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Electrical control of the transduction channels' gating force

in sensory hair cells.

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ABSTRACT

Hair cells, the sensory receptors of the inner ear, rely on mechanosensitive ion channels to

transduce mechanical vibrations of their hair bundle into electrical signals. The mechanical

correlate of channel gating—the gating force—is a fundamental determinant of hair-cell

mechanosensitivity to displacements of the hair bundle. We report here the effects of varying

the electrical potential across the epithelium that houses the hair cells on the gating force. We

found that a negative potential in the endolymph that bathed the hair bundles increased the

gating force by up to twofold, while positive endolymphatic potentials had the opposite effect.

In contrast, the endolymphatic potential only weakly affected hair-bundle stiffness. Together,

our results indicate that the gating force varied because the gating swing varied, from values

that are comparable to the pore size of the transduction channels to values nearly tenfold as

large. When the endolymphatic potential reached a negative threshold value of about -50 mV,

our work further revealed a reversible, but hysteretic, transition between states of strong and

weak gating force, for which the hair bundles oscillated spontaneously or remained quiescent,

respectively. Finally, we provide evidence that these effects resulted from a modulation of the

Ca^{2+} influx through the transduction channels and that a minimal influx is necessary to produce

strong gating forces. We propose that force sensitivity of the transduction channel protein

complex can be adjusted by the hair cell depending on physiological control parameters.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

The inner ear's hair cells rely on mechanosensitive ion channels to convert vibrations of their hair bundles into electrical signals. We show that varying the electrical potential across the sensory hair-cell epithelium continuously modulates a fundamental determinant of mechanosensitivity called the gating force. Remarkably, a hair cell can also switch between states of weak and strong gating force at negative potentials, so that strong gating forces associated to high mechanosensitivity are observed only when the calcium influx through the channels is large enough, but not too large. Gating-force control is expected to underly the ear's ability to achieve exquisite mechanosensitivity to minute sound stimuli and be relevant to biological systems relying on direct mechanical gating of ion channels.

INTRODUCTION

In the inner ear, mechanoreception by the sensory hair cells starts with the deflection of their hair bundle—a cohesive tuft of cylindrical protrusions called stereocilia that are arranged in a staircase pattern (1–3). A deflection towards the taller row of stereocilia increases mechanical tension in the oblique tip links that interconnect the tip of each stereocilium to the flank of a taller neighbor, opening mechanosensitive ion channels, and evoking an influx of cations into the hair cell, mostly of K^+ ions but also of Ca^{2+} ions.

Our understanding of hair-cell mechanosensitivity is informed by the gating-spring model of mechanoelectrical transduction (4, 5). Within this framework, the transduction channels are gated directly by force, which is transmitted to the channels via elastic elements—the gating springs—that operate in series with the tip links. The product of the gating-spring stiffness and the gating swing defines the gating force, a fundamental determinant of hair-cell mechanosensitivity: its magnitude sets the maximal slope of the sigmoidal relation between the transduction current and the deflection of the hair bundle (SI Appendix Fig. S1A-B). The greater the gating force, the larger the transduction current evoked by a small stimulus, making the hair cell more sensitive to a given deflection of its hair bundle.

The gating-spring model imposes a reciprocal relationship between tip-link tension and channel gating. If tensioning the tip links evokes channel opening, then channel opening must reduce tip-link tension by an amount given precisely by the mechanical correlate of channel gating—the gating force. Feedback between tip-link tension and channel gating produces gating compliance, the effective softening of the hair bundle upon channel gating (6, 7). For large positive or negative bundle displacements, at which the transduction channels are respectively nearly all open or closed, the force-displacement relation is linear. At intermediate displacements that elicit gating of the transduction channels, however, the slope of the force-displacement relation is reduced: the hair bundle is effectively softer. Gating compliance is associated with a shift between the two linear limbs of the force-displacement relation; this shift provides an estimate of the combined gating force, denoted F_G in the following, produced by the ensemble of transduction channels that operate in parallel within the hair bundle (SI Appendix Fig. S1B). Furthermore, upon an oscillatory movement of the hair bundle, opening and closing of the transduction channels also increase friction on the hair bundle, a phenomenon called gating friction (8). The experimental demonstration of gating compliance and gating friction provides strong support for the gating-spring model.

With hair cells in excised preparations of the mammalian cochlea, gating forces can be so

weak that the force-displacement relation remains linear (9, 10), although there is also evidence

that hair-bundle mechanics can be nonlinear (11–13). In the frog saccule, depending on ex-vivo

conditions, gating forces can lead to a moderate (about 40%) decrease in hair-bundle stiffness

(6) or, remarkably, be strong enough to result in negative stiffness, which can lead to

spontaneous oscillations of the hair bundle and frequency-selective amplification of periodic

stimuli (14–17). The magnitude of the gating force thus appears to be variable. The mechanism

that sets and controls the gating force has remained elusive, despite its importance for

mechanosensitivity of the hair cell.

In this work, we estimate the gating force, as well as the size of the molecular movement

associated to channel gating—the gating swing, from nonlinear-stiffness and friction

measurements at the micron-sized scale of a hair bundle. We report that the electrical potential

across the sensory epithelium that houses the hair cells can serve as a control parameter of the

gating force. Our work further reveals a reversible, but hysteretic, transition between a state of

strong gating force, for which the hair bundles oscillate spontaneously, and a state of weak

gating force, for which hair-bundle mechanics is linear and the hair bundles are quiescent. We

finally provide evidence that these effects are mediated by the influx of Ca^{2+} through the

transduction channels.

RESULTS

We took advantage of an excised preparation of the frog saccule that mimics *ex vivo* the two-

compartment ionic conditions that the sensory epithelium experiences *in vivo*. Under these

conditions, the hair cells routinely displayed spontaneous oscillations of their hair bundles, as

recognized before (18–20). We aimed here at evaluating the effects of a transepithelial potential

on hair-bundle mechanics. To this end, we used a pair of electrodes and a current generator to

impose a transepithelial current, I, within a range of $\pm 10\ \mu A$ (SI Appendix Fig. S2A). Upon

application of a current step, the transepithelial potential, U, reached a steady-state value in

about 600 μs (SI Appendix Fig. S2B). As a rule of thumb, a positive current of $+1\ \mu A$ evoked

a positive potential in the endolymphatic compartment of $+10\ mV$ with respect to the

perilymphatic compartment; accordingly, the transepithelial potential thus varied within a range

of $\pm 100\ mV$. We emphasize for the following that a positive endolymphatic potential is

expected to increase the influx of K^+ and Ca^{2+} ions through the transduction channels, whereas

a negative potential does the opposite. All numerical results are given below as the average and

standard deviations (SD) over an ensemble of n independent measurements.

Strong modulation of the gating force, weak modulation of the hair-bundle stiffness.

