Outsourced hearing in spiders by using their webs as auditory sensors

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Abstract

Hearing is a fundamental sense of many animals, including all mammals, birds, some reptiles, amphibians, fish and arthropods^{1,2}. The auditory organs of these animals are extremely diverse in anatomy after hundreds of millions of years of evolution³⁻⁵, yet all are made up of cellular tissue and are embodied meaning that its functional anatomy is constrained by developmental morphogenesis. Here we show hearing in the orb-weaving spider, *Larinioides sclopetarius* is not constrained by embodiment but is extended through outsourcing hearing to its proteinaceous, self-manufactured orb-web, and hence under behavioral control, not developmental biology. We find the wispy, wheel-shaped orb-web acts as a hyperacute acoustic array to capture the sound-induced air particle movements that approach the maximum physical efficiency, better than the acoustic responsivity of all previously known ears^{6,7}. By manipulating the web threads with its eight vibration-sensitive legs⁸⁻¹⁰, the spider remotely detects and localizes the source of an incoming airborne acoustic wave emitted by approaching prey or predators. By outsourcing its acoustic sensors to its web, the spider is released from embodied morphogenetic constraints and permits the araneid spider to increase its sound-sensitive surface area enormously, up to 10,000 times greater than the spider itself¹¹. The use of the web also enables a spider the flexibility to functionally adjust and regularly regenerate its “external ear” according to its needs. This finding opens a new perspective on animal hearing—the “outsourcing” and “supersizing” of auditory function in a spider, one of the earliest animals to live on land¹². The novel hearing mechanism provides unique features for studying extended and regenerative sensing¹³⁻¹⁵, and designing novel acoustic flow detectors for precise fluid dynamic measurement and manipulation¹⁶⁻¹⁸.

During the water-to-land transition, animals have gone through dramatic challenges in aerial hearing^{3,4}. To effectively detect weak, distant airborne sound, terrestrial vertebrates and some invertebrates have evolved the tympanic eardrums which are very sensitive to the pressure component of sound^{3,19}.

Alternatively, some arthropods, especially those of miniscule size, have evolved pendulum-like, long wispy filaments to detect the velocity component of sound²⁰⁻²². While the auditory organs of different animals are extremely diverse in anatomy after hundreds of millions of years of evolution, they are all organs of cellular origin and hence embodied. Hence, they are necessarily constrained by morphogenesis.

Spiders are among the oldest land animals, with a fossil record dating back to the Devonian Period (around 380-million years ago)¹². All spiders produce silk, a biomaterial that can be stronger than steel in strength-to-weight ratio yet extremely flexible²³, owing to its exceptional material properties. When woven into a broad latticework, a web can serve as a net for capturing prey that fly or walk into it²⁴⁻²⁶. We previously showed that a single strand of nano-dimensional spider silk can move with a velocity very close to that of the surrounding air particle movements, with a flat frequency response from infrasound to ultrasound, despite the low viscosity and low density of air⁷. Here we show that the highly responsive aerodynamic property of silk fibers are woven and stretched into diaphanous orb-web can function as a huge acoustic array “antenna,” which allows the spider to efficiently detect faint airborne sound from a distant source. This outsourced web-array “ear” operates on a very different principle from the much smaller embodied auditory organs of all other animals.

