

Photosynthetic Hydrogen Production by a Hybrid Complex of Photosystem I and [NiFe]-Hydrogenase

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Fuels from renewable sources, such as molecular hydrogen, are necessary to satisfy the growing global energy demand in the future without creating severe environmental problems.¹ A promising approach is to use nature's catalytic converter of solar power into chemical energy—the photosynthesis apparatus²—to convert solar energy into biomass at a rate of 90 TJ s⁻¹.³ Using light as the driving force, photosystem II (PS II) splits water into molecular oxygen, protons, and electrons. The latter are transferred to the chlorophyll *a* dimer (P700) residing in photosystem I (PS I). Upon light absorption, P700 is excited, yielding electrons at a potential of -1.32 V (vs NHE).⁴ Finally, electrons are conducted through the internal electron transfer chain to the iron–sulfur clusters F_A and F_B , which are located at the acceptor site of PS I at a potential of approximately -0.45 V.⁵

Both photosystems have previously been used in electrochemical setups to convert light energy into electrical energy. This includes solid-state devices and protein monolayers immobilized on gold nanoparticles or nanoporous gold electrodes.^{6–10} In a recent study, platinum nanoparticles have been tethered to the F_B cluster of PS I via a dithiol molecular wire. Upon illumination, this semiartificial system generated up to 70 mol H₂ mol⁻¹ PS I min⁻¹.¹¹ However, a catalyst more efficient than the noble metal platinum is provided by nature. Hydrogenases are metalloenzymes that either oxidize or evolve H₂ with an overpotential close (or equal) to 0 V.^{12,13} These abilities make them attractive for application as catalysts in electrocatalytic devices.^{14–17}

Connections between photosynthesis and H₂ production already exist in nature.

ABSTRACT Nature provides key components for generating fuels from renewable resources in the form of enzymatic nanomachines which catalyze crucial steps in biological energy conversion, for example, the photosynthetic apparatus, which transforms solar power into chemical energy, and hydrogenases, capable of generating molecular hydrogen. As sunlight is usually used to synthesize carbohydrates, direct generation of hydrogen from light represents an exception in nature. On the molecular level, the crucial step for conversion of solar energy into H₂ lies in the efficient electronic coupling of photosystem I and hydrogenase. Here we show the stepwise assembly of a hybrid complex consisting of photosystem I and hydrogenase on a solid gold surface. This device gave rise to light-induced H₂ evolution. Hydrogen production is possible at far higher potential and thus lower energy compared to those of previously described (bio)nanoelectronic devices that did not employ the photosynthesis apparatus. The successful demonstration of efficient solar-to-hydrogen conversion may serve as a blueprint for the establishment of this system in a living organism with the paramount advantage of self-replication.

KEYWORDS: nanobiotechnology · bionanotechnology · hydrogenase · photosystem · biohydrogen production

Both cyanobacteria and green algae accumulate reserve compounds such as glycogen or starch from light and CO₂ during the daytime. At nighttime, when photosynthesis is shut off, these reserve compounds provide the energy to run the cellular metabolism. The transition from aerobic to anaerobic conditions is often accompanied by the generation of excess reductant, which is finally turned into hydrogen by hydrogenase (for recent reviews see refs 18–20). Hence, the processes of photosynthesis and H₂ evolution are coupled only indirectly and time-delayed. Moreover, hydrogen conversion by cyanobacterial and algal hydrogenases is sensitive to dioxygen. This intrinsic restriction makes it difficult to generate hydrogen at the same time as the O₂-evolving PS II works at a normal level. However, a significant increase of net H₂ production was achieved by limiting PS II activity by sulfur limitation of green algae. This strategy also depends on a

