

Review

Comprehensive analysis of the global impact and distribution of tick paralysis

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SUMMARY Tick paralysis is a potentially fatal condition caused by neurotoxins secreted by the salivary glands of certain ticks. Documented cases have been reported worldwide, predominantly in the United States, Canada, and Australia, with additional reports from Europe and Africa. This condition also affects animals, leading to significant economic losses and adverse impacts on animal health and welfare. To date, 75 tick species, mostly hard ticks, have been identified as capable of causing this life-threatening condition. Due to symptom overlap with other conditions, accurate diagnosis of tick paralysis is crucial to avoid misdiagnosis, which could result in adverse patient outcomes. This review provides a comprehensive analysis of the current literature on tick paralysis, including implicated tick species, global distribution, tick toxins, molecular pathogenesis, clinical manifestations, diagnosis, treatment, control, and prevention. Enhancing awareness among medical and veterinary professionals is critical for improving the management of this condition's health impacts on both humans and animals.

KEYWORDS Tick paralysis, ticks, human cases, toxin, neurotoxin, clinical manifestations

INTRODUCTION

Tick paralysis is a condition caused by neurotoxins secreted by the salivary glands of certain female or male ticks. Of the 900 known tick species, 61 hard ticks and 14 soft ticks are implicated in tick paralysis (see [Table 1](#)) (1). The condition affects both humans and animals, typically presenting with initial gait instability (2), followed by flaccid ascending motor weakness and paralysis (3). The term “tick paralysis” was first introduced in 1824 during the expedition of Hume and Hovell from Sydney to Port Phillip Bay (Melbourne) (4). Whether the condition identified by these explorers was indeed tick paralysis remains debatable.

The first documented human cases of tick paralysis appeared in the scientific literature from Canada in 1912, reported by parasitologist John Todd. He documented 14 cases observed by nine medical doctors in British Columbia (BC), all in children, with five fatalities (5). Hadwen meticulously investigated tick paralysis in both humans and animals, proposing three key findings: first, paralysis occurred only in animals on which female ticks had been feeding for approximately a week; second, the paralysis symptoms were likely caused by a toxin; and third, without tick removal, the progression from general weakness to death from respiratory paralysis was rapid (6). Subsequent studies corroborated Hadwen's observations. Rose (7), Mail and Gregson (8), and Schmitt et al. (9) reviewed prior cases of tick paralysis in humans, noting a fatality rate of over 10%.

In this study, we reviewed a substantial number of human cases documented worldwide, with a focus on those primarily reported in

the United States, Canada, and Australia (Fig. 1 and Table S1), along with sporadic cases from Africa, Asia, and Europe (10). The disease typically occurs in spring and summer but can be observed year-round (11, 12). It most commonly affects children younger than eight years, though it has been diagnosed in individuals of all ages (10). Tick paralysis also induces general weakness or neurological symptoms in birds, mammals, reptiles, and rodents (Table 1), with significant economic implications for the livestock industry (13).

Given the substantial impact of tick paralysis on both human and animal health, analyzing current literature is crucial for understanding the condition's magnitude. Building on the insights gained from historical cases, global distribution, and the impact on animals, this review synthesizes the latest research on tick species, toxins, and strategies for prevention and control. We hope this review will enhance the knowledge of medical and veterinary professionals, as well as the public, regarding tick paralysis.

LITERATURE SEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA EXTRACTION

A comprehensive literature search was conducted on tick paralysis cases published up to December 31, 2023, across eight electronic bibliographic databases: PubMed, Google Scholar, ScienceDirect, Wiley, CABI (<https://www.cabi.org/>), CNKI (<https://www.cnki.net/>), VIP Chinese Journal Database (<http://qikan.cqvip.com/>), and Wanfang Data (<https://g.wanfangdata.com.cn/index.html>). For the first five databases (PubMed, Google Scholar, ScienceDirect, Wiley, and CABI), the search utilized keywords such as "tick paralysis," "paralysis case,"

"tick bite," and "tick infection". In the three Chinese databases (CNKI, VIP, and Wnfang), the search was conducted using the Chinese translations of these keywords. There were no restrictions on the publication year. Duplicate cases and publications with inaccessible full texts were excluded after a thorough review. Information was extracted regarding the first author, year and region of the report, patient age, clinical manifestations, tick attachment site, prognosis, and the likely source of tick infestation, as detailed in [Table S1](#).