We have found that the orb-weaving spiders detect and localize distant airborne sound (Fig. 1, Supplementary Video 1, Supplementary Video 2). Spiders used in this study are *Larinioides sclopetarius*, a familiar araneid related to the species celebrated by E.B. White, in “Charlotte’s Web”. All spiders were field-collected in Vestal, N.Y. and kept in laboratory conditions, where they spontaneously spin orb-webs within wooden frames (30 cm × 30 cm × 1 cm). We videotaped spider behavioral reactions (N=60 spiders) to airborne acoustic tones within a spacious closed anechoic room with a 60 fps video camera, in 2 different auditory configurations (see Extended Data Fig. 1, and Supplementary Table 1): 1) normal-incident sound waves to the orb-web plane, emitted from a frontally-positioned loudspeaker, 3.0 m away to the spider; and 2) oblique-incident directional sound waves, emitted from loudspeakers placed at 45 degrees to the left and right of the spider in azimuth, 0.5 m away. Before making any measurements, we ensured that the spiders were undisturbed and resting naturally within the hub region. Each spider was acoustically stimulated only once per trial. The behavior of each spider was video-monitored for 5 seconds after initiating the stimulus tone. Its behavior in the 5 seconds preceding acoustic stimulation served as the silent control period (0 dB). Within our sealed chamber there were no uncontrolled airflows or substrate vibrations (Extended Data Fig. 2) to disturb the spider; the airborne stimuli from the speakers were the only source of web vibrations.

The responsiveness and sensitivity of spiders to relatively distant (3.0 m) normal-incident acoustic waves are shown in Fig. 1a-d. Four distinct behavioral responses, in the form of rapid adaptations in body posture, were provoked by acoustic stimulation under 4 combinations of tone frequency (200 Hz and 1000 Hz) and sound pressure level (SPL, a “soft” 68 dB and an “intense” 88 dB). We assigned 48 spiders to 4 groups (N=12 spiders in each group). The duration of each tone stimulus, at a given SPL and frequency, was 3 seconds. Of 12 individuals tested in each group, 6/12 and 11/12 responded to the 200 Hz tones at 68 dB and 88 dB respectively, 3 /12 and 9/12 responded to the 1000 Hz tones to 68 dB and 88 dB sound levels, respectively, but none responded during silent controls. We identified several categories of intensity-dependent behaviors to 200 Hz tones. At high 88 dB levels (Fig. 1b, Supplementary Video 1), bodily responses consisted of 1) *crouching* (pulling the web strands slightly with legs), 2) *stretching-out* or *flattening of the body* (rapidly extending all 8 legs outward from the cephalothorax), 3) *foreleg displaying* (lifting the forelegs into the air), and 4) *turning* (abruptly changing the direction of the body). The response to the 88 dB stimuli was complex and variable—some spiders responded sequentially with

several behaviors, so we only recorded the spider's initial response for labeling the behavior. Importantly, the only behavioral response to the low intensity stimulation, at 68 dB was *crouching* (Fig. 1c).

We observed that spiders can localize the direction of airborne sound accurately. Active and rapid turning movements toward the source speaker were observed when the speaker location was shifted from normal to oblique incident (45°, L/R) in azimuth (Fig. 1e, f, Supplementary Video 2). Unlike normal-incident soundwaves that arrive at the orb-web plane simultaneously, oblique-incident soundwaves arrive with brief delays, creating directional acoustic cues such as time, amplitude and phase differences at different locations of the orb-web²⁸. Of 12 individuals tested for directional hearing, all (12/12, Fig. 1e) responded to oblique-incident 200 Hz tones at 88 dB (Extended Data Fig. 1d), similar to the high responsivity (11/12, Fig. 1b) to the normal-incident sound at 88 dB from the front. However, more spiders (5/12, Fig. 1e, f) responded to the directional oblique-incident sound by turning towards the stimulating speaker, compared to only 1 of 12 spiders (Fig. 1b) that turned in response to normal-incident sound.

