Basis for the phototaxis sign reversal in the green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*

studied by high-speed observation

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ABSTRACT

For organisms that respond to environmental stimuli using taxes, reversal of the tactic

sign should be tightly regulated for survival. The biciliate green alga *Chlamydomonas*

reinhardtii is an excellent model for studying reversal between positive and negative

phototaxis. *C. reinhardtii* cells change swimming direction by modulating the balance

of beating forces between their two cilia after photoreception at the eyespot; however, it

remains unknown how they reverse phototactic sign. In this study, we observed cells

undergoing phototactic turns with a high-speed camera and found that two key factors

determine the phototactic sign: which of the two cilia beats more strongly for

phototactic turning and when the strong beating starts. The timing of the strong ciliary

beating is suggested to be regulated by ROS-regulated switching between the light-on

and light-off responses at the eyespot, which leads to the switching between positive

and negative phototaxis. This idea is supported by a mathematical model that introduces

the timing of the strong ciliary beating after photoreception.

Keywords:

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, phototaxis, flagella/cilia, ROS, mathematical model

INTRODUCTION

The biciliate unicellular green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* is an excellent model

organism to study how organisms respond to changing light conditions. *C. reinhardtii*

shows a distinct light-induced behavior known as phototaxis, in which cells swim either

toward or away from a light source (called positive or negative phototaxis,

respectively). The direction of phototaxis, referred to here as the sign (either positive or

negative), can be reversed. The regulation of this sign reversal is thought to be

important for the viability of photosynthetic algae, but its mechanism is not well

understood.

In *C. reinhardtii*, the light signal for phototaxis is received by the eyespot

(Foster & Smyth, 1980), an organelle that appears under a microscope as an orange spot

near the cell equator. It consists of carotenoid-rich granule layers, and a small area of

plasma membrane in which channelrhodopsin (ChR) molecules are localized (Fig. 1A).

The carotenoid-rich granule layers (CLs) function as a quarter-wave plate that reflects

light (Foster & Smyth, 1980; Ueki et al., 2016), while ChR molecules are light-gated

ion channels (Nagel et al., 2002; Nagel et al., 2003; Sineshchekov, Jung, & Spudich,

2002; Suzuki et al., 2003). Because of the relative position of these two components, the

eyespot perceives light with high directionality. When a light signal arrives from the

ChR-facing side, the light signal is amplified by reflection from the CLs; conversely,

light signals are blocked by the CLs when coming from the CL-facing direction. In

addition, while swimming, the cell rotates around its anterior-posterior axis. Directional

photoreception by cells that swim with bodily rotation enables them to accurately detect

and move in the direction of light stimuli.

Previous studies suggest that the phototaxis pathway in *C. reinhardtii* consists

of three steps: 1) photoreception by ChRs, 2) an increase in intraciliary $[Ca^{2+}]$, and 3) a

change in the balance of beating between the two cilia (a.k.a. flagella). After

photoreception, the forces generated by the two cilia of *C. reinhardtii* become

imbalanced, changing the cell's swimming direction. These two cilia can be

distinguished by their position relative to the eyespot, with the one nearest the eyespot

called the *cis*-cilium, and the other called the *trans*-cilium. A currently prevailing model

explains the mechanism underlying positive phototaxis as follows: When the eyespot

faces a light source during swimming with bodily rotation, ChRs open to allow for Ca^{2+}

entry, intraciliary $[Ca^{2+}]$ increases, and the *trans*-cilium starts to beat more strongly than

the *cis*-cilium, by increasing beating amplitude and/or frequency (Kamiya & Witman,

1984; Rüffer & Nultsch, 1991). The imbalance between the forces generated by the two

cilia tilts the cell's swimming direction toward the eyespot-bearing side (i.e., in the

direction of the light source). After 180º of rotation, the eyespot stops receiving light

due to the shielding of CLs, the ChRs close, intraciliary $[Ca^{2+}]$ decreases due to some

ion pumping activity, and the force generated by the *cis*-cilium increases while that of

the *trans*-cilium decreases, resulting in the cell's swimming direction tilting toward the

light-source. By repeating this process, the cell will swim toward the light source,

displaying positive phototaxis (Fig. 1B). However, in contrast to this widespread model,

phototactic turns may also be initiated when the eyespot faces away from the light

source (i.e., when the eyespot is shaded) (Isogai, Kamiya, & Yoshimura, 2000).

How, then, can the sign of phototaxis be reversed? Two possibilities exist: (i)

The *cis*-cilium, rather than the *trans*-cilium, beats more strongly when $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ increases

upon photoreception (referred to as "the dominant arm model"); and (ii) after

photoreception, the *trans*-cilium beats more strongly than the *cis*-cilium when the cell

makes a half bodily rotation and the eyespot faces the opposite side to the light source

(referred to as "the off-response model). These possibilities should be verified by

observing cell behavior after inducing positive or negative phototaxis.

Several factors are known to induce sign-switching of phototaxis in *C.*

reinhardtii, including light intensity (Feinleib & Curry, 1971), extracellular Ca^{2+}

concentration (Morel-Laurens, 1987), circadian rhythms (Kondo, Johnson, & Hastings,

1991), photosynthetic activities (Takahashi & Watanabe, 1993). Of these factors, the

amount of cellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) changes the sign of phototaxis most

intensely (Wakabayashi et al., 2011). Applying membrane-permeable ROS reagents or

membrane-permeable ROS scavengers to cells can strongly bias the phototactic sign to

positive or negative, respectively.

In this study, to test the two possibilities (i) and (ii) above, we carried out

high-speed observations of cells turning during positive or negative phototaxis, after

treatment with either a membrane-permeable ROS or a membrane-permeable ROS

scavenger. Our results showed that the both (i) and (ii) are the cases. The innate

phototactic sign of a strain can be explained by the case (i): after photoreception, we

observed that positively phototactic strain cells beat the *trans*-cilium more strongly,

whereas negatively phototactic strain cells beat the *cis*-cilium more strongly. When the

same strain reverses the phototactic signs, the case (ii) applies: for example, the

positively phototactic strain cells showed negative phototaxis by beating the trans-

cilium more strongly when the eyespot faced opposite to the light source. The case (ii)

can be interpreted in two ways: (a) the strong beating was induced by a light-off

response of the eyespot, or (b) the light-on response of the eyespot was delayed by the

time it takes for the cell to make a half rotation. We developed a mathematical model

that satisfies the cases (i) and (ii). The model strongly suggested that the case (a) would

be the case, which was confirmed by additional experiments using the slow-swimming

cells.

RESULTS

Two hypotheses to explain the sign change of phototaxis

The mechanism underlying positive phototaxis can be explained as described in the

Introduction (shown in Fig. 1B). To elucidate the mechanism of negative phototaxis, we

considered two models (Fig. 1C), in which the dominant cilium is a key factor (defined

here as the cilium that begins to beat more strongly after photoreception than the other).