To determine the effects of an endolymphatic potential on the mechanical properties of a hair

bundle, we measured the bundle's force-displacement relation in response to a series of step

displacements applied to the base of a stimulus fiber (Fig. 1). Under control conditions, for

which no transepithelial current was applied ($I = 0$), a fit of the relation to Equation 1

(Methods) yielded a set-point deflection $X_0 = -2 \pm 7$ nm, a gating force $F_G = 17 \pm 4$ pN and

a linear stiffness $K = 0.85 \pm 0.2$ pN $\cdot$ nm^{-1} (mean $\pm$ SD; $n = 29$ in 16 frogs). We recall that

the set-point deflection is interpreted as the deflection that leads to a channels' open probability

of ½ (15). For each hair bundle, the procedure was repeated in the presence of a static

transepithelial current ($I \neq 0$).

We start by presenting the effects of a transepithelial current on a force-displacement relation

in four representative examples (Fig. 1); the effects on the corresponding spontaneous hair-

bundle oscillations are shown in SI Appendix (Fig. S3A-D). Applying a positive current, here

$I = +3$ µA, corresponding to a positive endolymphatic potential, $U \simeq +30$ mV, evoked an

increase of the set-point deflection: the transduction channels closed (Fig. 1A). In addition, we

observed a small (-5%) decrease of the linear bundle's stiffness and, remarkably, a large

decrease (-38%) of the gating force. In another cell, a larger current $I = +6$ µA resulted in a

similar change in stiffness (-6%) but evoked a larger decrease of the gating force (-50%;

Fig. 1B). Conversely, applying a negative current of moderate magnitude, here $I = -3$ µA,

corresponding to a negative endolymphatic potential, U $\simeq -30$ mV, elicited a decrease of the

set-point deflection and thus opening of the transduction channels, a small increase ($+10\%$) of

the linear stiffness, and a large increase ($+89\%$) of the gating force (Fig. 1C). Furthermore,

applying a large transepithelial current, here I $= -6$ µA, led to an unexpected finding: the force-

displacement relation became linear (Fig. 1D). This is not because the integrity of the hair cell

was impaired by application of a large transepithelial current, for all the effects were fully

reversible.

Performing an ensemble of $n = 41$ pairs of measurements in 29 hair bundles from 16 frogs

confirmed the effects illustrated by the four representative examples. We found a strong positive

correlation between the change, $\Delta X_0 = X_0(I) - X_0(I = 0)$, of the set-point deflection and the

applied transepithelial current (Fig. 2A). This correlation came as no surprise for the

endolymphatic potential resulting from the transepithelial current should influence the

magnitude of the Ca^{2+} influx through the transduction channels and calcium is known to

promote channel closure (4, 15, 21–23). The change in linear stiffness, $\Delta K = K(I) - K(I =$

$0)$, was negatively correlated to the transepithelial current, but only weakly (Fig. 2B). Instead,

for currents $I > -4\,\mu A$, the change, $\Delta F_G = F_G(I) - F_G(I = 0)$, of the hair-bundle's gating

force displayed a strong negative correlation with the current (Fig. 2C). The relative variation

of the gating force was correspondingly much larger than that of the linear stiffness (Fig. 2D).

A positive transepithelial current evoked a reduction of the gating force by as much as -80%,

whereas the stiffness decreased at most by -10% over the same range of transepithelial

currents. Conversely, the gating force could nearly double in the presence of a negative

transepithelial current, corresponding to a relative increase of $+100\%$, whereas stiffness did

not increase beyond $+25\%$. These correlations between mechanical properties of the hair

bundle and the transepithelial current were associated to systematic changes of the frequency,

amplitude and waveform of spontaneous hair-bundle oscillations (SI Appendix Fig. S3E-G).

For all the seven hair bundles for which the transepithelial current was more negative than

$-5\,\mu A$, corresponding to an endolymphatic potential $U \leq -50\,mV$, the gating force did not

follow the trend observed at more positive potentials. Instead of increasing further or saturating

at more negative potentials, the gating force dropped to values so low that the force-

displacement relation was linear, thus with no detectable signature of gating compliance

(Fig. 1D and Fig. 2C and D). At these endolymphatic potentials, no spontaneous oscillation was

observed; the hair bundles were quiescent (SI Appendix Fig. S3D). Our study thus revealed the

existence of a critical value of the endolymphatic potential, $U = U_C \simeq -50\,mV$, that delimited

two states of the hair bundle: a state of strong gating force for which gating compliance was

large enough to yield spontaneous oscillations of the hair bundle and a state of weak gating

force for which hair-bundle mechanics was linear and the hair bundle was quiescent.

Hysteretic transition between states of strong and weak gating force.

To further explore the transition between states of strong and weak gating force (Fig**.** 1D and

Fig. 2C), we applied ramps of transepithelial current (Fig. 3A) while the hair bundle was

subjected to triangular mechanical stimulation (Fig. 3B). This stimulation protocol allowed to

monitor, continuously for the same hair bundle, how the mechanical properties varied as a

function of the transepithelial current. The ramps were slow enough that the transepithelial

current varied by only $\sim 0.2\,\mu A$ over the time required to measure a force-displacement cycle

(see Methods). Because this variation was too small to elicit a significant variation of the gating
force (Fig. 2D), the mechanical measurements were quasi static. The mechanical stimulus
elicited a force-displacement cycle with clockwise circulation, corresponding to energy
dissipation (8). The cycle displayed a region of lower slope—gating compliance—on the
positive and negative half cycles (Fig. 3C), where the channels opened and closed, respectively.
In addition, the height of the force-displacement cycle was larger within the region of channel
gating. This property was previously shown to result from the contribution of the transduction
channels' gating force to hair-bundle friction, a phenomenon called gating friction, and the
displacement at which the cycle had a maximal height (abscissa of disks in Fig. 3C) was
identified as the set-point deflection, X_0 (8). In the following, the maximal half-height of the
cycle, ϕ_{MAX}, was used as a reporter for the magnitude of the gating force.

As the transepithelial current decreased from zero to negative values, the region of gating
compliance and gating friction in the force-displacement cycle shifted toward more negative
displacements, corresponding to a decrease of the set-point deflection and thus opening of the
transduction channels (Fig. 3C, SI Appendix Movie S1). Following the point of inversion
symmetry in a force-displacement cycle resulted in a nearly linear trajectory of slope $0.4 \pm$
$0.2 \text{ pN} \cdot \text{nm}^{-1}$ ($n = 8$; Fig. 3D). In addition, the height of the force-displacement cycle, and
thus the maximal friction force, ϕ_{MAX}, increased before saturating (Fig. 3E). When the absolute
magnitude of the negative current became large enough, corresponding to $I \leq I_C = -3.7 \pm$
$1 \text{ }\mu\text{A}$ and an endolymphatic potential $U \leq U_C \simeq -37 \pm 10 \text{ mV}$ ($n = 8$), the friction force ϕ_{MAX}
dropped (Fig. 3E-F, SI Appendix Movie S1) until the nonlinearity vanished (Fig. 3C, red).
These observations on single hair cells (solid line in Fig. 3E) mirrored the measured changes of
the gating force upon application of a static transepithelial current in an ensemble of cells
(Fig. 2C). We note that gating friction generally depends on the activation time of the
transduction channels, not just on the gating force (8). Detailed analysis of the force-
displacement cycles suggests that the channel-activation time had increased by about 50%, on
average, when the friction force ϕ_{MAX} reached a saturating value upon application of a negative
transepithelial current (SI Appendix Fig. S4). The observed variation of hair-bundle friction
(Fig. 3E-F) thus resulted from modulation of both the channel-activation time and the gating
force (Fig. 2C).