Having found that *L. sclopetarius* spiders exhibit behavioral responses by detecting and localizing airborne sound, we then investigated the physical properties of the web as an acoustic array by measuring the mechanical response of the web to direct acoustic stimulation using sounds that are salient to spider hearing (Fig. 2, Supplementary Video 3, Supplementary Text). Using Doppler vibrometry, we measured sound-induced out-of-plane web motion for the web alone and with live spiders resting in the web's hub. The web was separated from a loudspeaker 3.0 m away and aligned so that the direction of sound propagation was perpendicular to the plane of the orb-web, creating a normal-incident planar sound wave (Extended Data Fig. 1e, f). We broadcast sinusoidal test tones ranging from 100 Hz to 10,000 Hz. The air particle velocity component, $u(t)$, of a sound wave was computed from the measurement of the pressure $p(t)$ using a calibrated pressure-sensitive microphone near, but not touching the web, where $u(t)=p(t)/\rho_0 c$, ρ_0 is the density of air, c is the speed of sound in air²⁹. Fig. 2a shows an example of the measured orb-web response to 200 Hz acoustic signals, in which the orb-web follows the air particle motion with almost full fidelity and maximum physical efficiency (i.e. $V_{web}/V_{air}\sim 1$), better than the acoustic responsivity of all known ears^{6,7}. Similarly, at other measurement frequencies, orb-webs responded effectively to airborne acoustic signals, a bandwidth encompassing the sounds produced by potential prey and predators, such as insects and birds (Fig 2c, e, Supplementary Audio 1, Extended Data Fig. 3, 4). The differences in velocity between the spider body and the web (Fig. 2d, e) suggest that mechanical strain is actively induced on the spider's legs when stimulated by airborne sound. In spiders, vibrational signals such as faint acoustic stimuli are presumably detected by the strain-sensitive lyriform organs located in spider legs⁸⁻¹⁰.

It is important to note that some spider species and insects can detect air particle velocity with pendulum-like, long, wispy cuticular hair receptors²⁰⁻²². It is also widely known that spiders can sense movements of the web when a vibrating stimulus is applied directly (touching) to the web silk²⁵⁻²⁷. To determine whether the spider is detecting highly circumscribed sound-induced web movements or is directly detecting some fluctuating acoustic quantity of the air (such as pressure or velocity) through some unidentified mechanosensor, we stimulated only small, focal regions of the web while ensuring that any airborne acoustic signal would have such a low amplitude that it would not be detectable by the spider, perched in the center of the web, distant from such a focal acoustic stimulus.

To accomplish this, we used a miniature speaker (dimensions 15 mm × 11 mm × 3 mm) as a focal sound source (Fig. 3a). The speaker was positioned 50 mm in radial distance away from the spider, that was resting in the web's hub. By aligning the small speaker as near as possible to the web without actually touching it, we created a localized "near-field" sound causing oscillations in air particle velocity, from the mini-speaker, but which rapidly decayed with distance as it propagates through the air (Fig. 3b, c). We showed that the near-field airborne stimulation generated by the mini-speaker attenuated quickly with

distance, and fell well below the spider's detection threshold after it spread to distantly perched spider (<50 dB, see Fig. 3b, c and Extended Data Fig. 5). However, the out-of-plane web movements induced by the airborne sound created by the mini-speaker attenuated less, so that vibrational signals were transmitted to the spider. Results show that the spiders perceived minute localized web vibrations at extremely low intensity levels (Fig. 3d, e). Of 12 individuals, 4 responded to 200 Hz web vibration tones of 3 s duration with equivalent SPL ≤ 68 dB ($V_{\text{rms}} \leq 0.12$ mm/s). Spiders responded to these minute web vibrations by *crouching*, just as they respond to airborne stimuli at 68 dB from a loudspeaker 3 m away (Fig. 1c, d). The behavioral response of spiders to minute web vibrations induced by the focal airborne sound confirms their abilities to perceive airborne acoustic signals solely by detecting web movements. Given a web-enabled hearing threshold lower than 68 dB (Fig. 3d), orb-weaving spiders should be able to detect and localize predators and prey such as birds and crickets at a distance more than 10 m away, considering the sound loudness produced by distant animals (Supplementary Table 2).