In the first model (the dominant-arm model), we assume that the relationship between

the dominant cilium and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is reversed, such that the *cis*-cilium, rather than the

trans-cilium, becomes dominant when $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is increased. If the *cis*-cilium beats more

strongly than the *trans*-cilium after light perception (which elicits Ca^{2+} influx), the cell

will undergo negative phototaxis. In the second model (the off-response model), we

assume that the relationship between the dominant cilium and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ remains the same,

but the onset of ciliary dominance (along with $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ increase) occurs when the eyespot

faces away from the light source, and senses a light-off stimulus. In this case, the cell

will also show negative phototaxis.

Dominant cilium differs in strains with opposite phototactic signs

To determine which of these two models was more plausible, we observed the turning

of *C. reinhardtii* cells using a high-speed camera (150 fps) linked to green light-

emitting diode (LED) illumination sources at right angles. This system was an extension

of the right-angle illumination system originally designed for the previous study (Isogai

et al., 2000), which we here improved upon to observe the phototactic turnings and the

eyespot position simultaneously by synchronizing the high-speed camera and the LED

illumination. This allowed us to determine the exact time when a light stimulus was

applied to a rotating cell, and the simultaneous orientation of the eyespot (visible as a

bright spot under a dark-field microscope with an oil-immersion condenser). With this

system, we first induced phototaxis in cells using the weaker stimulus of Light 1 (Fig.

2A). Then, the stronger Light 2 was illuminated at right angles to Light 1. When the

eyespot in a swimming cell faced the light-source side of Light 2 (or the light side) after

its illumination, we considered the cell to have perceived the light in that time frame

(Fig. 2A). Then, from the position of the eyespot and the swimming path, we assessed

which cilium beat more strongly (SI Movies S1-S4).

We observed the eyespot position during phototactic turning in two genetically

different strains, CC-124 (a negatively phototactic strain, here referred to as NP) and

CC-125 (positively phototactic strain, PP) (see Materials and Methods). We analyzed

only those cells that showed phototactic turnings of one full self-rotation after

photoreception. We found that PP cells usually showed positive phototaxis. Similar to

the PP cell after treatment with *t*-BOOH that induces positive phototaxis in Fig. 2A, a

typical control PP cell changed its swimming direction immediately after it detected

Light 2 (green arrow position). When turning toward the direction of the light source,

more than half of the cells performed phototactic turning while the eyespot was located

on the light side (i.e., the *trans*-cilium became dominant immediately after

photoreception) (Fig. 2B).

In contrast, NP cells usually showed negative phototaxis. Similar to the NP cell

after treatment with DMTU that induces negative phototaxis in Fig. 2A, a typical

control NP cell changed its swimming direction immediately after it detected Light 2,

similar to the PP cell. When turning against the direction of the light source, most cells

performed turns while the eyespot was located on the light side, i.e. the *cis*-cilium

became dominant immediately after photoreception (Fig. 2B). These observations

suggest that the difference between PP and NP cells can be explained by the "Dominant

arm model." The cilium that becomes dominant after photoreception is genetically

determined. Therefore, if the dominant cilium is the *trans*-cilium, the strain tends to

show positive phototaxis, while if it is the *cis*-cilium in another strain, it tends to show

negative phototaxis.

Reversal of phototactic sign by "off-response" of the dominant cilium

Next, we examined the effect of reagents that change the cellular ROS, affecting the

phototactic sign. After treatment with 0.2 mM *t*-BOOH, a membrane-permeable ROS

reagent that induces positive phototaxis in both strains, most PP cells made phototactic

turns while the eyespot was located on the light side, while most NP cells made

phototactic turns while the eyespot was located on the dark side (i.e., the side opposite

the light-source) (Fig. 2B) (SI Movie S1, S2). Fig. 2A shows the representative data,

and the *t*-BOOH-treated NP cell changed its swimming direction after the cell made a

half-self-rotation (magenta arrow). In contrast, after treatment with 75 mM DMTU, a

membrane-permeable ROS scavenger that induces negative phototaxis in both strains,

most PP cells made phototactic turns while the eyespot was located on the dark side,

and most NP cells made phototactic turns while the eyespot was located on the light

side (SI Movie S3, S4). In Fig. 2A, the DMTU-treated PP cell changed its swimming

direction after the cell made a half-self-rotation (magenta arrow).

Thus, the sign-reversal of phototaxis in both strains can be explained by the

off-response model; i.e., *t*-BOOH induces the onset of *cis*-cilium dominance in the dark

side in NP cells and DMTU induces that of *trans*-cilium dominance in the light side in

PP cells. Simply put, the reversal of genetically determined phototactic signs in a given

strain is achieved by reversing the eyespot position relative to the light source (the light

or dark side) when its genetically determined dominant cilium starts to show stronger

beating than the other after light stimulation. We found that the dominant cilium after

photoreception of PP cells was always the *trans*-cilium, while that of NP was always

the *cis*-cilium. In each strain, the sign-switching of phototaxis was caused by the onset

of strong beating of the dominant cilium on the dark side.

Therefore, these phototactic turning events can be categorized into two cases

for each sign of phototaxis. For cells displaying positive phototaxis: in (Positive Case

1), phototactic turning occurred while the eyespot was located on the light side. In this

case, the *trans*-cilium must have become dominant in response to the light-on stimulus

(such as PP cells without the ROS-reagents or with *t*-BOOH). In (Positive Case 2),

phototactic turning occurred while the eyespot was located on the dark side. In this case,

the *cis*-cilium must have become dominant in response to the light-off stimulus (such as

NP cells with *t*-BOOH). For cells displaying negative phototaxis: in (Negative Case 1),

phototactic turning occurred while the eyespot was located on the light side. In this

case, the *cis*-cilium must have become dominant in response to the light-on stimulus

(such as NP cells without the ROS-reagents or with DMTU). In (Negative Case 2),

phototactic turning occurred while the eyespot was located on the dark side. In this case,

the *trans*-cilium must have become dominant in response to the light-off stimulus (such

as PP cells with DMTU).

Eyespot position in the helical paths

Regarding changes in the balance of beating between the two cilia during phototactic

turning, we first wanted to examine the force balance in unstimulated cells. Under

homogeneous light conditions, *C. reinhardtii* cells swim in a helical path, due to the

imbalanced force generation of the two cilia beating in slightly skewed planes (Fig.

