

## Differential effects of dimethylbenzoquinone and dichlorobenzoquinone on chlorophyll fluorescence transient in spinach thylakoids

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### Abstract

In isolated thylakoids, the differential effects of 2,5-dimethyl-*p*-benzoquinone (DMQ) and 2,6-dichloro-*p*-benzoquinone (DCBQ) on chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) fluorescence transients and O<sub>2</sub> evolution data have been used to differentiate between active and inactive photosystem II (PSII) centers. This conclusion was challenged by Lavergne and Leci (*Photosynth. Res.*, 35 (1993) 323–343). Thus we have systematically re-investigated this phenomenon using different concentrations of DMQ and DCBQ in thylakoids exposed to various light intensities. We show that the differential effects of DMQ and DCBQ on Chl *a* fluorescence transients in spinach thylakoids include a larger decrease in the variable Chl *a* fluorescence by DCBQ than by DMQ and a decrease in the  $F_0$  level with increasing [DCBQ] but not [DMQ] in the 5–150  $\mu$ M range. These differential effects confirm the results of Lavergne and Leci, and thus sustain the conclusion that the effects of DMQ and DCBQ on Chl *a* fluorescence cannot be used to distinguish between active and inactive PSII centers. The data show that the decrease in Chl *a* fluorescence follows Stern–Volmer behavior. Furthermore, our data confirm that the rate of O<sub>2</sub> evolution is higher in the DCBQ-supported Hill reaction than in the DMQ-supported Hill reaction. These results can be explained by a more efficient ability of DCBQ to oxidize the plastoquinol pool or a more efficient ability of DCBQ to displace Q<sub>B</sub> (secondary bound plastoquinone, a two-electron acceptor of PSII), rather than activating the inactive PSII centers. However, our results do not challenge the existence of inactive PSII.

**Keywords:** Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence; Active/inactive photosystem II; Dichlorobenzoquinone; Dimethylbenzoquinone

### 1. Introduction

In normally functioning photosystem II (PSII) complexes, electrons originating in water molecules reduce bound plastoquinones (PQs) [1]. A two-electron reduction of a PQ, labeled as Q<sub>B</sub>, requires two sequential photochemical reactions involving the participation of a reaction center (RC) chlorophyll (Chl) of PSII, P680, a pheophytin and a one-electron acceptor bound PQ Q<sub>A</sub>. The double reduction of Q<sub>B</sub> is followed by protonation and release of plastoquinol (PQH<sub>2</sub>) into the thylakoid membrane [2–4].

Although the above view of PSII is sufficient to account for an extensive number of observations, there are many experiments that demonstrate the heterogeneous behavior of PSII (see, for example, Refs. [5] and [6]). Major support for the existence of PSII heterogeneity comes from the interpretation of Chl *a* fluorescence measurements. Chl *a* fluores-

cence changes as a function of the time of continuous illumination (fluorescence induction or transient) are, in general, understood as the filling up of the PQ pool [7–9]. Melis and Homann [10] have observed that, in 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU)-treated chloroplasts, the area over the Chl *a* fluorescence induction curve increases with biphasic first-order kinetics. Assuming the existence of a heterogeneous pool of photochemical centers, Melis and Homann [11] analyzed the growth of the area over the fluorescence curve, and labeled the fast PSII centers as  $\alpha$  and the relatively slower PSII centers as  $\beta$ . Lavergne [12,13] investigated the Q<sub>B</sub> site of PSII by Chl *a* fluorescence measurements and concluded that there are two types of PSII centers, one with Q<sub>B</sub> and one without Q<sub>B</sub>, the non-Q<sub>B</sub> type. The non-Q<sub>B</sub> centers are impaired at the Q<sub>B</sub> site and do not transfer electrons efficiently to the PQ pool. These have often been considered as equivalent to the “inactive” (or slow) PSII centers of other investigators [14–16]. Melis [17] proposed that the inactive centers are located in the stromal part of the thylakoid membrane and have smaller light-harvesting

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antennae size, whereas the active centers are located in the granal region and have larger light-harvesting antennae size.

A number of experimental approaches have been used to quantitate the number of active and inactive PSII centers. One method for the measurement of centers inactive in PQ reduction is based on the amplitude of the electrochromic band shift at 518 nm ( $\Delta A_{518}$ ), due to photochemical charge separation in RCs in spinach, studied under both in vitro and in vivo conditions [18,19]. These and other results establish the existence of inactive PSII centers in the range of 10%–30% [6].