The polarity of the current ramp was then reversed. As the negative current increased, the
set-point deflection increased and the point of inversion symmetry in the force-displacement

cycle showed a nearly linear trajectory of slope $0.6 \pm 0.2 \, \text{pN} \cdot \text{nm}^{-1}$ ($n = 8$; Fig. 3C and D).

In addition, the signatures of gating compliance and gating friction, associated to nonlinear

force-displacement relations, were retrieved. The nonlinearity, however, reappeared at a

negative current with a smaller absolute value than that necessary to conceal the signatures of

channel-gating forces on the descending ramp. Over an ensemble of $n = 8$ cells, we measured

a shift in the transepithelial current of $2.3 \pm 0.8 \, \mu\text{A}$, corresponding to a 20-mV difference of

endolymphatic potential. Thus, the transition between states of strong and weak gating force

displayed hysteresis (Fig. 3E).

Transition kinetics between the two states.

To characterize the kinetics of the transition between states of strong and weak gating force, we

applied large negative steps of transepithelial current, here $I = -8 \, \mu\text{A}$ (Fig. 4), while

continuously measuring a hair bundle's force-displacement cycle in response to triangular

mechanical stimulation. As expected from the effects of current ramps (Fig. 3), the force-

displacement cycle shifted in the negative direction along the displacement axis and the force-

displacement cycle lost the signatures of gating compliance and gating friction (Fig. 4A, SI

Appendix Movie S2). The time courses of the average hair-bundle position on the cycle, $\bar{X}$, and

of the maximal friction force, ϕ_{MAX}, were quantified by measuring the $10 - 90\%$ decay and

rise times following the onset and offset of the current step, respectively. Over an ensemble of

$n = 4$ hair cells, the characteristic time, $\tau_X^{ON} = 500 \pm 50$ ms, of negative hair-bundle motion

evoked by the current step was fivefold longer than that, $\tau_X^{OFF} = 100 \pm 30$ ms, necessary to

return to the initial position after the current was turned off (Fig. 4B). The friction force, ϕ_{MAX},

showed an opposite behavior: its decay time, $\tau_\phi^{ON} = 180 \pm 40$ ms, after the onset of the current

step was twofold shorter than its rise time, $\tau_\phi^{OFF} = 400 \pm 100$ ms, during recovery (Fig. 4B).

Note that the time required to measure a force-displacement cycle was here of only 20 ms. This

duration was about ten times shorter than $\tau_\phi^{OFF/ON}$ and thus short enough to ensure a quasistatic

assessment of hair-bundle mechanics (Methods).

There was thus a separation of timescales between the changes of $\bar{X}$ and ϕ_{MAX}. At the onset

of the current step, gating compliance vanished before the negative shift had completed:

$\tau_\phi^{ON}/\tau_X^{ON} = 0.37 \pm 0.17$ (Fig. 4B and C). In contrast, after the external transepithelial current

was turned off, the mechanical nonlinearity recovered more slowly than the average position of

the hair bundle: $\tau_\phi^{OFF}/\tau_X^{OFF} = 4.2 \pm 2$ (Fig. 4B and C).

Reducing the endolymphatic Ca²⁺ concentration replicates the effects of a negative endolymphatic potential.

A negative endolymphatic potential may have mediated its effects on the gating force by reducing the magnitude of the Ca^{2+} influx through the transduction channels. To test this hypothesis, we used iontophoresis of a Ca^{2+} chelator to reduce the endolymphatic Ca^{2+} concentration near a hair bundle and thus the Ca^{2+} influx through the channels. In response to descending and ascending ramps of iontophoretic current (Fig. 5A), or equivalently of Ca^{2+} concentration, we again observed an increase in hair-bundle friction followed by a reversible but hysteretic transition between states of strong and weak gating force (Fig. 5B and C, SI Appendix Movie S3). Repeating the experiments over an ensemble of $n = 8$ cells confirmed the robustness of these effects (Fig. 5D) and how they mirrored those observed upon modulation of the endolymphatic potential (Fig. 3). In addition, the force-displacement relation of a hair bundle could show strong gating compliance under control conditions but reversibly become linear upon step application of a Ca^{2+} chelator, with no noticeable change in the linear stiffness of the hair bundle (Fig. 5E). The same behavior was observed in $n = 7$ hair cells. Thus, enough calcium in endolymph was required for the hair bundle to evince strong gating forces.

DISCUSSION

Our findings indicate that the endolymphatic potential can serve as a control parameter of the gating force and thus of mechanosensitivity of the hair cell to deflections of its hair bundle. This bioelectric effect is large: the gating force could nearly double upon application of negative potentials and, conversely, be reduced by up to 80% of the control value at positive potentials (Fig. 2F). Furthermore, we report here an unexpected and remarkable transition between a state of strong gating forces, for which a hair bundle displayed a prominent nonlinear region of gating compliance in its force-displacement relation and produced spontaneous oscillations, and a state of weak gating force associated to linear mechanics and quiescence. This transition happened over a timescale of a few hundred milliseconds (Fig. 4) when the endolymphatic potential became more negative than a critical value, $U = U_C \simeq -50$ mV, corresponding to an applied transepithelial current $I = I_C \simeq -5$ µA (Figs. 1D, 2C, 3C, and 3E). Reducing the Ca^{2+} concentration near a hair bundle resulted in similar effects on gating compliance and gating friction (Fig. 5), indicating that negative endolymphatic potentials modulated the gating force by reducing the Ca^{2+} influx through the transduction channels.

Within the framework of the gating-spring model (SI Appendix Fig. S1A), the gating force

for the whole hair bundle, $F_G = K_{GS}D$, is the product of the combined stiffness of the gating

springs, K_{GS}, and of the gating swing, D, of a transduction channel. Note that these parameters

are here expressed along the horizontal axis of mechanical stimulation. A major finding of our

work is that the relative effect of an endolymphatic potential on the gating force was much

larger than that on the hair-bundle stiffness (Fig. 2D): the gating force could vary by as much

as about $\pm 100\%$, whereas stiffness in the same hair bundles varied only from -10% to $+25\%$.