S1A). In previous work, Isogai et al. showed that the eyespot is located on the outer

edge of the helical swimming paths in ~80 percent of positively phototactic cells (Isogai

et al., 2000). In contrast, for negatively phototactic cells, ~50 percent of cells swim with

the eyespot facing inside, whereas ~30 percent of cells swim with the eyespot facing

outside (Isogai et al., 2000). These results suggest that eyespot position in the helical

swimming path is partially correlated with the phototactic sign, but the correlation is not

determinative. We thus investigated whether the eyespot position in the swimming

paths is affected by ROS-modulating reagents. Most, but not all, cells swam with the

eyespot outside the helix when they showed either positive phototaxis (Fig. S1B, Sign

P). However, when cells showed negative phototaxis in the presence of DMTU,

directing the eyespot inside the helix was observed almost as frequently as towards the

outside (Fig. S1B, Sign N, +DMTU). Thus, we did not observe a strict correlation either

between phototactic sign and eyespot position in the helical paths.

To elucidate if the dominant cilium after photoreception is also dominant in the

swimming without light stimulation, we observed the PP and NP cells swimming under

a microscope in the red background light. The results showed that ~60% cells swam

with the eyespot facing outward of the helical path and the rest swam with it inward in

both PP and NP cells (Fig. S1C). These data also suggest that the dominant cilium after

photoreception is independent from that without photostimulation. These results are

consistent with those of a mathematical model that describes the swimming behavior of

C. reinhardtii given in the section of "Mathematical model to test the experimental

data," which shows that whether the eyespot faces outward or inward of the helical path

does not affect the sign of phototaxis.

242 **Photoreceptor currents after treatment with the ROS-modulating reagents**

243 A possible explanation for how ROS-modulating reagents induce the light-off response

244 is that those reagents delay the response of the dominant cilium by slowing the opening

245 of photo-gated channels (ChRs). If this delay is as long as the time required for a cell to

246 perform a half rotation (~250 msec), then the phototactic sign of the cell would reverse.

247 To test this possibility, we measured the photoreceptor current (PRC) in a population of

248 *C. reinhardtii* cells by the method of Sineshchekov et al. (Sineshchekov et al., 1992;

249 Sineshchekov et al., 1994) (Fig. S2A). Treatment with *t*-BOOH did not significantly

250 affect the magnitude of PRC produced by a single flash of light stimulation, in either PP

251 or NP cells (Fig. S2B, C). We also measured the time (delay) required for the

252 generation of PRC after photostimulation, but detected no significant difference

253 between the control and the *t*-BOOH-treated cells (Fig. S2B, C). In contrast, after

254 treatment with DMTU, we found that PRC decreased, while delay time increased, in

255 both strains (Fig. S2B, C). However, the increase in delay time was only ~1 msec.

256 These results suggest that the light-off response is not caused by the delay in PRC

257 generation.

258

259 **Mathematical model to test the experimental data**

We have shown that there are two cases where the phototactic sign of *C. reinhardtii* is

reversed: (i) dominant arm model case and (ii) off-response model case. In the off-

response model case, however, there is another interpretation of the experimental

results, namely, if *C. reinhardtii* has a time delay for the response to the light stimulus

and the delay time is so long that the cell rotates half a turn about its anterior-posterior

axis, the phototactic turning occurs when the eyespot faces on the dark region; we refer

to this hypothesis as "the time delay model". To examine whether the time delay

changes the phototactic sign of the cell and determine whether the off-response model

or the time delay model is more plausible for explaining phototactic turning when the

eyespot facing on the dark side, we develop a mathematical model that express the time

delay of the cell. Our modeling framework is based on previous models of phototaxis in

C. reinhardtii and the multicellular green alga *Volvox carteri* (Bennett & Golestanian,

2015; Drescher, Goldstein, & Tuval, 2010, Leptos et al., 2018). We extend them by

explicitly introducing a time delay into the ciliary response after a light stimulus (see SI

Appendix A for details). Brief description of our mathematical model is below.

We approximate the cell as a rigid ball and define the body axes of the cell as in Fig.

3A, where **a, b** and **c** are unit vectors that are fixed to the body of the cell. We assume

that a cell swims with cilia forward, with a constant speed v_0 in the posterior direction

$\mathbf{c}$, i.e., $\mathbf{v} = v_0\mathbf{c}$, and rotates with the angular velocity

$\boldsymbol{\omega}(t) = -\omega_c^{(0)}\mathbf{c} + (\omega_a^{(0)} - p(t))\mathbf{a}$, ——[1]

where $\omega_c^{(0)}$ and $\omega_a^{(0)}$ are constants, which represent the proper angular velocity of the

cell under unstimulated conditions. The quantity p expresses the contribution from

the change in the behaviors of the two cilia in response to the change in light intensity at

the eyespot: when the *trans*-cilium beats stronger than the *cis*-cilium, p becomes

positive, and vice versa. We assume that the response of dominant cilium to the light

stimulus has some constant delay. Indeed, under the normal culture conditions the

response of dominant cilium to the light has a short delay time around 30-40 msec

(Rüffer & Nultsch, 1991; Witman, 1993). We extend this notion and allow the delay

time τ_0 to be any. We thus write the relationship between p and light intensity

received by the eyespot, I, as

$p(t) = \gamma_0 \dfrac{dI(t - \tau_0)}{dt}$, ——[2]

where γ_0 is a constant that takes the value +1 or -1. $\gamma_0 = +1$ means the *trans*-cilium is

dominant (as in PP), while $\gamma_0 = -1$ means the *cis*-cilium is dominant (as in NP). By

changing the value of γ_0, we express the dominant arm model. τ_0 is the delay time of

the onset of the ciliary dominance after photoreception. By changing the value of τ_0

we can investigate the effects of the time delay of dominant cilium to light stimulus on

phototaxis. In the mathematical description, the light-off response model in fact

coincides with the dominant arm model, because the onset of dominant cilium at step-

down stimulus ($\gamma_0 = +1$ and $dI/dt < 0$) and the onset of exchanged dominant cilium

at step-up stimulus ($\gamma_0 = -1$ and $dI/dt > 0$) cannot be distinguished in this

framework. Thus this model is used to compare the results of the time delay model and

those of the other models, dominant arm model and off-response model.

The light intensity I received by the eyespot is given by $I(t) = I_0(-\mathbf{e}_{light} \cdot \mathbf{e}_{eyespot} + 1)/2$,

where I_0 is the intensity of the light at the cell position. $\mathbf{e}_{light}$ and $\mathbf{e}_{eyespot} = (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b})/\sqrt{2}$

are unit vectors that represent the direction of the incident light and the eyespot,

respectively. The time evolution equations for this model are closed in terms of

the Euler angles $(\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3)$ that specify the directions of body axes, $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, $\mathbf{c}$ (Fig. 3B)

(Landau, 1976) and the position of the cell $\mathbf{r} = (x, y, z)$.

With this model we consider a simple situation where a parallel light comes from the

positive z direction (Fig. 3B), which is expressed by $\mathbf{e}_{light} = (0, 0, -1)$ and constant I_0.

If the cell goes in the positive z direction in the final state, this situation indicates

positive phototaxis, while if the cell goes in the negative z direction in the final state,

that is negative phototaxis.

