



Engineering microbial cells for optimal biohydrogen production: a concise review of process control and metabolic engineering

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ABSTRACT

Increasing global energy demand and heavy dependency on fossil fuels have significantly contributed to global warming. To address these growing challenges, clean energy derived from renewable sources could be an alternative option. Biohydrogen production has attracted significant interest in this context, as it is a clean energy source with a high calorific value and zero emissions during production and utilisation. Among the various biohydrogen production technologies available, microbial biohydrogen has demonstrated great potential in producing high hydrogen yields from renewable biomass through dark fermentation. However, despite significant efforts, many dark fermentation processes fail to achieve desirable hydrogen yields. In this context, metabolic and genome engineering offer powerful tools for manipulating microbes to improve hydrogen productivity during the fermentation process. Therefore, the current review emphasizes advanced metabolic engineering tools for biohydrogen production, such as developing metabolic pathways via homologous/heterologous expression, improving sugar consumption, deleting competitive pathways, and overcoming carbon catabolite repression. It also discusses the sophisticated genome-engineering approach of CRISPR-Cas and its prospects for performing precise, efficient genetic modifications to enable stable biohydrogen production. Furthermore, it highlights key strategies for overcoming product toxicity during biohydrogen production. This review summarises the current state of biohydrogen production and identifies prospective areas for future research.

1. Introduction

The world has witnessed a 700% increase in population since 1800, accompanied by a massive increase in global energy consumption. Over the next twenty years, global energy consumption is expected to increase by 48% due to population growth (Akram et al., 2024). A significant proportion of this global energy demand would be met via the combustion of fossil fuels, a situation that has been identified as the major driver responsible for 86% of carbon dioxide emissions and,

consequently, climate change and global warming (Canadell et al., 2023). Despite numerous agreements, communiqués, and policies established over the past decades to reduce global dependency on fossil fuels and address the associated challenges, fossil fuel production is still projected to exceed sustainable levels by 200% by 2030 (van Asselt and Green, 2023). In addition to the environmental damage caused by these non-renewable energy sources, other concerns, such as the depletion of fossil fuel reserves and the volatility of fuel prices, have sparked a global search for renewable energy alternatives (Jayakumar et al., 2023).

Abbreviations: Adhe, Aldehyde dehydrogenase; CCR, Carbon catabolite repression; CRISPR-Cas, Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats system; *DrpIA*, Ribulose-5P-isomerase-deficient mutant; Endo, Endonucleases; ED, Entner-Doudoroff pathway; FHL, Formate hydrogen lyase; *fhlA*, Formate hydrogen lyase activator; frdD, Fumarate reductase; HRT, Hydraulic retention time; H₂, Hydrogen; Ldh, Lactate dehydrogenase; *ldhA*, Lactate dehydrogenase A; *Mdh*, Malate dehydrogenase; *MaeA*, Malic enzyme A; Mega, Meganucleases; MFA, Metabolic flux analysis; NadE, NAD synthetase; PPP, Pentose phosphate pathway; PEP, Phosphoenolpyruvate; PTS^{Glc}, Glucose phosphotransferase system; TALENs, Effector nucleases resembling transcription activators; VFA, Volatile fatty acids; ZFNs, Zinc-finger nucleases.

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Given their relative carbon neutrality, environmental compatibility, and readily available feedstocks, biofuels have been identified as viable, renewable alternatives to fossil fuels. They are classified into first, second, and third generation biofuels according to the feedstock utilised: food crops, lignocellulosic biomass, and algal biomass, respectively (Bhagwat et al., 2024). Similarly, biofuels can be classified based on their nature, chemical composition, and functionality into bioethanol, biobutanol, biomethane, and biohydrogen, among others, each with its own merits and demerits. Biohydrogen, which can be potentially produced from food, lignocellulosic, and algal biomass, has gained attention due to its high energy content, low carbon footprint, versatility, efficiency, and scalability (Putatunda et al., 2022). Typically, biohydrogen is produced through bio-photolysis, dark fermentation, photo-fermentation, microbial electrolysis cells, or a combination of these methods (Bhagwat et al., 2024; Kumar et al., 2024). However, dark fermentation has been noted as the most viable production method due to its low energy requirement and the ability to utilise a wide range of raw materials as microbial feedstock (Zhao et al., 2024).

Despite the huge potential of biohydrogen to ameliorate the current global energy crisis, the industrial applicability of this renewable resource has been encumbered by the low microbial production rate and inefficient bioconversion of biomass, which are borne out of various factors, including substrate composition, pretreatment method, and bioreactor conditions (Ayodele et al., 2023). Hence, attempts to enhance biohydrogen production have been investigated from various angles due to the multifaceted nature of the problem. However, as current biohydrogen production technologies harness the metabolic capabilities of microbes, especially bacteria and microalgae, modifying the metabolic machinery underlying hydrogen production has been identified as one of the most feasible routes to improve the technology (Zhang et al., 2023). To this end, a clear understanding of the molecular fundamentals that drive the production and utilisation of hydrogen in biological systems is considered critical. Thus, it has been established that the stability, efficiency, and yield could be enhanced by engineering the enzymatic systems involved in biohydrogen synthesis, improving both direct and indirect photolysis, the extension of substrate utilisation, enhancement of tolerance against stress as well as engineering of H₂-producing native pathways and incorporation of non-native pathways (Hallenbeck et al., 2009; Jiao et al., 2024; Oh et al., 2011).

The last two decades have witnessed significant progress in engineering microbial metabolism and genomes for enhanced biohydrogen production (Kim et al., 2023; Rollin et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2020). Among the most important metabolic-engineered hydrogen-producing microorganisms are *Escherichia coli*, *Enterobacter* (*E. aerogenes* and *E. cloacae*), and obligate anaerobes such as *Clostridium*, *Alcaligenes*, and *Bacillus* (Faloye et al., 2013; Goyal et al., 2013; Valle et al., 2019). For example, the overexpression of the glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase gene was demonstrated to enhance biohydrogen production by 66.3% in *Clostridium acetobutylicum* ATCC 824 (Son et al., 2021). More recently, the overexpression of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase and FeFe hydrogenase was shown to significantly increase hydrogen production in another strain of the same Genus (Lu et al., 2022). The highly efficient CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing system was also employed to overexpress the gene responsible for NAD synthetase (NadE) as a novel approach for enhancing biohydrogen production in *Enterobacter aerogenes* (Zhang et al., 2023). These approaches have also been successfully utilised to enhance hydrogen production in microalgae (Ban et al., 2019). For instance, the light energy utilisation efficiency of the mutant strain of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* was enhanced by transforming with light-harvesting complex translation inhibitors, resulting in a 1.8–5.2 times higher hydrogen yield than the wild-type strain (Ban et al., 2019).

Despite the huge potential of biohydrogen in the quest for environmental sustainability, advancements in metabolic and genome engineering for microbial biohydrogen production have been slow. Moreover, most available studies are limited to laboratory-scale

investigations using engineered microbes under highly optimised conditions that often inhibit hydrogen production due to substrate toxicity. Consequently, comprehensive, in-depth studies and data are still required to enable the scale-up and commercialisation of these engineered microbes across diverse bioreactor operating conditions. To address this gap, this article aims to highlight the current state of research in this field, thereby increasing the industrial applicability of biohydrogen. In this regard, this paper critically reviews the potential of metabolic and genome engineering to enhance biohydrogen production, with a special focus on manipulating central metabolic pathways, redirecting metabolic flux, and using the CRISPR-Cas9 genome-editing tool. Furthermore, light was shed on other potential strategies to facilitate biohydrogen production, such as recombinant gene expression, process optimisation, and enhanced fermentation efficiency. Finally, the challenges preventing the widespread deployment of these technologies, as well as the probable developmental approaches to address them, are highlighted.