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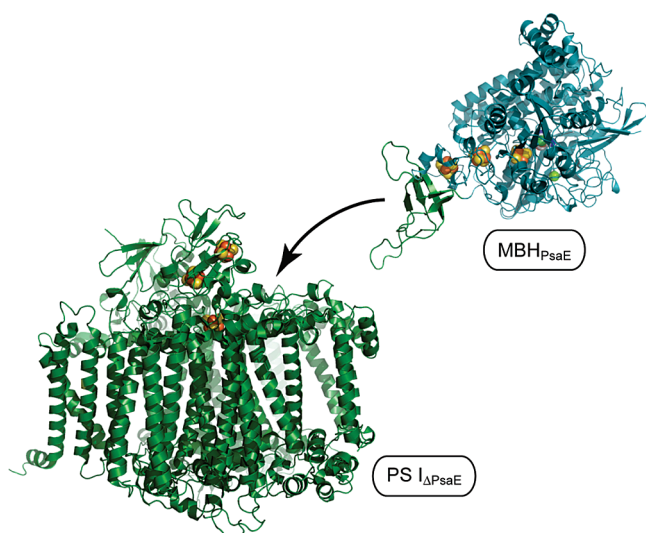


Figure 1. Coupling concept of PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$ and MBH $_{PsaE}$. The peripheral *PsaE* subunit of photosystem I (PS I) from *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 was genetically fused to the membrane-bound [NiFe]-hydrogenase (MBH) of *Ralstonia eutropha* H16. The MBH $_{PsaE}$ fusion protein binds specifically and spontaneously to the *PsaE* deletion mutant of PS I (PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$). The structures are derived from the following PDB entries: 1JB0 for PS I from *Thermosynechococcus elongates*, 2FRV for the periplasmic [NiFe]-hydrogenase from *Desulfovibrio gigas*, which is homologous to the MBH.^{2,25}

two-stage cultivation process, nevertheless, it possesses the highest light-to-H₂ conversion rate to date.²¹

In order to overcome the above-mentioned constraints, we aim at the direct coupling of photosynthesis and H₂ production. This strategy implicitly requires an O₂-tolerant hydrogenase. Therefore, we employed the oxygen-tolerant membrane-bound hydrogenase (MBH) from *Ralstonia eutropha* H16 for which it has been shown that H₂ oxidation as well as H₂ evolution proceeds in the presence of O₂.^{16,22} In order to stably connect the MBH to PS I, the extrinsic *PsaE* subunit, which is located at the acceptor site of PS I, was fused to the electron-transferring subunit of the membrane-bound [NiFe]-hydrogenase by genetic engineering. The resulting MBH $_{PsaE}$ protein was purified and incubated

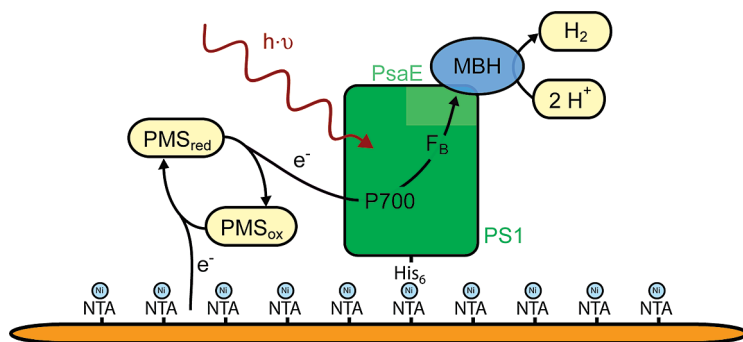


Figure 2. Schematic view of the nanodevice used in this study. Electrons provided by the gold electrode reduce the oxidized form of *N*-methylphenazonium methyl sulfate (PMS). PMS transfers an electron to the chlorophyll *a* dimer P700 in PS I, which is promoted to a higher energy level upon illumination. The electrons are then transferred via the F_B cluster at the acceptor site to the distal iron–sulfur cluster of the hydrogenase (MBH) and further to the active site where protons are reduced to molecular hydrogen.

with isolated PS I from *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 lacking the *PsaE* subunit (PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$). PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$ and MBH $_{PsaE}$ were assembled on a gold surface yielding a PS I–hydrogenase hybrid complex (Figure 1). Electrons provided by the gold electrode were transferred to PS I with the aid of the soluble electron carrier *N*-methylphenazonium methyl sulfate (PMS).²³ Upon excitation of P700, the electrons were efficiently channelled to the hydrogenase, leading to H₂ evolution through proton reduction (Figure 2). A similar protein complex was recently investigated in solution, but hydrogen production rates have not been quantified on the basis of the amount of hydrogenase attached to PS I.²⁴