This mathematical model in fact has two steady solutions (Eqs. S5 and S6 in Appendix

B) for any parameters: one represents positive phototaxis, where the cell swims in the

positive z direction with a constant speed, drawing a left-handed spiral trajectory. The

other represents negative phototaxis, where the cell swims in the negative z direction

with the same speed, drawing a left-handed spiral trajectory. Thus the model

intrinsically involves both positive and negative phototaxis states. Depending on the

values of model parameters, γ_0, I_0 and τ_0, in the relation between p and I, the

stability of the two steady solutions changes (Fig. S3), and one stationary solution is

selected (Fig. 3C, D; SI Movies S5,S6). The stability of the steady solutions does not

depend on v_0, because the time evolution equations for $(\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3)$ that spesify the

direction of the cell are closed in terms of $(\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3)$ only (see Eq. S4 in Appendix A)

and do not contain v_0.

Furthermore, from the steady solutions of this model we find the relationships between

the parameters involved in our mathematical model ($\omega_a^{(0)}$, $\omega_c^{(0)}$, v_0) and the quantities

concerning the helical path of the cell observed in experiments as

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$$\omega_a^{(0)} = \pm \frac{4\pi^2 H^2 r_0}{\sqrt{v_z^2 + 4\pi^2 H^2 r_0^2}}$$
$$\omega_c^{(0)} = \frac{2\pi H |v_z|}{\sqrt{v_z^2 + 4\pi^2 H^2 r_0^2}} \quad , \text{---[3]}$$
$$v_0 = \sqrt{v_z^2 + 4\pi^2 H^2 r_0^2}$$

where r_0, H and $|v_z|$ are the radius, Heltz, and speed of the cell along the axis of

helical path drawn by the cell under homogeneous light conditions, respectively (see

Appendix C for deitals). Using eq. 3 we can determine the values of model parameters

$\omega_a^{(0)}$, $\omega_c^{(0)}$, v_0 from experimental data, except for the sign of $\omega_a^{(0)}$. (Note that the first

relation in Eq. 3 has plus minus sign.) The sign of $\omega_a^{(0)}$ is in fact related to the relative

position of the eyespot in the helical orbit of the cell (Appendix C), i.e., when $\omega_a^{(0)} > 0$

the eyespot face the outside of the helical orbit, while when $\omega_a^{(0)} < 0$ the eyespot faces

the inside of helical orbit. This result holds independent of phototactic sign. That is, for

each phototaxis, there are two cases where the eyespot faces the outside and inside of

the helical path. In which direction the eyespot faces is determined by only the sign of

$\omega_a^{(0)}$. Using this property we can also determine the sign of $\omega_a^{(0)}$ from the position of

eyespot in the helical path. Most cells observed in our experiments exhibit that the

relative position of eyespot to the helical orbit is the outside, so we take $\omega_a^{(0)} > 0$

throughout this model. Hence the control parameters of this model turn out to be γ_0,

I_0 and τ_0.

To check whether this mathematical model exhibits definite phototaxis for given

parameters, we numerically integrated the time evolution equations Eqs. S3 and S4 in

Appendix A with some initial conditions with the Euler methd ($\Delta t = 1/10000$). Figure 3

C,D give the trajectories of the cell described in our model for $\tau_0 = 0.08$ (C) and

$\tau_0 = 0.34$ (D). We see that in Fig. 3C the cell goes in the positive z direction in the

final state (positive pototaxis), while in Fig. 3D, the cell goes in the positive z direction

(negative pototaxis). These final swimming directions do not depend on the initial

conditions, i.e., even if the cell directed in any direction at the initial time, the final

swimming direction (positive or negative phototaxis) is determined only by the values

of the model parameters, I_0, γ_0 and τ_0. To see how the swimming direction depends

on the model parameters, we drew the phase diagram of the final velocity of the cell

(Fig. 4), where the values of $\omega_c^{(0)}$, $\omega_a^{(0)}$ and v_0 used here were obtained from

experimental data on the PP cell using the relations Eq. 3. In Fig. 4 we see that when

γ_0 is changed from +1 to -1, the swimming direction of the cell becomes opposite. This

means that when the dominant cilium is exchanged, the phototactic sign is reversed.

This result is consistent with our experimental data in section _ and also with the

existing works [interface, Bennett & Golestanian, 2015, PRL]. Whenever the sign of

γ_0 is changed, the phototactic sign is also changed, which comes from the symmetry of

the mathematical model.

When we fix the values of I_0 and γ_0 and change only τ_0, the final swimming

direction also changes (Fig. 4). For example, let us see the case of $I_0 = 0.1$ and $\gamma_0 =$

$+1$ in Fig. 4. In this case photatctic sign becomes plus when $0.06 < \tau_0 < 0.3$ [sec], and

the phototactic sign becomes minus when $0.3 < \tau_0 < 0.4$ [sec]. Since the mean self-

rotation frequency of the PP cell about the anterior-posterior (AP) axis in experiments is

about 2 Hz (see Table 1), the time needed for the cell to rotate about the AP axis one-

half is about 0.25 [sec]. Thus, the above results of numerical simulations are basically

consistent with the picture of the time delay model, i.e., we can consider that for

$0 < \tau_0 < 0.25$ the eyespot faces on the bright side, while for $0.25 < \tau_0 < 0.5$ the eyespot

faces on the dark side. That is, there is a possibility that the behaviors of the cells

obaserved in experiments given in section may be the result of delayed response of the

cell to the light stimulus.

Off-response or delayed response?

In the Off-response model, ciliary dominance starts to occur on the dark side. We

interpreted this as an immediate response to a light-off signal. However, it may also be a

delayed response to a light-on signal. If the delay time τ_0 is fixed between 0.25 sec

and 0.5 sec, a delayed response to a light-on stimulus would just look like a light-off

response without a delay. To assess which of these two interpretations is more

plausible, we conducted two experiments and a simulation.

First, we observed phototaxis in slow-swimming mutants *ida4* (lacking inner-

arm dynein subspecies a, c and d) and *oda1* (lacking entire outer-arm dynein) after

treatment with ROS-modulating reagents (Kamiya, 1988; Kamiya et al., 1991; Takada

et al., 2002). As the bodily rotation of the cell is caused by the slightly three-

dimensional beating of the two cilia, slow-swimming mutants show bodily rotation with

a longer rotation cycle time, as we observed (Table 1). If the delay time is between 0.25

and 0.50 sec, those slow-swimming mutants may differ in phototactic sign from the

wild-type PP and NP strains. We found that both *oda1* and *ida4* cells tended to display

positive phototaxis under neutral or oxidizing conditions, and negative phototaxis under

reducing conditions, similarly to the PP strain of the wild type (Fig. 5A, B). However,

the sign-reversal in the slow-swimming mutants was not as clear as in the wild type,

especially after treatment with the ROS-scavenger. It is possible that the force

generation for steering is weaker under these conditions in the slow-swimming mutants.