TICK PARALYSIS AND ASSOCIATED TICK SPECIES

Although tick bites are common, tick paralysis is extraordinarily rare, with most tick bites not leading to this condition. Since the first case of tick paralysis was described in 1824, 75 out of over 900 known tick species have been implicated in causing tick paralysis (2). These include 61 hard-tick species (Family: Ixodidae) and 14 soft-tick species (Family: Argasidae). Among the hard ticks, the implicated species include 19 *Ixodes* spp., 10 *Dermacentor* spp., 10 *Rhipicephalus* spp., 8 *Amblyomma* spp., 7 *Haemaphysalis* spp., 6 *Hyalomma* spp., and 1 *Rhipicentor* sp. have been identified. The soft ticks implicated are 10 *Argas* spp., 3 *Ornithodoros* spp., and 1 *Otobius* sp. ([Table 1](#)). Hard ticks are primarily responsible for causing paralysis in mammals, including humans, cats, cattle, coyotes, deer, dogs, goats, porcupines, sheep, and skunks. They are also occasionally involved in tick paralysis cases in reptiles and birds ([Table 1](#)).

Of the species causing tick paralysis, at least 26 are associated with human cases ([Table S2](#)). Most of these are ixodid ticks, with their

location, detection year, and related clinic manifestations detailed in [Table S1](#). Most reported cases (212 of 288) occurred in North America ($n = 177$) and Australia ($n = 35$). Most patients are affected by a single tick species, with the most common being *Dermacentor andersoni*, *De. variabilis*, and *Ixodes holocyclus* ([Table S1-S2](#), [Fig. 2](#)). In North America, *De. andersoni* (primarily found in the Rocky Mountain states and Pacific Northwest of the USA) and *De. variabilis* (found in the eastern half of the USA and along the West Coast) are the most common ticks causing human paralysis (13). Cases involving *De. andersoni* and *De. variabilis* typically present with ascending flaccid paralysis, diminished reflexes, and ataxic symptoms, although rare symptoms like typhus-like rash and dilated pupils have also been recorded (14, 15). Paralytic symptoms usually improve following tick removal. Additionally, *Amblyomma americanum*, *Am. maculatum*, and *Ixodes scapularis* are prevalent in the southeastern United States and are associated with human cases (16, 17).

In Australia, *Ix. holocyclus*, which has a wide host range (> 30 species) (18), is the most common tick causing the death of thousands of domestic and wild animals annually, including dogs and cats, with up to 10% mortality (19). It is also a significant cause of tick paralysis in both animals and humans ([Table 1](#)). Most cases of paralysis due to this tick progress for at least 24 hours and require a long recovery period after tick removal, sometimes necessitating supportive care such as mechanical ventilation. Although *Ix. holocyclus* is widely distributed along the eastern coasts of Australia, *Ixodes cornuatus* poses a significant risk of tick paralysis in Tasmania and Victoria (18). Recently, this species was found on birds for the first time, causing their death and expanding its host ranges from mammals to birds (20).

Other hard tick species cause sporadic cases in different regions or countries ([Table S2](#)).

There have also been reports of human patients infested with more than two tick species simultaneously ([Table S1](#)), though single-species infestations are more common. In Sri Lanka, *Hyalomma marginatum isaaci* and *Dermacentor auratus* are prevalent among animal populations, but they were also detected in the ear canals of 29 patients simultaneously (21). Co-infestations of *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*, *Hyalomma dromedarii*, *Hyalomma anatolicum excavatum*, and *Haemaphysalis* sp. were recorded in two children in Egypt (22). These co-infestations are more frequent in families who farm livestock or live near tick-endemic regions.

Tick paralysis is caused by neurotoxins secreted by adult female ticks or immature stages during blood feeding (2). Generally, adult male ticks (hard ticks) are not considered significant contributors to paralysis due to their relatively small toxin output. During the same feeding period, females secrete toxic contents in quantities several times higher than males (23). However, some clinical cases suggest that adult male ticks might play a role in tick paralysis. As early as 1914, Todd (24) documented a 2-year-old girl who was unable to walk and lacked deep tendon reflexes, with an adult female tick and an adult male tick found on her neck. The Centers for Disease Control (CDC) also recorded a case involving a little girl who presented with unsteady gait, inability to walk, generalized paralysis, and weak grip; a male and a female *De. variabilis* were detected on her scalp (25). Hadwen proposed that only animals fed by female ticks for around a week experienced paralysis (6), leading to most research focusing on females while the role of males was neglected.