Because the gating springs are expected to contribute a significant fraction of the total hair-

bundle stiffness (24), K, we reasoned that the change in gating force resulted mainly from a

change in the magnitude of the gating swing. We could confirm this inference by measuring

the hair-bundle stiffness, $K_{SP} = 0.17 \pm 0.03 \text{ pN} \cdot \text{nm}^{-1}$ $(n = 14) \simeq 0.2\,K$, after disruption of

the tip links. By subtracting the average value of K_{SP} to individual measurements of K, we

could then estimate, for each hair bundle, the gating-spring stiffness $K_{GS} = K - K_{SP}$, and in

turn the gating swing D. After projection along the oblique axis of the tip links using the

projection factor $\gamma = 0.14$ (25), we found a gating swing $d = \gamma D = 3.7 \pm 1.4 \text{ nm}$ $(n = 29)$

under control conditions (SI Appendix Fig. S5A). Replicating the behavior of the gating force,

the gating-swing change displayed a strong negative correlation with the endolymphatic

potential (Pearson correlation $r = -0.86$; p-value $= 1 \cdot 10^{-10}$). The gating swing d could

reach a value of up to about 8 nm in the presence of a negative endolymphatic potential or,

conversely, be as small as 2 nm upon application of a potential of opposite polarity (SI

Appendix Fig. S5B).

As recognized earlier (16), the gating swing can be nearly one order of magnitude larger

than the expected diameter of the transduction channels' pore, which has been estimated at

about 1.2 nm (2). Hair cells thus appear to have implemented a mechanism to magnify the

conformational change associated to opening and closing of the transduction channel's pore, a

feature also relevant to other mechanosensitive channels (26). In hair cells, the ion channels

that mediate mechanoelectrical transduction are part of a molecular complex that includes

TMC1—the pore-forming subunit (27), TMIE, CIB2, LHFPL5 and the lower end of the tip

link, PCDH15 (28, 29). In addition, the complex may comprise two copies of each protein,

forming a dimeric assembly with an axis of twofold symmetry (30, 31), thus corresponding to

at least 10 proteins. Whether interactions between the multiple components of the transduction

apparatus can lead to a collective rearrangement upon opening of the channel's pore, effectively

producing a large gating swing, remains unclear. Alternatively, channel gating has been proposed to elicit a membrane-mediated interaction between two channel complexes, each attached to one strand of the PCDH15 dimer, leading to large movement within the membrane that magnifies the apparent gating swing (32).

Whatever the molecular substrate for the gating swing, our work indicates that the transepithelial potential and the extracellular calcium concentration can modulate the magnitude of the movement associated to channel gating (SI Appendix Fig. S5). In addition, under conditions for which the calcium influx through the channels becomes too low, we found that the gating swing drops to undetectable levels. This observation suggests that the channel-protein complex must be primed by enough intracellular calcium to elicit a large swing, perhaps via Ca^{2+} sensing by CIB2—the calcium- and integrin-binding protein (33). Hysteresis upon a continuous back-and-forth variation of the endolymphatic potential (Fig. 3) or of the extracellular concentration (Fig. 5) provides further support for the bistability of the channel-protein complex.

Like other epithelia, the sensory epithelia that house the hair cells in the vertebrate inner ear are polar tissues that experience a transepithelial potential under natural conditions. This potential generally lies within a range $1 - 10$ mV, except in the mammalian cochlea where the endolymphatic potential can reach $+100$ mV (34). In our experiments on frog saccular hair cells, we applied endolymphatic potentials within a range of ± 100 mV. While this range departs from natural conditions, varying the endolymphatic potential afforded a means to reversibly and robustly control the electric field in the membrane near the transduction channels and in turn the electromotive force that controls the magnitude of transduction currents, including the Ca^{2+} influx into the hair cell.

Calcium is known to affect the operating point of the transducer and the kinetics of the active adaptation process that drives active hair-bundle motility (4, 15, 18, 21–23, 35). Moreover, there is also some evidence that the extracellular calcium concentration can modulate the stiffness of the hair bundle (23, 24, 36). In our experiments, negative endolymphatic potentials produced effects on spontaneous hair-bundle oscillations (SI Appendix Fig. S3) that were qualitatively similar as those reported earlier in response to depolarization of the hair cell (37) or to a decrease of the Ca^{2+} concentration in endolymph (18). Conversely, positive endolymphatic potentials produced similar effects as hyperpolarization of the hair cell or increasing the endolymphatic Ca^{2+} concentration. Previous models had postulated stiffer gating

springs at lower Ca^{2+} (18, 38), in apparent contradiction with recent in-vitro measurements of PCDH15 elasticity (39). Our observations suggest instead that the effect of Ca^{2+} on gating-spring stiffness was small compared to that on the gating swing, at least under our experimental conditions.

In summary, our work demonstrates that the mechanical correlate of channel gating—the gating force—can be modulated continuously and reversibly in the same hair cell upon variation of the endolymphatic potential or calcium concentration. In addition, our observations reveal that the transduction channels can operate in one of two functional states: a low-sensitivity state, characterized by gating swings of about one nanometer or less and linear hair-bundle mechanics, and a high-sensitivity state, where gating swings can be up to ten times larger, corresponding to the emergence of active hair-bundle movements. Altogether, our findings indicate that force sensitivity of the transduction channel protein complex—the fundamental determinant of hair-cell mechanosensitivity—can be adjusted by the hair cell upon changes of physiological control parameters.

METHODS

Experimental preparation.

Details of the experimental preparation have been published elsewhere (18, 23). Briefly, an excised preparation of the frog's saccule (Rivan 92 (40)) was glued with tissue-compatible surgical glue (Histoacryl, B. Braun) over a ~1 mm hole in a plastic disk (SI Appendix, Fig. S2A). The preparation was then secured in a two-compartment chamber, which exposed the apical and basal aspects of the sensory tissue to fluids with different ionic compositions to mimic physiological conditions. The basal bodies of the hair cells were bathed in artificial perilymph, a standard saline solution containing (in mM): 110 NaCl, 2 KCl, 1.5 CaCl$_2$, 3 D-glucose and 5 Hepes. Hair bundles instead projected into artificial endolymph with (in mM): 2 NaCl, 118 KCl, 0.25 CaCl$_2$, 3 D-glucose, and 5 Hepes. Each solution had a pH of ~ 7.3 and an osmotic strength of ~ 225 mmol $\cdot$ kg^{-1} . To disconnect the hair bundles from the overlying otolithic membrane, the apical surface of the preparation was exposed for 20 min to endolymph supplemented with 67 µg $\cdot$ mL^{-1} of the protease subtilisin (type XXIV, Sigma). The otolithic membrane was then peeled off to obtain access to individual hair bundles. Experiments were performed at a temperature of 20°C.

Microscopic apparatus and mechanical stimulation.

The preparation was viewed through a $\times 60$ water-immersion objective of an upright microscope (BX51WI, Olympus). The mechanical properties of single hair bundles were characterized using published methods (8, 23). In short, the tip of a stimulus fiber was affixed to the kinociliary bulb of an individual hair bundle and imaged at a magnification of $\times 944$ onto a displacement monitor comprising a dual photodiode. Stimulus fibers were fabricated from borosilicate capillaries (TW120-3, World Precision Instrument) and coated with a thin layer of gold-palladium to enhance contrast (Hummer 6.1, Anatech ltd.). The fiber was secured by its base to a stack-type piezoelectric actuator (PA-8/14, Piezosystem Jena) driven by a custom-made power supply (Elbatech). Its stiffness, k_F, was estimated from the analysis of thermal fluctuations at the fiber's tip.