2. Metabolic engineering approaches for biohydrogen production

Studies have shown that wild strains of H₂-producing microorganisms generally produce less H₂ from renewable biomass than their theoretical potential yields (Ersoy et al., 2023; Sivaramakrishnan et al., 2021). Interestingly, higher H₂ productivity can be achieved by developing novel phenotypes with enhanced hydrogen production capabilities through metabolic engineering. Over the last two decades, various studies have employed random genetic modifications via chemical mutagenesis and UV radiation to enhance hydrogen productivity in wild strains (Sanabria, 2011). However, due to limited stability and low success rates, these techniques failed to achieve the desired H₂ yield, prompting researchers to explore metabolic engineering as a more innovative approach. This relatively new approach is largely attributed to cutting-edge technologies, such as metabolomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, and genomics, which enable a deeper understanding and precise manipulation of cellular processes involved in hydrogen production (Hernández-Guisao et al., 2024). Although various strategies for metabolic engineering exist, the most applicable ones, specifically in biohydrogen production, have been identified as the elimination of competitive pathways and carbon catabolite repression for the consumption of less favourable carbon sources, as well as the redirection of metabolic flux (Fig. 1). Various microbial strains have been successfully engineered to enhance their biohydrogen production capabilities (Table 1).

2.1. Elimination of competing pathways

Eliminating competing pathways in microbes is a widely adopted metabolic engineering strategy to facilitate the production of desired metabolites, proteins, or bio-products, especially in the biofuel, agriculture, food, and pharmaceutical industries (Pathade et al., 2024). It is principally based on resource optimisation, flux maximisation and reduced byproducts. Typically, hydrogen-producing bacteria generate competitive byproducts such as acetate, ethanol, lactate, and methane, which reduce overall hydrogen yield by diverting carbon, energy, and electrons away from the hydrogen pathway (García-Depraect et al., 2021; Mohanakrishna and Pengadeth, 2024). Hence, there is a need to eliminate the competitive pathways for producing acetate, ethanol, and methane by modifying the metabolic processes of microbes based on a comprehensive understanding of their native metabolic networks of biochemical reactions. Interestingly, the native metabolic networks of these bacteria can be controlled by a variety of strategies, including pH variation (Li et al., 2019), regulation of redox potential to ensure electron availability for hydrogenase activity (Zhang et al., 2015), modulation of enzyme activity to enhance key enzymatic reactions while suppressing competitive pathways (Ruggeri et al., 2015), and

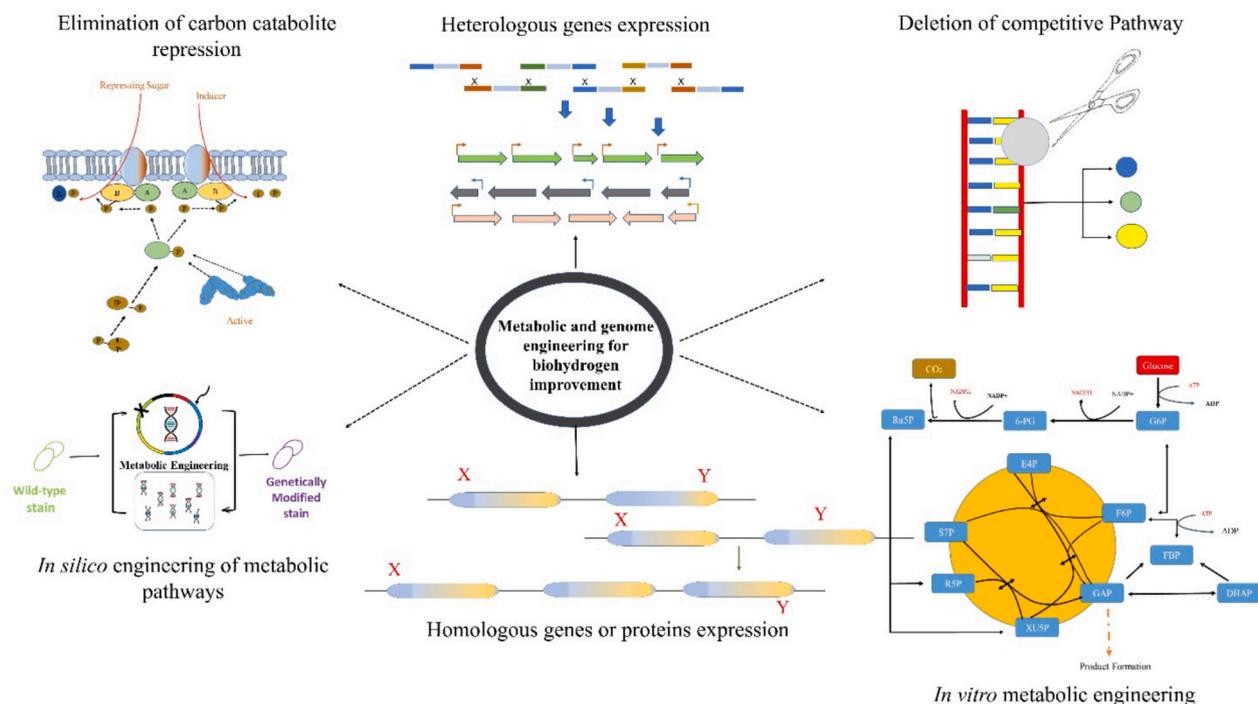


Fig. 1. Schematic overview of metabolic and genome engineering strategies employed for enhancing the fermentative H_2 production. Adapted and modified from (Akaniro et al., 2024).

manipulation of metabolic fluxes to direct carbon and energy resources towards hydrogen production (Dong et al., 2017). These strategies collectively govern the H_2 production pathway.

Several studies have concentrated on channelling metabolic flux towards enhanced H_2 production in the last decade. For instance, Valle et al. (2015) described an *E. coli* mutant strain with altered metabolic pathways that inhibited the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) and the Entner-Doudoroff (ED) pathway, consequently redirecting carbon flux to the glycolysis pathway to produce more pyruvate, a key substrate for biohydrogen synthesis. A ribulose-5P-isomerase-deficient mutant (*DrpiA*) of *E. coli* was also designed to increase the carbon flux to glycolysis by blocking the PPP pathway, resulting in higher pyruvate and formate levels, which are then converted by hydrogenase and formate hydrogen lyase (FHL), leading to enhanced hydrogen production (Sundara Sekar et al., 2017).

It has since been observed that formate plays a critical role in microbial biohydrogen production, and tuning its metabolism is a crucial step in enhancing biohydrogen yield. Under anaerobic conditions, it gets converted into H_2 and CO_2 through the action of FHL enzymes; unfortunately, the flow of formate to other metabolic pathways results in the production of ethanol, acetate, succinate and lactate, thus impeding hydrogen production (Gevorgyan et al., 2022; Maeda et al., 2008; Valle et al., 2019). In this regard, fumarate reductase (*frdD*), which catalyses the conversion of fumarate to succinate, thereby reducing the synthesis of phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) and pyruvate, which would otherwise be directed to the H_2 production pathway, has been identified as a key metabolic regulator (Jin et al., 2023). Lactate dehydrogenase A (*ldhA*) is another undesirable participant that reduces pyruvate availability by converting it to lactate under anaerobic conditions when the TCA cycle is not fully operational (Fig. 2) (Noblecourt et al., 2018). Hence, the deletion of genes encoding fumarate reductase and lactate dehydrogenase in *E. coli* has significantly enhanced the H_2 yield by 2.5 times compared to the wild type (Balderas-Hernandez et al., 2020). Another study, which used modified *E. coli* lacking fumarate reductase and lactate dehydrogenase genes to co-produce hydrogen and ethanol, confirmed these findings Lopez-Hidalgo et al., 2021b. Besides formate

regulation and consumption, the significant roles of the membrane transporter *focA* protein, which controls the influx and efflux of formate in the cell, have also been highlighted. A recent study by Kammel and Sawers (2022) found that deleting the *focA* genes in mutant *E. coli* strains led to 1.5 times higher H_2 production than in wild-type strains. In addition to the formate pathway, the NADH pathway is the second route for H_2 synthesis in bacterial species such as *Enterobacter aerogenes*. The FHL is a multi-enzyme complex system that can utilise NADH as an electron donor to drive H_2 production. Meanwhile, the FHL repressor protein, encoded by *hycA*, suppresses FHL activity. Hence, H_2 production by NADH pathways can be controlled by modifying the FHL system via removal of the *hycA* gene (Bai et al., 2023; McDowall et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2009).