However, isolated reports have linked male ticks to paralysis. In the literature by Brown (26), a male *De. andersoni* was collected from the left axilla of a young man exhibiting tick paralysis signs, including spotted fever, difficulty lifting arms, weakness, and pain in arms. Erasmus (27) and Swanepoel (28) observed a male *Hyalomma truncatum* tick in the right axilla of a 21-year-old man and a 16-year-old man, respectively, both suffering from paralysis symptoms. In 1962, Ben-Bassat (29) recorded a 19-year-old boy with complete right arm paralysis who had a male tick found in his right axilla. A male *De. variabilis* was implicated in the paralysis of an 82-year-old patient (30). More recently, in 2003, Edussuriya and Weilgama (21) reported a male *Hy. marginatum isaaci* in a patient's ear. These instances suggest that male ticks may also produce neurotoxins that cause tick paralysis, though such cases are rare. Interestingly, male tick-induced paralysis has mostly occurred in adult men, with most ticks being engorged. This implies that male ticks can induce tick paralysis only when they feed continuously until neurotoxins reach a threshold. Given that a single male tick produces one-seventh as many neurotoxins as a female over the feeding period (23) and that paralysis typically does not occur until females have fed for 4 to 5 days, it may take approximately 20 days for a male tick to accumulate enough neurotoxins to cause paralysis.

Soft ticks can also cause tick paralysis, though less frequently compared to hard ticks. Argasid ticks mainly induce paralysis of fowls. Unlike adult female hard ticks, larvae of soft ticks can cause paralysis due to their long feeding period, which may extend to several days. Peacock (31) described a case of nymphal *Otobius megnini* found in the right ear canal of a 16-month-old boy with a paralysis illness that

lasted about 2 weeks. No additional human tick-paralysis cases caused by soft ticks have been reported, although paralysis-like symptoms and tick-borne diseases involving argasids are documented (32–34), likely because argasids rarely use humans as hosts.

TICK PARALYSIS AND ASSOCIATED TOXICOSES

Tick paralysis is a serious condition caused by neurotoxins from various tick species. It leads to ascending muscle paralysis and, in severe cases, respiratory failure (35). This condition is triggered by neurotoxins produced in the salivary glands of ticks and secreted into the host during blood-feeding. The toxins are primarily produced by female or immature stages of hard ticks and immature stages of soft ticks (35–43). These toxins adversely affect the host's neurological system, with toxin levels peaking after several days of tick engorgement (44). The first identified toxin causing tick paralysis, holocyclotoxin, was discovered in *Ix. holocyclus* by Stone et al. in 1983. It is produced in the large salivary glands of feeding female ticks (45). Other paralytic toxins have since been identified in *Argas walkerae*, *De. andersoni*, and *Rh. evertsi* (Table 2). In ixodid ticks, the salivary glands are composed of acini, divided into four groups (I, II, III, IV), with Group-III acini (E type cells) being the most likely source of paralysis toxins (46). Toxins first appear in hosts on the third day of tick attachment and increase as the feeding duration extends (47).

Ticks can cause various forms of toxicoses, including paralysis and general toxicoses, during blood meals (34, 44, 48–50). These

toxicoses are associated with tick feeding (51, 52), such as sand tampan toxicoses from *Ornithodoros savignyi* (53), *Hy. truncatum* toxicoses, which includes sweating sickness, Mhlosinga and Magudu, and necrotic stomatitis nephrosis syndrome (54, 55), and other toxicoses from *Rh. microplus* (56), *Rh. appendiculatus* (57), *De. marginatus* (51, 58), *Ix. redikorzevi* (51, 59), and *Or. gurneyi* (60). Understanding the diverse range of toxins and their effects on hosts highlights the importance of researching tick-induced toxicoses. This understanding will be further explored through the specific mechanisms of paralysis caused by different tick families. The molecular characterization of these toxins and their pathogenesis is crucial and will be discussed in the following section.