Here we immobilized the hybrid complex onto the solid support of a gold electrode. It is shown by surface-enhanced infrared spectroscopy (SEIRAS) and electrochemistry that both proteins specifically assemble on the surface and electrons are transferred between both proteins, respectively. We applied surface plasmon resonance and gas chromatography in order to determine the hydrogen evolution activity quantified per molecule and surface area. These data offer this nanoelectronic device as a platform technology that allows comparison of different coupling methods and catalytic building blocks (e.g., different hydrogenases).

Directed Assembly of the PS I–Hydrogenase Hybrid Complex on a Gold Electrode. By genetic engineering, a decahistidine tag was attached to the periplasmic side of the membrane-integral *PsaF* subunit of wild-type PS I (PS I $_{wt}$) and to PS I, which had been deleted for the *PsaE* subunit (PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$). This strategy allowed site-oriented attachment of both PS I variants to the electrode surface via histidine/Ni-NTA interaction. The orientation was chosen to expose the *PsaE* binding site to the bulk solution. The fabrication of the Ni-NTA-terminated gold surface was performed essentially as described.²⁶

In order to test whether MBH $_{PsaE}$ interacts with PS I, monolayers of PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$ and PS I $_{wt}$ were established on the gold surface by injecting solutions of purified photosystem preparations into the bulk electrolyte at a final concentration of 0.5 μ M. In a second step, the PS I monolayers were incubated with a 1.4 μ M solution of MBH $_{PsaE}$. The absorption changes, caused by binding of hydrogenase to the PS I monolayers, were recorded *in situ* by surface-enhanced infrared spectroscopy (Figure 3). Binding of MBH $_{PsaE}$ to PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$ was saturated after 2 h (Supporting Information Figure S1).

After incubation with MBH $_{PsaE}$, the surface was thoroughly rinsed with buffer to remove weakly associated protein. The SEIRA spectra of the immobilized fusion protein MBH $_{PsaE}$ showed two prominent bands at 1660 and 1549 cm^{-1} , which were assigned to the amide I (predominantly C=O stretching vibration of the peptide bond) and amide II (C=N stretch coupled to

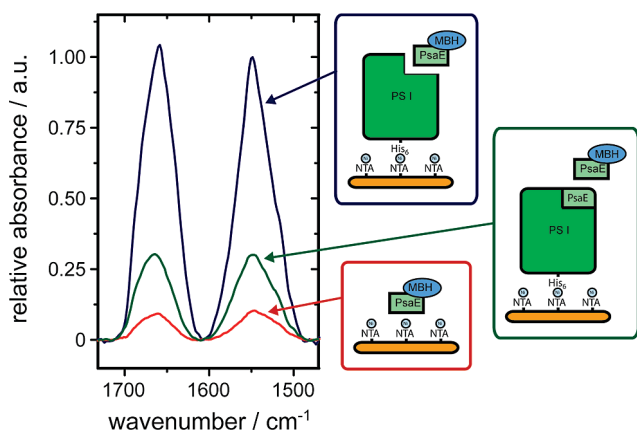


Figure 3. SEIRA spectra demonstrating the specific binding of MBH_{PsaE} to $\text{PS I}_{\Delta\text{PsaE}}$. The MBH_{PsaE} fusion protein was added to monolayers of $\text{PS I}_{\Delta\text{PsaE}}$ (blue trace), PS I_{wt} (green trace), and bare Ni-NTA (red trace). The background spectra derived from the PS I monolayers were subtracted from the sample spectra, which were taken after surface saturation with MBH_{PsaE} (2 h, Supporting Information Figure S1). The spectra were normalized to the surface enhancement factor of the respective gold surface (Supporting Information Figure S2) and to 1 for the amide II intensity of the blue curve.

the N–H bend) vibrations, respectively.²⁷ The frequency of the absorption maximum of the amide I band at 1660 cm^{-1} is indicative for a predominant α -helical structure of MBH.