A different method is based on the inability of the inactive centers to transfer electrons from  $Q_A^-$  to  $Q_B$ . Hence it has been suggested that, on low light illumination, the photochemical activity can be revealed by a fluorescence yield increase from  $F_0$  to the intermediate plateau  $F_{pi}$ , which further increases due to the electron flow to the PQ pool in active PSII centers, reaching the maximum level  $F_m$  [20]. In this method, the relative Chl *a* fluorescence yield of the transition from  $F_0$  to  $F_{pi}$  provides a measure of the relative concentration of the PSII  $Q_B$ -non-reducing inactive centers. On this basis, Guenther et al. [20] quantitated the PSII  $Q_B$ -non-reducing inactive centers in *Dunaliella salina* cells, and suggested that approximately 25% of all PSII centers in this green algae are inactive.

Graan and Ort [15] (cf. Ref. [21]) suggested that “inactive” centers (about 40%) could be reactivated by providing them with an appropriate exogenous acceptor, such as 2,6-dichloro-*p*-benzoquinone (DCBQ) or other halogenated quinones. The methyl-substituted benzoquinones (e.g. 2,5-dimethyl-*p*-benzoquinone (DMQ)) are much less effective in interacting with these centers, explaining the higher rates of Hill reaction with DCBQ than with DMQ. Based on the differential effects of DCBQ and DMQ on Chl *a* fluorescence transients, Cao and Govindjee [22] concluded that the OID phase of the Chl *a* fluorescence induction curve reflects the reduction of the electron acceptor  $Q_A$  to  $Q_A^-$  in the “inactive” (or slow) PSII centers since they observed that DCBQ, not DMQ, abolishes this OID phase. Lavergne and Leci [23] examined further the effects of DMQ and DCBQ, and concluded that the electron acceptor DCBQ cannot restore electron transfer in the inactive centers, in disagreement with previous conclusions [15,21,22]. Lavergne and Leci [23] observed a decrease in the “O” level by DCBQ and thus challenged the premise of the conclusion by Cao and Govindjee [22] since they had observed no such quenching. In view of the differences in the experimental results between Cao and Govindjee [22] and Lavergne and Leci [23], we have re-examined the effects of different concentrations of DMQ and DCBQ on Chl *a* fluorescence transients and  $O_2$  evolution. We confirm the results of Lavergne and Leci [23] that DCBQ not only decreases the variable Chl *a* fluorescence, but also  $F_0$ . The results of Cao and Govindjee [22], using a camera-shutter instrument, can be explained only if an error was made in marking  $F_0$  of their DMQ sample to which DCBQ was added.

## 2. Materials and methods

Chloroplast thylakoid membranes were isolated from market spinach leaves by homogenization in a Waring blender for 10 s in a grinding buffer containing 50 mM Tricine, 300 mM NaCl and 3 mM  $MgCl_2$  (pH 7.5). The slurry was filtered through two layers of nylon (36  $\mu m$ ) plus two layers of muslin cloth, and centrifuged for 5 min at 4000 rev  $min^{-1}$  (Universal/K2S, Hettich, Tuttlingen, Germany). The pellet was washed once with a resuspension buffer containing 200 mM sorbitol, 20 mM Tricine and 5 mM NaCl (pH 7.5) and finally resuspended in the same buffer at a Chl concentration of 2.0–2.5  $mg\ ml^{-1}$ . Aliquots (1 ml) were quickly frozen and stored in liquid nitrogen (77 K). Just prior to the experiments, thylakoids were thawed and diluted to 45  $\mu g\ ml^{-1}$  of Chl in a buffer containing 300 mM sucrose, 25 mM 2-(*n*-morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid (MES), 10 mM NaCl and

