Title: Stretching of the insect mechanoreceptor evokes mechano-electrical transduction in

auditory chordotonal neurons

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ABSTRACT

Insect proprioception, vibration and sound detection rely on the scolopidium—a
mechanosensory unit enclosing the sensory cilium of chordotonal organ neurons. The cilium
contains mechanosensitive ion channels, and is enclosed by a scolopale cell with its tip
embedded in a cap. Despite knowledge of the scolopidium's structure in multiple insects, the
mechanism by which mechanical force elicits the transduction current remains speculative. We
examined scolopidia in the auditory Müller's organ of the desert locust and present a
comprehensive three-dimensional ultrastructure of a scolopidium using Focused Ion Beam
Scanning Electron Microscopy (FIB-SEM). Next, we characterised sound-evoked motions of
Müller's organ and the scolopidium using Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT) and high-
speed light microscopy. We further measured transduction currents via patch clamp
electrophysiology during mechanical stimulation of individual scolopidia. By combining
ultrastructure, sound-evoked motions, and transduction current recordings, our finding
suggests that the scolopidium is activated best by stretch along the ciliary axis.

MAIN TEXT

1. Introduction

All animal ears share the same fundamental purpose of converting sound-evoked vibrations into electrical signals[1]. In insects, this process, known as mechano-electrical transduction (MET), occurs in the distal ciliated endings of chordotonal organ neurons[2]. The cilium is enclosed in an evolutionarily conserved structure, the scolopidium[3], where it extends into a receptor lymph cavity made by the scolopale cell. The ciliary tip is embedded in an extracellular cap tightly fused to an attachment cell. This stereotypical structure of a scolopidium is found in all insect chordotonal organs and underlies proprioception, vibration and sound detection[4]. Thus, understanding how the scolopidium functions has widespread implications for insect behaviour.

While it is established that MET takes place within the cilium, the precise mechanism remains speculative[4]. MET channels open in response to mechanical stimulation leading to a depolarisation that triggers downstream spikes. Putative transduction channels, No mechanoreceptor potential C (NompC) and Nanchung-Inactive (Nan-Iav), have been localised near the distal and proximal regions of the ciliary dilation, an enlarged region where the axonemal microtubules are farther apart than the rest of the cilium[5–8]. Early studies proposed two primary models for how these channels open: axial extension (stretching)[9–11] or lateral compression (pinching) of the ciliary tip[12]. One prominent axial extension model posits that stretching deforms the ciliary dilation, generating shear forces within the ciliary membrane that open the MET channels[9]. In contrast, the lateral compression model is supported by a similar proposed mechanism in campaniform sensilla, where direct force application on the cap evokes a maximal receptor potential[12]. Alongside the two MET channel opening models—axial extension and lateral compression of the ciliary tip— several other working mechanisms have been proposed based on early ultrastructural and electrophysiological studies[4].

A detailed ultrastructure of the scolopidium is key to understanding its function as a mechano-electrical transducer[3,10,13–16]. The first ultrastructural studies of the scolopidium stem from more than 60 years ago[3,16], and only recently has three-dimensional (3D) reconstruction using Focused Ion Beam-Scanning Electron Microscopy (FIB-SEM), been employed to examine a miniaturised chordotonal organ, the Johnston's organ of parasitoid wasp *Megaphragma viggianii*[17]. A high-resolution 3D reconstruction that focuses solely on the scolopidium using FIB-SEM could provide new insights into its ultrastructure, especially how each component interacts.

Complementing these structural insights, efforts to understand the sound-evoked scolopidial

motion have yielded valuable, albeit indirect, inferences: Stephen and Bennet-Clark's

pioneering stroboscopy of the locust Müller's organ suggested significant phase lags and anti-

phasic motion across the organ, potentially inducing strain in auditory neurons and

scolopidia[18]. More recently, Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT) based vibrometry of the

cricket's crista acustica indicated complex, multi-modal tilting of the ciliary tip, including 3D

elliptical motions[19,20]. Although providing valuable insight, these observations lack the spatial

resolution to directly resolve scolopidia. This limitation highlights the critical need for direct

visualisation of its sound-evoked motion, and measurement of transduction currents during

direct mechanical stimulation of a scolopidium.

To address these gaps, we investigated the scolopidia within Müller's organ of adult desert

locusts, *Schistocerca gregaria*, a model organism that uniquely enables recordings of

transduction channel currents from auditory neurons in an adult animal[8]. We combined FIB-

SEM to resolve the 3D ultrastructure of a scolopidium, OCT and high-speed microscopy to

examine sound-evoked motion at both the organ and individual scolopidium levels, and direct

mechanical stimulation of the scolopale cap, where the ciliary tip is anchored, whilst recording

transduction currents. Understanding these fundamental processes in insect auditory

transduction is not only key to deciphering insect hearing but offers insights into conserved

principles of ciliary mechanosensation across animals.

2. Results

2.1. Three-dimensional (3D) ultrastructure of a scolopidium

The desert locust's tympanic ears are located on its first abdominal segment (Fig. 1a). The locust's hearing organ, Müller's organ, directly attaches to the tympanic membrane at an inward fold of the tympanum called the elevated process (Fig. 1b). Auditory neuron soma locate mostly in the ganglion, while their dendrites extend to distinct regions of the organ, forming three classified groups also distinguished by characteristic frequency ranges[8,21] (Fig. 1c, Extended Data Fig. 1a-c). This study examines scolopidia from Group-III auditory neurons (Fig. 1c, d), which constitute most auditory neurons (~48 out of ~80 neurons) in Müller's organ[22] and are tuned to 2.5-4 kHz[1], the frequency ranges associated with wing-beat noise[23].

To reconstruct a 3D ultrastructure of a scolopidium, we performed Focused Ion Beam-Scanning Electron Microscopy (FIB-SEM) at the interface between the scolopale cells and the attachment cells, where the scolopidia are located (Fig. 2a-b, see Supplementary Video 1) (N = 2, n = 4). In this region, the scolopale cell forms a protrusion that encloses the scolopale sheath with approximately half of the sheath inserting deep into the attachment cell. The scolopale sheath, previously described as composed of 5-7 partially fused, actin-rich concentric rods, is contained within the scolopale cell[3,24]. In early ultrastructural studies, the distal region of the scolopidium was thought to end with the extracellular porous cap[3,9,10,14]; however, our 3D reconstruction reveals a thin layer of fibrous filaments, possibly actin filaments, forming inside the membrane of the attachment cell (Fig. 2c, arrowhead). Upon examining series of longitudinal sections along the length of the scolopidium, this fibrous material covers the distal end of the ciliated dendrite and the cap like a cone-shaped 'lid' (Fig. 2d, arrowheads). Thus, we describe the ensheathed part of a scolopidium as a cartridge composed of the scolopale sheath and a scolopale lid (Fig. 2l).