In order to compare the relative amount of adsorbed MBH_{PsaE} , the integrated areas of the amide II bands were compared. Maximal binding was observed for MBH_{PsaE} immobilized to the $\text{PS I}_{\Delta\text{PsaE}}$ monolayer. The respective integrated area was set to 100% (Figure 3, blue trace). This result is consistent with the previous observation that isolated *PsaE* spontaneously binds to *PsaE*-free PS I to re-establish the fully functional photosynthetic complex.^{28,29} It is important to note that specific assembly (*i.e.*, binding of the *PsaE* moiety of MBH_{PsaE} to its native binding site in $\text{PS I}_{\Delta\text{PsaE}}$) and all possible unspecific and unproductive interactions contributed to the intensity of the amide II band. The MBH_{PsaE} fusion protein, which was not equipped with a His-tag, interacted only weakly with the Ni-NTA monolayer via unspecific electrostatic interactions (Figure 3, red trace). The MBH_{PsaE} also binds to wild-type PS I as determined by SEIRAS (Figure 3, green trace). However, the affinity is only 37% as shown by comparison to the deletion mutant $\text{PS I}_{\Delta\text{PsaE}}$ (blue spectrum). Consequently, we conclude that the difference in binding efficiency (approximately 2/3 of the maximum binding) was due to specific interaction between MBH and PS I, mediated by the *PsaE* subunit of PS I, which was genetically swapped to MBH.

Immobilization of MBH_{PsaE} onto the $\text{PS I}_{\Delta\text{PsaE}}$ monolayer was quantified by surface plasmon resonance (SPR, Supporting Information Figure S3). The SPR response increased by 2,850 RU during the binding process, which corresponds to a protein coverage of 2.85 ng $\text{MBH}_{\text{PsaE}}\text{ mm}^{-2}$ (or $2.5 \times 10^{-12}\text{ mol MBH}_{\text{PsaE}}\text{ cm}^{-2}$).^{30,31} Taking into account that about two-thirds of MBH_{PsaE}

was bound specifically to $\text{PS I}_{\Delta\text{PsaE}}$ we calculated the amount of hydrogenase specifically immobilized on $\text{PS I}_{\Delta\text{PsaE}}$ to be 1.9 ng $\text{MBH}_{\text{PsaE}}\text{ mm}^{-2}$ (or $1.6 \times 10^{-12}\text{ mol cm}^{-2}$).

Photocurrent of the PS I–Hydrogenase Hybrid Complex.

PsaE and MBH were genetically fused to bring the electron-conducting terminal iron–sulfur cluster of the MBH into close contact to the acceptor site of PS I represented by the F_{B} cluster. Taking the structures of *Desulfovibrio gigas* hydrogenase (PDB-ID: 2FRV) and PS I from *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (PDB-ID: 1JBO) as structural models for the MBH and PS I, we estimated the distance between F_{B} and the distal iron–sulfur cluster of the MBH to be 14–25 Å depending on the mutual orientation of the hydrogenase relative to PS I. To verify light-induced electron transfer (photo-current) from PS I to MBH experimentally, we applied amperometry. The anticipated electron flow is depicted in Figure 2. At a potential of

–90 mV (*vs* NHE), the soluble electron carrier PMS, whose midpoint potential is +85 mV (Supporting Information), was reduced by the electrode and served as electron donor for the reaction center P700 in PS I. Upon red-light illumination, PS I promoted the electron transfer to the MBH active site where protons from the bulk were reduced to H_2 . PMS, oxidized by PS I, diffused back to the electrode where it was re-reduced.

The $\text{PS I}_{\Delta\text{PsaE}}$ monolayer exhibited a photocurrent density of 55 nA cm^{-2} (Figure 4, dotted trace), which on one hand can be explained by the reduction of residual oxygen at the PS I acceptor site. In fact, it has been shown previously that *PsaE* prevents the formation of reduced oxygen species.³² On the other hand, however, it is rather likely that PMS and protons (see