2.2. Elimination of carbon catabolite repression for co-sugar utilisation

Feedstock for hydrogen production, such as plant biomass, algal biomass, animal waste, and food waste, consists of heterogeneous and homogeneous complexes of saccharides (sugars), lipids, and proteins, which are hydrolysed during fermentation. Saccharides are particularly beneficial substrates for H_2 production due to their high degradability; however, their utilisation at the industrial level is believed to be hindered by some complex regulatory mechanisms, especially carbon catabolite repression (CCR) (Deutscher, 2008; Fox and Prather, 2020; Zeng et al., 2017). CCR ensures that microbial cells prioritise preferred carbon sources, particularly glucose, over less preferred ones, thereby limiting H_2 production from other carbon sources (Kremling et al., 2015; Sievert et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2014). Metabolic engineering has since been effectively applied to modify microbial metabolic pathways to utilise multiple sugars for efficient hydrogen production (Sievert et al., 2017). Knocking out genes such as *CcpA*, which encodes the catabolite control protein that regulates CCR in certain hydrogen-producing bacteria, has been identified as a key strategy for utilising other sugars, such as xylose and arabinose, thereby improving hydrogen production (Deutscher, 2008). Generally, controlling the production of enzymes needed to break down specific sugars, or blocking the activation of

Table 1
Metabolic engineering strategies applied in bacteria for enhanced H₂ production.

Metabolic engineering strategy	Metabolic pathways redirected/description	Bacterial strain	Genotype	Substrate	Yield (Fold increase)	Reference
Carbon catabolite expression	Elimination of the phosphotransferase system; simultaneous consumption of glucose and xylose	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	WDH strain	Glucose/Xylose	3	(Balderas-Hernandez et al., 2020)
Co-overexpression of the malate dehydrogenase (Mdh) and the malic enzyme (MaeA)	Metabolites redirection by the overexpression of the citrate lyase enzyme	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	Δ ldh Δ gnd Δ frdBC::kan (M4)	Glycerol	1.25	(Valle et al., 2023)
Deletion of the lactate dehydrogenase gene (<i>ldh</i>)	Hydrogen production	<i>Caldicellulosiruptor bescii</i>	JWCB005	Maltose and cellobiose	21–34%	(Cha et al., 2013)
Deletion of the acetate production genes (<i>ak</i> and <i>pta</i>)	Heterogeneous expression of strong hydrogenases	<i>Caldicellulosiruptor bescii</i>	JWCB018	Barley straw	25% more	(Cha et al., 2023)
Heterologous expression (screening mutant strains)	Synthesis of hydrogen	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	SS1/ <i>hydA</i>	Glycerol	1	(Soo et al., 2017)
			SS1/ <i>hycE</i>	Glycerol	1	(Soo et al., 2017)
Homologous overexpression	Overexpression of [Fe-Fe] hydrogenase (<i>hydA</i>)	<i>Clostridium acetobutylicum</i>	CA-zwf (pIMP-zwf)	Glucose	1.15	(Son et al., 2021)
			CA-hydA (pMTL-hydA)	Glucose	1.39	(Son et al., 2021)
	Hydrogen production. Lactic acid inhibition (<i>hydA</i> gene)	<i>Clostridium paraputrificum</i>	M-21	Glucose	1.7	(Morimoto et al., 2005)
	Overexpression of the [Fe-Fe] hydrogenase (<i>hydA</i>)	<i>Clostridium tyrobutyricum</i>	JM1	Glucose	1.5	(Jo et al., 2010)
	Overexpression of Mdh and MaeA under the PBAD promoter	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	Δ glTA Δ frdBC and Δ glTA Δ frdABC	Glycerol	36%	(Valle et al., 2021)
Homologous recombination	Regulation of the NADH/NAD + pool	<i>Enterobacter aerogenes</i>	IAM1183	Glucose	17.2%	(Bai et al., 2023)
Hydrogenases overexpression	Introduction to the sucrose metabolic pathway	<i>Clostridium tyrobutyricum</i>	ATCC 25755 (Ct)	Sugarcane molasses	910.37 mmol/L (reported so far using molasses)	(Fu et al., 2024)
Integrational mutagenesis	Hydrogen production	<i>Clostridium tyrobutyricum</i>	ATCC 25755	Glucose	50%	(Liu et al., 2006)
In silico metabolic network reconstruction	Modification of NAD or NAD(P)-linked hydrogenase	<i>Citrobacter amalonaticus</i>	Y19	Succinate, lactate, formate, acetate, ethanol	1.8 molH ₂ /mol glucose	(Oh et al., 2008)
Multi-gene engineering	Modification of glycolytic pathways	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	BW25113(SH5)	Glucose	1.32 molH ₂ /mol glucose	(Seol et al., 2016)
Overexpression of <i>gapC</i>	Improvement of substrate catabolism	<i>Clostridium acetobutylicum</i>	ATCC 824	Glucose	24.4%	(Kim et al., 2023)
Overexpression of <i>RyhB</i>	Disruption of lactate dehydrogenase and metabolic regulation via the small RNA RyhB	<i>Klebsiella</i> sp.	FSoil 024	Glycerol/Glucose	40–50%	(Chu et al., 2021)
Protein engineering of the large subunit of hydrogenase 3	Improve hydrogenase activity	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	Ke12	Formate	8	(Maeda et al., 2008)
Redirection carbon pathway	Improvement of electron and redox metabolism (cac0764)	<i>Clostridium acetobutylicum</i>	ATCC 824	Glucose	54%	(Foulquier et al., 2022)
Random mutagenesis	Sugars	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	ycgR	Glycerol	2.4	(Tran et al., 2015)

specific inducers of sugar metabolism, using sugar-specific or global regulatory systems forms the basis of this metabolic engineering approach (Deutscher et al., 2006).

For instance, in hydrogen-producing *E. coli*, the glucose phosphotransferase system (PTS^{Glc}) prioritises glucose uptake by blocking the metabolism of other sugars; thus, PTS^{Glc} inactivation has been shown to facilitate the utilisation of other available sugars (Liang et al., 2015). The PTS^{Glc} system of hydrogen-producing bacteria consists of three major components that work together to transport glucose into the cell and modify it for metabolism. The first two components, Enzyme I (*EI*) and phosphocarrier protein, are encoded by genes *ptsI* and *ptsH*, respectively. While EI_{IA} and EI_{IBC}, the glucose-specific proteins in the membrane are encoded by the *crr* and *ptsG* genes, respectively, and play a critical role in the uptake and phosphorylation of glucose during its transport into the cell (Escalante et al., 2012; Gosset, 2005). The deletion of PTS^{Glc} genes in *E. coli* separates glucose transport from PEP-dependent phosphorylation for its metabolism, while the conserved PEP during this process is further utilised for the metabolism of other

sugars, such as xylose and arabinose (Carmona et al., 2015). It was also observed that the removal of *ptsG* and *crr* genes in the *E. coli* WDH strain enabled the bacteria to utilise both glucose and xylose concurrently, thereby enhancing H₂ production by ~1.2-fold in the engineered strain (Balderas-Hernandez et al., 2020).