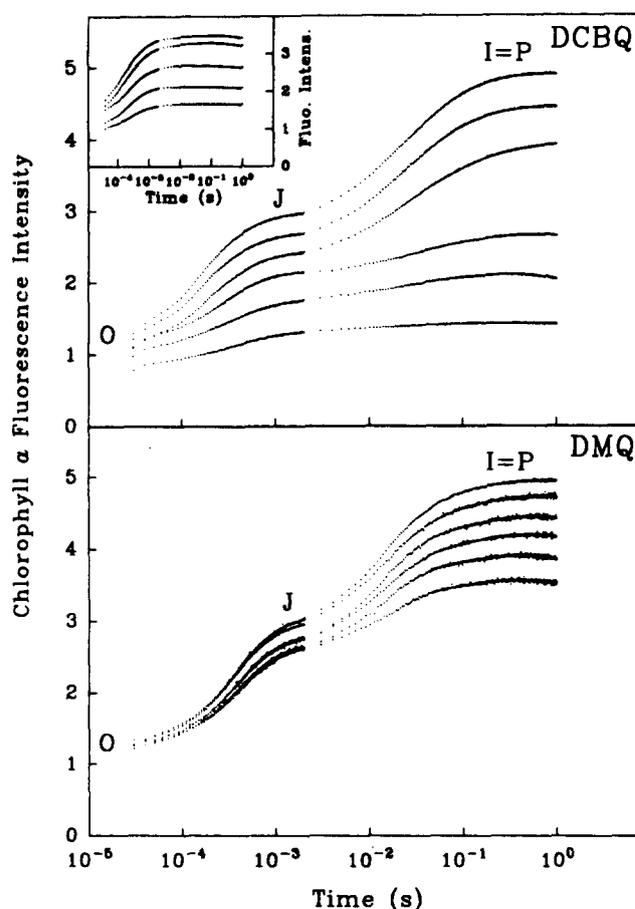


Fig. 1. Effect of different concentrations of DCBQ (top panel) and DMQ (bottom panel) on Chl *a* fluorescence transients of spinach thylakoids at room temperature. The thylakoids were suspended in the reaction medium containing 0.3 M sucrose, 25 mM MES buffer (pH 6.5), 10 mM NaCl and 5 mM  $MgCl_2$ . From top to bottom, the transients were obtained with either 0, 5, 20, 50, 80 and 160  $\mu M$  of DCBQ or 0, 5, 20, 40, 80 and 160  $\mu M$  of DMQ. Samples were dark adapted for 5 min before exposure to 650 nm light of 600  $W\ m^{-2}$  intensity. The inset shows the effect of 0, 20, 40, 80 and 160  $\mu M$  of DCBQ on Chl *a* fluorescence transients in the presence of 20  $\mu M$  DCMU. (For a discussion of the nomenclature of the transient points, see Ref. [27].)

5 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$  (pH 6.5). The process of freezing and thawing disrupts the chloroplast envelope membranes and provides a suspension of thylakoid membranes, not intact chloroplasts. Experiments performed with freshly prepared spinach thylakoids gave similar results.

The Chl concentration of the thylakoid membrane was determined according to the method of Porra et al. [24]. All the experiments were performed with recrystallized DCBQ and DMQ. No differences in the results were found when reagent grade DCBQ and DMQ from Eastman Kodak were used, or samples donated by Dr. Jerome Lavergne and Professor Donald Ort.

Chl *a* fluorescence transients were measured by a plant efficiency analyzer (PEA; Hansatech Ltd., King's Lynn, Norfolk, UK) using various light intensities. Light was provided by an array of six light-emitting diodes (peak, 650 nm), focused on the sample surface to provide homogeneous illumination over the exposed area of the sample (diameter, 4 mm).

Chl *a* fluorescence signals were detected using a PIN photodiode after passing through a long pass filter (50% transmission at 720 nm). All the experiments were performed with 500  $\mu\text{l}$  aliquots of thylakoid suspension ( $50 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ) in 1 cm diameter vials. The optical thickness of the sample was 5 mm, and the diameter of the sample area irradiated was 4 mm. Thylakoid samples were dark-adapted for 5 min, and then in darkness, DCBQ or DMQ was added followed by vortexing of the samples also in darkness, before fluorescence measurements began. Chl *a* fluorescence signals were recorded in a time span from 10  $\mu\text{s}$  to 2 min with a data acquisition rate of 10  $\mu\text{s}$  for the first 2 ms and 12 bit resolution. The fluorescence signal at 40  $\mu\text{s}$  has been considered as  $F_0$ .

since only data points after 40  $\mu\text{s}$  were reliable and free from the artifacts of the electronics of the instrument. Extrapolated  $F_0$  values from the kinetics of the fluorescence rise match this value within the error limits ( $\pm 3\%$ ). Although the data were plotted up to 1 s,  $F_m$  was obtained at long times when the electron acceptors were exhausted. Results are plotted on logarithmic as well as linear time scales.