Thus, we also observed phototaxis of PP cells after treatment with DMTU in a

viscous medium. If the negative phototaxis of PP cells is achieved by the delayed

response, the DMTU-treated PP cells may not be able to show negative phototaxis when

the self-rotation duration is prolonged. In the medium containing 4.5% or 9.0%

Ficoll400, cells swam slowly (Table 2). Even in these media, the DMTU-treated PP

cells showed clear negative phototaxis (Fig. 6). These results cannot be achieved by the

delayed response.

We also used our mathematical model to simulate the behavior of cells that

self-rotate at a lower-than-normal frequency of 1.25 Hz and 0.72 Hz, frequencies of

ida4 and *oda1*, respectively (Table 1). Our simulation results indicated that when τ_0 is

between 0.075 and 0.5 sec (when self-rotation frequency is 1.25 Hz) or 0.25 and 0.5 sec

(0.72 Hz), such cells do not change phototactic signs with a change in τ_0, unlike the

wild type cells that rotate at higher frequencies of ~2 Hz (Fig. 7). Furthermore, we

carried out similar simulations using the self-rotation frequency of cells in viscous

media (Table 2). In a medium containing 9.0% Ficoll400, the rotation frequency is

~0.91 Hz (Table 2). In this case, when τ_0 is between 0.15 and 0.7 sec, cells do not

change phototactic signs with a change in τ_0 unlike cells in a regular medium (Fig. S4).

Considering the above three results together, it is more likely that the onset of

ciliary dominance alteration on the dark side takes place in direct response to a light-off

stimulus, rather than as a delayed response to a light-on stimulus.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we observed initial phototactic turning of *C. reinhardtii* cells after

photostimulation with high-speed video recording. As previously shown (Wakabayashi

et al., 2011), both PP and NP cells changed the sign of phototaxis when treated with

ROS-modulating agents. Our results demonstrate that the sign of phototaxis is

determined by which of the two (*cis-* and *trans-*) cilia beats stronger after

photoreception, and that the sign reverses depending on whether the dominant cilium

begins to beat stronger when the eyespot faces the light source or away from it (Fig. 8).

An important factor that modulates when the onset of ciliary dominance occurs is the

intracellular amount of ROS. Our mathematical model supports these findings.

The cilium that becomes dominant after photoreception

The first key factor that determines the phototactic sign is whether the *cis-* or the *trans-*

cilium is dominant in a given strain. Several previous studies have shown that the two

cilia of *C. reinhardtii* are intrinsically different (Kamiya & Hasegawa, 1987; Kamiya &

Witman, 1984; Rüffer & Nultsch, 1987, 1991, 1998). Rüffer and Nultsch (1991, 1998)

carried out high-speed cinematographic observation on cells trapped with a suction

pipette. They found that, upon photo-stimulation, the *trans*-cilium tended to beat more

strongly (with a larger amplitude and at a higher frequency) than the other in positively

phototactic strains, whereas the *cis*-cilium beat more strongly than the other in

negatively phototactic strains (Rüffer & Nultsch, 1991, 1998). Our results, obtained

from observation of free-swimming cells undergoing phototactic turning, are basically

consistent with these studies.

How is the dominant cilium determined? The results of the present study, as

well as those of Rüffer and Nultsch (1991), indicate that the cilium that becomes

dominant after photostimulation is the *trans*-cilium in PP and the *cis*-cilium in NP cells.

One would be inclined to assume that the Ca^{2+} sensitivities of the *cis*- and *trans*-

axonemes (the inner structure of cilia) are reversed between PP and NP. However, in

detergent-extracted and motility-reactivated cell models, the Ca^{2+}-dependent motility of

the two axonemes attached to a single cell body was found not to differ between PP and

NP strains (Wakabayashi et al., 2011). Therefore, factors other than axonemes may

cause differences in ciliary Ca^{2+}-response of PP and NP cells. For example, some

detergent-soluble constituents of cilia, or some chemical modification of the axoneme

that is not retained after detergent extraction, may be responsible.

Previously, we identified the defect that causes the negatively phototactic

phenotype in the NP strain (*agg1*) as the loss of a protein that possibly functions in

mitochondria (Ide et al., 2016). If this protein functions in the respiratory chain, the

redox poise and/or the amount of ROS could differ between PP and NP cells and

differentially modulate the activities of membrane proteins, such as Ca^{2+} channels and

pumps. Other *C. reinhardtii* mutants, *agg2* and *agg3*, are also known to display

negative phototaxis. Although whether the *cis*- or the *trans*-cilium is dominant in these

mutants has not been determined, their defects are also caused by mutations in non-

axonemal proteins; the causative protein Agg2 is localized to the proximal ciliary

membrane, while Agg3 is a flavodoxin that localizes to the ciliary matrix (Iomini, Li,

Mo, Dutcher, & Piperno, 2006). Loss of these proteins may modulate the function of the

ciliary membrane and could switch the dominant cilium.

How is the off-response of the ciliary dominance produced?

The second key factor that determines the phototactic sign is the timing at which the

dominant cilium starts to increase power after photoreception. We showed that *t*-

BOOH, a membrane-permeable ROS that promotes positive phototaxis, induces the

onset of *cis*-cilium dominance on the dark side in NP cells, whereas DMTU, a

membrane-permeable ROS-scavenger that promotes negative phototaxis, induces that of

the *trans*-cilium dominance on the dark side in PP cells (Fig. 2A, B). The onset of

ciliary dominance on the dark side could be interpreted as a so-called off response or a

step-down response, which means that cells respond to a light-off stimulus.

Off-response of *C. reinhardtii* has been suggested by Rüffer and Nultsch

(1991), but their "off-response" is different from what we observed for the majority of

cells showing the sign reversal. They showed that the beating in the two cilia

reciprocally changes upon reception of light-on as well as light-off stimuli: i.e., a strain

with the *trans* cilium that beats strongly for an on-response will have the *cis* cilium that

beats strongly for an off-response. Actually, their result is consistent with a minority of

our results. For example, when PP cells showed positive phototaxis, ~30% of the cells

beat their cis-cilium strongly when the eyespot faced the dark side (Fig. 2B). How the

majority and minority cells switch between the on- and off-responses that Rüffer and

Nultsch found was not clear from our experiments.

Off-response itself can be seen in other organisms; for example, in animal's

retina, the cells that normally excite upon light-on response excite upon light-off

response when the cells respond to glutamate, a neurotransmitter (Feher, 2012).

However, the molecular mechanism of the off response in *C. reinhardtii* is unknown.

Theoretically, a response equivalent to an off-response could be accomplished by an

appropriate delay in the light-on response. However, our observations on slow-

swimming mutants and PP cells in a viscous medium, as well as theoretical

considerations, rule out this possibility. Generally, the photoreception by ChR, a light-

gated cation channel, is thought to induce depolarization of the cellular membrane.