In another study, genes involved in the PTS^{Glc} phosphotransferase cascade were knocked out to examine the effect of a single PTS^{Glc} mutation on cell growth and substrate consumption (Liang et al., 2015). It was found that each mutant exhibited distinct levels of adaptation when both glucose and xylose were present at varying ratios, and that the *ptsI* mutant could quickly consume a substrate mixture with a high xylose concentration (Liang et al., 2015). The study further demonstrated that the deletion of *ptsH* in the strain YL104H led to a marked improvement in succinate yield under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. This suggests that the strategic selection of specific genes of PTS^{Glc} deletion mutants can significantly enhance the co-utilisation efficiency of glucose and xylose. Another study examined the PTS system mutation by deleting the *araC* genes in the *E. coli* GX50 strain. These genes encode

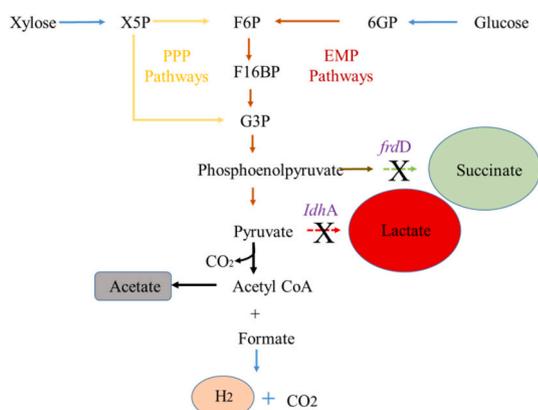


Fig. 2. Carbon flux redirection in *E. coli* via *ldhA* and *frdD* knockout to improve fermentative H_2 production. Adapted and modified from Lopez-Hidalgo et al., 2021a

transcriptional regulators involved in arabinose catabolism and suppress the transcriptional activator for xylose catabolism. The findings revealed that this mutation enabled the mutant *E. coli* to consume xylose efficiently, even in the presence of glucose (Kim et al., 2015a). A similar study demonstrated that an *araC*-deficient strain of hydrogen-producing bacteria is a successful strategy for overcoming the usual repression of xylose metabolism in the presence of glucose, as it induces simultaneous glucose and xylose uptake (Desai and Rao, 2010; Kim et al., 2015a).

2.3. Redirection of metabolic flux

This strategy involves engineering microbial pathways to channel carbon, energy, and reducing equivalents (e.g., NADH) towards hydrogen production while minimising undesired byproducts such as lactate, ethanol, and acetate. This metabolic engineering approach is a potential novel technique for improving H_2 productivity in certain anaerobic bacteria, such as *Clostridium tyrobutyricum* (Cheng et al., 2013), *C. butyricum* W5 (Cai et al., 2010), and *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* (Marbehan et al., 2024). Metabolic flux techniques are employed to understand and optimise cellular metabolic processes, enabling enhanced hydrogen yield in large-scale bioreactors for commercial applications. These techniques evaluate intracellular changes in response to extracellular perturbations of metabolic and process parameters through stoichiometric analysis and mass balance calculations, providing a comprehensive framework for process optimisation (Cai et al., 2011; Manish et al., 2007). Various wild species of hydrogen-producing bacteria have demonstrated complex metabolic networks for biohydrogen production, highlighting their potential to achieve high hydrogen yields. The advanced development of genetic tools for strict anaerobes has enabled the application of gene deletion studies to metabolic flux analysis in hydrogen-producing bacteria, offering a promising avenue for validating genome-scale models (Heap et al., 2007; Tummala et al., 2003). Incorporating this technique and thermodynamic constraints into genome-scale models enhances our understanding of the behaviour of hydrogen-producing bacteria and may lead to significant improvements in hydrogen production.

To achieve biohydrogen production near the theoretical yield, i.e., 12 mol of H_2 per mol of glucose, a combination of dark and photo-fermentation is required (Das, 2009). However, before integrating these processes, improvements in hydrogen yield during dark fermentation are necessary. Metabolic flux analysis (MFA) is critical in predicting and optimising metabolic pathways through metabolic engineering to enhance hydrogen productivity during dark fermentation. Recent advancements in genetic tools offer opportunities to engineer improved H_2 production efficiency via targeted metabolic modifications. This is achieved by estimating the distribution of

intracellular flux using experimental data integrated with models determined for pure cultures (Gonzalez-Garcia et al., 2017). MFA also facilitates the evaluation of electron and material flow under varying conditions to optimise hydrogen production. Studies have shown that parameters such as hydraulic retention time (HRT) significantly influence metabolic flux, directly impacting hydrogen yields in anaerobic mixed cultures (Cheng and Whang, 2023). Additionally, pH regulation has been shown to affect metabolic flux, thereby influencing H_2 production efficiency in *Ethanoligenens harbinense* B49 (Tang et al., 2024). It was found that when metabolic flux was balanced, the highest H_2 production, 10 mol H_2 /mol glucose, was achieved with the mixed culture using acetate as the sole end product and biomass (Gonzalez-Garcia et al., 2017). Proper modification of the metabolic network during flux analysis can enhance experimental results; therefore, validating metabolic flux analysis is crucial for achieving high H_2 yields (Scarborough et al., 2020). Additionally, it has been observed that metabolic engineering tools modified specific pathways to enhance hydrogen production at the laboratory scale; however, in this regard, genome editing approaches are more robust for stable hydrogen production under industrial conditions (Mohanraj et al., 2019; Sinha et al., 2016).

3. Genome editing approach: CRISPR-Cas genome editing tool

Compared to traditional metabolic engineering editing tools, genome editing has attracted greater attention due to its high genetic stability, lower technical complexity and strong scale-up stability performance for bioenergy production (Hong et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). Studies have shown that the capacity to alter and improve microbial genomes provides a more effective and sustainable route to biofuel production; thus, genome editing is poised to play a major role in the shift to a more sustainable, renewable energy future (Wei and Li, 2023). The emergence of genome editing techniques, especially CRISPR-Cas9, has revolutionised industrial production across sectors such as agriculture, bioremediation, and industrial biotechnology by enabling rapid and affordable incorporation of sequence-specific alterations into the genomes of various cell types and species. Other genome editing technologies currently utilised industrially include enabling genome editing, Effector nucleases resembling transcription activators (TALENs), Zinc-finger nucleases (ZFNs), and Endonucleases (Endo) or meganucleases (Mega) that are homing (Gaj et al., 2016). The Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats (CRISPR-Cas) system, which is the most advanced tool in the genome-editing arsenal, enables changes in regulatory elements, disruption or replacement of genes, or addition of particular DNA sequences to microbes and this technology has been effectively deployed in enhancing microbial biofuel production (Wei and Li, 2023). Naturally, the CRISPR-Cas system contributes to bacterial adaptability through immunity via RNA-guided DNA cleavage by Cas proteins, thereby protecting bacterial DNA from invasive viruses and plasmids (Sorek et al., 2013; Wiedenheft et al., 2012). According to Javed et al. (2022), CRISPR-Cas involves site-specific genome editing that improves the microbe's biomass conversion process and produces more biofuel of interest. However, achieving the intended editing result largely depends on optimising the Cas protein, sgRNA, and gene regulatory elements required for sgRNA and Cas protein expression (Bruder et al., 2016; Dong et al., 2022).

CRISPR-Cas has been employed in enhancing biohydrogen production via the insertion of synthetic pathways or genetic modifications into the organismal chassis (Lu et al. (2022). Notably, Wu et al. (2017), utilised CRISPR-Cas9 to delete the *nuoC*, *nuoD*, and *nuoE* NADH dehydrogenase subunits of the *Enterobacter aerogenes* strain IAM1183, resulting in enhanced biohydrogen production (Fig. 3). It was observed that the mutant strain IAM1183-CD ($\Delta nuoC/\Delta nuoD$) and IAM1183-CDE ($\Delta nuoC/\Delta nuoD/\Delta nuoE$) enhanced hydrogen production by 24.5% and 45.6%, respectively (Wu et al., 2017). These findings have been subsequently validated by Lu et al. (2022). The approach has also been noted to increase biohydrogen production by improving the enzymatic