The half-fluorescence rise times in the presence of 20  $\mu\text{M}$  DCMU at 12, 60, 300 and 600  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  light intensities were 20, 5, 1 and 0.3 ms respectively in our experiments. Although Lavergne and Leci [23] used lower light intensities, giving them a half-fluorescence rise time of 50–100 ms in the presence of DCMU, our results are comparable with theirs.

For the  $\text{O}_2$  evolution measurements, thylakoid suspensions were incubated for 5 min in the dark with different concentrations of quinones in DW-1 Hansatech cuvettes. Samples were illuminated with 300  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  of red actinic light from a Schott lamp (Schott Electronics KL1500, with red filter RG 610). Rates of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution were measured during the first minute after illumination.

### 3. Results and discussion

The effects of quenching of different quinones on  $F_0$  and  $F_m$  have been documented previously at both room and low temperatures [25,26]. It is imperative that we distinguish between the quenching of  $F_0$ , which is due to quenching of antenna fluorescence, and quenching of  $F_m$ , which is due, additionally, to electron acceptance and thus an increased rate of photochemistry. The effects of different concentrations (5–160  $\mu\text{M}$ ) of DCBQ on the Chl *a* fluorescence transient

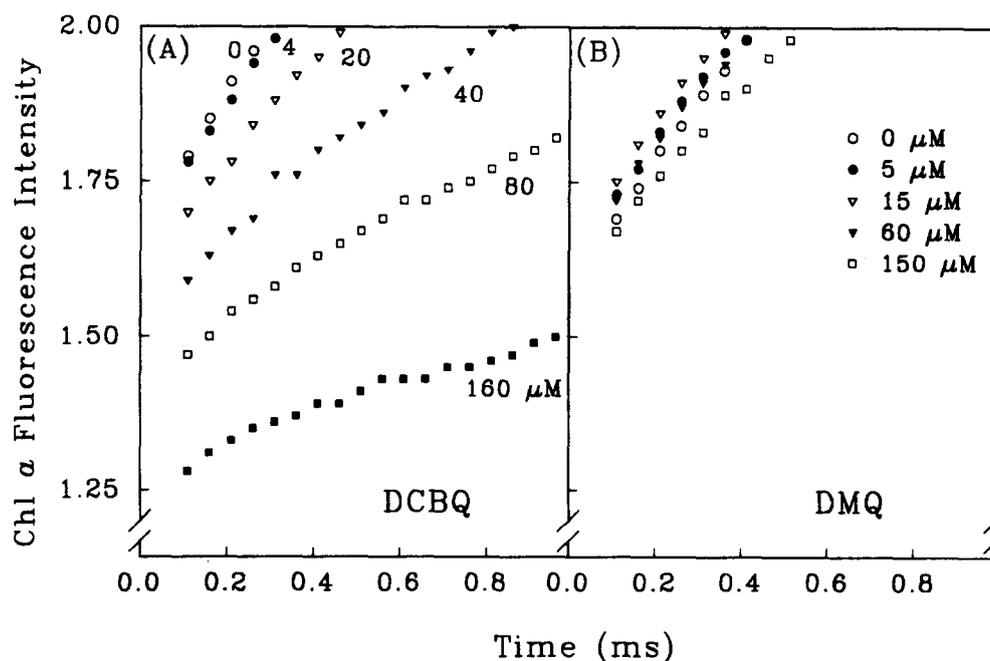


Fig. 2. Chl *a* fluorescence rise in the first 1 ms in the presence of different concentrations of DCBQ (A) and DMQ (B). Quinone concentrations are indicated in the figure. All the experimental conditions are the same as in Fig. 1 except that illumination was 300  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  of 650 nm light.