The scolopale cartridge encloses a tightly sealed receptor-filled scolopale space that contains the ciliated dendrite and the porous cap (Fig. 2b). Our 3D reconstruction reveals that the cap resembles a truncated cone, with a central passage for the cilium that is funnel-shaped and has a distinct narrowing at its entrance (Fig. 2e-f). An early ultrastructural study of Müller's organ reported that the cilium terminates within the cap[3]; however, we find that the cilium instead extends through the central passage and terminates at an electron-dense region at the tip of the cartridge, in the three scolopidia we imaged (Fig. 2g, Extended Data Fig. 1d). Interestingly, one of our datasets shows a break of the cilium near its terminus (Extended Data

Fig. 1e). The cilium's full extension to its insertion at tip of the cartridge is a prominent, previously undescribed feature with clear mechanical implications.

At the distal dendrite, the cilium is anchored through rootlets. Here, numerous basal links connect the dendritic membrane to the base of the scolopale sheath and form an oblique angle of about 50° to the dendrite (Fig. 2h). The basal links show no apparent spacing and are found from the base of the scolopale sheath up to the proximal basal body, where the cilium inserts into the scolopale space. In a cross section orthogonal to the ciliary axis, the basal links appear to radiate towards the dendrite from desmosome-like junctions at the scolopale cell membrane opposing each scolopale rod (Fig. 2i). The basal links and their connections to the base of each scolopale rod have been previously shown[9,10,25], but the oblique nature of the links has not been observed before.

The proximal cilium exhibits a pronounced bending in all our datasets, a feature previously observed in other chordotonal organs[4,11,26]; however, we cannot rule out fixation artifacts due to preparation for FIB-SEM. In contrast, the distal cilium remains straight (Fig. 2b, l). In the ciliary dilation, where the 9x2+0 axonemal microtubules become farther apart, we found 3-4 central fibrils appearing within the restricted length of the dilation but nowhere else (Fig. 2j-k, Extended Data Fig. 1f-g). While these central fibrils have been mentioned by early ultrastructural studies[3,9] and observed in crista acustica of the bush cricket, *Mecopoda elongata*[19], their precise nature remains unclear and requires further investigation.

In summary, our high-resolution 3D ultrastructural analysis has redefined the ensheathed part of the scolopidium as a 'cartridge' composed of the scolopale sheath and scolopale lid (Fig. 2l). This analysis also revealed the full extent of the cilium (Fig. 2g), the oblique nature of the basal links (Fig. 2h), and the central fibrils in the dilation (Fig. 2j-k). This refined anatomical understanding is crucial for interpreting how forces are transmitted within this mechanosensory unit. We, therefore, next examined the sound-evoked motion at the levels of Müller's organ and individual scolopidium to determine how these intricate structures may contribute to mechano-electrical transduction.

2.2. Sound-evoked motion of Müller's organ is tuned differently across its axes

The tympanic membrane vibrates in response to sound pressure changes in the air[27–29]. The sound-evoked vibration is then transferred to Müller's organ and mechanically activates the scolopidia inside[21,27]. The resulting motion of the organ is complex and frequency-selective, arising from both the tonotopic traveling wave across the tympanic membrane and the organ's attachment to mechanically inhomogeneous regions on the tympanum[18,27,29]. Ultimately,

however, only the relative motion within the organ can produce forces that serve as the
adequate stimulus for auditory transduction.

To identify the source of this relative motion, we measured the sound-evoked vibrations of
Müller's organ along two primary axes (Fig. 3a): (i) antero-posterior (motion normal to the
tympanic surface, Fig. 3a-top panel) and (ii) meso-lateral (motion tangential to the tympanic
surface, Fig. 3a-bottom panel). The OCT imaging system could generate sectional images
across the two planes (Fig. 3b) and resolved most of the organ, apart from the region of Group-
I scolopidia above the folded body, possibly due to low reflectivity (Fig. 3b).

We first examined the frequency response of Müller's organ relative to sound stimulation
(Fig. 3c-d). The vibration was axis-dependent: along the antero-posterior axis, the amplitudes
peaked at 3.75 kHz, 7.58 ± 6.24 dB (N = 4, E = 4), while the meso-lateral axis showed a distinct
peak at 2.25 kHz, 13.07 ± 3.62 dB (N = 7, E = 12) (Fig. 3c). There is also relatively high
vibration at 1 kHz in both axes, antero-posterior: 9.82 ± 6.65 dB (N = 4, E = 4) and meso-
lateral: 8.61 ± 4.33 dB (N = 7, E = 12). The phase responses relative to the stimulation in the
two axes also differed. While both axes exhibited a phase lag of approximately ~0.5 cycles,
anterior-posterior: -0.47 ± 0.11 cycle (N = 4, E = 4) and meso-lateral: -0.57 ± 0.17 cycle (N =
7, E = 12), the phase response in meso-lateral axis showed a more pronounced ~1-cycle lag at
its 2.25 kHz peak, -0.90 ± 0.49 cycle (N = 7, E = 12) (Fig. 3d). Vibration at 1-2 kHz and 3.75
kHz corresponding to known resonance modes of the entire tympanum and the Müller's organ
region[27].

To assess the internal strain across the organ, we further computed vector difference of the
styliform body (●, Fig 3b) relative to the ganglion (*, Fig 3b), the region where Group-III
scolopidia are located. Vector difference revealed two prominent peaks at 3.75 kHz along the
antero-posterior axis, 6.81 ± 8.78 dB (N = 4, E = 4), and 2.25 kHz along the meso-lateral axis,
12.18 ± 9.55 dB (N = 7, E = 12). The small vector difference at 1.25 kHz in both axes, antero-
posterior: 1.31 ± 9.04 dB (N = 4, E = 4) and meso-lateral 2.67 ± 8.68 dB (N = 7, E = 12),
indicates no or very small relative motion in the region of Group-III scolopidia at this frequency
(Fig. 3e). Next, we mapped these complex, frequency-dependent vibration patterns onto the
locations of Group-III scolopidia.