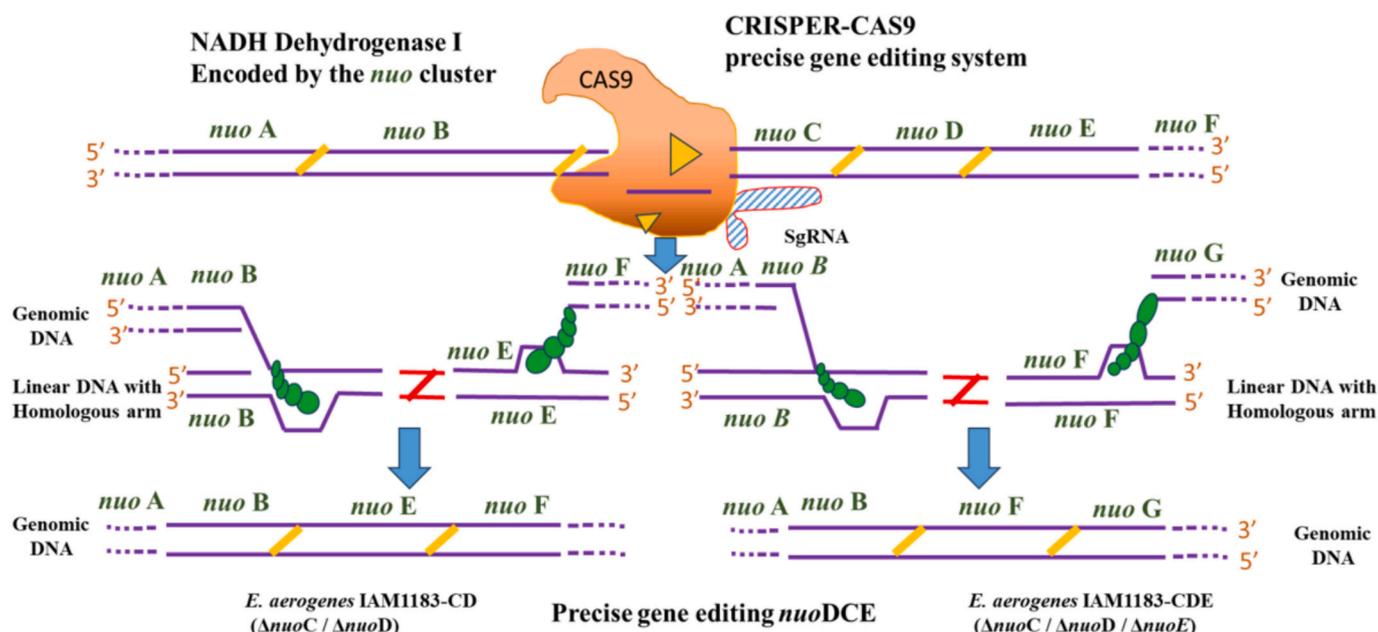


Fig. 3. Construction of $\Delta nuoCD$ and $\Delta nuoCDE$ mutants of *Enterobacter aerogenes* IAM1183 by the CRISPR-Cas9 method. Adapted and modified from Wu et al. (2017)

machinery that converts biomass to hydrogen. For instance, CRISPR was used for the overexpression of [FeFe]-Hydrogenase, overexpression of the butyrate pathway, repression of the [NiFe]-Hydrogenase, inactivation/repression of Ldh (lactate dehydrogenase), Adhe (aldehyde dehydrogenase) and Spo0A gene in *Clostridium* spp., which altogether enhanced fermentative biohydrogen production (Husaini et al., 2023). Similarly, improving bioprocess-related genes is equally important. CRISPR-CAS also has the potential to improve microbial tolerance to metabolites and inhibitors, as well as improve the saccharification potential of microorganisms by incorporation of genes for hydrolytic enzymes (Husaini et al., 2023), whereas, in the case of microalgae, following photo-fermentative biohydrogen production can also be enhanced by increasing the photosynthetic efficiency (Zhang et al., 2023). However, a major problem with the application of CRISPR-Cas in some microorganisms is the toxicity of Cas proteins, which can be effectively mitigated by using engineered Cas proteins and small/inducible promoters (Husaini et al., 2023). CRISPR-Cas-based metabolic engineering also poses certain limitations in strict anaerobes and in maintaining the long-term stability of engineered strains during large-scale bioreactor operation for biohydrogen production. Some strict anaerobic species, such as *Clostridium* spp. exhibit low transformation and genome-editing efficiencies, which limit hydrogen productivity during scale-up in industrial bioreactors (Husaini et al., 2023; Pyne et al., 2016).

4. Recombinant gene expression strategies

Recombinant gene expression refers to the production of specific proteins or metabolites via the artificial introduction and expression of a gene of interest in a host organism that is different from its source. It has been identified as a cornerstone of biotechnology, as it has been demonstrated to be quite effective in producing proteins, enzymes, and other biomolecules, such as biohydrogen and other biofuels, at both laboratory and industrial scales (Fan et al., 2020). Recombinant gene expression is primarily governed by two systems: homologous gene expression, which involves the expression of genes native to the host, and heterologous gene expression, which involves the expression of genes foreign to the host organism (Hwang et al., 2021). Both methods are widely applied in microbial biohydrogen production.

4.1. Homologous gene expression

Homologous gene expression entails identifying key hydrogen-producing genes, increasing their expression by altering their promoters or amplifying their genes, or introducing similar genes from related species (Prelich, 2012). Homologous expression can increase the amount and activity of hydrogenase enzymes, the major enzyme responsible for H_2 production, increasing overall hydrogen output in engineered strains (Cao et al., 2022; Girbal et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2015). For instance, a recent study demonstrated that overexpression of genes encoding hydrogenase enzymes increased hydrogen yield in *Firmicutes* bacteria grown on alkali-based magnetic nanosheets (Cao et al., 2022). Other enzymes, such as malate dehydrogenase (*Mdh*) and malic enzyme A (*MaeA*), also play important roles in enhancing microbial hydrogen production by directing carbon flux towards pyruvate for H_2 production instead of completing the full TCA cycle. A study by Valle et al. (2021) observed that the co-expression of malate dehydrogenase (*Mdh*) and the malic enzyme A (*MaeA*) in *E. coli* mutants derived from the parent *E. coli* BW25113 wild-type significantly enhanced hydrogen production. Specifically, the mutant strains *dcuD* and *frdC-dcuD* exhibited increased H_2 production by 36% and 24%, respectively. In this metabolic engineering strategy, malate plays a crucial role in enhancing the availability of pyruvate, a precursor for H_2 production, and in balancing the NADH/NAD⁺ redox ratio, thereby promoting hydrogen production. This finding was supported by various other studies (Dong et al., 2017; Hidese et al., 2020), substantiating the beneficial effects of overexpression of anaplerotic enzymes, which improve carbon redirection towards targeted products. However, in another study, mutant *E. coli* strains such as *gltA* and *frdABCD* failed to achieve the desired hydrogen yield following *Mdh* and *MaeA* overexpression (Valle et al., 2015). Interestingly, it was discovered that co-overexpression of these enzymes only drives cellular growth and cannot induce C-flux for hydrogen production in several mutant *E. coli* strains (Valle et al., 2023; Valle et al., 2021).

In addition to malate metabolic flux, formate metabolic flux is also being investigated, since it is considered the main substrate for hydrogen production (Xiong et al., 2020). Overexpression of the formate hydrogen lyase activator (*fhlA*) gene has been identified as a promising strategy for improving hydrogen production in the facultative anaerobic hydrogen-producing bacterium *Enterobacter cloacae*. For instance, overexpression

of the *fhlA* activator gene in *Enterobacter cloacae* WL1318 resulted in a 188% increase in hydrogen output utilising cotton stalk hydrolysate (Zhang et al., 2020). This yield was achieved by the recombinant strain through a decrease in metabolic flux to the competitive pathways of hydrogen production and an enhancement of FHL activity. A similar metabolic approach of inducing *fhlA* gene overexpression was used for high hydrogen yield in genera such as *Enterobacter* (Zhao et al., 2009), *Escherichia* (Sanchez-Torres et al., 2009), *Clostridia* (Jo et al., 2010) and *Klebsiella* (Jawed et al., 2016).

