthetically activated [FeFe]-hydrogenase in *N. punctiforme* was capable of sustained, light driven proton reduction when PSII was inhibited. A photoH₂ production based on anoxygenic photosynthesis. These results emphasize the importance of carefully investigating different hosts when engineering cyanobacterial H₂ production strains. Likewise, different subclasses of [FeFe]-hydrogenases have shown different response to cultivation conditions in our experiments. Our results indicate that different subclasses might be suitable for H₂ production in cyanobacteria under vastly different environmental circumstances. They are, possibly, accepting electrons for proton reduction from different parts of the cell metabolism, opening up for interesting co-expressions of different [FeFe]-hydrogenases in the same cell to maximize reduction power absorption.

Overall, the results presented here demonstrates a new way to investigate [FeFe]-hydrogenases *in vivo* in a photosynthetic context. Using synthetic activation, a wide range of hydrogenases, engineered strains and cultivation conditions can readily be investigated in search of suitable candidates for future H₂ production systems.

Svensk Sammanfattning

Klimatförändringarna utgör ett stort hot mot världen och dess befolkning. Temperaturen på jorden idag är ungefär 1° C högre än vid industriella revolutionen, och det är helt fastslaget att mänskliga utsläpp av fossilt kol i form av koldioxid är den största orsaken till detta. Skrämmande nog fortsätter våra koldioxidutsläpp att öka. Varje år släpper vi ut mer koldioxid än föregående år. Inte lika mycket, utan mer. Trots en rad åtaganden och löften från många av världens länder lyckas vi alltså inte ens stoppa ökningen av koldioxidutsläpp, än mindre minska utsläppen.

Isarna runt polerna har börjat smälta. Temperaturen i permafrosten på norra halvklotet ökar. Isläggningar försenas och snötäckens utbredning minskar. Havstemperaturen höjs och vattennivån stiger. Förändringen sker snabbast närmast polerna. Den senaste rapporten från FN:s klimatpanel (IPCC) belyser hur många av klimatförändringarnas negativa effekter ökar icke-linjärt med en ökande temperatur, och hur bara en liten ytterligare höjning riskerar att få extremt stort utslag genom kaskadeffekter. Skillnaden mellan en ökning på 1,5°C, som vi väntas nå innan år 2040, och en ökning på 2°C bedöms vara enorm. Tyvärr förefaller en ökning med endast 2°C osannolik med tanke på de fortsatt ökande utsläppen.

För att bryta utvecklingen och förhindra en global katastrof måste vi snabbt ställa om till förnyelsebar energiproduktion. Solen förser jorden med praktiskt taget obegränsade mängder energi varje dag och vi måste förutsättningslöst undersöka effektiva och hållbara sätt att fånga och lagra denna energi. Omställningen har redan börjat och "solcellsrevolutionen" har redan förändrat energisituationen på många platser i världen. För att på lång sikt inte bli beroende av sällsynta jordartsmetaller, och för att kunna tillfredsställa världens ökande behov av inte bara elektricitet, utan även bränsle, krävs andra lösningar. Biobränslen kan vara en väg framåt, men landbaserad odling av energigrödor har visat sig problematisk då den konkurrerar med både matproduktion och ekologiskt och klimatomåttligt viktig naturskog. Dessutom sker stora utsläpp av markbunden koldioxid när energigrödorna skördas.

Biobränslen producerade av fotosyntetiserande mikrober, vars odling inte behöver belasta odlingsbar mark, kan vara en väg framåt. Cyanobakterier är prokaryota fotosyntetiserande mikrober som, med små tillsatser av näringssalter, kan växa på luft, solljus och vatten. Vissa stammar producerar naturligt biobränslen, men i för små mängder för att kunna användas i storskalig pro-

duktion. Genom genetisk modifiering kan man styra om metaboliska reaktionsvägar och energiflöden i cellen, och på så vis öka produktionen av bränslen. Vätgas (H_2) är en av de bränslemolekyler som produceras naturligt av cyanobakterier. H_2 bildas antingen av enzymet nitrogenas som bioprodukt under kvävefixeringen, eller av hydrogenaser. Dessa enzym är syrekänsliga och kräver anaeroba förhållanden för att katalysera bildandet av H_2 . Hydrogenaser är särskilt intressanta ur H_2 -produktionssynpunkt då de, olikt nitrogenas, inte är beroende av ATP för katalysen.

H_2 spås bli en viktig energibärare i framtida hållbara energisystem. Genom att låta den energitäta gasen passera genom en bränslecell produceras el med enbart vatten som biprodukt. Till skillnad från rena elektriska system, där stora dyra batterier krävs för energilagring, kan H_2 lagras i t.ex. enkla kolfiberförstärkta tankar. Utvinningen idag sker nästan uteslutande från naturgas eller andra fossila råvaror, med stora koldioxidutsläpp som följd.