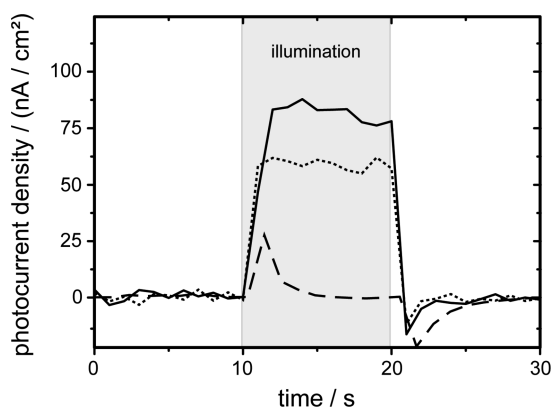


Figure 4. Photocurrent of the PS I–hydrogenase hybrid complex. Monolayers of the PS I–MBH hybrid complex (solid trace) and sole $\text{PS I}_{\Delta\text{PsaE}}$ (dotted trace) as well as the bare gold electrode (dashed trace) were illuminated for 10 s with red light ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 702\text{ nm}$, $\text{fwhm} = 16\text{ nm}$, gray area). The experiments were done in a closed reaction chamber filled with argon-purged buffer. The current density was corrected for the background current observed without red light illumination (see Materials and Methods).

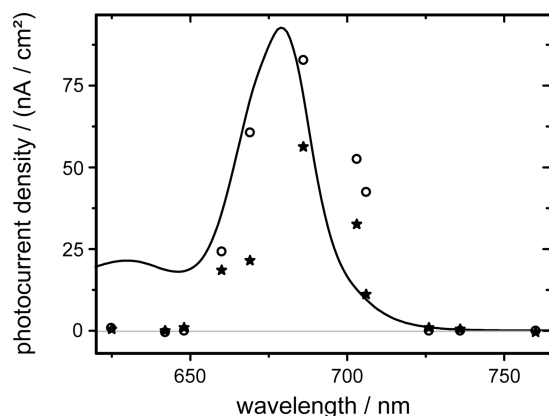


Figure 5. Action spectra of PS I-derived photocurrents. The photocurrent at different wavelengths is shown for monolayers of the PS I–hydrogenase hybrid complex (open circles) and PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$ (asterisks). The photocurrents are normalized to the relative surface coverage. The absorption spectrum of a bulk solution of PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$ is shown for comparison (black trace).

below) are directly reduced at the acceptor site, resulting in the PS I photocurrent. This process might even be alleviated by the fact that the lack of *PsaE* improves unspecific accessibility to the acceptor site.³²

Formation of the functional PS I–MBH complex led to an significant increase of the photocurrent density from 55 to approximately 85 nA cm⁻² (Figure 4, solid trace), suggesting that binding of MBH provided a suitable electron acceptor close to the acceptor site of PS I. The significant rise in current implies that at least 30% of the photocurrent density can be assigned to H₂ formation. The bare gold surface, illuminated under the same conditions (Figure 4, dashed trace), exhibited only capacitive currents, visible as sharp peaks upon switching light on and off. However, no photocurrent was observed in this control.

As a control that the photocurrent was dependent on the presence of functional PS I, we measured the wavelength dependence of the photocurrent (action spectrum) of the hybrid complex (Figure 5, open circles) and PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$ (asterisks). Maximum photocurrent was observed at a wavelength of 685 nm for both constructs. The match of the individual data taken at different wavelengths was not perfect but tallies with the absorption spectrum of the PS I core complex (Figure 5, black trace). The core antenna chlorophylls absorb in a broad band with a maximum at 680 nm and provide energy for P700.³³ The action spectrum verified that the measured photocurrent was derived from PS I and also showed that the presence of the hydrogenase did not influence the photoreaction.

Hydrogen Evolution by the PS I–Hydrogenase Hybrid Complex.