Outsourcing the acoustic sensors to its web provides the spider with the flexibility to adjust its hearing adaptively according to its needs. When an orb-web is torn or badly damaged that disrupts its radial symmetry, an orb-weaver can recover its hearing through the acoustic array by weaving a new one within an hour. By adjusting web geometries and pre-tensions during the web weaving, the spider is able to adjust both the level and tuning of the mechanical input from the web threads to the metatarsal organ (See Supplementary Text and Extended Data Fig. 6). For example, a variably-tensioned orb-web could efficiently filter out the bio-irrelevant low frequency noises which are unavoidable in the natural environment, such as the wind perturbation which has tremendous velocity and pressure amplitude than that of biorelevant acoustic signals. In principle, the multipodal spider can adaptively tune its hearing in real-time by behaviorally manipulating its extended "virtual eardrum". Each of its 8 legs is endowed with sensitive metatarsal organs that can be extended in all directions from the center of the web, representing "well-connected" nodes in the wheel-shaped network, consisting of smaller local nodes to interface with the web dynamics. On the one hand, the 8 legs are points of sampling and amplification for sensing, and on the other hand they could serve as feedforward controllers by adjusting postures and positions that amplifies directionality and sensitivity actively^{30, 31}. The size and shape of an orb web can be varied to meet the needs of a spider's sensory and feeding ecology and demonstrates a remarkable level of flexibility in this surprising bioacoustic control system.

Biologists and material scientists are still discovering new properties of spider silk that can be repurposed as a biomaterial and deployed for practical human applications. Here, we demonstrate how a spider web made of nanoscale protein fibers serves as a megascale acoustic airflow sensor, contrasted sharply with all auditory organs made up cellular tissue, and necessarily subjected to morphogenetic constraints. By getting rid of the morphogenetic constraint, the sensory surface area is up-scaled extensively, much as a radio-telescope senses electromagnetic signals from cosmic sources. The web is analogous to an eardrum in other animals, but it senses the velocity of air particles, not its collective pressure. Spider webs are marvels of bio-architecture that greatly extend the spider's capacity to sense and capture prey much larger than the spider itself^{14,15,32}. The spiders also have the flexibility to tune and regenerate their hearing by manipulating the orb-webs. The novel hearing mechanism could provide unique features for studying extended and regenerative sensing¹³⁻¹⁵, and presage a new generation of acoustic fluid-flow detectors in the domain of nanoscale biosensors for applications requiring precise fluid dynamic measurement and manipulation¹⁶⁻¹⁸.

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Fig. 1 | Adaptive behavioral responses made by orb-weaving spiders stimulated by remote airborne sound. Two acoustic hearing conditions of airborne tone stimulation were investigated: 1) normal-incident sound (a-d), generated by a loudspeaker, 3.0 m distance to the spider, with a propagated direction perpendicular to the plane of the orb-web; 2) oblique-incident sound (e-f), from one of two identical loudspeakers, 0.50 m distance, randomly placed to the left and right side of the spider, 45° in azimuth. a, Percentage of spider response (4 groups, N=12 spiders in each group) to normal-incident acoustic tones of 3 s duration. b-d, Behavioral response categories and response latencies (each value, median, interquartile, and range) to 200 Hz tones. NA represents no behavioral response in the pie charts. e, Response (N=12 spiders) to oblique-incident acoustic tones (200 Hz, 88 dB). f, Percentage of spiders correctly turning towards the randomly assigned direction of a sound source.

Fig. 2 | Spider orb-web is an enormous, adjustable, regenerative, and highly sensitivity acoustic array without morphogenetic constraints. a-e, Orb-web responses to remote normal-incident sound, generated by a loudspeaker, 3.0 m distance to the spider. **a**, Out-of-plane motion of a complete orb-web induced by a 200 Hz steady-state sound field (see Supplementary Video 1). The colored heat map represents the amplitude ratio of the web thread velocity V to the air particle velocity V_{air} , e.g. 90% represents $V/V_{\text{air}}=0.9\sim1.0$. **b**, **c**, Time-domain traces and spectrograms of the airborne acoustic signal³³ measured by a pressure microphone (**b**), and the signal-induced web motion measured by a laser vibrometer (**c**) at the hub web position as shown in **a**. The audio clip of the measured web motion is provided as Supplementary Audio 1. The acoustic signal spans a wide range of frequencies (100 Hz-10000 Hz) including hymenopteran wing-beats, cricket chirpings, and bird songs. **d**, Heat map depiction of out-of-plane motion of web containing a live spider, induced by a 200 Hz sound field (Supplementary Video 1). Color coding of **d** same as **a**. **e**, Statistic frequency responses of the spider orb-webs (N=12) to airborne sound. Individual measurement (1 of 12) contains 1 location on a spider body, 1 location on an orb-web frame base, and 4 locations (up, down, left, and right) on radial threads of an orb-web in radial distance of 5 cm away from its hub, without and with the spiders resting in the hub webs. Error bars show one standard deviation (SD).