2.3. Relative motion at the site of Group-III scolopidia

We mapped Group-III scolopidia by labelling their auditory neurons with the neural tracer

neurobiotin, delivered via back-filled patch pipettes through the auditory nerves[30]. Since the

scolopidia themselves were not consistently labelled, we used their dendrite dilations as reliable

proxies (Fig. 1d). The position of each dendrite dilation was manually registered relative to the

ganglion and the styliform body (Extended Data Fig. 2a-c). These dilations locate at a known

distance, 11.1 ± 3.7 μm (N = 20, n = 46), from the base of the scolopale sheath (Extended Data

Fig. 2d). Ensemble normalised positions of the dendrite dilations revealed that Group-III

scolopidia are clustered at a relative distance $54 \pm 4\%$ (N = 16, E = 16, n = 253) between the

ganglion and the styliform body (Fig. 3f).

Having established the location of the Group-III scolopidia, we analysed the 2D vibration

profiles to determine if this location corresponds to a region of high relative motion (Fig. 3g-

h). Indeed, we observed that while motion was largely homogeneous at low (1 kHz) and high

(5 kHz) frequencies, a distinct spatial transition emerged at the intermediate frequencies. Along

the antero-posterior axis, an abrupt change in both amplitude and phase appeared from 2 kHz

upwards, with the largest transition occurring at ~4 kHz (Fig. 3g arrowhead, Extended Data

Fig. 2e-f). A similar sharp transition was observed in the meso-lateral axis, though its peak

occurred at a lower frequency of ~3 kHz (Fig. 3h, Extended Data Fig. 2g-h). Interestingly, upon

examining the vibration profile (Extended Data Fig. 2e, g), the source of vibration appeared to

shift with frequency. At lower frequencies (1.25-2 kHz), the ganglion side of the organ vibrated

more strongly (~2.5-4 dB) than the styliform body, while at higher frequencies the vibration

was larger at the styliform body and the tympanum (Extended Data Fig. 2e-h). Crucially, upon

superimposing the normalised position of Group-III scolopidia on the frequency response for

both axes, the onset of this abrupt transition in amplitude and phase co-localizes precisely with

the average position of the Group-III scolopidia (Fig. 3i, j and Extended Data Fig. 2). To

understand how this complex relative motion activates the scolopidium, we visualized the

sound-evoked motion of individual scolopidium with high-speed light microscopy.

2.4. Elliptical motion and stretching of a scolopidium along the ciliary axis

To examine sound-evoked motion at the single-scolopidium level, we captured its high-

speed motion during sound stimulation (Supplementary Video 2) and achieved an average

acquisition rate of $8,602 \pm 289$ frames per second (N = 12, n = 48). Upon initial image analysis,

we found two prominent features (Fig. 4a-b): (i) shearing and stretch motion of the scolopidium

(Fig. 4a, t = 0.12 and 0.24 ms) then followed by (ii) pulling motion of the scolopale sheath

along the ciliary axis (Fig. 4a, t = 0.36 ms). The shearing and stretch motion were most clearly

visible at the cap region, where the membrane of the attachment cell deforms. To quantify these

complex scolopidium motion, we tracked the positions of the scolopale base and the

extracellular cap, where the outlines of both landmarks were clearly visible (Fig. 4a)).

First, we analysed the raw amplitude of the scolopale base and the cap. Upon sound

stimulation, the entire scolopidium undergoes elliptical motion (Fig. 4c). Notably, the motion

of the scolopale base was generally more circular, while that of the cap was more elliptical,

particularly between 1.5-3 kHz. At 1 kHz; however, the scolopidium shows a strong elliptical

motion oblique to the ciliary axis. When stimulated at 3 kHz, the elliptical motion of the cap

aligned with the ciliary axis and was most pronounced.

To investigate the principal axis of the sound-evoked motion, we decomposed the motion

of both the cap and the scolopale base into components along the ciliary axis, d_x, (Fig. 4d) and

orthogonal to it, d_y, (Fig. 4e). For both landmarks, motion along the ciliary axis was strongest,

showing a prominent peak at 3 kHz, base d_x: 66 ± 55 nm (N = 6, n = 24) and cap d_y: 197 ± 64

nm (N = 6, n = 24), (Fig. 4d, Extended Data Fig. 3a, c). In contrast, orthogonal motion was

minimal, exhibiting only a shallow peak at the same frequency, base d_x: 47 ± 26 nm (N = 6, n

= 24) and cap d_y: 70 ± 44 nm (N = 6, n = 24), (Fig. 4e, Extended Data Fig. 3b, d). Consequently,

the ratio of axial-to-orthogonal motion, d_x/d_y, is consistent with elliptical motion shown in

Fig. 4c, where cap d_x/d_y peaked sharply at 3 kHz, base d_x/d_y: 1.29 ± 0.66 (N = 6, n = 24) and

cap d_x/d_y: 2.72 ± 1.00 (N = 6, n = 24), confirming that axial motion is the dominant component

of the frequency response (Fig. 4f).

Since the adequate stimulus for MET is expected to arise from relative motion within the

scolopidium, we next computed (i) the relative distance between the cap and the scolopale base,

Δd, and (ii) shear motion at the cap region quantified by tracking the upper and lower borders

of the attachment cell upon sound stimulation. Indeed, the relative motion was also strongest

and sharply peaked at 3 kHz, Δd: 74 ± 48 nm (N = 6, n = 24) (Fig. 4g-h). The shear motion of

the cap region; however, produced a distinct but broad peak at 3 kHz, 215 ± 200 nm (N = 6, n

= 22) (Fig. 4i).

2.5. Direct pulling of the scolopidium cap evokes maximal transduction current

High-speed light microscopy revealed complex sound-evoked motion of the scolopidium

mainly, but not solely, along the ciliary axis (Fig. 4). To identify the principal axis through

which the scolopidium is stimulated, we directly and mechanically stimulated the scolopidium

cap with a stimulating pipette while measuring transduction currents via whole-cell patch-clamp recordings of the corresponding Group-III auditory neuron somata (Fig. 5a; Supplementary Video 3). We delivered a series of step displacements in two directions: a 'pull-push' motion along the ciliary axis (Fig. 5b) and an 'up-down' motion orthogonal to it (Fig. 5c). Here, we showed that stimuli in pull, push, upward and downward directions evoked sharp, transient inward currents at the onset of the step (Fig. 5d-e). The most sensitive responses were to pull and push stimulations at 1 nm (Fig. 5d), whereas upward and downward stimulations produced clearly noticeable transduction currents from 5 nm and above (Fig. 5e). The signal-to-noise ratio in single trials was low due to spontaneous discrete depolarisations found in chordotonal organs[6,8,31]. Upon averaging the responses over the total number of locusts, pull-push: N = 18, n = 18 and up-down: N = 11, n = 11, the ensemble average transduction current revealed a graded, non-linear relationship between stimulus and current (Fig. 5f-g).