The electrochemical experiments described above provided only indirect evidence that the photocurrent by the PS I–hydrogenase hybrid might be used for H₂ production. Therefore, a monolayer of the hybrid complex was assembled on the gold surface in a gastight mea-

TABLE 1. Hydrogen Evolution Rates

surface structure	illumination	H ₂ production rate/(pmol H ₂ s ⁻¹ cm ⁻²)
PS I–MBH	yes	120 ± 30
PS I–MBH	no	<20
PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$	yes	31 ± 12
MBH	yes	<20
bare gold	yes	<20

suring cell. After 30 min of illumination, accumulated H₂ was quantified by gas chromatography. From these measurements, the rate of H₂ production per time and electrode area was calculated. Upon illumination, the immobilized PS I–MBH hybrid complex generated molecular hydrogen at a rate of 120 ± 30 pmol H₂ s⁻¹ cm⁻² at an electrode potential of -90 mV (to re-reduce PMS). The photocurrent of the monolayer decreased by about 50% during 30 min of illumination (data not shown). As the photocurrent is a prerequisite for hydrogen production, we infer that the initial rate of H₂ production is higher.

It was surprising to note that H₂ was produced from a monolayer of PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$ at a rate of 31 ± 12 pmol H₂ s⁻¹ cm⁻² even in the absence of hydrogenase. This observation of a weak but significant H₂ production rate (~1/4 of the PS I–MBH hybrid complex) suggests that electrons provided at the acceptor site of PS I ($F_{A/B}$) can be directly used to reduce protons to molecular hydrogen. The midpoint potentials of the terminal clusters F_A/F_B range between -0.45⁵ and -0.59 V.³⁴ It is noteworthy that H₂ production by low-potential iron–sulfur clusters has not been described yet in the literature, and a potential of -0.6 V is insufficient for H₂ production at bare gold electrodes at pH of 7.5.¹⁷ However, it is well-known that the overpotential for proton reduction on metal electrodes can be lowered by the addition of small organic molecules, like 4,4'-bipyridine, methyl viologen, or pyridine.^{35–38} From these observations, we conclude that H₂ production may proceed at low rates in the protein scaffold of low-potential iron–sulfur clusters.

The observation of light-induced hydrogen production was verified by the following control experiments (Table 1). First, H₂ production by the PS I–MBH hybrid complex was strictly dependent on light and, hence, did not proceed in the dark. Second, the bare gold surface as well as His-tagged MBH directly immobilized onto the Ni-NTA-terminated gold surface did not exhibit hydrogen production rates higher than the threshold level of 20 pmol H₂ s⁻¹ cm⁻² (at -90 mV and under illumination). These experiments confirm that light-dependent activation of low-potential electrons by PS I is necessary for H₂ evolution activity.

On the basis of the hydrogen production rate of the PS I–hydrogenase hybrid complex (120 × 10⁻¹² mol H₂ s⁻¹ cm⁻²) as determined by gas chromatography and the amount of MBH $_{PsaE}$ specifically bound to PS I $_{\Delta PsaE}$ (1.6 × 10⁻¹² mol MBH $_{PsaE}$ cm⁻²) as determined

by SEIRAS and SPR, the specific surface activity is calculated to be $4500 \pm 1125 \text{ mol H}_2 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ hybrid complex (at pH 7.5, 20 °C, -90 mV). In comparison, MBH directly immobilized on a pyrolytic graphite edge electrode (in the absence of PS I) exhibited a turnover rate of $4200 \text{ mol H}_2 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$, which was estimated to be the lower limit.¹⁶ This rate which was measured at a potential of -450 mV , pH 5.5, 40 °C, and during continuous removal of the produced hydrogen, is in close agreement with the light-dependent H_2 evolution rate of the PS I–MBH complex ($4500 \text{ mol H}_2 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$, *vide supra*). Very importantly, the light-induced promotion of electrons through PS I made it possible to increase the electrode potential from -450 to -90 mV (to lower energy), to increase the pH to 7.5, and to decrease the temperature by 20 °C without decreasing the hydrogen evolution rate.