Fig. 3 | Spider behavioral responses to orb-web movements stimulated by focal airborne sound. a, Schematic diagram of setup. Highly localized near-field sound was generated by a miniature speaker, placed as close to the orb-web without touching it, 50 mm distance in radial distance from a spider resting in its hub web. **b, c,** Focal airborne sound field at 200 Hz, measured in the orb-web plane as marked by the magenta rectangular region in **a**. The near-field sound is velocity dominant, where the sound pressure level (**b**) is almost ignorable in compared with the sound velocity level (**c**). Minispeaker airborne acoustic signals attenuate quickly and fell well below the detection threshold of spiders (see Methods) after propagating to where the spider sat (< 50 dB), while the induced out-of-plane web movements (**c**) attenuate less (≤ 68 dB). **d, e,** Behavioral response categories and response latencies (each value, median, interquartile and range) to focal tones (200 Hz, equivalent SPL ≤ 68 dB, 3 s duration).

Methods

Spiders and their orb-webs. Orb-weaving spiders, *Larinioides sclopetarius*, were collected from natural habitats in Vestal, N.Y., and kept in laboratory conditions (approx. 22°C temperature, a 12 h: 12 h light-dark cycle), where they spontaneously spin orb-webs within wooden frames (30 cm × 30 cm × 1 cm) in transparent enclosures with fruit flies (*Drosophila*). After weaving the orb-webs, spiders positioned themselves to settle within the hub region of the orb-webs, as in nature. A red dim light was always turned on to enable basic visualization for setting up experiments during all light-dark cycles. Female spiders were used in all experiments. The ranges of body length and weight of spiders are 5-8 mm and 0.7-1.9 mN, respectively.

Experimental setups. Three kinds of speaker configurations were used to create different airborne sound waves around the orb-web: 1) remote normal-incident sound wave propagating in the direction perpendicular to the plane of the web was generated by a subwoofer (Coustic HT612) and a tweeter (ESS Heil AMT1) with the crossover set at 2 kHz, placed 3.0 m away to the plane of the orb-web as shown in Extended Data Fig. 1a; 2) oblique-incident sound was created by two identical loudspeakers (NSM Model 5), placed 0.50 m away, 45° in azimuth on the left and right side of the spider, as shown in Extended Data Fig. 1b; 3) focal sound was generated by a miniature speaker (CUI CMS-15118D-L100, dimensions 15 mm × 11 mm × 3 mm), placed close to the web without touching (about 2 mm distance to the orb-web plane), 50 mm in radial distance from the spider resting in its hub web as shown in Fig. 3a.

The sound pressure $p(t)$ around the orb-web was measured by a calibrated microphone (B&K 4138) placed close to the orb-web without touching. The out-of-plane motion of the orb-web was measured by a laser Doppler vibrometer (Polytec OFV-534). To measure different locations, the laser Doppler vibrometer was mounted on a precise 2-dimensional linear stage (Newport ILS250PP), controlled by a motion controller (Newport model ESP 301). The built-in camera within the vibrometer enabled the visualization of the measurement position on the orb-web. Base vibration was measured with a tri-axial accelerometer (PCB 356A11). A data acquisition system (NI PXI-1033) was used to acquire data. Spider behavioral responses were recorded using a video camera of 60 fps.