De hydrogenaser som finns naturligt i cyanobakterier är [NiFe]-hydrogenaser, där den katalytiskt aktiva kärnan innehåller Ni- och Fe-atomer. Dessa enzym katalyserar oxidation av H_2 eller reduktion av protoner, och är således inblandade i både upptag och framställning av H_2 . De är väl integrerade i den fotosyntetiska metabolismen där de bidrar till cellens redoxbalans och återvinner reduktionspotential "bortslösad" på H_2 -produktion under kvävefixeringen.

I andra organismgrupper hittar vi andra typer av hydrogenaser. De mest lovande ur produktionssynpunkt är de syrekänsliga [FeFe]-hydrogenaserna, med ett dijärnkomplex i den aktiva kärnan. Enzym ur denna grupp har visat sig vara otroligt aktiva H_2 -producerare och är högintressanta inom energiforskning. Introduktion av ett [FeFe]-hydrogenas har länge setts som en lovande strategi för att öka H_2 -produktionen från cyanobakterier. Med genetiska tekniker kan vi relativt lätt uttrycka ett ofullständigt [FeFe]-hydrogenas i en cyanobakteriecell, men för att det aktiva sätet ska byggas upp och ett aktivt enzym ska bildas krävs att tre chaperoner uttrycks i samma cell. Detta komplexa molekylära maskineri utgör ett hinder för att effektivt kunna testa olika [FeFe]-hydrogenaser i olika stammar av cyanobakterier.

Forskningen i denna avhandling behandlar i huvudsak en ny metod att få fram aktivt [FeFe]-hydrogenas i cyanobakterier. Metoden, som kallas syntetisk aktivering, går ut på att de delar av det aktiva sätet som saknas när ett [FeFe]-hydrogenas uttrycks utan chaperoner, tillsätts till levande celler och aktiverar enzymet. Vi har lyckats visa att denna metod fungerar i cyanobakterier, och att det delvis artificiella enzymet kopplar till den fotosyntetiska metabolismen.

Först visades detta med det välstuderade [FeFe]-hydrogenaset HydA1 från eukaryota grönalgen *Clamdomonas reinhardtii*, som aktiverades i den encelliga cyanobakterien *Synechocystis*. Den fermentativa H_2 -produktionen från celler med aktiverat [FeFe]-hydrogenas var tydligt högre än från icke-modifierade celler med enbart [NiFe]-hydrogenas. Det syntetiskt aktiverade enzymet producerade H_2 främst i mörker, och den högsta produktionen uppmättes från

kvävesvälta cellodlingar. Under dessa förhållanden var produktionen långlivad och fortgick under flera dagar. Detta är det första semisyntetiska enzym som rapporterats i cyanobakterier, och livslängden är förvånande lång med tanke på de icke-biologiska komponenterna som inte kan återskapas i cellen.

Försök i ljus kräver inhibering av fotosystem II för att syrgas (O_2) inte ska inaktivera det syrekänsliga [FeFe]-hydrogenaset. Under ljus med PSII inhibition var produktionen mycket lägre än i mörker och dessutom kortvarig. Inhibitorstudier i ljus, där även den cykliska fotosyntetiska elektrontransporten runt fotosystem I (PSI) blockerades, avslöjade en negativ inverkan på H_2 -utvecklingen från det cykliska elektronflödet.

I en uppföljande studie uttrycktes och aktiverades två nyupptäckta [FeFe]-hydrogenaser, *Sm* HydA från *Solobacterium moorei* och *Tam* HydS från *Thermoanaerobacter mathranii* i *Synechocystis*. *Sm* HydA visade sig acceptera elektroner för H_2 -production under samma förhållanden som *Cr* HydA1 och producera ungefär lika mycket, men med högre produktion under ljus från kvävesvälta celler med glukos i odlingsmediet. *Synechocystis* med aktiverat *Tam* HydA producerade mindre H_2 , men produktionen skedde bara i ljus utan kvävesvält. Resultaten visar hur olika [FeFe]-hydrogenaser kopplar samman med cellens metabolism på olika sätt och understryker vikten av att utforska fler och varierande [FeFe]-hydrogenaser i cyanobakterier.

Vi har också bevisat att syntetisk aktivering fungerar i den filamentösa cyanobakterien *Nostoc punctiforme*. Under kvävesvält differentierar en del av cellerna längs filamentet till heterocyster, mikroanaeroba celler med tjock cellvägg som möjliggör kvävefixering katalyserad av nitrogenas. *Cr* HydA1 aktiverades i filamentens heterocyster, och den mikroanaeroba miljön skyddade [FeFe]-hydrogenaset från O_2 under pågående fotosyntes.

Sammanfattningsvis beskriver denna avhandling en ny metod för att generera aktiva, fungerande [FeFe]-hydrogenaser i cyanobakterier. Metoden skapar semisyntetiska enzym som kopplar till cellens metabolism och producerar H_2 under olika förhållanden. Denna metod kan användas för att effektivt utforska nya [FeFe]-hydrogenaser i olika cyanobakteriestammar, utan att behöva uttrycka och optimera det komplexa maskineri som utför aktiveringen i de ursprungliga värdorganismerna. Förhoppningsvis kan resultaten presenterade i denna avhandling bidra till utvecklandet av effektivare, hållbara system för biologisk H_2 -produktion.

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