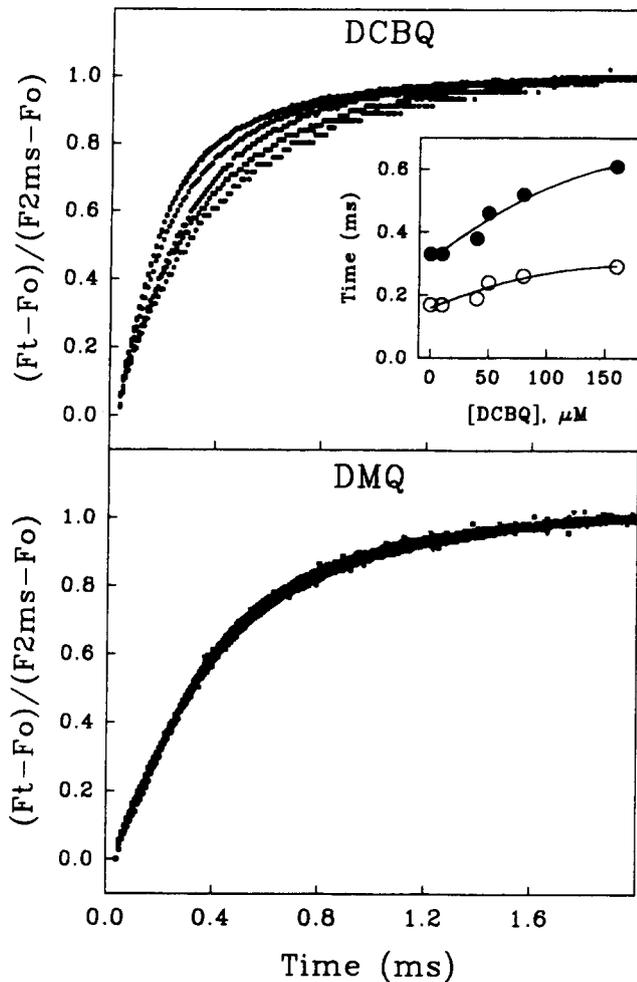


Fig. 3. Effects of DCBQ and DMQ on the variable Chl *a* fluorescence  $((F_t - F_o) / (F_{2ms} - F_o))$  induction curve in the first 2 ms (up to level J). Data were obtained from Fig. 1. Inset shows the one-half (open symbols) and three-quarters (filled symbols) rise times up to 2 ms in the presence of different DCBQ concentrations.

from spinach thylakoids excited with  $600 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  of 650 nm light are shown in Fig. 1 (top panel). For comparison, results obtained with DMQ are shown in the bottom panel of Fig. 1. In control samples, i.e. without exogenous quinones, the Chl *a* fluorescence curves (uppermost curves in each panel), plotted on a logarithmic time scale, start from the  $F_o$  level and increase to a maximum peak (P) with a clear step J (for complete and pronounced transients in algal cells and leaves, see Refs. [27] and [28]). In control thylakoid membranes, P levels off in about 300 ms at the intensity used. However, the major observations are: (1) a larger decrease in the variable ( $F_o$  to P) Chl *a* fluorescence by DCBQ than by DMQ and (2) a concentration-dependent decrease in  $F_o$  with DCBQ but not with DMQ. The decrease in  $F_o$  by DCBQ can be seen clearly even in the presence of DCMU (inset in Fig. 1, top panel). This decrease in  $F_o$  is most easily explained by quenching of antenna fluorescence, whereas that of  $F_m$  is additionally due to competition with electron acceptance.

Fig. 2 shows the concentration dependence of the effects of DMQ and DCBQ on the initial (up to 1 ms) Chl *a* fluo-

rescence transient excited by  $300 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  of 650 nm light. DMQ at 5–60  $\mu\text{M}$  does not decrease the  $F_o$ -J phase, but a small decrease in this phase is observed for 150  $\mu\text{M}$  DMQ. In contrast, DCBQ in the 20–150  $\mu\text{M}$  range lowers significantly not only the initial fluorescence rise  $F_o$  to J, but also the  $F_o$  fluorescence level. This clearly establishes the differential effects of DMQ and DCBQ on Chl *a* fluorescence transients, but it contradicts the conclusions of Cao and Govindjee [22]. However, it confirms the results of Lavergne and Leci [23]. On the other hand, the DMQ results confirm the observations of both Cao and Govindjee [22] and Lavergne and Leci [23].

To visualize the effect of quinone strictly on the Chl *a* fluorescence induction kinetics up to the J level (the photochemical part; see Strasser et al. [27]), the data were plotted as  $(F_t - F_o) / (F_{2ms} - F_o)$ , where  $F_t$  is the fluorescence intensity at time  $t$ , up to 2 ms (Fig. 3). The results, in the doubly normalized plots, indicate that DCBQ slows down the rate of the Chl *a* fluorescence induction curve from  $F_o$  to level J (top panel), which is totally unaffected by DMQ (bottom panel).