Testing of spider behavioral response to airborne sound. The spiders' behavioral reactions to airborne, tonal stimuli were videotaped under 3 acoustic conditions: 1) normal-incident sound waves (N=48 spiders), 2) oblique-incident directional sound waves (N=12 spiders), and 3) small focused beams of sounds (N=12 spiders). Detailed experimental configurations are listed in Supplementary Table 1. Before making any measurements, we ensured that spiders were undisturbed and resting in the hub of their orb-webs. To guarantee this, after gently placing it in the testing area, the spider was left alone in the anechoic chamber for 0.5 h before playing tonal stimulation. If a spider responds with multiple behaviors to stimuli, we counted only the initial response when parsing among categories of behavior. At 88 dB stimulation, we noted that the spider's body posture sometimes resulted in a very slight rotation, so we labeled such behavior as a *turn* only when a spider's turn angle was unambiguously greater than 10 degrees. The response latency of an individual spider was counted from the recorded video frame number starting from the beginning of the stimuli. For behavior reactions to the oblique-incident sound, while a complete audio trial contains 4 sub clips (Extended Data Fig. 1d), we counted only the probability of successful source localization of spiders in response to the first sub audio.

Characterization of the normal-incident sound field. By placing speakers far away (3.0 m) from the spider web in our anechoic chamber (Extended Data Fig. 1a), we approximately created a normal-incident planar acoustic field. The direction of the propagation of the sound waves was roughly perpendicular to

the plane of the orb-web. Extended Data Fig. 1e shows an example of the measured sound pressure level (SPL) at 200 Hz around the spider orb-web in an area of 240 mm × 240 mm with scanned gap distance 10 mm, which is considerably uniform with a SPL variation within 1 dB at different locations. The broadband SPL at all measured locations is shown in Extended Data Fig. 1f, which has a variation within 2 dB under the measured frequency. The sound field around the spider web can be regarded as a plane wave approximately, considering the little variation of SPL. For a plane sound wave, the air particle velocity $u(t)$ nearby the orb-web can be determined by measuring the sound pressure $p(t)$ according to $u(t)=p(t)/\rho_0 c$, where ρ_0 is the density of air, c is the speed of sound in air. The sound pressure level (SPL) was calculated by $SPL = 20\log_{10}(P_{RMS}/P_{ref})$, where P_{RMS} is the root mean square of the measured sound pressure $p(t)$, $P_{ref}=20 \mu\text{Pa}$ is the reference pressure.

Measurement of the airborne acoustic responsivity of the orb-webs. We characterized the airborne acoustic responsivity of the orb-webs under well-controlled normal-incident plane-wave sound field as shown in Extended Data Fig. 1a. To precisely characterize the frequency responses, we used a short period of pure tones at various frequencies from 100 Hz to 10000 Hz. The measured data was then processed at each frequency with Least Squares Data Fitting to estimate the amplitude and phase of the measured airborne acoustic waves from microphone and the motion of the web threads measured by the laser vibrometer. To measure the velocity responses of a spider and its peripheral orb-web, it's crucial to keep the spider stable during the measurement process. To avoid the motion interruption from the behavioral responses, we stimulated a spider with acoustic tones (200 Hz, 88 dB, 3 s duration) before frequency measurement. After several cycles of acoustic stimulus, a spider rarely responded to the stimuli and kept stable so the measurement could be completed.