In a first stimulation protocol, a series of step displacements, Δ, was applied to the fiber's base. The standard protocol consisted in the application of 7 to 9 successive pairs of step displacements in opposite directions with a magnitude growing with a constant increment, within the range $20 - 40$ nm. The force, $F = k_F (\Delta - X)$, and the bundle's displacement, X,

384   were estimated $5 - 9$ ms after the stimulus onset. This time was long enough for the open

385   probability of the transduction channels to have reached a new steady state and for the frictional

386   contribution to the applied force to have vanished, but short enough to limit the effect of

387   adaptation. The resulting force-displacement relation, $F(X)$, was fitted by the equation (5, 15):

$$F = KX - F_G/[1 + \exp(-(X - X_0)/\delta)] + F_\emptyset, \qquad (1)$$

from which we estimated the bundle's linear stiffness, K, the gating force, F_G, for the whole

hair bundle, and the set-point deflection, X_0. The parameter $F_\emptyset$ ensured that $F = 0$ at $X = 0$.

Because we did not use displacement-clamp feedback to stabilize positions of negative stiffness

(16), the characteristic displacement, δ, could not be exploited. In this protocol, both

photodiode and command signals were acquired and generated at a sampling rate of 2.5 kHz

and the half-power frequency of the lowpass filter was fixed at 1 kHz. A force-displacement

relationship was obtained by averaging 7 to 15 repetitions of the same stimulation protocol,

which collectively took 10 to 20 seconds.

In a second stimulation protocol, we applied a symmetric triangular waveform of motion to

the fiber's base, at a frequency of either 40 Hz or 100 Hz and with a peak-to-peak amplitude

within the range $600 - 1000$ nm. The force applied to the hair bundle was estimated using a

detailed description of the fiber's vibrational modes (8). This protocol resulted in force-

displacement cycles with counterclockwise circulation. The half-height at any position, X, in

the cycle provides an estimate of the average friction force $\phi(X) = [F^+(X) - F^-(X)]/2$

impeding the hair bundle motion at this position, where $F^\pm(X)$ represents the force in the

positive and negative half cycle of stimulation, respectively. The friction force displayed a

maximum, $\phi_{\mathrm{MAX}} = \phi(X_0)$, at a displacement that was identified earlier as the set-point

deflection X_0 in Equation 1 (8). The force-displacement cycle also displayed a point of

inversion symmetry of coordinates $(X_0, F_0 = [F^+(X_0) + F^-(X_0)]/2)$. The shift, ΔX, between

the positions where the hair-bundle speed reached a maximal value, $|dX/dt| = V_{MAX}$, in the

positive and negative half cycle of stimulation provided an estimate of the activation time of

the transduction channels, $\tau = \Delta X/(2V_{MAX})$ (8). In this protocol, the force-displacement cycle

was averaged over ten periods of the triangular stimulus at 40 Hz or, when a fast assessment of

hair-bundle mechanics became necessary (as for the data shown in Fig. 4), over only two

periods of a 100-Hz stimulus. Both photodiode and command signals were acquired and

generated at sampling rate of 25 kHz. The half-power frequency of the filter was fixed at

12.5 kHz for the photodiode signals and 0.5 kHz for the command signals.

Control of the transepithelial current and potential.

Using a current source (Linear Stimulator Isolator A395, World Precision Instruments)

connected to a pair of silver chloride electrodes (SI Appendix Fig. S2A), we applied steps of

transepithelial current with a magnitude that was varied within a range of $\pm 10\ \mu A$. In some

preparations, we measured the transepithelial potential, $U(t)$, evoked by a step of transepithelial

current, $I_{STEP} = 1\ \mu A$ (Fig. S2B), using an additional pair of electrodes connected to the

headstage of a differential amplifier (voltage gain $\times 50$; Model 3000, Systems Inc). The time

course of the transepithelial potential was well described by an exponential relation $U(t) =$

$U_{MAX} \exp(-t/\tau)$, with a characteristic timescale $\tau = 230 \pm 50\ \mu s$ (mean $\pm$ SD, $n =$13). Over

an ensemble of 13 saccules, we found a transepithelial resistance $R = U_{MAX}/I_{STEP} = 10 \pm$

$2\ k\Omega$ and capacitance $C = 23 \pm 4\ nF$. Thus, over the range of transepithelial currents that we

explored, the potential into the artificial endolymph that bathed the hair bundles—the

endolymphatic potential— varied within a range of ± 100 mV with respect to the potential in

the perilymphatic compartment.

In other experiments, we applied successive ramps of descending and ascending

transepithelial currents at an absolute rate within the range of $0.5 - 0.9\ \mu A \cdot s^{-1}$. These rates

were low enough to ensure that the variation of the transepithelial current remained small during

the time required for probing hair-bundle mechanics, allowing these mechanical measurements

to remain quasistatic. The minimal current was maintained for $1 - 2.5$ s before the ascending

ramp started.

Iontophoresis of a calcium chelator.

We used iontophoresis of a calcium chelator to decrease the extracellular calcium concentration

in the vicinity of individual hair bundles (9, 23). Coarse microelectrodes were fabricated from

borosilicate capillaries (TW120F-3, World Precision Instrument) with a pipette puller (P97,

Sutter Instrument); their resistance ranged from 0.8 to 1.5 MΩ when filled with 3-M KCl and

immersed in the same solution. The electrode's tip was positioned at $\sim 3\ \mu m$ from the hair

bundle.

In a first series of experiments, the electrodes were filled with 400-μM pentasodium

triphosphate. Triphosphate allowed to decrease the calcium concentration while preserving the

integrity of the tip links (23). A holding current of $+10$ nA was continuously applied to

counteract the diffusive release of the calcium chelator from the electrode, to which we added

either a step or a succession of descending and ascending ramps of iontophoretic current. The

steps had a magnitude of varying between -80 nA and -60 nA, while the ramps reached a

minimal value between -90 nA and -50 nA. The current varied at the same rate on the

descending and ascending ramps, within a range $5 - 8$ nA $\cdot$ s^{-1}, and the minimal current was

maintained for $1 - 2$ s before the ascending ramp started.

In a second series of experiments, we aimed at disrupting the tip links to evaluate their

contribution to hair-bundle stiffness. In this case, the electrode was filled with EDTA at a

concentration of 100 mM. We applied current steps of -100 nA on top of a resting current of

$+10$ nA. In three cells, reducing the amplitude of the step to about -35 nA allowed to maintain

the integrity of the tip links, adding data to those obtained with iontophoresis of triphosphate to

evaluate the effects of reducing the calcium concentration on a force-displacement relation.

Signal generation and acquisition.