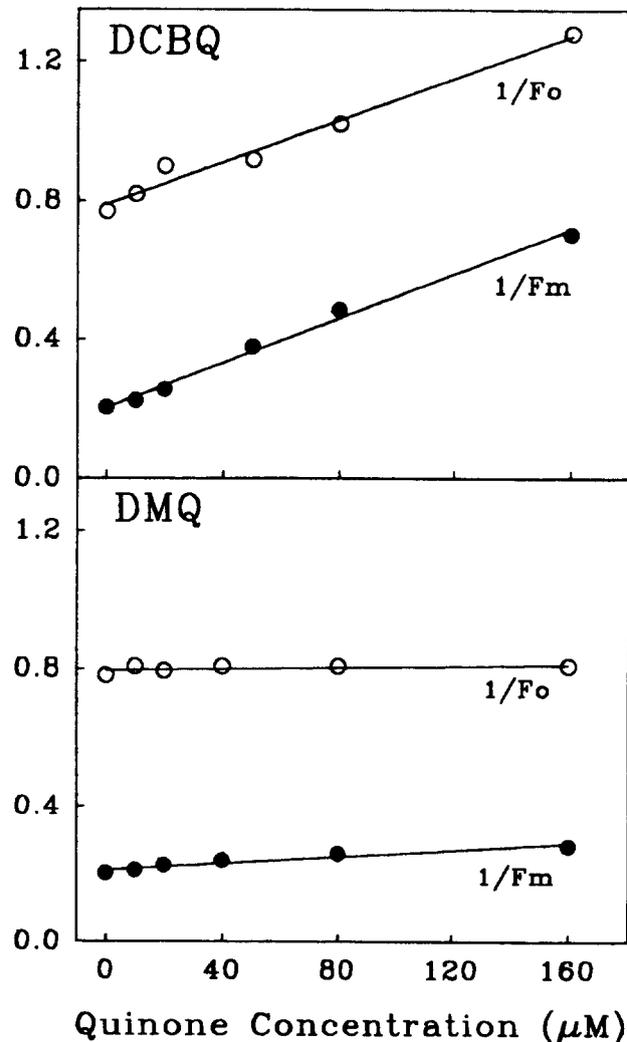


Fig. 4. Reciprocal of the initial ( $F_o$ ) and maximum ( $F_m$ ) fluorescence levels vs. the quinone concentration.

Table 1

Experimental values of the slopes obtained from the data in Fig. 4 in relative units (A). Calculated values of the Stern–Volmer constants  $K_D$  and  $F_o$  and  $F_m$  (B). Estimated concentrations of quencher needed ( $1/K_D$ ) to decrease 50% of the fluorescence signals of  $F_o$  and  $F_m$  without quencher (C)

	Quencher	
	DCBQ	DMQ
(A)		
$\frac{1}{\Delta F_o \Delta [Q]} = \frac{2k_q}{I_a k_F}$	$3.03 \times 10^{-3}$	$0.09 \times 10^{-3}$
$\frac{1}{\Delta F_m \Delta [Q]} = \frac{2k_q}{I_a k_F}$	$3.21 \times 10^{-3}$	$0.47 \times 10^{-3}$
(B)		
$K_D(o) = \frac{2k_q}{I_a k_F} F_o(Q=0)$	$3.94 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{M}^{-1}$	$0.10 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{M}^{-1}$
$K_D(m) = \frac{2k_q}{I_a k_F} F_m(Q=0)$	$15.72 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{M}^{-1}$	$2.36 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{M}^{-1}$
(C)		
$\frac{1}{K_D(o)}$	254 $\mu\text{M}$	10000 $\mu\text{M}$
$\frac{1}{K_D(m)}$	64 $\mu\text{M}$	424 $\mu\text{M}$

The inset in Fig. 3 shows the one-half (open symbols) and three-quarters (filled symbols) rise times up to 2 ms in the presence of different concentrations of DCBQ. In the thylakoid membranes treated with 160  $\mu\text{M}$  DCBQ, the three-quarters rise time is almost double that of the untreated thylakoids.

Stern–Volmer analyses [23,29–31] of the fluorescence data enable the quinone quenching constants to be determined (Fig. 4) for both the open (at  $F_o$ ) and closed (at  $F_m$ ) states of PSII RCs. The reciprocal values of the fluorescence signals in the presence of the quinones DCBQ and DMQ are shown in Fig. 4 as  $1/F_o$  and  $1/F_m$ . In all situations, a straight line is found. This indicates that the data can be discussed in terms of the Stern–Volmer equation as follows [23,29–31]

$$\frac{F(Q=0) \text{ without quencher}}{F \text{ with quencher}} = 1 + \tau(Q=0) \times 2k_q \times [Q] \quad (1)$$