Next, we quantified transduction currents in response to pull-push step stimuli averaged across all recordings. There was a general increase in the magnitude of the transduction current with increased step displacement (Fig. 5h, i). Discrete depolarisations contributed to a large standard deviation of step-evoked transduction currents (Fig. 5d, e). There were distinct bi-phasic and logarithmic phases in the current-displacement (I-X) relationship from 1-10 nm and 50-2000 nm in both pull-push (Fig. 5j, k) and up-down (Fig. 5l, m) displacements. The largest transduction currents were produced by pull along the ciliary axis. We quantified the difference at 2,000 nm displacement from the resting position between pull, 26.22 ± 10.99 pA (N = 18, n = 18), and push, 10.96 ± 8.59 pA (N = 18, n = 18) (Tukey's procedure, $p = 3.1e-05$, t = -9.58). Next, we found that the transduction current was larger for $pull_{return}$, 18.68 ± 8.43 pA (N = 18, n = 18) compared to $push_{return}$ 6.99 ± 9.75 pA (N = 18, n = 18) (Tukey's procedure, p = 0.003, t = -4.72). Additionally, the transduction current evoked by pull from the resting position was larger than displacement upward, 12.17 ± 5.37 pA (N = 11, n = 11) (Tukey's procedure, $p = 1.75e-03$, t = -3.83) or downward 7.28 ± 9.76 pA (N = 11, n = 11) (Tukey's procedure, $p = 5.10e-06$, t = -4.53). There was no difference between $pull_{return}$ and $up_{preturn}$ (Tukey's procedure, $p = 0.69$, t = -1.91), and between $pull_{return}$ and $down_{return}$ (Tukey's procedure, $p = 0.55$, t = -2.24).

3. Discussion

The scolopidium is the basic sensory unit of mechano-electrical transduction (MET) in insects[3,9,11,12,14,25]. Addressing the fundamental question of how the scolopidium operates, we demonstrate here that axial stretch along the cilium is the adequate stimulus for mechano-electrical transduction. This conclusion is based on two key findings. First, high-speed imaging revealed that elliptical sound-evoked scolopidium motion is dominated by stretch along the ciliary axis (Fig. 4). Second, pull of the scolopidium along the ciliary axis evoked the maximal MET current (Fig. 5).

Axial stretch is assumed to be the adequate stimulus in other chordotonal organs, based on either ultrastructural analysis or electrophysiological recordings, without direct observation of the underlying mechanics[9,11,32]. These early studies, performed before the molecular identity and precise location of MET channel candidates like NompC and Nan-Iav were known, led to at least ten proposed mechanisms[4,33]. For example, deformation of the ciliary dilation[9,11,32], bending of the cilium[11,32] or scolopale sheath[24,34], and contraction of the ciliary rootlet [34]. Yet another hypothesis proposed that the cap that encloses the cilium could narrow during axial stretch and exert a compressive force to the ciliary membrane[12]. Our finding provides the first direct evidence that axial stretch is the adequate stimulus of this highly conserved mechanoreceptor found in all insects[35].

How does stretch of the scolopidium lead to confirmational change of MET channels within the cilium? Here, we propose three competing hypotheses: (i) In the *'stretch model'*, axial tension is transmitted along the ciliary membrane, stretches the lipid bilayer and opens MET channels. (ii) In the *'stretch-compression model'*, axial stretch narrows the central passage of the cap and thus compressing the ciliary tip i.e. when a compressive material with a hollow tube is deformed along its axis, the tube narrows (like a 'Chinese finger trap'). (iii) In the *'stretch-deformation model'* the larger ciliary dilation is pulled against the narrow central passage of the cap (Fig. 2e, f). In short, the MET channels would be opened through membrane tension in the stretch model, but by compressive forces directly onto the membrane in the stretch-compression and stretch-deformation models.

While a complete gating model for insect MET remains elusive[36], key molecular insights have been provided by the cryo-EM structure of the putative channel NompC[37], as well as by Molecular Dynamics (MD) simulations[38,39], and electrophysiological recordings[38,40,41]. Specific structures within NompC, such as its Ankyrin Repeat (AR)[41,42] and Linker Helix

(LH)[40] domains, have been proposed to form a "gating spring"—a compliant element that
transmits mechanical force into the channel's conformational opening[40,43].

Currently, there is no direct evidence to support a 'direct-stretch model.' However,
compelling evidence does support the stretch-compression and the stretch-deformation models.
In particular, NompC expressed in Drosophila S2 transfected cells are more sensitive to
membrane compression than aspiration[38]. The other MET channel candidate Nan-Iav is not
mechanosensitive when expressed in HEK293T cells[7]. The properties of both of these TRP
channels may operate differently in the cilium compared to heterologous cell lines. If
Nanchung-Inactive was mechanosensitive in the cilium then stretch, not compression, would
be the only feasible mechanism for MET channel opening.

Our OCT-based vibrometry reveals that axial stretch of the scolopidium arises from
complex 3D motion of Müller's organ[18], a feature that maybe shared by other chordotonal
organs[19,44,45]. We demonstrate that there was an abrupt transition in both phase and amplitude
localised at the site of Group-III scolopidia, which would generate relative motion across the
ciliary axis (Fig. 3 g, h). While motion along the antero-posterior axis is largely dominated by
the tympanum's movement at 3.5-4 kHz[27], strong vibrations along the meso-lateral axis at
lower frequencies, 2.25-3 kHz (Fig. 3c, e), may contribute to broad frequency sensitivity of the
sound-evoked transduction current[1].