All signals were generated and acquired under the control of a computer running a user interface

programmed with the LabVIEW software (version 2011, National Instruments). Command

signals were produced by a 16-bit interface card (PCI-6733, National Instruments). A second

16-bit interface card (PCI-6250, National Instruments) conducted signal acquisition. Sampling

rates for signal generation and acquisition varied within the range $2.5 - 25$ kHz. All signals

were conditioned with an eight-pole Bessel antialiasing filter (Model 3384, Krohn-Hite

Corporation) at a lowpass cut-off frequency set at half the sampling frequency unless otherwise

indicated.

Analysis of spontaneous hair-bundle oscillations

Details of the analysis of the spontaneous oscillations have been published elsewhere (20).

Briefly, the displacement, $X(t)$, of an oscillating hair bundle was monitored over a duration of

$10 - 30$ s. The relation between its power spectrum, $C(f)$, and frequency, f, was first

smoothed by a moving average with a frequency window of 1 Hz and then fitted by the sum of

two Lorentzians

$$\tilde{C}(f) = \frac{A}{(f_0/2Q)^2 + (f - f_0)^2} + \frac{A}{(f_0/2Q)^2 + (f + f_0)^2}. \qquad (2)$$

The fit provided values for the quality factor Q, the characteristic frequency f_0, and parameter

A, which is related to the root-mean-square magnitude $X_{RMS} = \langle X(t) - \langle X(t) \rangle^2 \rangle =$

$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \tilde{C}(f)df = \sqrt{4\pi AQ/f_0}$ of the movement. In cases where it was bimodal, the probability

density of hair bundle positions was fitted by the sum of two Gaussian functions. The fractional

area under the Gaussian that was centered at a positive position with respect to the mean bundle

position provided a functional estimate of the open probability P_O^{SS} of transduction channels at

steady state.

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MAIN-FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1 : Representative examples of mechanical changes evoked by a transepithelial
current.   (A-D) Force-displacement relations, $F(X)$, for four different hair bundles under
control conditions ($I = 0$ μA; black) and in the presence of a transepithelial current (magenta)
of amplitude $I = +3$ μA (A), $I = +6$ μA (B), $I = -3$ μA (C) and $I = -6$ μA (D). Each relation
was fitted by Equation 1 (solid lines; parameter values in SI Appendix Table S1). Insets: the
fitted curves are replotted with respect to the origin $(X_0, F(X_0))$, where X_0 is the set-point
deflection. Under each condition, the hair bundle's gating force, F_G, was given by the vertical
distance between the two symbols in the inset ($I = 0$: triangles; $I \neq 0$: disks). In (A), (B) and
(D), the open black symbols correspond to a measurement after restoring control conditions to
assess reversibility; in (C), the experiment was repeated 4 times.

Fig. 2 : Changes in set-point deflection, stiffness and gating force upon application of a
transepithelial current.   (A) The change, ΔX_0, of the set-point deflection showed a strong
positive correlation to the transepithelial current, I (Pearson correlation r = 0.87; p-value: $4 \cdot$
10^{-11}; $n = 34$).   (B) The change, ΔK, of the linear stiffness was negatively correlated to the
current, but only weakly (Pearson correlation r = -0.57 ; p-value: 10^{-4}; $n = 41$).   (C) For
I > -4 µA, the change, ΔF_G, of the bundle's gating force showed a strong negative correlation
to the current (Pearson correlation r = -0.86 ; p-value: $8 \cdot 10^{-11}$; $n = 34$). (D) Relative
change of the hair-bundle's gating force, $\Delta F_G / F_G(0)$ (solid disks) and linear stiffness, $\Delta K / K(0)$
(open disks) as a function of the transepithelial current, I. Under control conditions ($I = 0$), the
gating force was $F_G = 17 \pm 4$ pN (mean $\pm$ SD, $n = 29$). In (C) and (D), the red and blue
dashed lines mark, respectively, a reduction and an increase of the gating force by 100% with
respect to the mean value under control conditions. For $I < -5$ µA, all the force displacement
relations were linear: the gating force had dropped to undetectable levels and the set-point
deflection could no longer be measured from the mechanics.
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Fig. 3 : **Transition between states of strong and weak gating force.** (A) A descending ramp of a negative transepithelial current was followed by an ascending ramp of current at the same absolute rate of $0.9 \, \mu A \cdot s^{-1}$. The colored square symbols indicate the time points of the analysis shown in (C). (B) The hair bundle was continuously moved back and forth (bottom) by imposing a periodic triangular movement to the stimulus fiber's base, here with a peak-to-peak amplitude of 600 nm and at a frequency of 40 Hz (top). The movements were averaged over 10 stimulus cycles. (C) Force-displacement cycles for the values of the transepithelial current and at times indicated at the top of each sub-panel (see colored square symbols in (A)). (D) Trajectory of the point of inversion symmetry (X_0, F_0) in a force-displacement cycle, marked by disks in (C). Linear fits to these trajectories: $F_0 = 0.41 \cdot X_0 + 9$ ($R^2 = 0.92$) (magenta) and $F_0 = 0.78 \cdot X_0 + 24$ ($R^2 = 0.98$) (orange), respectively. (E) Maximal friction force, ϕ_{MAX}, as a function of the transepithelial current, I. (F) For all the 8 different hair bundles that followed the same protocol, the maximal friction force, ϕ_{MAX}, first increased as the

transepithelial current decreased, before dropping to a low value as the hair bundle transitioned

from a state of strong gating force to a state of weak gating force at more negative values of the

current than a threshold $I = I_{DROP} = -3.7 \pm 1\,\mu A$ (mean $\pm$ SD, $n = 8$). Colored disks mark,

for each hair-bundle, the value of ϕ_{MAX} at the start of the experiment ($I = 0$, black), before

($I = I_{DROP} + 1\,\mu A$, magenta) and after ($I = -9\,\mu A$, red) the drop of ϕ_{MAX}, and at the end of

the experiment ($I = 0\,\mu A$, white). Error bars: mean $\pm$ SD. Statistical significance was assessed

using a paired t-test with p-values from left to right: $2 \cdot 10^{-2}$, $8 \cdot 10^{-4}$, 10^{-1}. ns $>$ 0.05, * p-

value ≤ 0.05, *** p-value ≤ 0.001. In (D-E), black solid and dashed lines correspond to the

descending and ascending ramps of transepithelial currents, respectively. Arrows indicate the

direction of circulation along the curve from start (black disk) to finish (white disk).