and

$$\tau(Q=0) = \frac{F(Q=0)}{I_a k_F} \quad (2)$$

where  $2k_q$  is the bimolecular (second-order) quenching constant ( $\text{s}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1}$ ),  $k_F$  is the first-order rate constant for fluorescence emission,  $I_a$  is the light absorption flux which excites the fluorescing pigments,  $[Q]$  is the concentration of the quencher and  $\tau(Q=0)$  is the lifetime of the pigment

fluorescing in the absence of the quencher. At  $F_o$ , all RCs are open and the lifetime is  $\tau_o(Q=0) = F_o(Q=0)/I_a k_F$ ; at  $F_m$ , all RCs are closed and the lifetime is  $\tau_m(Q=0) = F_m(Q=0)/I_a k_F$ .

On the basis of Eqs. (1) and (2), the functions  $1/F_o$  and  $1/F_m$  vs. the quencher concentrations ( $[Q]$ ) can be formulated as

$$\frac{1}{F_o} = \frac{1}{F_o(Q=0)} + \frac{2k_q}{I_a k_F} [Q] \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{1}{F_m} = \frac{1}{F_m(Q=0)} + \frac{2k_q}{I_a k_F} [Q] \quad (4)$$

Fig. 4 and Table 1 show that, in the presence of DCBQ, two parallel straight lines for  $1/F_o$  and  $1/F_m$  are obtained. This shows (according to Eqs. (3) and (4)) that DCBQ acts as a quencher for Chl *a* of the open and closed RCs with the same second-order quenching constant  $2k_q$ . In contrast, DMQ (Fig. 4) shows practically no quenching effect on the fluorescence of open RCs ( $F_o$ ) and only a very small effect on closed RCs ( $F_m$ ) at the concentrations used.

For comparison, the present data (Fig. 5(A)) and the data of Lavergne and Leci [23] (Fig. 5(B)) are plotted together. On the basis of the half rise time of Chl *a* fluorescence in the presence of DCMU, the light intensity used by Lavergne and Leci [23] was about 100 times lower than the light intensity

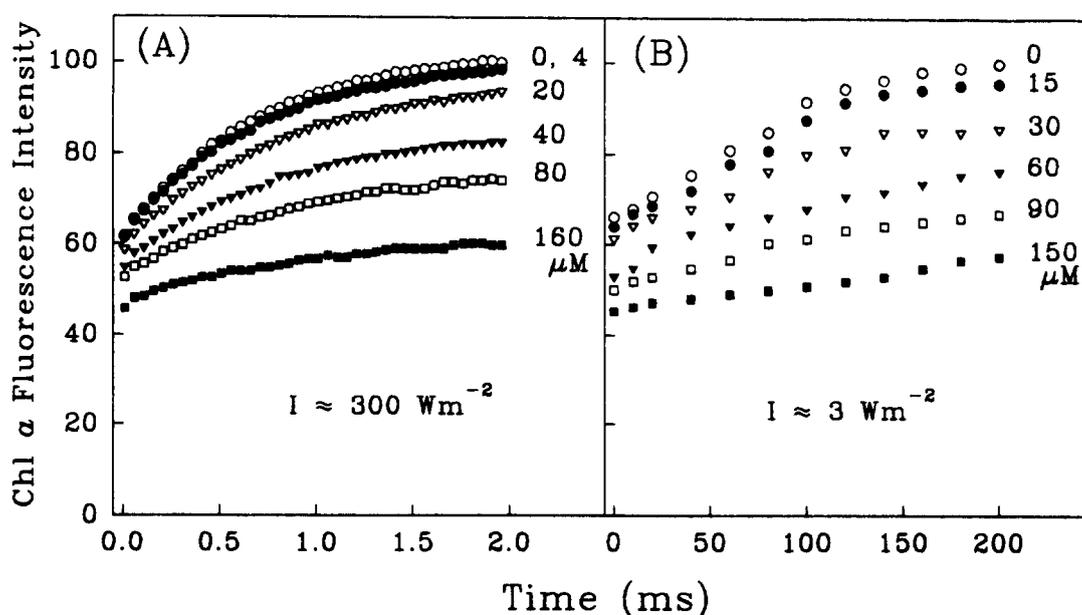


Fig. 5. (A) Effect of different concentrations of DCBQ on the Chl *a* fluorescence rise illuminated with  $300 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  light intensity. For comparison, a replot of the data of Laverne and Leci [23] is shown (B). The abscissa for the present experiment with  $300 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  light intensity is expanded 100 times to adjust for the "intensity  $\times$  time" equivalence of the photochemical reaction.

used in the results presented in Fig. 5(A). Considering the light dose (light intensity  $\times$  time of the transient), the fluorescence rise times in Figs. 5(A) and 5(B) are very similar (note the different time axes in Figs. 5(A) and 5(B)). These data further verify that the quenching effect of DCBQ depends only on the quenching constant and the quinone concentration and is independent of the applied light intensity.