However, the Ca^{2+} influx at the eyespot may induce activation of Ca^{2+}-activated K^+

channel (Vergara et al., 1998), which would induce an increase in K^+ conductance and

concomitant hyperpolarization of the membrane. If the light causes hyperpolarization, a

light-off stimulus may induce depolarization of the membrane and elicit an off-

response. In addition, recently, ROS-modulating reagents were shown to modulate the

phosphorylation state of ChR1 (Bohm et al., 2019). The activity change of ChR1

according to this phosphorylation state may also lead to the off-response. These

possibilities can be tested by further electrophysiological analyses using ROS-

modulating reagents.

Mathematical model results support the experimental data

To mathematically assess the plausibility of the Dominant arm model and the Off-

response model, we developed a simple model that describes the swimming behaviors

of *C. reinhardtii*. The theoretical model and the experimental data both showed that the

Off-response model is not accomplished by the presence of a fixed delay time in the

light-on response, but by the response to a light-off stimulus (Figs. 5-7). While several

previous models have been presented to explain the photobehavior of green alga, ours is

one of the simplest, explaining the switching of the phototactic sign through only one

equation with some changes of the system parameters (Bennett & Golestanian, 2015;

Drescher et al., 2010).

Our model also provides clues to understanding why all the cells of the same

strain under the same light conditions do not exhibit the same sign of phototaxis; for

example, even when PP cells are treated with H_2O_2, which elicits positive phototaxis,

~5% of the cells show negative phototaxis (Wakabayashi et al., 2011). This could be

explained by the variance of the delay time in the onset of ciliary dominance. Even

though our model precludes the fixed delay time after treatment with the ROS-

modulating reagents, the delay time may vary between cells. In Fig. 5, when $\gamma_0 = 1$

(i.e., the *trans*-cilium is dominant after photoreception) and $I_0 = 0.1$ or 0.5, cells show

positive phototaxis when $\sim50 < \tau_0 < \sim300$ msec. The value of τ_0 has been suggested to

be longer than 30~40 msec (Rüffer & Nultsch, 1991; Witman, 1993). Thus, if a cell has

longer τ_0 than 300 msec, which would be caused by several factors including kinetics of

Ca^{2+} influx and cellular ROS amounts, this cell will exhibit negative phototaxis.

Furthermore, the τ_0-vz curves in Fig. 4 will change greatly if the eyespot position

somewhat varies and causes a change in the τ_0-vz curve. If a cell has the eyespot at an

irregular position, it may exhibit an opposite sign of phototaxis even with the same τ_0.

We must admit that our mathematical model has some drawbacks: it is based

on the major results of the observation. As mentioned earlier, there are exceptional

results; for example, ~30% of PP cells showed positive phototaxis with the dominant

beating of the *cis* cilium when the eyespot faces the dark side (Fig. 2B). It is still a

mystery as to whether cells choose the on- or off- response when exhibiting the same

sign of phototaxis. In this study, we took advantage of the fact that ROS-reagents can

bias the sign of phototaxis in either direction (Wakabayashi et al., 2011). Similarly, if

we can find conditions that bias either the on- or off-reaction, we may be able to derive

a model that encompasses all conditions.

In summary, our experimental observations combined with the insights from

our theoretical model showed that phototactic signs of *C. reinhardtii* cells are

determined by two factors: the genetically determined dominant cilium, and the timing

of the onset of strong beating by the dominant cilium after photoreception (Fig. 8). The

timing, either on the light side or the dark side, is modulated by the cellular amount of

ROS, which is a byproduct of photosynthesis. Cells may monitor photosynthetic

activities through ROS amounts, and this regulation mechanism may contribute to

maintaining ideal photosynthetic activities by modifying light conditions through

phototaxis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell culture and strains

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii strains CC-124 (nit1− (nitrate reductase), nit2−, agg1−,

mt− (mating type)) (Ide et al., 2016), CC-125 (nit1−, nit2−, mt+), CC-2670 (ida4-,

mt+), and CC-2228 (oda1-, mt+) were used. CC-124 and CC-125 were termed PP and

NP, respectively. The CC-125 strain maintained in our laboratory appears to have a

slight difference in motility characteristics from the same strain available from the

Chlamydomonas Resource Center (http://www.chlamycollection.org/) (Sato, Sato, &

Toyoshima, 2018; Wakabayashi et al., 2011). CC-2670 (*ida4*; lacking inner-arm

dyneins a, c, and d) and CC-2228 (*oda1*; lacking outer-arm dynein and the outer-dynein

arm docking complex) were used as slow-swimming mutants. Cells were grown in tris-

acetate phosphate medium (TAP) medium with aeration at 25 °C, on a 12 h/12 h

light/dark cycle (Gorman & Levine, 1965).

High-speed observation of phototaxis and measurement of the bodily rotation cycle

Cells were washed with an experimental solution (5 mM Hepes (pH 7.4), 0.2 mM

EGTA, 1 mM KCl, 0.3 mM $CaCl_2$) (Okita, Isogai, Hirono, Kamiya, & Yoshimura,

2005) and kept under red light for more than 50 minutes before the assays. To induce

positive or negative phototaxis, the cell suspensions were treated with tertiary-

butylhydroperoxide (t-BOOH; final concentration is 0.2 mM) (Wako Pure Chemical

Industries) as a ROS reagent, or dimethylthiourea (DMTU; final concentration is 75

mM) (Sigma-Aldrich) as a ROS-scavenging reagent (Wakabayashi et al., 2011). Cell

suspensions were put between a coverslip and a glass slide and placed on the stage of a

dark-field microscope with an oil-immersion condenser (BX53; Olympus). The

directional light to induce phototaxis was produced with two green LEDs (λ=525 nm).

The setup is shown in Fig. 2A. First, a weak green light (~5 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}) was

illuminated (Light 1 in Fig. 2A). Most cells showed either positive or negative

phototaxis. Then a stronger green light (Light 2 in Fig. 2A; ~30 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1})

was illuminated, perpendicular to Light 1. Most of the cells then changed their

swimming directions and oriented parallel to the Light 2 beam. The behavior of cells

was observed with dim red light (λ >600 nm) and videos were recorded with a high-

speed camera (HAS-L2M, DITECT) at 150 fps. The LED for Light 2 was linked with

the trigger switch of the high-speed camera so that recording was initiated when it was

lit. The timing of photoreception was determined as the time when the eyespot faced the

Light 2 side (Fig. 2A, 2B). The position of the eyespot in the helical swimming paths

was also determined from the same video footage.

The measurement of the bodily rotation cycle was carried out with the same

experimental setup as above (without sideways illuminations). The time required for

one bodily rotation was determined from the position of the eyespot on the swimming

trajectories, and the rotation period was calculated.