Paralysis Caused by Ticks of Family Ixodidae

The Ixodidae family comprises several tick species that cause paralysis through the release of neurotoxins, with each species exhibiting unique characteristics and timing of paralysis onset. For example, paralysis in *Rh. evertsi evertsi* occurs between days 4 and 5 of feeding, when the tick reaches a body mass of 15-21 mg (61, 62). Similarly, paralysis caused by *Ix. holocyclus* is detected after 4-5 days of feeding, while in *De. variabilis*, paralysis occurs approximately 6-8 days after attachment (9, 63). Paralysis generally occurs during rapid engorgement, between 3-7 days of tick attachment, when the feeding site is firmly established (64). The toxins released by three genera of hard ticks are discussed in further detail below. Detailed examination of ixodid (hard) ticks reveals the complexity of their toxic effects and the need for targeted research into their

specific mechanisms. Next, we will explore how paralysis differs among various Ixodidae ticks and compare their effects.

Paralysis associated with *Amblyomma* ticks. Eight *Amblyomma* species have been documented to cause paralysis ([Table 1](#)). These ticks affect a wide range of hosts, including cattle, dogs, goats, humans, sheep, and snakes, with recovery occurring a few days after tick removal. However, there is a lack of experimental research to confirm their paralysis-inducing capabilities, toxicosis, or the underlying mechanisms involved.

Paralysis associated with *Dermacentor* ticks. Ten *Dermacentor* species are implicated in tick paralysis (64). *De. andersoni* toxins affect efferent motor neurons and can parasitize dogs, sheep, cattle, guinea pigs, hamsters, and humans (64, 65). These toxins act as presynaptic targets by suppressing acetylcholine (ACh) release at neuromuscular junctions (48). Early removal of *De. andersoni* ticks can reverse paralysis (66). Studies on hamsters have shown that the virulence of *De. andersoni* colonies increases with selection over generations, posing a significant threat to the cattle industry due to their paralysis-inducing potential (67). The salivary gland proteins of these ticks increase with feeding, with antigen levels positively correlated to tick weight gain between 25 and 250 mg (68). Wikel observed that *De. andersoni* infestation can reduce T-lymphocyte proliferation in vitro, suggesting an immunosuppressive effect likely related to salivary

gland proteins (69, 70). Further experiments confirmed this effect, with salivary gland extracts from unmated female ticks reducing T-lymphocyte responsiveness by up to 68.4% (71). Bergman et al. detected soluble proteins in the salivary gland supernatants of wood ticks that suppressed murine splenocyte proliferation *in vitro* (72). A 36 kDa immunosuppressive protein was later isolated from the wood tick salivary gland, and its amino acid sequence was characterized (73). This protein, present in both male and female *De. andersoni*, showed temporally regulated expression during feeding (74). However, it is unclear whether this protein is associated with paralysis immunity (75). Additionally, a 39 kDa triplet and a 74 kDa doublet were identified in the salivary gland extracts of *De. andersoni*, although these proteins appeared non-paralyzing and less prevalent (68). No reports have yet documented the development of immunity against *De. andersoni*.

Paralysis associated with *Haemaphysalis* ticks. Seven *Haemaphysalis* species have been implicated in paralysis. *Ha. cinnabarina* was reported to cause paralysis in a girl (76). Both *Ha. kutchensis* and *Ha. punctata* have been confirmed to lead to animal paralysis. *Ha. chordeilis* and *Ha. sulcata* are suspected of causing paralysis in humans, possibly due to mixed infestations with other tick species (22, 77). Other *Haemaphysalis* species may also play a role in paralysis, but research on their toxins and pathobiology remains limited.

Paralysis associated with *Hyalomma* ticks. *Hy. truncatum* is the only species in its genus linked to tick paralysis (64). However, emerging

cases suggest other *Hyalomma* species, such as *Hy. excavatum*, *Hy. dromedarii*, and *Hy. marginatum*, might also be involved in causing paralysis in humans (Table 1). Additionally, *Hy. detritum* and *Hy. aegyptium* have been associated with paralysis in sheep and tortoises (27, 34, 78). While *Hy. truncatum* is known for causing sweating sickness — a non-paralytic toxicosis affecting cattle, particularly young calves (79, 80) and occasionally other cloven-hoofed animals such as sheep, goats, and pigs (81) — it is important to note that this condition is distinct from paralysis. In southern Africa, *Hy. truncatum* is responsible for sweating sickness, and two related but milder toxicoses, Mhlosinga and Magudu (77). The toxin responsible for sweating sickness is neither derived from the salivary glands nor associated with paralysis, and thus will not be discussed further here.