In order to explain the differences between the conclusions of this paper and those of Cao and Govindjee [22], we re-examined their crucial figures (Figs. 1(A) and 1(B)), and discovered that the replot of the  $20 \mu\text{M}$  DMQ curve in Fig. 1(B) from Fig. 1(A) had an erroneous transposition of the  $F_0$  level. It should have been closer to the curve for the  $2.5$

$\mu\text{M}$  DCBQ starting point than to the  $20 \mu\text{M}$  DCBQ starting point. This unfortunate error seems to be the cause of the erroneous conclusion reached in that paper.

In order to confirm that, at the concentrations of quinones and light intensities used here, the expected and known effects on  $\text{O}_2$  evolution were observed, we measured the Hill reaction rates with both DMQ and DCBQ using  $300 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  red light (see Table 2). Although both quinones acted as electron acceptors, DCBQ was more effective than DMQ, as expected (see, for example, Graan and Ort [15] and Nedbal et al. [21]). Furthermore, the rate of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution measured in the presence of ferricyanide ( $2 \text{ mM}$ ), for the thylakoid used in the present work, was about  $245 \mu\text{mol O}_2 (\text{mg Chl})^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , showing that these thylakoids are comparable with those used by other investigators.

Our results show that DMQ suppresses the fluorescence rise from  $F_0$  to the P level less effectively than DCBQ. This is consistent with the higher rates of electron flow with DCBQ than with DMQ. This can be most easily explained by suggesting that DCBQ acts by relieving a blocking step involved in the re-oxidation of a fraction of the plastoquinol pool, as proposed by Laverne and Leci [23]. An alternative explanation is that DCBQ prevents electron accumulation because it substitutes for PQ in the  $Q_B$  pocket, accepting electrons directly from  $Q_A^-$  [32], not only because it opens up the inactive PSII centers.

Table 2

Effect of different concentrations of DCBQ and DMQ on the rate of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution by the thylakoid membranes. Thylakoids were suspended in the same buffer as described in Fig. 1, incubated for 5 min in the dark before the addition of quinones, and then exposed to  $300 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  of red (Schott RG 610) actinic light. Rate of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution was measured up to 1 min after turning on the actinic light ( $\pm \text{SD}$ ,  $n = 3$ )

[Quinones] ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	Rate of $\text{O}_2$ evolution ( $\mu\text{mol O}_2 (\text{mg Chl})^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ )	
	DCBQ	DMQ
10	$33.0 \pm 2.6^a$	$13.2 \pm 0.4$
20	$43.9 \pm 3.5$	$34.9 \pm 1.7$
50	$52.9 \pm 3.5$	$41.5 \pm 6.2$
100	$124.0 \pm 17.6$	$63.2 \pm 4.2$
160	$117.0 \pm 7.6$	$65.0 \pm 2.8$
200	$126.2 \pm 14.6$	$76.1 \pm 2.8$

<sup>a</sup> Rate of  $\text{O}_2$  evolution measured in the same experimental conditions, but in the presence of  $2 \text{ mM}$  ferricyanide, was  $245 \mu\text{mol O}_2 (\text{mg Chl})^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ .

#### 4. Concluding remarks

Although there is a clear differential sensitivity of DMQ and DCBQ on Chl *a* fluorescence transients and  $\text{O}_2$  evolution, fluorescence data cannot be used to differentiate between the

so-called “active” and “inactive” (or slow) PSII centers, as was reported previously [22]. According to Lavergne and Leci [23], DCBQ is more effective than DMQ either because it re-oxidizes PQH<sub>2</sub> more effectively or replaces Q<sub>B</sub> at the Q<sub>B</sub> site. Another possibility is that the two quinones interact differently with the non-heme iron that lies between Q<sub>A</sub> and Q<sub>B</sub> [33]. Further experiments are needed to confirm whether or not DCBQ can accept electrons from inactive PSII and to understand the different mechanisms of interaction of DMQ and DCBQ with PSII antenna and RCs.

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