4.2. Heterologous gene expression

Heterologous gene expression has significantly improved hydrogen productivity via the transfer and overexpression of genes implicated in specific metabolic pathways across different bacterial strains. This method enables the development of bacteria with improved hydrogen productivity by combining new genes and regulatory components. A recent investigation reported the heterologous expression of noncoding RNA *RyhB* from *E. coli* in *Klebsiella* sp., which improved hydrogen productivity by nearly 50% (Chu et al., 2021). In another study, the *nadE* gene from *K. pneumoniae* was heterologously expressed in *Enterobacter aerogenes*; *nadE* is involved with the NADH pathway, which is critical for anaerobic hydrogen generation; hence, its overexpression resulted in increased availability of NADH, which subsequently diverted the metabolic flux towards hydrogen generation (Wu and Zhao, 2021). Several efforts have been made in the last decade to improve H₂ production by overexpressing the [Fe—Fe] hydrogenases across different bacteria. For instance, certain strains of *Rhodospirillum rubrum* possess inactive *RrhydA* genes encoding [Fe—Fe] hydrogenases, which have been successfully expressed in *E. coli* to enhance H₂ production (Abo-Hashesh et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2015b). Similarly, Song et al. (2017) developed a recombinant strain of *E. cloacae*/HPPH by expressing the *hydA* gene, which encodes the hydrogen-promoting protein from *E. cloacae* IIT-BT08, resulting in 50% higher hydrogen output compared to the wild-type strain using pretreated water hyacinth. In another study, in addition to *RrhydA*, E.-J. Kim et al. (2015) co-expressed the hydrogenase maturation proteins of *Clostridium acetobutylicum* (*Ca-HydEFG*) to *E. coli*. The study also demonstrates that H₂ production is significantly improved only when the *Rr-HydA* and *Rr-HydB* genes are expressed in a balanced ratio. These findings were corroborated by a similar study, in which the heterogeneous expression of the hydrogenase gene (*RrhydA*) together with the maturation genes from *C. acetobutylicum* in *E. coli* resulted in a two-fold increase in hydrogenase activity and hydrogen production (Abo-Hashesh et al., 2013). Although heterologous gene expression has expanded the options for microbial hydrogen production by transferring non-native genes and pathways to desired strains, the hydrogen yield in many strains remains low (Akaniro et al., 2024). As a result, continued study is required to address the constraints associated with genetic stability and efficiency in various microbial systems.

5. Enhancement of substrate utilisation

Substrate utilisation is key in hydrogen productivity during the dark fermentation process as optimal substrate concentration enhances biohydrogen production, while higher substrate concentration may lead to hydrogen inhibition (Morsy and Ibrahim, 2016). Many anaerobic microbes have been demonstrated to utilise lignocellulosic biomass for their metabolic processes during dark fermentation. Consequently, microbial H₂ production from lignocellulosic biomass, such as agricultural residues, forest waste, and energy crops, is an economical and environmentally friendly approach (Morsy and Ibrahim, 2016). However, the complex structure of lignocellulosic biomass requires pretreatments, such as acid, alkaline, or enzymatic, to release the maximum amount of fermentable sugars necessary for the biosynthesis of microbial hydrogen, thereby increasing fermentation efficiency (Morsy and

Ibrahim, 2016). However, the additional enzymatic pretreatment step can be eliminated by using mutant microbial strains that possess the capability to simultaneously degrade this biomass and produce hydrogen. This approach would reduce the number of biotechnological stages required for the effective utilisation of organic material, thereby decreasing costs, saving time, and increasing the number of industrial cycles in such biotechnological processes. For instance, *E. coli* strain ZH-4 isolated from bovine rumen was engineered with enhanced cellulose and hemicellulose degrading capabilities, with a degradation ratio of 14.30% for cellulose and 11.39% for hemicellulose and biohydrogen production capacity of 4.71 mL H₂ per gram from corn straw (Pang et al., 2017). This engineered strain demonstrates great potential for industrial applications. Further metabolic and regulatory investigations of this strain are needed to explore its enzyme secretion mechanisms for application in single-cell refineries to co-produce multiple value-added products by utilising biomass or waste materials. In addition to lignocellulosic biomass, crude glycerol has also been reported for biohydrogen production. Cofré et al. (2016) studied batch and fed-batch performance on both laboratory and pilot scales using the *E. coli* MG1655 wild-type strain with glycerol from a biodiesel plant as the feedstock. It was found that there was no difference in hydrogen productivity between 5.5 L and 200 L pilot-scale bioreactors using pure and crude glycerol. In another study, researchers developed a glycerol impurity-tolerant co-culture of *E. coli* and *Enterobacter* sp. that produces H₂ from biodiesel waste glycerol. It was observed that the developed co-culture of *E. coli* CECT432 and *Enterobacter* sp. H1 produced 3.1-fold higher productivity than the pure culture, with a yield of 1.53 mol H₂/mol glycerol (Maru et al., 2016). Supplementation of the major carbon sources with other nutrients has also been noted to enhance substrate utilisation to maximise biohydrogen production. A study by Sharma and Melkania (2018b) using anaerobic recombinant *E. coli* and *E. aerogenes* showed the positive effect of amino acids when an organic fraction of municipal solid waste was used as a carbon source. The developed strains produced 685.4 ± 10.1 mL of hydrogen when alanine was supplemented with an organic fraction of municipal solid waste. However, these recombinant strains cannot be used for large-scale hydrogen production with commercial nitrogen sources. Therefore, inexpensive and renewable nitrogen sources must be investigated for future applications in hydrogen production. Another study reported the development of a novel *E. coli* BW25113 strain for renewable H₂ production using brewery spent grains (Poladyan et al., 2018). *E. coli* HD701 was also demonstrated to utilise a mixture of molasses and rotten dates for hydrogen production (Morsy and Ibrahim, 2016). The results from these recombinant strains could pave the way for developing new approaches to hydrogen production combined with simultaneous waste treatment.

6. Optimisation of process engineering parameters to reduce toxicity

One of the major impediments to scaling up microbial biohydrogen production is the generation of various toxic products during dark fermentation. As a result, special focus has been placed on ameliorating product toxicity and inhibition, especially at the dark fermentation stage of biohydrogen production. These inhibitory substrates are also produced during the pretreatment and strategies for their reduction have shown significant effects in increasing the feasibility and economy of scale in biohydrogen production (Mynat and Argun, 2020b). The process engineering strategies employed in various studies can be classified into dilution of inhibitors, inactivation of inhibitors, removal of inhibitors, and modification of operational parameters (Table 2).

6.1. Dilution and removal of inhibitors

Efficient biohydrogen production is often hindered by the presence of toxic inhibitors generated during substrate pretreatment, making

Table 2
Inhibition strategies to overcome product toxicity during hydrogen production.