Finally, our high-resolution 3D ultrastructure provides the anatomical framework for how
the scolopidium operates (Fig. 2). The presence of scolopale 'lid' and the full extent of the
cilium to its insertion at the scolopale cartridge tip indicate a firm, direct coupling between the
attachment cell and the cilium, essential for transmitting tensioning force. Furthermore, the
distinct narrowing at the entrance to the central passage may serve to compress the cilium
during axial stretch (Fig. 2e, f). The numerous oblique basal links may not be directly involved
in transduction but likely provide mechanical stability to the distal dendrite and ciliary rootlet
(Fig. 2h, i). The nature of the central fibrils within the ciliary dilation (Fig. 2j, k) remains
unknown but are also in bush cricket and mosquito auditory neuron cilia[19,46].

In conclusion, our study provides a comprehensive, multi-scale analysis of MET in the
insect auditory chordotonal neuron, using excised preparations of locust ears. We have shown
that complex 3D motion of Müller's organ produces localised relative motion precisely where
the auditory scolopidia are situated. This relative motion within the organ then drives an axial
stretch of the scolopidium, which in turn evokes the mechano-electrical transduction current.
As the scolopidial structure is ubiquitous across insect classes, the fundamental mechanism of
MET activation proposed here is likely to be highly conserved.

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5. Author contributions

A.C. and B.W. designed and planned the experiments. A.C. performed Focus-Ion Beam Scanning Electron Microscopy (FIB-SEM), annotation, and three-dimensional reconstruction of the data from FIB-SEM slices. M.V.H. and M.W. performed the initial phase of Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT) experiments, A.C. and B.W. finalised the data collection and analysis. B.W. performed whole-cell patch clamp recordings. A.C. and B.W. analysed the experimental data and prepared the initial version of the manuscript. M.N. and M.V.H. commented on it, and together with A.C. and B.W., finalised the submitted version of the manuscript.

FIGURE 1. The locust's ear, Müller's organ, and the scolodium. (a) Locust's ears are located on the first abdominal segment, hidden behind the wings. Each ear consists of a tympanic membrane with a hearing organ, Müller's organ, directly attached. The surface of the tympanic membrane aligns orthogonally to the antero-posterior axis of the locust body at a slight oblique angle. External view of the tympanic membrane (inset) shows a dark ridge (arrowhead) where Müller's organ is located. The anatomical references used in this manuscript are defined based on the axes of the locust's body unless stated otherwise. **(b)** Illustration of the right ear viewed from inside the body shows Müller's organ located between the 'thick' (1) and 'thin' (2) regions of the tympanic membrane. The auditory nerve projects ventrally toward the ventral nerve cord. **(c)** Schematic of Müller's organ superimposed on an X-ray micro-CT scan slice shows three groups of auditory neurons. These neurons (yellow) extend their dendrites to distinct regions where the distal ciliated end of the dendrites insert into the attachment cells (blue). The auditory neurons of Müller's organ are classified based on their maximal frequency sensitivity. Group-I neurons respond to frequencies between 0.5 and 1.5 as well as 3.5 kHz (~20 cells). Group-II neurons are sensitive to higher frequencies of 10–25 kHz (~13 cells), while most auditory neurons, belong to Group-III and respond to mid-range frequencies of 2.5–4 kHz (~46 cells). The yellow arrow marks a typical location of a scolopidium at the insertion of the scolopale cell into the attachment cells. **(d)** Schematic of a scolopidium indicating locations of the mechano-electrical transduction (MET) channel candidates, NompC (blue) and Nanchung-Inactive (green), near the proximal and distal ends of the ciliary dilation (top). Fluorescent micrograph of the corresponding region of the dendrite and the scolopidium. The auditory neuron is filled with Dylight-488 conjugated streptavidin-neurobiotin (bottom).

FIGURE 2. Three-dimensional (3D) ultrastructure of a scolopidium. (a) 3D reconstruction at the interface between a scolopale cell and an attachment cell using Focused Ion Beam-Scanning Electron Microscopy (FIB-SEM). (b) Longitudinal FIB-SEM slice reveals the dendrite and its ciliated distal end enclosed within the scolopidium sheath; the cilium dilates near its insertion into the porous cap before it terminates in an electron-dense region at the border of the attachment cell. (c) Cross section at ciliary dilation shows fibrous filaments inside the membrane of the attachment cell (arrowhead). (d) Longitudinal section at the distal region of the scolopale sheath reveals that the fibrous filaments (arrowheads) observed in (c) form a cone-shaped lid covering the cap and the distal region of the ciliated dendrite. (e) Longitudinal section at the plane of the cilium shows the narrowing of the central passage, where the cilium enters (arrowhead). (f) 3D reconstruction of the cap material reveals a funnel-shaped central passage. (g) Termination of the cilium at the extreme end of the scolopale cartridge. (h) Longitudinal section at the scolopidium base reveals numerous oblique basal links between scolopale rods and the dendrite. (i) Cross section along the dashed line in (h) shows the basal links radiating from desmosome-like junctions. (j) Cross section at the ciliary dilation reveals four central fibrils (arrowheads) inside the 9-doublets axonemal structure. (k) Longitudinal section along the dashed line in (j) reveals two of the central fibrils along the length of the ciliary dilation. (l) 3D model of a complete scolopidium.

FIGURE 3. Sound-evoked motion of Müller's organ. (a) Vibrometry measurements were performed using
Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT) along the antero-posterior (top) or meso-lateral (bottom) axes of Müller's
organ upon 90 dB SPL sound stimulation, with the external side of the tympanic membrane facing the loudspeaker.
(b) OCT sections along the two planes were reconstructed from OCT depth profiles. The symbols * and ● indicate
the maximal widths of Müller's organ at the ganglion and the styliform body, the two important landmarks used
in our analysis. (c) Ensemble amplitude and (d) phase responses to stimulated frequencies along the antero-
posterior (black, N = 4, E = 4) and meso-lateral (red, N = 7, E = 12) axes. (e) Vector difference as a function of
stimulated frequency, computed by comparing vibration at the position ● relative to *, as shown in (b), along the
antero-posterior (N = 4, E = 4) and meso-lateral (N = 7, E = 12) axes. The responses in (c), (d), and (e) are plotted
as a function of bin centres from 1.25 to 4.75 kHz with a bin width of 0.5 kHz. (f) Normalised positions of Group-
III scolopidia between the ganglion and the styliform body (N = 16, E = 16, n = 235). (g-h) Vibration maps as a
function of stimulated frequency along (g) the antero-posterior and (h) meso-lateral axes. (i-j) Comparison
between relative amplitude (blue) and phase (red) responses from the position * to ● along (i) the antero-posterior
(N = 4, E = 4) and (j) meso-lateral (N = 7, E = 12) axes. The relative amplitudes are selected from 1.25 kHz
(minimal relative amplitude) and at the frequencies where the relative amplitude is largest in each axis, 4.25 kHz
and 3.25 kHz, respectively. The relative distance is normalised with * as 0 and ● as 1, as shown in (b). The grey
dashed line represents the average Group-III scolopidia position obtained from (f). All vibration amplitudes are
shown in dB relative to a 1-nm reference vibration. For additional data, see Extended Data Fig. 2 and Source Data
Fig. 3.