Phototaxis assay

The phototaxis assay shown in Fig. 5 was carried out by the method described in (Ueki

et al., 2016). In brief, cells were washed with the experimental solution and kept under

dim red light for 30 min before the phototaxis assays. For dish assays, cell suspensions

($\sim$$10^7$ cells/mL) were put in Petri dishes (30 mm in diameter, 10 mm thick), illuminated

with a green LED (λ =525 nm, $\sim$50 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}) from one side for 5 min, and

photographed (DSC-RX100M2; Sony). For preparation of viscous media, 4.5% or 9.0%

Ficoll (Mw 400; 16006-92, Nacalai) was added to the experimental solution. For single-

cell analysis, cells were observed under a dark-field microscope (BX-53, Olympus)

under dim red light (λ > 600 nm) and recorded to video using a CCD camera

(1129HMN1/3; Wraymer). The angle (θ) between the light direction and the swimming

direction was measured for 1.5 s, following illumination with a green LED for 15 s.

Images of swimming cells were auto-tracked using Image Hyper software (Science

Eye), and angles were measured from the cell trajectories. *t*-BOOH (final concentration

of 0.2 mM; Wako Pure Chemical Industries) was used as a ROS reagent, and

dimethylthiourea (final concentration of 75 mM; Sigma-Aldrich) was used as a ROS-

scavenging reagent

Electrophysiology

PRCs were assessed in a population of *C. reinhardtii* cells by the method

of Sineshchekov et al. (1992) (O. A. Sineshchekov et al., 1992, 1994). In brief, 1 ml of

cell suspension in a measuring solution (0.5 mM Hepes, pH 7.3, 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$) was put

in a cuvette ($10 \times 10 \times 15$ mm), with two electrodes on each side of its rectangular bottom.

A 500 nm beam of light was generated with an LED source (NSPE510S, Nichia

Chemical) and applied from one side of the electrode. The current was measured with a

patch-clamp amplifier (Axoclamp 200B, Axon).

Measurement of ciliary beating frequency

Ciliary beating frequency (CBF) was measured based on the method described in (R

Kamiya, 2000) with modifications (Wakabayashi & King, 2006). The median frequency

was obtained from the power spectra of fast Fourier-transformed cell body vibration

signals in microscopy images averaged for ∼20 s.

Measurement of bodily rotation cycle

Cells were observed under a dark-field microscope with an oil-immersion condenser

(BX-53, Olympus) and recorded to video with a high-speed camera (HAS-L2M,

DITECT) at 150 fps. The bodily rotation cycle was defined as the time it takes for the

eyespot (observed as a bright spot) to return to the same position relative to the cell's

swimming trajectory, and was measured by counting the frames for one cycle.

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Competing interests

The authors declare that no competing interests exist.

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740 **Table 1. Ciliary beating frequencies and bodily rotation cycles of strains used**

	PP	NP	*ida4*	*oda1*
Ciliary Beating Frequency (Hz) (Mean ± SEM, n=3 measurements)	55.0 ± 0.6	55.5 ± 1.0	51.6 ± 2.6	24.3 ± 0.6
Bodily rotation cycle (Hz) (Mean ± SD, n=10 cells)	2.11 ± 0.27	1.89 ± 0.27	1.25 ± 0.22	0.72 ± 0.09

741 **Table 2. Swimming parameters of PP in a solution containing Ficoll400**

	PP in 4.5% Ficoll	PP in 9.0% Ficoll
Ciliary Beating Frequency (Hz) (Mean ± SEM, n=3 measurements)	38.2 ± 0.21	26.8 ± 1.35
Bodily rotation cycle (Hz) (Mean ± SD, n=10 cells)	2.13 ± 0.77	0.91 ± 0.24
Swimming velocity (μm/s) (Mean ± SD, n=20 cells)	105.9 ± 31.9	50.7 ± 12.6

Figure legends

Fig. 1

Schematic images of a *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* cell and its phototaxis.

(A) Schematic image of *C. reinhardtii* cell and the eyespot. The cilium closest to the

eyespot is called *cis*-cilium, whereas the one farthest from the eyespot is called *trans*-

cilium. The eyespot is composed of the carotenoid-rich granule layers that function as a

light reflector, and channelrhodopsin molecules aligned in the plasma membrane.

Channelrhodopsin functions as a light-gated cation channel. The light signal coming

from the outside of the cell is reflected by the carotenoid granule layers and amplified,

whereas that coming through the cell is blocked. (B) The current model to explain

positive phototaxis. After photoreception at the eyespot (yellow arrow), $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in the

cilia increases and the *trans*-cilium (t) becomes dominant. After a half rotation of the

cell around its central axis, the light signal to the eyespot is blocked, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in the cilia

decreases, and the *cis*-cilium (c) becomes dominant. (C) Hypothetical models for

negative phototaxis. In the "Dominant arm model", Ca^{2+}-sensitivities of two cilia are

assumed to be reversed from the positively phototactic cell shown in (B); the *cis*-cilium

becomes dominant after photoreception. In the "Off-response model", after

photoreception, the *trans*-cilium becomes dominant when the eyespot faces opposite to

the light source.

Fig. 2

Eyespot position relative to the cell trajectory during phototaxis.

(A) Phototactic turnings of PP and NP cells after treatment with t-BOOH or DMTU.

Images of a swimming cell, taken at 150 fps, are superimposed every 0.13 sec. First,

Light 1 (weak green light from the left) was illuminated to induce positive (top;

swimming to the left) or negative (bottom; swimming to the right) phototaxis. After

Light 2 (strong green light from the top) was turned on, the cell changed its swimming

direction. The timing of the onset of Light 2 was at the white arrows/arrowhead. The

eyespot facing Light 2 is shown with green arrowheads, whereas that facing opposite to

Light 2 is shown with magenta arrowheads. The former case is classified as "the light

side") and the latter "the dark side" in **(B).** Yellow arrows show the swimming

directions. (The cells whose trajectories intersect with the superimposed cells were

removed from the image in the process creating the superimpose. See SI Movies S1-4

for the raw data.) **(B)** The proportion of the dominant cilium and the side where the

onset of the ciliary dominance occurred. PP cells showing positive phototaxis (control

and +*t*-BOOH) or negative phototaxis (+DMTU) and NP cells showing negative

phototaxis (control and +DMTU) or positive phototaxis (+*t*-BOOH) were observed

(n=8~28 per condition).

Fig. 3

Mathematical model for *C. reinhardtii* phototaxis.

(A) Definitions of the body axes of a *C. reinhardtii* cell. The vectors **a**, **b** and **c** are unit

vectors that are fixed to the body of the cell. **a**, **b** and **c** are mutually orthogonal to each

other, and **b** and **c** are within the ciliary beat plane. **b** is close to the side of *cis*-cilium.