Fig. 4 : Transition kinetics between states of strong and weak gating force. (A) Force-
displacement cycle here averaged over 50 cycles of stimulation, under control conditions ($I =$
0; black solid line), 400 ms after the onset of a step of transepithelial current ($I = -8\,\mu A$;
magenta) and 600 ms after termination of the current step ($I = 0$; black dashed line). (B) Time
course of the maximal friction force, ϕ_{MAX}, (blue line) and of the average displacement, $\bar{X}$,
(dashed magenta line) in a force-displacement cycle. The current step started at $t = 1$ s and
ended at $t = 2$ s. (C) Time, τ_{10-90}, required for the maximal friction force, ϕ_{MAX} (blue disks),
and the average displacement, $\bar{X}$ (magenta disks), to transition from 10% to 90% of the total
change after the onset (ON) and the termination (OFF) of a step of transepithelial current ($I =$
$-8\,\mu A$). Error bars indicate the mean $\pm$ SD. Statistical significance was assessed using a
paired t-test with p-values from left to right: $2 \cdot 10^{-2}$, $3 \cdot 10^{-2}$; * p-value ≤ 0.05. The base of
the stimulus fiber followed a periodic triangular waveform of motion, with a peak-to-peak
amplitude of 600 nm and at a frequency of 100 Hz. For the data shown in (B) and (C), the
force-displacement cycles were averaged over only two cycles of stimulation.

Fig. 5 : Replicating the effects of negative endolymphatic potentials with iontophoresis of a Ca²⁺ chelator. (A) We used iontophoresis of a calcium chelator to decrease the extracellular Ca²⁺ concentration in the vicinity of a hair bundle. A descending ramp of a negative iontophoretic current, I_{IONTO}, which was carried in part by a Ca²⁺ chelator, was followed by an ascending ramp of current at the same absolute rate of $6.6 \text{ nA} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. The colored square symbols indicate the time points of the analysis shown in (B). (B) Each sub-panel shows the bundle's force-displacement cycle in response to a triangular mechanical stimulus for the value of the iontophoretic current, I_{IONTO}, and at the time, t, indicated at the top. (C) Maximal friction force, ϕ_{MAX}, as a function of the iontophoretic current, I_{IONTO}, which varied in time from start (black disk) to finish (white disk). Arrows indicate the direction of circulation along the curve. Solid and dashed lines correspond to the descending and ascending ramps of iontophoretic currents, respectively. (D) For all the 8 different hair bundles that followed the same protocol, the maximal friction force, ϕ_{MAX}, first increased as the extracellular Ca²⁺ concentration

decreased, before dropping to a low value as the hair bundle transitioned from a state of strong

gating force to a state of weak gating force at more negative values of the iontophoretic current

than a threshold $I_{IONTO} = I_{DROP} = -40 \pm 10$ nA (mean $\pm$ SD, $n = 8$). Colored disks mark, for

each hair-bundle, the value of ϕ_{MAX} at the start of the experiment ($I_{IONTO} = +10$ nA, black),

before ($I_{IONTO} = I_{DROP} + 5$ nA, magenta) and after ($I_{IONTO} = -50$ nA, red) the drop of ϕ_{MAX},

and at the end of the experiment ($I_{IONTO} = +10$ nA, white). Error bars: mean $\pm$ SD. Statistical

significance was assessed using a paired t-test with p-values from left to right: $1.5 \cdot 10^{-2}$, $5 \cdot$

10^{-3}, $6 \cdot 10^{-1}$; ns > 0.05; * p-value ≤ 0.05, ** p-value ≤ 0.01. (E) The force-displacement

relation of a different hair bundle displays a region of gating compliance under control

conditions (black triangles) but was linear in the presence of a steady iontophoretic current of

-60 nA (red circle). This effect was reversible (grey triangles). Each force-displacement

relation was fitted by Equation 1 (solid lines; parameter values in SI Appendix Table S1). In

(B-D), a periodic triangular waveform of motion was applied to the base of the stimulus fiber,

with a peak-to-peak amplitude of 600 nm and at a frequency of 40 Hz. In (E), force-

displacement relations were instead measured in response to step displacements at the base of

the stimulus fiber (see Methods).

Supporting Information for

Electrical control of the transduction channels' gating force

in sensory hair cells.

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Table S1

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Other supporting materials for this manuscript include the following:

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Supplementary Table

Table S1 Parameter values for fits of force-displacement relations with Equation 1.

Variable	Definition	Fig. 1A		Fig. 1B		Fig. 1C		Fig. 1D		Fig. 5E	
I (μA)	Transepithelial current	0	+3	0	+6	0	−3	0	−6	n/a	n/a
I_{IONTO} (nA)	Iontophoretic current,	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	+10	−60
X_0 (nm)	Set-point deflection	−3	1	1	+6	−0.2	−12.7	−2	n/a	−14	n/a
K (pN · nm^{-1})	Stiffness	0.96	0.91	0.83	0.78	0.6	0.66	0.82	0.96	0.75	0.80
F_G (pN)	Gating force	21	13	18	9	19	36	22	n/a	22	n/a
δ (nm)	Characteristic length	4	2	2	5	8.9	13	6	n/a	7	n/a
$F_\emptyset$ (pN)	Force constant	14	5	7	0.6	10	25	11	n/a	18	n/a
R^2	Coefficient of determination	0.999	0.994	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.979	0.993

Supplementary Figures

Fig. S1 : Gating-spring model of mechanoelectrical transduction. (A) The concept of gating

force. When the transduction channels switch between their open and closed state, tension in

the gating springs is reduced (black arrows); this mechanical correlate of channel gating is

called the gating force, $F_G = K_{GS} \cdot D$ (red arrow), where K_{GS} is the combined stiffness of all the

gating springs operating in parallel in the hair bundle and D is the gating swing of each channel.

(B) Electrical and mechanical responses to hair-bundle displacement. Top: sigmoidal

relationship of channel open probability to displacement in the case of weak (dashed magenta

line) and strong (solid blue line) gating force. The larger the gating force, the steeper the

sigmoid and the more sensitive the hair cell is to displacement of its hair bundle. Bottom: The

force–displacement relationship displays a shallow nonlinearity when sensitivity is low (dashed

magenta curve) and a strong nonlinearity when sensitivity is high (smooth blue curve). The

gating force is given by the vertical shift between the two linear limbs of the force-displacement

relation; it is here shown in the case of high sensitivity as the distance between the two disks.

A   **B**

Fig. S2 : Two-compartment ex-vivo preparation of the frog saccule. (A) Schematic of the

setup. The tissue was glued over a 1-mm hole in a plastic disk. Its apical and basal aspects were

bathed in artificial endolymph and perilymph, respectively. A transepithelial current, I, was

produced by a pair of silver chloride electrodes connected to a current generator, resulting in an

endolymphatic potential, U, with respect to the potential in perilymph. The sign convention is

such that positive currents lead to a positive value of the endolymphatic potential. (B) A +1-

μA step of transepithelial current (top) evoked an endolymphatic potential $U \simeq +10$ mV at

steady state (bottom, grey), corresponding to a transepithelial resistance of 10 kΩ. An

exponential fit (black line), $U(t) = A \exp(-t/\tau)$, to the response yielded the amplitude $A =$

10.2 mV and the characteristic time $\tau = 210$ μs.