CONCLUSIONS

In this article, we demonstrated the specific and productive connection of a hydrogenase to PS I. Both pro-

teins were assembled on a gold surface in a well-defined manner. Upon light illumination, the PS I–MBH hybrid complex produced molecular hydrogen at a rate of $4500 \pm 1125 \text{ mol H}_2 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ hybrid complex (at pH 7.5, 20 °C, -90 mV). Light energy is used to allow hydrogen production at more positive potential (and thus lower energy) than on platinum electrodes which are commercially used for proton reduction. Furthermore, electronic connection between PS I and hydrogenase is completely independent of chemically synthesized linker molecules, such as 1,6-hexanedithiol.¹¹ This system is, therefore, superior to previously described (bio)nano-electronic devices for hydrogen production and provides a blueprint for biologically inspired H_2 production systems.^{16,17} Owing to the exceptional O_2 tolerance of the hydrogenase used in the experiments, the hydrogenase–PS I hybrid complex can be synthesized *in vivo*, yielding a cellular system that efficiently produces H_2 directly from sunlight and water.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Purification of Proteins. By standard genetic techniques, the C-terminal “anchor” sequence, encoded by the 3′-end of the MBH small subunit gene *hoxK*, was replaced by an Arg-Ser linker followed by a Strep-tagII peptide. In the next step, a sequence encoding *PsaE* from *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 equipped with a N-terminal Gly-Gly linker was inserted between *hoxK* and the Strep-tagII sequence. The resulting MBH_{*PsaE*} fusion protein was purified from *Ralstonia eutropha* by Strep-Tactin affinity chromatography.

Purification of MBH wild-type protein was facilitated by fusing a hexahistidine-coding sequence to the 3′-end of the MBH small subunit *hoxK*.³⁹ Fast and easy purification of PS I derivatives from *Synechocystis* was afforded by fusing a decahistidine-encoding sequence genetically to the 5′-end of the *psaF* gene that codes for a membrane-integral subunit of PS I. The His₁₀-*psaF* allele was transformed into the *Synechocystis* PS I_{wt} and PS I _{Δ *PsaE*} strains and established in the respective genomes. The resulting PS I and PS I _{Δ *PsaE*} proteins were purified from *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 by immobilized metal-affinity chromatography and hydrophobic interaction chromatography. The detailed construction and purification procedures for the protein components employed in this study will be described elsewhere.

Surface-Enhanced Infrared Adsorption Spectroscopy (SEIRAS) and Spectroelectrochemistry. A gold film was chemically deposited on the reflecting side of a triangular silicon prism.^{40–42} A glass cell was mounted on top of the silicon prism. The gold film was exposed to the electrolyte and used as working electrode. The electrochemical cell was equipped with a Ag/AgCl/3 M KCl reference electrode and a platinum mesh counter electrode. All electrodes were connected to a potentiostat (Autolab PGSTAT 12, Eco Chemie B.V., Utrecht, The Netherlands). All potentials are quoted *versus* the normal hydrogen electrode (NHE) ($0.21 \text{ V vs Ag/AgCl/3 M KCl}$). The IR beam from the FT-IR spectrometer (Vertex 70, Bruker Optics, Ettlingen, Germany) was coupled into the single reflection silicon prism at an incident angle of 60°. The intensity of the reflected beam was measured by an MCT detector; 910 scans were averaged for each sample and background spectrum.

Surface Modification for SEIRAS Experiments. To assemble a Ni-NTA-terminated monolayer, the gold surface was successively exposed to solutions of 2.5 mM dithiobis(succinimidyl propionate) (DTSP, Sigma), 150 mM *N* _{α} *N* _{β} -bis(carboxymethyl)-L-lysine (Sigma) and 50 mM NiSO₄.²⁶ The Ni-NTA-terminated surface was

incubated with a solution of 0.5 μM wild-type PS I or PS I lacking the *PsaE* subunit (PS I _{Δ *PsaE*}) dissolved in 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.5) containing 0.03% β -dodecylmaltosid (β -DDM), 10 mM MgCl₂, and 10 mM CaCl₂. In the last step, the surface was incubated in a 1.4 μM solution of the fusion protein of the PS I subunit *PsaE* and the membrane-bound hydrogenase (MBH_{*PsaE*}) (in the same buffer as PS I, but containing only 1 mM MgCl₂ and 1 mM CaCl₂). All surface modification steps using PS I or PS I _{Δ *PsaE*} were performed at 20 °C in the dark.