Inhibition strategy	Microorganism	Specific strategy	Operational mode	Substrate	pH	Hydrogen yield	Reference
Adjusting the operational parameters	<i>Clostridium, Enterobacter and Klebsiella</i>	Maintaining the carbon/nitrogen ratio	Continuous feeding	Synthetic wastewater	6.5	3.5 mol H ₂ /mol sucrose	(del Pilar Anzola-Rojas et al., 2015)
	Mesophilic anaerobic sludge	Food waste / anaerobic fermentation with ammonia	Batch fermentation	Food waste	Inoculum (7.70)	Hydrogen yield of 121.4 mL-H ₂ /gVS	(Pan et al., 2013)
	Mixed anaerobic culture	Maintaining the sCOD/tCOD ratio of 0.46.	Batch fermentation (35 ± 2 °C)	Municipal solid waste	Feedstock (pH 4.18 ± 0.36)	H ₂ yield of 2.05 ± 0.33 M of H ₂ /M of carbohydrate	(Elsamadony and Tawfik, 2015)
	Sulfate-reducing bacteria	COD/ Sulphate ratio for methane inhibition	Batch fermentation	Glucose	6.0 and 6.75	COD/SO ₄ ²⁻ ratio of 2.18 and pH set at 6.0. Hydrogen production was dominated	(Moon et al., 2013)
	Sulfate-reducing bacteria	Pretreated graphite electrodes completely inhibiting methanogens	Sequential batch fermentation	Glucose	6.2–6.5	3.67 ± 0.31 M/M of glucose was recorded	(Singh and Singh, 2021b)
	Mesophilic anaerobic culture	Sludge (24.5 times)	Batch fermentation	Food waste	4.75 ± 0.01	60.9 mL-H ₂ /gVS	(Pan et al., 2013)
Dilution	Mixed consortia	New substrate (25% and 50%)	Batch fermentation	Glucose	7.0	2.2 ± 1.3 mM/h	(Srikanth and Mohan, 2014)
	Microbial consortium	Rew substrate (233,466 and 700 mL)	Batch fermentation	Lactose	7.0	148 mmol H ₂ /L days	(Romão et al., 2019)
	Mixed anaerobic culture	130% of the initial working volume	Batch fermentation	Molasses	6.8	21. 47 mL H ₂ /h	(Miynt and Argun, 2020b)
	<i>Clostridium and Ruminococcaceae</i>	Detoxifying step for steam-exploded inhibitors	Batch fermentation (37 °C)	Corn stock	6.5	40% higher hydrogen yield	(Liu et al., 2015)
Inactivation of inhibitors	<i>Anaerobic granular sludge</i>	Pretreated anaerobic granular sludge (110 °C, 24 h)	Batch fermentation	Lignocellulosic hydrolysates	6.5–6.8	912 Hydrogen production rate (mL H ₂ /L/d) and Inhibition coefficient (%) was found Zero %	(Muñoz-Páez et al., 2019)
	<i>Domestic biogas digester</i>	Hydrothermal pretreated Degradation and transformation of furfural derivatives	Batch fermentation	Algae and lignocellulose biomass	6.5	188.5 mL/g glucose 100% inhibitor degradation	(Sun et al., 2019)
	<i>Domestic biogas digester</i>	Hydrothermal pretreated algae and lignocellulosic biomass	Batch fermentation	Algae and lignocellulosic biomass	6.5	Inhibitors in the range of 1 to 4 g/L were 100% degraded in 48 h of fermentation	(Sun et al., 2020)
	Sewage sludge		Batch fermentation (32 °C)	Food waste	6.4	144.26, increased by 127.8%	(Li et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2021)
	<i>Thermoanaerobacterium thermosaccharolyticum</i> M18	Biochar	Batch fermentation (60 °C)	Fungal-pretreated cornstalk	7.5	274.9, increased by 89%	(Zhao et al., 2021)
Removal of inhibitors	River sediment and MJ2		Batch fermentation (55 °C)	Pretreated sugarcane bagasse	7.08	319.5, increased by 79.8%	(Huang et al., 2022)
	Sulfate-reducing bacteria	Heat treatment for removing methanogens	Batch fermentation (37 °C)	Glucose	6.8	2.814 ± 0.091 M/M of glucose	(Singh and Singh, 2021a)
	Sulfate-reducing bacteria	Ferrous and sulphate ions	Batch fermentation (37 °C)	Glucose	6.5	2.523 ± 0.230 H ₂ M/M glucose	(Singh et al., 2021)

dilution and removal of these compounds a critical aspect of process engineering to enhance microbial activity and hydrogen yields (Basak et al., 2020). Bacteriocins and volatile fatty acids (VFA) have been identified as the most notorious metabolites which limit biohydrogen production during dark fermentation. The dilution of these metabolites has been demonstrated as a key and cost-effective strategy to counteract their toxic effects during biohydrogen generation (Miynt and Argun, 2020b; Pan et al., 2013; Srikanth and Mohan, 2014). The main idea behind dilution is to lower the concentration of the VFA formed during the fermentation process for hydrogen production. The reduction in pH caused by the accumulation of VFAs can be effectively managed by maintaining the pH within the range of 6.5 to 6.8. This can be achieved by periodically replacing 30% to 50% of the substrate within the

bioreactor with fresh substrate. This will enable the restart of the hydrogen production process without lowering the substrate concentration (Miynt and Argun, 2020b; Srikanth and Mohan, 2014). Similarly, the reduction of bacteriocins produced by lactic bacteria can be achieved by feeding bioreactors with a fresh nutrient medium containing lactose as a carbon source (Romão et al., 2019). The dilution strategy has also been identified as suitable to regulate VFA levels within the desired concentration range, thereby enhancing hydrogen productivity from molasses and reducing the cost of integrating VFA separation processes (Miynt and Argun, 2020a). Additionally, studies have shown that a decline in hydrogen production efficiency is correlated with increased methane production efficiency in ammonia-inhibited reactors during the two-phase anaerobic digestion process (Mustafa et al., 2019).

Furthermore, targeted inhibition using sulfate, heavy metals, and ammonia has been identified as an effective approach in other studies (Singh and Singh, 2021b). Inhibitor removal aims to lower the concentration of inhibitors below the threshold level, thus nullifying their toxic effect on hydrogen yield. For instance, metal ions have been identified as a major cause of inhibition of hydrogen producers in anaerobic digesters (Yang et al., 2015). Studies have highlighted the potential of the biosorbent process in removing these ions during dark fermentation (Qin et al., 2020). Optimisation coupled with the supplementation of metal additives (Ni and Fe) and metabolic engineering of *Clostridium pasteurianum* led to a 6.87-fold increase in hydrogen productivity (Li et al., 2025). This dual strategy provides ideal conditions for the genetically modified hydrogen-producing bacteria for efficient hydrogen production. The mechanism of heavy metal inhibition is illustrated in Fig. 4. Electrokinetic and bioleaching are other effective techniques for heavy metal removal from the biohydrogen production substrate (Xu et al., 2017).

6.2. Inactivation of inhibitors

Another important strategy to ameliorate the deleterious effects of inhibitors, such as thiosulfate, bacteriocins, and phenolic compounds, during fermentative biohydrogen production is their inactivation. Studies have demonstrated that these toxic inhibitors can be detoxified or inactivated through acid treatment (Tsai et al., 2021), alkali treatment (Galindo-Hernández et al., 2018), evaporation, or hydrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass (Hu et al., 2018). These methods, when integrated with upstream pretreatment and downstream fermentation processes, significantly enhance hydrogen yield (Tsai et al., 2021). For instance, general heat pretreatment at 100 °C and alkali pretreatment at pH 9.0 were found to inactivate the effect of thiosulphate (Tao et al., 2020). It has also been demonstrated that liquid-solid extraction, liquid-liquid extraction, and heat treatment methods can be highly effective in detoxifying the various inhibitors in bioreactor systems (Chen et al., 2021). However, some consider these treatments to be complex and uneconomical (Chen et al., 2021). In contrast, a method of utilising the furan and phenolic compounds for hydrogen production using specific microorganisms is found to be economical, where genetically modified hydrogen-producing bacteria minimise or inactivate the toxic effects of the phenolic compounds in anaerobic bioreactors (Akobi et al., 2016; Li

et al., 2019; Muñoz-Páez et al., 2019). Studies have also reported that enzyme treatment, such as trypsin (a serine protease enzyme), can inactivate the effect of bacteriocins (Godvin Sharmila et al., 2022). Inactivation of inhibitors through process engineering strategies has thus emerged as a promising approach for enhancing hydrogen production. Researchers used genetically modified *Clostridium acetobutylicum* ATCC 824 culture under pre-optimised conditions (37 °C, 200 rpm and pH 6.5), produced 66.3% higher hydrogen, even in the presence of inhibitors such as vanillin, 5-hydroxymethylfurfural, acetic acid, and formic acid (Kim et al., 2023). However, effective control of inhibitory factors is still to be explored, essential for establishing this strategy as a sustainable approach within the renewable energy sector (Elbeshbishy et al., 2017).