Fig. S3 : Effects of a transepithelial current on spontaneous hair-bundle oscillations.
Under control conditions ($I = 0$), over an ensemble of $n = 10$ oscillatory hair bundles, the
oscillations had a characteristic frequency $f_0 = 22 \pm 14$ Hz, a root-mean-squared (RMS)
amplitude $X_{RMS} = 13 \pm 4$ nm and their bimodal position histograms were associated with a
steady-state open probability for the transduction channels $P_o^{SS} = 0.4 \pm 0.1$, thus close to $1/2$.
These characteristics are remarkably similar to those reported earlier with hair cells from a
different frog species (18, 20).   (A-D) Representative examples of spontaneous hair-bundle
oscillations under control conditions ($I = 0$; top) and in the presence of a transepithelial current
(bottom) $I = +3\,\mu A$ (A), $I = +6\,\mu A$ (B), $I = -3\,\mu A$ (C), and $I = -6\,\mu A$ (D).   (E) The change,
Δf_0, of the oscillation frequency displayed a strong positive correlation to the transepithelial
current (Pearson correlation $r = +0.9$; p-value $= 10^{-4}$; $n = 10$). (F) The change, ΔX_{RMS}, of
the RMS amplitude of spontaneous oscillations displayed a strong negative correlation to the
transepithelial current (Pearson correlation $r = -0.9$; p-value $= 1 \cdot 10^{-3}$; $n = 10$). (G) The
change, ΔP_O^{SS}, of the open probability at steady state displayed a strong negative correlation to
the transepithelial current (Pearson correlation r $= -0.9$, p-value $= 1 \cdot 10^{-4}$, $n = 10$). In (A),
the transepithelial current evoked an increase of the oscillation frequency from 17 Hz to 39 Hz,
a decrease of the RMS amplitude of oscillation from 7 nm to 5 nm and a decrease of the steady-
state open probability from 0.5 to 0.3. Conversely in (B), the frequency of oscillation decreased
from 49 Hz to 25 Hz, the RMS amplitude of oscillation increased from 11 nm to 15 nm and the
steady-state open probability increased from 0.4 to 0.6. In the presence of a large positive
current ($I = +6\,\mu A$; panel B), the hair bundle only produced irregular spiky movements in the
positive direction: the transduction channels were closed most of the time and evinced brief
openings. Instead, a large negative current ($I = -6\,\mu A$;   panel D) completely abolished

spontaneous oscillations. Red lines in (E-G) correspond to proportional fits of respective slopes

$7\,\text{Hz} \cdot \mu\text{A}^{-1}$ ($R^2 = 0.86$; panel E), $-1.1\,\text{nm} \cdot \mu\text{A}^{-1}$ ($R^2 = 0.6$; panel F), and $-0.08\,\mu\text{A}^{-1}$ ($R^2 =$

0.83; panel G).

Fig. S4 : Effect of a transepithelial current on the channel-activation time. Same data as in

Fig. 3A-E, to which this figure is associated. The time course of successive ramps of descending

and ascending transepithelial current can be found in Fig. 3A. (A) Fiber-base displacement, Δ

(*top*), and hair-bundle displacement, X (*bottom*), as a function of time for one stimulus cycle at

time points and values of the transepithelial current indicated at the top of each time trace. (B)

Hair-bundle speed, $|dX/dt|$, on the positive (*solid line*) and negative (*dashed line*) half cycles

of mechanical stimulation as a function of displacement, X. The distance between the two

peaks, ΔX, defines the gating shift. (C-D) Maximum speed, V_{MAX} (C), and gating shift, ΔX

(D), as a function of the transepithelial current, I, which varied in time from start (black disk)

to finish (white disk). Arrows indicate the direction of circulation along the curve. Solid and

dashed lines correspond to the descending and ascending ramps of transepithelial currents,

respectively. In panel (D), a black square indicates the current at which the signatures of gating

compliance and gating friction vanished on the descending ramp; bellow this current, the gating

shift is no longer defined. Conversely, a white square indicates recovery of the signatures of

gating compliance and gating friction on the ascending ramp. (E) For the same ensemble of

hair bundles as in Fig. 3, the distributions of the estimated activation time of the transduction

channel, $\tau = \Delta X/(2\,V_{MAX})$, are shown at the start of the experiment ($I = 0$, black), before the

drop of the maximal friction force (magenta, see Fig. 3F), and at the end of the experiment ($I =$

0, white). Error bars: mean $\pm$ SD. Statistical significance was assessed using a paired t-test

with, from p-values from left to right: $0.0014, 0.021$ *p-value $\leq$ 0.05, **p-value $\leq$ 0.01.

Fig. S5: Electrical control of the gating swing. The gating swing, d, (A) and its relative

change, $\Delta d/d_0$, (B) are shown as a function of the transepithelial current, I, where $\Delta d = d(I) - $

$d(I = 0)$ and $d_0 = d(I = 0)$. For $I \geq -5\,\mu A$, the relative change displayed a strong negative

correlation to the current (Pearson correlation $r = -0.86$; p-value: $1 \cdot 10^{-10}$). Same dataset as

that used in Fig. 2. After each measurement of a bundle's force-displacement relation, the

gating swing was estimated as $d = \gamma F_G/(K - K_{SP})$, where F_G and K are respectively the gating

force and linear stiffness resulting from a fit of the force-displacement relation with Equation 1

and K_{SP} is the mean stiffness measured over an ensemble of hair bundles after disruption of

their tip links. The projection factor $\gamma = 0.14$ was used to estimate the gating swing along the

oblique axis of the tip link.

Legends for supplementary movies

Movie S1 (separate file): Transition between states of strong and weak gating force. Movie associated to Fig. 3A-E. The force-displacement cycle in response to triangular mechanical stimulation of the hair bundle (top) is shown over time as the transepithelial current follows successive descending and ascending ramps (bottom). The friction force, $\phi(X)$, at each displacement X of the hair bundle is color coded as indicated on the right; it is given by the half-height of the force-displacement cycle. To obtain smooth videos, the force-displacement cycles were here averaged over 15 cycles, instead of 10 cycles in the data shown in Fig. 3.

Movie S2 (separate file): Kinetics of the transition between states of strong and weak gating force. Movie associated to Fig. 4A-B. The force-displacement cycle in response to triangular mechanical stimulation of the hair bundle (top) is shown over time before, during and after application of a negative step of transepithelial current (bottom). The friction force, $\phi(X)$, at each displacement X of the hair bundle is color coded as indicated on the right; it is given by the half-height of the force-displacement cycle. The force-displacement cycles were here averaged over 5 cycles.

Movie S3 Transition between states of strong and weak gating force upon a decrease of extracellular calcium concentration. Movie associated to Fig. 5A-D. The force-displacement cycle in response to triangular mechanical stimulation of the hair bundle (top) is shown over time as an iontophoretic current trough a pipette containing a calcium chelator and positioned near a hair bundle follows successive descending and ascending ramps (bottom). The friction force, $\phi(X)$, at each displacement X of the hair bundle is color coded as indicated on the right; it is given by the half-height of the force-displacement cycle. To obtain smooth videos, the force-displacement cycles were here averaged over 15 cycles, instead of 10 cycles for the data shown in Fig. 5.