FIGURE 4. Sound-evoked motion of the scolopidium. (a) Schematic of a scolopidium showing the scolopale base and the cap that are clearly visible in light microscopy. (top). Montage over a period of one cycle of sound-evoked motion of a Group-III scolopidium stimulated with 3 kHz pure tone at 90 dB SPL (bottom). The arrowhead indicates the cilium appearing at t = 0.24 ms, when the cilium is brought into focus. **(b)** Summary of the sound-evoked motion of the scolopidium. **(c)** Motion of the scolopale base (red) and cap (black) regions along (d_x) and orthogonal (d_y) to the ciliary axis. **(d)** Root-mean-square (RMS) amplitude of the scolopale base (red, N = 6, n = 22) and the cap (black, N = 6, n = 22) regions along the ciliary axis (d_x). **(e)** RMS amplitude of the scolopale base (red, N = 6, n = 22) and the cap (black, N = 6, n = 22) regions along the orthogonal axis (d_y). **(f)** Ratio of the axial-orthogonal motion (d_x/d_y) of the scolopale base (red, N = 6, n = 22) and the cap (black, N = 6, n = 22). **(g)** Example of distance (Δd) between the scolopale base and the cap region as a function of time over each stimulated frequency. **(h)** Relative distance between the scolopale base and the cap (N = 6, n = 24). **(i)** Shear motion along the ciliary axis at the cap region (N = 6, n = 22. For additional data, see Extended Data Fig. 3 and Source Data Fig. 4.

FIGURE 5. Transduction current upon step displacements of a scolopidium cap. (a) Focal-stacked light
microscopy image from ~10 μm apart showing the auditory neuron (yellow), a patch recording pipette and an
stimulating pipette. (b-c) Schematics of step-displacement protocols for (b) pull-push (N = 18, n = 18) and (c) up-
down displacements (N = 11, n = 11). (d-e) Transduction currents (top trace) in response to (d) pull-push (N =
18, n = 18) and (e) up-down (N = 11, n = 11) displacements (bottom trace). Step-displacement traces below and
over 100 nm in (d-e) are shown in different scales. (f-g) Ensemble average transduction currents in response to
(f) pull-push (N = 18, n = 18) and (g) up-down (N = 11, n = 11) step displacements. (h-i) Examples of the
transduction currents in response to (h) pull-push and (i) up-down step displacement of magnitudes 2, 50, 500,
and 2000 nm. (j-m) Ensemble average transduction current as a logarithmic function of the step-displacement (I-
log(X) curve) for (j) pull (N = 18, n = 18), (k) push (N = 18, n = 18), (l) upward (N = 11, n = 11), and (m)
downward (N = 11, n = 11) displacements with their return to the offset counterparts. For additional data, see
Source Data Fig. 3.

EXTENDED DATA FIGURE 1. Anatomy of the scolopidia. (a-c) Locations of the three groups of scolopidia in Müller's organ: Group-I scolopidia, located near the folded body; Group-II, located within the fusiform body, forming a 'bridge' to the pyriform vesicle at the surface of the tympanic membrane; and Group-III, located on the styliform body. Overlay indicates examples of scolopale sheaths (opaque yellow) and the corresponding attachment cells (blue). Dashed lines outline positions of the dendrites along their lengths, and yellow arrowheads mark the other visible scolopidia. **(d)** Oblique section of the distal region of a scolopidium reveals the full extent of the cilium. **(e)** Example of a potential sample preparation artifact showing the apparent detachment of a cilium from its terminal region. **(f)** Longitudinal section through the ciliary dilation, revealing three central fibrils (arrowhead). **(g)** Longitudinal section along the dashed line in (f), reveals two of the central fibrils (arrowhead) extending along the entire length of the dilation.

EXTENDED DATA FIGURE 2. Locations of Group-III scolopidia and frequency response of Müller's
organ. (a) Maximal intensity projection of a Müller's organ labelled with DAPI superimposed with manual
registration of dendrite dilations (red circles). Anatomical landmarks are indicated at the maximal width of the
ganglion (white dashed line) and the styliform body (yellow dashed line). (b) Maximal intensity projection of
auditory neurons labelled with DyLight™ 488-conjugated streptavidin neurobiotin superimposed with manual
registration of dendrite dilation (red circles) and schematic illustrating the computation of the relative distance of
each dendrite dilation between the ganglion (white dashed line) and the styliform body (yellow dashed line). (c)
Normalised positions of dendrite dilation from an example of one Müller's organ. The normalised positions of the
dendrite dilations are plotted as a function of distance across the ganglion's width (white dashed line axis). A
linear fit (black dashed line) determines the representative normalised position at 62% between the ganglion and
the styliform body. (d) Distances between dendrite dilations and the base of their corresponding scolopale sheath
(N = 19, n = 46). (e, f) Amplitude (e) and phase (f) response of Müller's organ along the antero-posterior axis (N
= 4, E = 4), plotted as a function of relative distance between the ganglion and styliform body. (g, h) Amplitude
(g) and phase (h) response of Müller's organ along the meso-lateral axis (N = 7, E = 12) plotted as a function of
relative distance between the ganglion and styliform body. The vertical dashed lines in (e-h) indicate the
normalized position of the Group-III scolopidia. All vibration amplitudes are shown in dB relative to a 1-nm
reference vibration. For additional data, see Source Data Extended Fig. 2.

EXTENDED DATA FIGURE 3. Example recordings of sound-evoked motion of a scolopidium. Raw amplitude traces (left traces) and their corresponding Fourier transforms (right traces) for the scolopale base and cap along (d_x) and orthogonal (d_y) to the ciliary axis at each stimulated frequency. **(a, b)** Motion of the scolopale base (a) along and (b) orthogonal to the ciliary axis. **(c, d)** Motion of the cap (c) along and (d) orthogonal to the ciliary axis. Pure-tone sound stimulation at 90 dB SPL. Additional data is available in the public depository, see Data availability.