Paralysis associated with *Ixodes* ticks. Among tick species implicated in paralysis, *Ixodes* species, particularly *Ix. holocyclus*, are the most significant. Female *Ix. holocyclus* are the primary culprits responsible for tick paralysis in humans, dogs, and cats, although other animals such as cattle, horses, sheep, goats, and swine can also be affected (2, 82). The severity of tick paralysis increases with the duration of tick feeding (83, 84). Ross observed that the salivary gland extracts from *Ix. Holocyclus* induced symptoms similar to tick paralysis in mice, suggesting that these extracts are responsible for the condition (85, 86). Serum from dogs heavily infested with these ticks can mitigate the toxic effects (85), supporting the development of canine anti-tick serum (87), though it is only effective in the early stages of paralysis.

Kaire purified a toxin from homogenates of engorged *Ix. holocyclus* using ammonium acetate buffer on DEAE cellulose columns and confirmed its toxicity and ability to cause paralysis (88). This isolated toxin was stable at pH 3–9 but was inactivated at 100°C within 15 minutes. Further purification efforts identified a high molecular mass protein (40–80 kDa) associated with neurotoxic activity (63). The holocyclotoxin complex comprises three polypeptides—HT1, HT2, and HT3—each with an approximate molecular weight of 5 kDa (89), comparable to toxins found in other arachnids such as spiders (3–11 kDa) and scorpions (5–8 kDa). Additionally, a 20 kDa toxin is linked to cardiovascular failure in affected individuals (89). HT-1 and its genes were isolated, defined, and characterized through N-terminal sequencing, showing significant homology with scorpion neurotoxins (63, 90).

HT-1 contains an 18-residue signal peptide, complete initial and terminal codons, a polyadenylation signal, and a poly-A tail. Nicholson et al. proposed that HT-1, HT-2, and HT-3 may be parts of a gene complex (91). It is generally concluded that paralysis caused by *Ix. holocyclus* results from the inhibition of ACh release at neuromuscular junctions (63). Experiments revealed that muscle contraction induced by the toxin was normal at room temperature (23°C) but progressively declined and ceased under nerve stimulation when temperatures exceeded 35°C (92). This indicates that holocyclotoxin binds to neural synapses in a temperature-dependent manner, with paralysis being temperature-sensitive. Although hyperimmune serum against *Ix. holocyclus* holocyclotoxin has been developed, it does not address paralysis caused by *De. andersoni* (49), suggesting that the toxins from these tick species are either unrelated or very distantly

related evolutionarily.

Paralysis associated with *Rhipicephalus* ticks. In the genus *Rhipicephalus*, several species are known to cause tick paralysis in ungulates, including *Rh. warburtoni*, *Rh. tricuspis*, *Rh. punctatus*, *Rh. exophthalmos*, and *Rh. bursa* (34, 93–96). For humans, *Rh. annulatus*, *Rh. simus*, *Rh. sanguineus*, and *Rh. praetextatus* have been implicated in tick paralysis (22, 34, 97). *Rh. appendiculatus* causes a leucocytotropic disease in cattle, known as brown tick toxicosis (52), while *Rh. evertsi evertsi* induces motor polyneuropathy in sheep, referred to as spring lamb paralysis (98). The condition of sheep paralysis caused by *Rh. evertsi evertsi* was first reported by Hellier (1892) and Ralph (1890) (99, 100). In 1917, Du Toit documented a neuropathic syndrome in South Africa that was potentially linked to *Rh. evertsi evertsi*, although this association was not confirmed (101). Clark's research later confirmed that *Rh. evertsi evertsi* affects young lambs, who typically recover within days following tick removal (102). A protein fraction with an isoelectric point (pI) of 6 was found to inhibit nerve pulse propagation, with a molecular mass of approximately 68 kDa determined through chromatofocusing, SDS-PAGE, and gel permeation chromatography (23). Experiments showed that salivary gland extracts from female *Rh. evertsi evertsi* ticks weighing 15–21 mg could induce nerve block (23, 62, 103). Dissected nerves exposed to these extracts or purified neurotoxin exhibited muscle contraction (23, 64). The paralysis mechanisms of *Rh. evertsi evertsi* differ from those in *Ix. holocyclus* (which inhibits ACh release at the synaptic junction); instead, the neurotoxin from *Rh. evertsi evertsi* affects nerve cells and impairs