Surface Plasmon Resonance. Surface plasmon resonance (SPR) experiments were performed on a Biacore 3000 (GE Healthcare, Uppsala, Sweden) with a constant flow rate of 5 $\mu\text{L min}^{-1}$. Fresh Au sensorchips were used to provide an untreated gold surface for each experiment. The untreated gold surface was rinsed with 300 μL of aqueous 1 mM 3-mercaptopropionic acid solution to form a carboxy-terminated self-assembled monolayer (SAM). Fifteen microliters of an aqueous solution of the coupling reagent *N*-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-*N'*-ethylcarbodiimide (containing hydrochloric acid, pH 4) was injected to activate the carboxylic acid groups on the surface. Then, 375 μL of *N* _{α} *N* _{β} -bis(carboxymethyl)-L-lysine hydrate (ANTA) in 0.2 M solution of potassium carbonate was injected and a carboxamide linkage was formed between ANTA and the carboxylic acid groups on the surface. Rinsing with 150 μL nickel sulfate is the last step to form a Ni-NTA-covered surface. Consecutive rinsing with 650 μL of a 300 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ solution of the *PsaE*-free PS I (in 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.5) containing 0.03% β -dodecylmaltosid (β -DDM), 10 mM MgCl₂, and 10 mM CaCl₂) and 325 μL of a 170 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ solution of the fusion protein of *PsaE* and the membrane-bound hydrogenase (MBH_{*PsaE*}) (in the same buffer as PS I, but containing only 1 mM MgCl₂ and 1 mM CaCl₂) yielded the surface-bound hybrid complex. A wedge-shaped, near-infrared beam is focused on the glass–gold interface of the sensorchip, and the reflected light is monitored by a two-dimensional diode array. The intensity of the reflected light is significantly reduced at the resonance angle. This angle depends on the refractive index, which is associated with the sample.

Photocurrent Measurement. A monolayer of the hybrid complex of photosystem I and membrane-bound hydrogenase (PS I–MBH) was formed on the Ni-NTA-modified surface. The gold electrode had a geometrical surface of 1.45 cm² and a surface roughness of 2.5.⁴² *N*-Methylphenazonium methyl sulfate (PMS, 75 μM) was used as the soluble electron carrier between the

gold surface and PS I. The system was equilibrated at pH 7.5 and under potential control until the current flow through the solution was constant and most of the PMS was reduced. The photocurrent was measured during illumination by a cold light source (KL 1500 electronic, Schott, Mainz, Germany) with suitable interference filters. All experiments were performed under an argon atmosphere.

In Vitro Hydrogen Production. After the surface modification was completed, the system was purged with argon for at least 20 min to remove atmospheric oxygen and traces of hydrogen. No traces of hydrogen could be detected in the argon. Then, the chamber was sealed gastight and illuminated by red light for 30 min at a potential of -90 mV. A sample of 1 mL of the gas phase was taken from the measurement cell and injected into a gas chromatograph (3000A Micro GC, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) to determine the amount of evolved hydrogen. The gas chromatograph was calibrated by injection of defined amounts of hydrogen, which were in the same order of magnitude as the hydrogen produced by the protein monolayers. *In vitro* hydrogen production was also determined for immobilized His-tagged MBH on the gold surface by the same procedure.

Note added in proof: In a recent article, Iwuchukwu and co-workers describe the hydrogen production by platinized PSI nanoparticles with a maximum yield of $5.5 \mu\text{mol H}_2 \text{ h}^{-1}$ per mg of chlorophyll (Iwuchukwu, I. J.; Vaughn, M.; Myers, N.; O'Neill, H.; Frymier, P.; Bruce, B. D. Self-Organized Photosynthetic Nanoparticle for Cell-Free Hydrogen Production. *Nat. Nanotechnol.* **2009** DOI: 10.1038/NNANO.2009.315). Assuming a PSI monomer/hydrogenase ratio of 1:1 and chlorophyll content of 100 Chla per PS I molecule, our system generates up to $3.0 \text{ mmol H}_2 \text{ h}^{-1}$ per mg of chlorophyll, underlining the importance of improving electron transfer kinetics by coupling a hydrogenase to PS I as envisaged by Iwuchukwu *et al.*

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Supporting Information Available: Kinetics of the assembly of the hybrid complex, surface enhancement factor, quantification of the hybrid complex, and midpoint potential of PMS. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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