Mapping the orb-web motion induced by airborne sound. We mapped the out-of-plane motion of the orb-web at different locations with and without the spider resting in hub web respectively, and then recreated the motion based on the measured velocity response of web threads at different locations under a certain measurement frequency f . Suppose the air particle velocity is $u(t)=Ue^{i\omega t}$, the motion of a web position can be expressed as $v(t)=Ve^{i\omega t}$, where $\omega=2\pi f$, U and V are complex amplitudes. Since the air particle velocity around all measured web threads can be approximately regarded to be uniform in the normal-incident plane-wave sound field, the complex amplitude of the air particle velocity nearby all measured web positions can be expressed as $U=|U|e^{i\varphi}$, where φ is the phase. Supposed the measured complex amplitude at a web position n is $V_n = |V_n|e^{i\varphi_n}$, the time response of the measured point to a steady-state airborne sound can be expressed as $v_n(t) = |V_n|e^{i\varphi_n}e^{i\omega t}$. As the measured frequency responses of web threads at different locations contain the velocity amplitude as well as phase, these results can be used to create the steady-state motion of the measured objects. Figures and videos (Fig. 1a, Fig. 1d, and Supplementary Video S3) demonstrating the out-of-plane motion of the spider and its orb-web were created by STAR 7, a commercial modal analysis software.

Characterization of the focal sound field. We characterized the airborne signals as well as the out-of-plane transverse motion of web strands induced by the miniature speaker. Both sound pressure level (SPL, Fig. 3b) and sound velocity level (SVL, Fig. 3c) of the sound field were characterized. We scanned the acoustic pressure field by a probe microphone. The acoustic velocity field was characterized by an easily made velocity probe, constituted by the laser Doppler vibrometer and a strand of spider silk⁷. The spider silk has a sub-micron diameter, 5 mm length, and was supported at its two ends loosely. By focusing the laser beam perpendicular to the longitudinal direction of the spider silk at its middle position, we measured the silk motion induced by the motion of the air particles. Before scanning of the velocity field in the orb-web plane, we confirmed that the silk velocity probe representing the air particle motion closely (i.e.

361 $V_{\text{silk}}/V_{\text{air}} \sim 1$) in the measured frequency, as shown by the insert figure in Supplementary Data Fig. 5a. Since
362 velocity is a vector, we scanned the acoustic particle velocity in 3 dimensions, including V_x , V_y and V_z .
363 The overall amplitude of velocity V (Fig. 3c) at a position was evaluated by $V = (V_x^2 + V_y^2 + V_z^2)^{-1/2}$. To
364 compare between the air particle velocity and sound pressure, the sound velocity level (SVL) was
365 calculated by $\text{SVL} = 20\log_{10}(V_{\text{RMS}}/V_{\text{ref}})$, where V_{RMS} is the root mean square of the measured particle
366 velocity V , $V_{\text{ref}} = P_{\text{ref}}/\rho_0 c$ is the reference velocity.

367 Before propagating to the location of spider, the nearfield airborne signals fell well below the detection
368 threshold of the spiders^{10, 20}. The SPL (Fig. 3b) was below 30 dB, while the SVL (Fig. 3c) was lower than
369 50 dB ($V_{\text{rms}} < 0.016$ mm/s) after reaching to the spider. The ultralow airborne signal is even lower than the
370 detection threshold of the jumping spider²⁰, which enables the best-known spider sensitivity (~ 65 dB) so
371 far. We never observed any behavioral response of spiders to 50 dB normal-incident airborne stimuli.

372 The out-of-plane transverse motion of web strands induced by the mini-speaker attenuated slower than
373 the near-field airborne signals, so as to transmit the local vibrational signals to the spider (Fig. 3c and
374 Supplementary Data Fig. 5d). Since the initial SVL generated by the mini-speaker 50 mm away from the
375 spider is about 88 dB, and it attenuates about 20 dB after 40 mm, the equivalent SPL of the vibrational
376 signals transmitted to the spider is less than 68 dB.

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386 **Data and materials availability** All data are included in this published article (and its supplementary
387 information files).

388 **Additional information**

389 **Supplementary Information** is available for this paper.