METHODS

Animals and sample preparation

Desert locusts, *Schistocerca gregaria*, were reared under crowded conditions with a 12:12-hour light/dark cycle and the ambient temperature at 36 °C (light) and 25 °C (dark). They were fed fresh wheat and bran. All experiments used adult male and female locusts 10-20 days after their final moult.

We used an excised locust ear preparation for all experiments, following a previously described dissection protocol[8]. In short, the ear was surgically removed and affixed to a custom 3D-printed dish a custom-made 3D-print plastic dish, positioning the tympanum over a 3 mm hole. For all measurements, the external side of the tympanum faced the sound source, while the internal side, including Müller's organ, was submerged in locust extracellular saline. The extracellular saline contained 185 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 10 mM HEPES, 10 mM trehalose, and 10 mM glucose. The pH was adjusted to 7.2 using NaOH.

Sample preparation for FIB-SEM and 3D reconstruction of a scolopidium

Excised locust ears were fixed in a solution of 2.5% glutaraldehyde and 2% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate (pH 7.2) with 4.1% sucrose. After washing, the samples were incubated in 1% osmium tetroxide with 1.5% potassium ferricyanide, followed by another wash and a 20-minute incubation in thiocarbohydrazide. Samples were then washed and sequentially incubated in 2% aqueous osmium tetroxide and 2% uranyl acetate, with washing steps in between. Following fixation and staining, the samples underwent serial dehydration in ethanol (30%, 50%, 70%, 90%, and 100%). The samples were then washed in propylene oxide before being embedded in a mixture of hard-formula TAAB 812 resin and propylene oxide. The resulting resin blocks were trimmed to the region of interest, which was verified by staining 100 nm-thick sections with methylene blue and imaging them on an ultramicrotome (Leica UC7).

Serial imaging was performed on a dual-beam FIB-SEM (Zeiss Crossbeam 500) equipped with a Gemini2 SEM column and a Ga^+ source. Imaging parameters were set as follows: SEM extra high tension (EHT) at 1.6 kV with a 600 pA beam current, and FIB current at 700 pA at 30 kV. The voxel sizes of the acquired FIB-SEM stacks ranged from 9 to 15 nm. The 3D ultrastructures of the scolopidia were reconstructed from the FIB-SEM stacks using image processing software Dragonfly 3D.

Optical Coherent Tomography Vibrometry

We measured sound-evoked vibrations using a spectral domain Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT) system (Ganymede, Thorlabs). The field of view was 10×10 mm with a depth range of 3.5 mm. The OCT beam was directed from above, while the preparation was mounted either horizontally (with the sound source below, Fig. 3a) or vertically (with the sound source to the side, Fig. 3b). The beam was manually aligned for each measurement axis to maximize the signal-to-noise ratio for that orientation. Sound stimuli, consisting of broadband multitone "zwuis" complexes, were generated using a Tucker-Davis Technologies System III and delivered via a ScanSpeaker R2904/700 005 loudspeaker, placed at 32 cm from the preparation. The stimulus level was 90 dB SPL; based on previous work, this level in a liquid-backed preparation corresponds to approximately 70 dB SPL in an air-backed tympanum[47].

OCT acquisitions were externally triggered and phase-locked to the acoustic stimulation at a sampling rate of 90 kHz. To characterize the organ's complex 3D motion, vibrations were measured separately along two primary axes: antero-posterior (motion normal to the tympanic surface) and meso-lateral (tangential, side-to-side motion). Vibration waveforms were derived from contiguous groups of three pixels per scan. All organ vibrations were measured relative to the motion of the tympanum, which served as the phase and amplitude reference. The significance of phase-locking for each frequency component was assessed using the Rayleigh test ($p = 0.001$). All data acquisition and analysis were performed using a custom MATLAB toolbox (MathWorks, 2007) developed by Marcel van der Heijden.

Localisation of Group-III scolopidia

To prepare the locusts for neural tracing, each insect was secured on its back in plasticine. A small section of the cuticle on the second and third thoracic segments was carefully cut and temporarily removed. After clearing away the tracheal air sacs to expose the metathoracic ganglia and the auditory nerve (nerve VI), the thoracic cavity was filled with a saline solution. The auditory nerve was then severed near the ganglion, and the cut end was positioned on the outer cuticle at the rear of the thorax. A small well was made around the exposed nerve ending using petroleum jelly and filled with a 5% Neurobiotin solution to allow the tracer to be absorbed into the nerve. The well was sealed with more petroleum jelly, and the previously removed cuticle was placed back onto the original area and also sealed to prevent the area from drying out. The locusts were then incubated overnight at 4°C to facilitate the diffusion of Neurobiotin along the auditory neurons. After the incubation, the locust ears were dissected from the first abdominal segment. These ears were fixed in a 4% paraformaldehyde solution

for 24 hours at 4°C. Subsequently, the fixed ears were washed three times in Phosphate Buffer

Saline (PBS). To prepare for imaging, the ears were treated to make the cells permeable and to

block non-specific binding. They were then incubated overnight with Dylight 488 streptavidin,

which binds to the Neurobiotin to stain the auditory neurons, and DAPI, which stains the cell

nuclei. Finally, after another series of washes in PBS, the ears were dehydrated using an ethanol

series and cleared with Methyl salicylate. The stained neurons were then imaged using a

confocal microscope.

The positions of dendrite dilations were then manually registered in Fiji[48]. The positions

were recorded and saved as the region of interest (ROI) files and further processed in MATLAB

R2004a (Mathworks). The position of each dendrite dilation was computed as a relative

distance between the ganglion and the styliform body (Extended Data Fig. 2).