6.3. Modifying operational parameters

Optimising operational parameters plays a crucial role in biohydrogen production through the dark fermentation process. Engineering processes often involve optimising parameters, such as fermentation temperature, pH, and the carbon-to-nitrogen ratio, which have been noted to significantly affect hydrogen productivity during dark fermentation. In more specific terms, tuning these parameters could facilitate the mitigation of hydrogen inhibition in the bioreactors. For example, a C/N ratio in the range of 47–200 is optimal for the operation of biohydrogen reactors (del Pilar Anzola-Rojas et al., 2015). This ratio can be maintained by increasing the biomass of hydrogen-producing microorganisms in an anaerobic reactor. Notably, an imbalance in the food-to-microorganism (F/M) ratio has been shown to inhibit hydrogen production (Pan et al., 2013). The introduction of sulphate-reducing bacteria into fermentation systems has also been noted to attenuate sulphate inhibition, and this may simply be achieved by maintaining pH in the range of 6.2 to 5.5 to completely stop the sulphate inhibition (Sharma and Melkania, 2018a). Similarly, sulphide toxicity during hydrogen production can also be counteracted by ferrous ion supplementation in the bioreactors, as ferrous ion precipitates the sulphur ions, thus mitigating their toxicity (Dhar et al., 2012). On the other hand, methanogen inhibition can be effectively reduced by heat shock treatment methods (55 °C to 65 °C for 30 min) and the application of 40 mV external voltage (Singh and Singh, 2021a). Like in many other bioproduction processes, the optimisation of agitation speed in the range

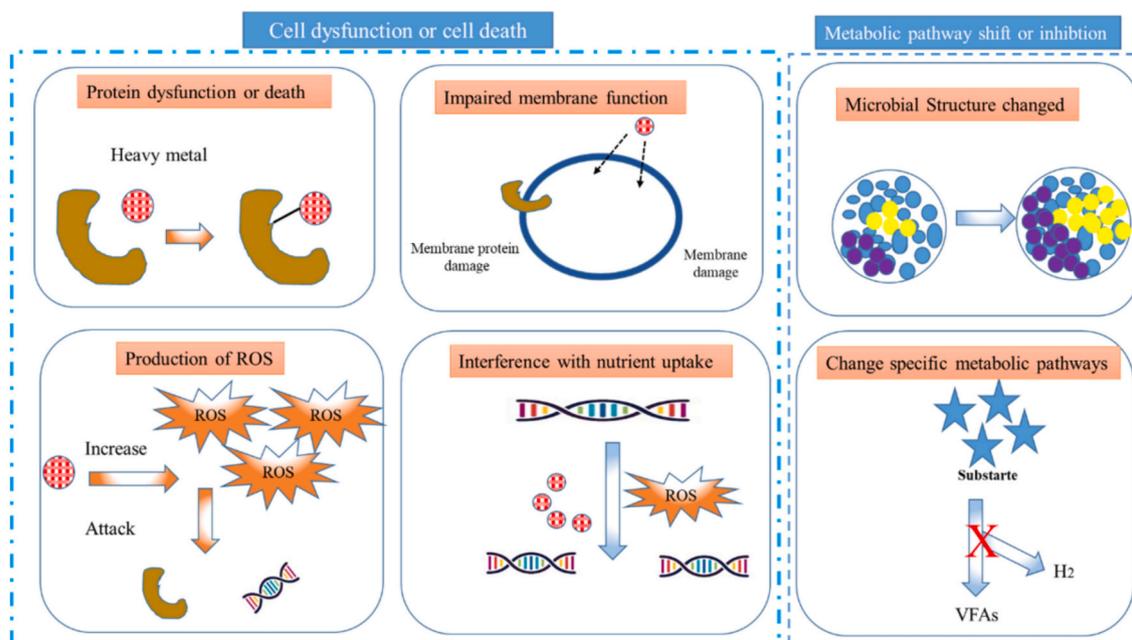


Fig. 4. Systematic mechanism of heavy metal inhibition in microbial cells of hydrogen-producing bacteria. Modified from (Chen et al., 2021).

of 200 to 600 rpm has also been noted to directly affect hydrogen dissolution in the liquid phase and, consequently, productivity in biohydrogen reactors (Beckers et al., 2015; Dreschke et al., 2019). The temperature and agitation are critical parameters for boosting the hydrogen productivity in genetically modified strains. In this context, the study demonstrates that genetic engineering of *Enterobacter aerogenes* IAM1183 (EaΔCΔEF/P strain), under optimised parameters (37 °C, 200 rpm), achieved a 17.2% increase in hydrogen production in a 4.5 L bioreactor in 44 h (Bai et al., 2023). However, an integrated framework of utilising genetically and metabolically engineered organisms with process optimisation conditions for biohydrogen production has not been studied well, but it significantly offers high potential for further enhancing hydrogen productivity.

7. Conclusion and future prospects

Recent advancements in various biohydrogen production technologies have significantly overcome the formidable obstacles of low hydrogen yield, making it feasible at laboratory and pilot scales. Although there is still much to be desired regarding hydrogen production through cellular activity, it is believed that applying metabolic and genetic engineering tools via the dark fermentation process will significantly enhance the applicability of this concept, particularly in terms of economics. There are now various indications that these approaches have the potential to overcome the numerous constraints encountered during the typical fermentation process, thereby increasing the likelihood of achieving hydrogen productivity near the theoretical value (4 mol/mol of glucose). These approaches, which enhance the degradability of hemicellulose and cellulose fermentation activity, have been identified to include the elimination of competing pathways, catabolite repression, as well as both homologous and heterologous gene expression.

Recently, metabolic flux analysis and advanced genome engineering tools, particularly the CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing system, have gained significant traction in facilitating industrial hydrogen production through strain improvement. Although these developed strains undoubtedly produce more biohydrogen, there are some concerns about their stability and safety. Hence, more detailed investigations are needed into the suitability of these genetically modified microbes, especially their performance at the bioreactor level. Biochemical pathways and metabolic engineering can also be coupled to improve H₂ yield. Still, mutant organisms fail to adapt to environmental conditions. Therefore, a precise investigation in this area is needed in future research.

The sustainability of biohydrogen generation can also be enhanced by hybrid pathway engineering, which combines pathways from different organisms to increase synergistic efficiency, as well as modifying the bioprocess to further utilise widely available feedstocks, especially nutrient-rich agricultural residues. An increased understanding of the huge repository of genomics, proteomics, transcriptomics, and metabolomics data currently available in various databases would go a long way in manipulating cellular systems for biohydrogen production. Integrating these systems omics datasets will allow researchers to understand the whole biological system rather than focusing on single genes and pathways. It is also believed that attaining high efficiency in biohydrogen production can be hastened by optimising genetic and metabolic modifications via computational technology, especially machine learning for modelling and simulation networks. Machine learning approach has great potential for improving hydrogen production, as they are based on publicly accessible online databases or previously recorded experimental data. Therefore, future research in advanced machine learning, such as multi-view learning and deep learning driven models, will be expected to predict accurate interpretability of hydrogen production data.

Although recent research findings revealed that synthetic microbial consortia potentially produced high hydrogen yield, it still needs further

investigation to understand the population dynamics and shift of metabolic electron flow from butyrate/propionate to acetate pathways for reactor stability during hydrogen production. One of the pertinent issues that needs to be addressed is the undesirable oxygen sensitivity of hydrogenase, as minimal oxygen concentrations have been shown to inactivate the crucial 4Fe—4S cluster of the hydrogenase enzyme, which critically affects biohydrogen productivity.

Despite the success of metabolic and genetic engineering, appropriate, cost-effective strategies to minimise the effect of product toxicity still need to be explored for commercialisation. Future research should also focus on co-fermentation, minimisation of inhibitors, and product toxicity to improve the economy of scale. For example, an integrated approach to mitigate co-existing inhibitors during the hydrogen fermentation process may be explored. Finally, it is hoped that all of these will provoke the development of practical and scalable technologies that can be implemented in real-time for commercial and affordable hydrogen production to enhance the sustainability of our fragile environment.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Neeraj Kumar Singh: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Conceptualization. **Prashant Bhagwat:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Conceptualization. **Ayodeji Amobonye:** Writing – review & editing. **Manoj Kumar:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Santhosh Pillai:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization.

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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Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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