390 Supplementary Materials:

391 Supplementary Text

392 Supplementary Table 1

393 Supplementary Table 2

394 References

395 Other Supplementary Materials:

396 Supplementary Movie 1

397 Supplementary Movie 2

398 Supplementary Movie 3

399 Supplementary Audio 1

400

Extended Data Fig. 1 | Generation of remote airborne sound. **a, b**, Schematic diagrams of the normal-incident and oblique-incident sound setups. **c**, An example of the normal-incident acoustic stimuli (200 Hz, 88 dB, 3 s duration). The top and bottom images show the time traces and the fast Fourier transform (FFT) of the acoustic signals. **d**, An example of the oblique-incident stimuli. A complete stimuli contains 4 sub directional clips of duration 0.3 s (200 Hz, 88 dB) with the silent gap of 0.2 s. Individual spider was randomly subjected to one of the patterns of directional acoustic tones, either L+R+L+R or R+L+R+L, where L represents the sound generated by the left loudspeaker, while R represents the sound generated by the right speaker. **e**, An example of the normal-incident sound fields around the spider orb-web at 200 Hz. **f**, Normal-incident sound pressure level (SPL) around the orb-web at a wide range of frequencies. The minimum, mean, and maximum SPL are presented. Normal-incident sound field can be regarded as a planewave approximately.

Extended Data Fig. 2 | Speaker-induced base excitations. Excitations are measured at the base of the orb-web supporting frame with a tri-axial accelerometer. **a**, Noise floor of the accelerometer. **b**, Base excitations of the focal sound setup. **c**, **d**, Base excitation of the oblique-incident sound setup. **e-h**, Base excitations of the normal-incident sound setup. In the figure legends, X, Y, Z represent the measured 3-dimensional directions, T represents the reported threshold of spider metatarsal lyriform organ¹⁰. Except the excitation condition as shown in **h**, which is more than 2 times (6 dB) lower, all speaker-induced base excitations are more than 10 times (20 dB) lower than the threshold of the spider metatarsal lyriform organ.

Extended Data Fig. 3 | Orb-web responses to remote normal-incident sound. **a, b**, Out-of-plane motion of a complete orb-web induced by a steady-state sound field at 1000 Hz and 5000 Hz. **c, d**, Out-of-plane motion of an orb-web containing a live spider, induced by a sound field at 1000 Hz and 5000 Hz. Color coding of **b, c, d** same as **a**. The colored heat map represents the amplitude ratio of the web thread velocity V to the air particle velocity V_{air} .

Extended Data Fig. 4 | Time-domain traces and spectrograms of the sound-induced orb-web motion containing a live spider. The normal-incident airborne acoustic signal (**a**) was measured by a pressure microphone nearby the spider. The out-of-plane web motion (**b**) was measured by a laser vibrometer at a radial web thread, 2 mm away from the spider foreleg.

Extended Data Fig. 5 | Focal airborne acoustic field generated by the miniature speaker. a-c, Measured sound velocity level (SVL) in 3-dimensions along the plane of the orb-web. The air particle velocity in each dimension was mapped by a silk velocity probe, whose characteristics are shown as the insert figure in **a**. The 3-dimensional velocity components constitute the overall SVL as shown in Fig. 3c. **d**, Statistic attenuation of the out-of-plane web vibration along the radial threads of orb-webs (N=12 spiders). Error bars show one standard deviation. The near-field airborne signal is also shown as comparison, extracted from the overall SVL measured at multiple locations (Fig. 3c, x=0 mm, y=0~40 mm). The out-of-plane motion of web threads induced by the mini-speaker attenuated slower than the airborne signals, so as to transmit the vibrational signals to the spider.

Extended Data Fig. 6 | Tuning the acoustic properties of the spider silk by tension. The solid lines show the frequency responses of a single strand of spider silk ($L=3$ cm, $d=1.5$ μm) measured in the middle position under various tensile stress. The spider silk is supported at its two ends as shown by the insert figure. The propagation direction of the acoustic waves is perpendicular to the direction of the silk. The dash lines show the predicted frequency responses according to our simplified analytical model (see Supplementary Text). The applied tension (0-0.21 mN) ranges from zero to a fraction of the body weight of spiders (0.7-1.9 mN).