Tracking sound-evoked scolopidium motion

We recorded the sound-evoked motion of the scolopidium using a high-speed camera

(KINETIK, Teledyne) mounted on an FN1 Nikon upright microscope using a 40X/0.8W (NIR

Apo DIC N2) objective. We achieved an average acquisition rate of 8,602 ± 289 frame per

second (24 movies). The movie with acquisition rate that does not achieve Nyquist sampling

of its stimulated frequency were exclude from analysis. Sound stimulation was synchronised

with imaging and delivered through a speaker (RS PRO 50 mm, RS PRO) via an analogue-to-

digital converter (National Instruments PCIe 6323). The sound pressure level was calibrated

by measuring the voltage output of an amplified microphone (Clio PRE-01 and Clio MIC-03,

Audiomatica) in response to a 94 dB SPL 1 kHz tone from a sound level calibrator (Cal73,

Brüel & Kjær). This calibration allowed us to determine the sound pressure level from the

microphone's voltage output. The microphone was then positioned where the excised locust

ear would be during experiments, and speaker voltages were adjusted to produce a flat response

across the stimulated frequency range (1–5 kHz). An in-house MATLAB graphical user

interface controlled the setup. In these experiments, we stained the excised locust ear

preparation with 0.1% Janus Green B (201677-5G, Sigma Aldrich) to enhance the contrast of

the scolopidium with its surrounding tissue.

The sub-pixel resolution motion of the scolopidium were tracked using Fiji/ImageJ

Template Matching plugin (https://sites.google.com/site/qingzongtseng/template-matching-ij-

plugin)[49]. The tracking method is based on Normalised Correlation Coefficient and Gaussian

peak fitting to localise the location of the correlation peak. The coordinates output from the

plugin were further analysed in MATLAB R2004a (Mathworks).

Whole-cell patch clamp and mechanical stimulation of a scolopidium

To expose Group-III auditory neurons for patch-clamp recordings, the fibrous tissue enclosing the medial–dorsal border of Müller's organ was digested by applying a solution of collagenase (0.5 mg/ml) and hyaluronidase (0.5 mg/ml; C5138 & H2126, Sigma-Aldrich) in extracellular saline. The enzymes were applied locally using a wide-bore (12 μm) patch pipette, which was also used to gently remove the softened tissue via suction, exposing the somatic membrane of the neurons.

To prepare for mechanical stimulation, the cap of a targeted scolopidium was released from its attachment cell by puffing saline from a separate wide-bore pipette. The same pipette was then used to hold the cap via gentle, continuous mouth suction, which was renewed approximately every minute to ensure a secure connection. A series of push-pull (axial) and up-down (normal) step displacements (1, 5, 10, 50, 100, 500, 1000, and 2000 nm) were delivered to the stimulating pipette using a PatchStar micromanipulator (Scientifica).

Scolopidia were visualized with a custom upright microscope (Cerna® Mini, Thor Labs) equipped with a 40× water-immersion objective (0.8 NA, 2 mm working distance; CFI APO NIR, Nikon). Patch-clamp electrodes (3-4 MΩ) were fabricated from borosilicate glass (GB150–8P, Science Products) using a vertical pipette puller (PC-100, Narishige). The intracellular (pipette) solution contained (in mM): 170 K-aspartate, 4 NaCl, 2 $MgCl_2$, 1 $CaCl_2$, 10 HEPES, 10 EGTA, and 20 tetraethylammonium (TEA). The extracellular saline contained (in mM): 185 NaCl, 10 KCl, 2 $MgCl_2$, 2 $CaCl_2$, 10 HEPES, 10 trehalose, 10 glucose, and 0.09 tetrodotoxin (TTX) citrate. To isolate and increase the magnitude of the transduction current, spikes were blocked using extracellular TTX and intracellular TEA. Electrophysiological signals were amplified, digitized, and recorded using an EPC 10 USB patch-clamp amplifier (HEKA Elektronik).

Scolopidia were visualised with an upright microscope (Custom Cerna® Mini Microscope, Thor Labs) using a water-immersion objective (40×, 0.8 numerical aperture, 2 mm working distance; CFI APO NIR, Nikon). Electrodes with tip resistances ranging from 3 to 4 MΩ were fabricated from borosilicate glass (inner diameter, 0.86 mm; GB150–8P, Science Products) using a vertical pipette puller (PC-100, Narishige). Recording pipettes were filled with intracellular saline containing the following (in mm): 170 K-aspartate, 4 NaCl, 2 $MgCl_2$, 1 $CaCl_2$, 10 HEPES, 10 EGTA, and 20 mm tetraethylammonium (TEA). The extracellular saline contained the following in mM: 185 NaCl, 10 KCl, 2 $MgCl_2$, 2 $CaCl_2$, 10 HEPES, 10 trehalose, 10 glucose, and 90 tetrodotoxin (TTX) citrate. Spikes were blocked through extracellular TTX

and intracellular (pipette) TEA to increase the magnitude of the transduction current. The
electrophysiological measurements were amplified, digitised, and recorded using an EPC 10
USB patch-clamp amplifier (HEKA Elektronik).
The data analysis was done in MATLAB R2004a (Mathworks). Peak detections of the
ensemble average transduction current (Fig.5 f, g) were done by detecting peak within a 30-ms
windows at the onset of step-stimulation using Matlab built-in peak detection package
'findpeaks'.
627

Statistical analysis
Descriptive data are presented as the mean ± standard deviation. Biological replicates are
denoted by N (number of locusts), E (number of ears), and n (number of cells). For the
statistical analysis in Fig. 5j-m, we fitted linear regression models to assess the correlation
between the transduction current and the logarithmic step displacement (from 50-2000 nm). To
test for statistical differences, we performed a one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's Honestly
Significant Difference (HSD) post-hoc test for multiple comparisons. The reported p-values
were obtained from the Tukey HSD procedure, while the t-statistics are from a Student's t-test.
Further details on the statistical analysis are available in the source data.
637

638 **Data availability**
639 Raw data and MATLAB codes supporting plots in this paper can be found in a public
640 repository. Source data for each figure are provided with this paper. Additional data can be
641 requested to the corresponding upon reasonable request.
642

643 **SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION**

646 **SUPPLEMENTARY MOVIE 1.** The 3D ultrastructure of a scolopidium.

Supplementary Movie 2
High-speed imaging of the sound-evoked motion of a scolopidium

90 dB		100 dB
	1 kHz	
	1.5 kHz	
	2 kHz	
	2.5 kHz	
	3 kHz	
	3.5 kHz	
	4 kHz	

5 µm

649 **SUPPLEMENTARY MOVIE 2.** High-speed imaging of the sound-evoked motion of the scolopidium.

652 **SUPPLEMENTARY MOVIE 3. Mechanical stimulation of the scolopidium cap**. The movie is played at 18.75
653 frames per second.

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