With them, the direction of eyespot is expressed as $\mathbf{e}_{eyespot} = (\mathbf{b}+\mathbf{c})/\sqrt{2}$. The directions

of **a**, **b** and **c** evolve with time according to Eq. 1. **(B)** Definitions of the Euler angles

that specify the directions of **a**, **b**, **c** for the x, y, z coordinate system that is fixed in

space. θ_1 is the angle between the y-axis and the vector $\mathbf{N}$, where $\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{z}\times\mathbf{c}/|\mathbf{z}\times\mathbf{c}|$.

θ_2 and θ_3 are angles between the z-axis and $\mathbf{c}$ and between $\mathbf{N}$ and $\mathbf{b}$,

respectively. When $\theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3 = 0$, **a**, **b**, **c** axes coincide with x, y, z axes,

respectively. **(C), (D)** Examples of initial trajectories of the cell obeying Eq. 1

($0 \leq t \leq 10$), which indicate positive phototaxis (τ_0=0.08 sec, **(C)**) and negative

phototaxis (τ_0=0.32 sec. **(D)**). The parameters are $\gamma_0 = 1$ (the *trans*-cilium becomes

dominant after photoreception at the eyespot), $I_0 = 0.5$, $v_0 = 128$ [μm/s], [1/s],

$\omega_c = -11.8$ [1/s] and $\omega_a = 5.8$ [1/s]. The initial conditions are $\mathbf{r}(0) = (0,0,0)$,

$\theta_1(0) = 0$, $\theta_2(0) = -\pi/2$ and $\theta_3(0) = 0$. Thick orange arrows show the direction of the

light illumination, and thin black arrows show the swimming direction of the cell.

Fig. 4

Sign-switching of phototaxis in the mathematical model.

The mean velocity $\bar{v}_z$ of the steady-state of the cell after a long-time simulation as a

function of the delay time τ_0 for various values of γ_0 and I_0. For each set of system

parameters, only one steady state of Eq. 1 realizes, which does not depend on the initial

conditions of θ_1, θ_2, θ_3, $\mathbf{r}$. $\bar{v}_z$ changes with τ_0; especially, the sign of $\bar{v}_z$ (=the

sign of phototaxis) changes with γ_0 and τ_0. Blue dots are the states where solution S5

realizes, while red dots are the states where solution S6 realizes. Black dots with bars

are the states where solutions other than Eqs. S5 or S6 are achieved, in which $v_z(t)$

oscillates in time. The bars indicate the standard deviation of v_z of the steady-state.

The parameter values used are $v_0 = 128$ [μm/s], [1/s], $\omega_c = -11.8$ [1/s] and $\omega_a =$

5.8 [1/s]. The initial conditions are: $\mathbf{r}(0) = (0,0,0)$, $\theta_i(0) = \delta_i$ with random numbers

$\delta_i \in [0, 2\pi]$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$, and $dI(t)/dt = 0$ for $0 \le t \le \tau_0$. For the discretization of

Eq. S1, the Euler method was used ($\Delta t = 1/10000$). The model suggests that, when γ_0

=1 (i.e. the *trans*-cilium is dominant), the cell shows positive phototaxis (i.e. γ_0 is

positive) when the dominant cilium beats stronger than the *cis*-cilium with the delay

(τ_0) 60~280 ms. Similarly, when γ_0=-1 (i.e. the *cis*-cilium is dominant), the cell shows

negative phototaxis under the same conditions.

Fig. 5

Phototaxis assay of the slow-swimming cells.

(A) PP, NP, *oda1*, and *ida4* cell suspensions put in Petri dishes with or without ROS-

modulating reagents (0.2 mM *t*-BOOH or 75 mM DMTU) were illuminated by green

LED (λ=525 nm, 30 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}) from the right (green arrows) for 5 min from

the right. Cells showing positive phototaxis are accumulated in the right halves of the

dishes (orange boxes with "P") and those showing negative phototaxis are accumulated

in the left halves of the dishes (blue boxes with "N"). **(B)** Polar histograms depicting the

percentage of cells moving in a particular direction relative to light illuminated from the

right (green arrows), with or without treatment with ROS-modulating reagents (12 bins

of 30°; n = 30 cells per condition).

Fig. 6

Phototaxis assay of PP cells in viscous media.

(A) PP cells in viscous media (containing 4.5% or 9.0% Ficoll400) after treatment with

75 mM DMTU were illuminated by green LED (λ=525 nm, 30 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1})

from the right (green arrows) for 5 min from the right. **(B)** Polar histograms depicting

the percentage of cells moving in a particular direction relative to light illuminated from

the right (green arrows) (12 bins of 30°; n = 30 cells per condition).

Fig. 7

Sign-switching of phototaxis in a slow-swimming mutant in the mathematical

model.

The plots of the mean velocity $\bar{v}_z$ of the steady-state of the mathematical model (Eqs.

S3 and S4 in SI Appendix A) as a function of the delay time τ_0 for two cells: (A) *ida4*

(rotation frequency 1.25 Hz) and (B) *oda1* (rotation frequency 0.72 Hz), which rotation

rates are much slower than that of PP cell (2 Hz). The parameter values used here are

(A) $v_0 = 69$ [μm/s], $\omega_c = -6.3$ [1/s] and $\omega_a = 4.6$ [1/s], (B) $v_0 = 57$ [μm/s],

$\omega_c = -4.0$ [1/s] and $\omega_a = 2.1$ [1/s], which are obtained from experimental data and

Eq. (3). The meanings of blue, red, and black dots and bars in this figure are the same as

those in Fig. 4.

Fig. 8

Schematic model of sign-reversal in phototaxis suggested by this study.

To make a phototactic turning, *cis*-dominant strain beats the *cis*-cilium (C) stronger than

the *trans*-cilium (T), whereas *trans*-dominant strain beats the *trans*-cilium stronger than

the *cis*-cilium. The *trans*-dominant strain, such as PP in this study, shows positive

phototaxis when the strong beating occurs upon light-on response (i.e. when the eyespot

faces the light side) and negative phototaxis when it occurs upon light-off response (i.e.

when the eyespot faces the dark side). The *cis*-dominant strain, such as NP in this study,

shows negative phototaxis when the strong beating occurs upon light-on response and

positive phototaxis when it occurs light-off response.

Fig. 1 **Schematic images of a *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* cell and its phototaxis.**

Fig. 2 **Eyespot position relative to the cell trajectory during phototaxis.**

Fig. 3 **Mathematical model for *C. reinhardtii* phototaxis.**

Fig. 4 **Sign-switching of phototaxis in the mathematical model.**

Fig. 5 **Phototaxis assay of the slow-swimming mutants.**

Fig. 6 **Phototaxis assay of PP in viscous media.**

Fig. 7 **Sign-switching of phototaxis in a slow-swimming mutant in the mathematical model.**

Fig. 8 **Schematic model of sign-reversal in phototaxis suggested by this study.**