nerve impulse conduction along peripheral nerve fibers (23, 64, 104). Two proteins identified during mating and feeding were implicated as toxic components (62). A monoclonal antibody identified a paralysis toxin with an approximate molecular weight of 11 kDa, and amino acid analysis indicated similar protein mass and composition between *Rh. evertsi evertsi* and *Ix. rubicundus* (64). This suggests that the previously identified 68 kDa paralysis toxin is a trimer composed of ~11 kDa proteins.

Paralysis Caused by Ticks of Family Argasidae

Argasidae ticks exhibit a different pattern of paralysis compared to Ixodidae ticks, primarily affecting early developmental stages and demonstrating varied toxic profiles. While Ixodid ticks typically induce paralysis in adults, argasid ticks are more likely to cause paralysis during early developmental stages, such as third-stage nymphs (49). Additionally, adult argasid ticks have smaller Type II alveoli with a wrinkled surface compared to their nymphal counterparts (105). In the following sections, we will explore specific examples of paralysis caused by *Argas*, *Ornithodoros*, and *Otobius* ticks, and discuss their implications for affected hosts ([Table 1](#)).

Paralysis associated with *Argasi* ticks. Several *Argas* species are known to cause paralysis in fowl and other birds, including *Ar. africanus*, *Ar. walkerae*, *Ar. sanchezi*, *Ar. robertsi*, *Ar. reflexus*, *Ar. radiatus*, *Ar. persicus*, *Ar. monolakensis*, *Ar. miniatus*, and *Ar. arboreus* ([Table](#)

1). In laboratory settings, larvae of these species can induce paralysis, with symptoms emerging rapidly during the engorgement phase (106). Among these, *Ar. walkerae* has been particularly well-studied. Its toxic components have molecular masses ranging from 43 to 115 kDa, with a notable shift to 11 kDa under lower pH conditions (107). Similar to *Ix. holocyclus* and *De. andersoni*, paralysis caused by *Ar. walkerae* is attributed to reduced ACh production or release at neuromuscular junctions (108). Research indicates that only replete larvae of *Ar. walkerae* are capable of inducing paralysis in chickens (109). Gel permeation chromatography has identified macromolecular complexes and two bands of approximately 32 kDa and 60 kDa in purified fractions (109). A monoclonal antibody (mAb, 4B12), previously used to detect *Rh. evertsi evertsi* paralysis toxins, was employed to purify the neurotoxin from *Ar. walkerae*. Western blot analysis identified a 68 kDa protein, while an 11 kDa protein, not detected by Western blot, was isolated via ELISA and demonstrated cross-reactivity with 4B12 (107). Lower pH conditions facilitated the formation of a more uniform toxin complex (108). Additionally, extracts from *Ar. walkerae* larvae inhibited the release of [³H] glycine from rat brain synaptosomes, stimulated by both veratridine- and potassium (107).

Paralysis associated with *Ornithodoros* ticks. In the genus *Ornithodoros*, *Or. lahorensis* has been implicated in causing paralysis in sheep and cattle, while the paralysis of marine birds due to *Or. capensis* remains uncertain (110). Paralysis usually develops in the third stage of nymphal ticks. Other species in this genus do not cause paralysis but can induce pain, blisters, local steroid, or edema, including *Or. amblus*,

Or. capensis, *Or. coniceps*, *Or. coriaceus*, *Or. gurneyi*, *Or. muesbecki*, *Or. savignyi*, and *Or. rostratus* (110). One of the earliest reports of toxicosis from sand tampans (*Or. savignyi*) described the death of ten cows within six hours of exposure (64). Kone (1948) first described tampan toxicosis from *Or. savignyi*, noting 10 bovine deaths from a herd of 98 cattle (111). Neitz et al. (1969) improved purification methods (gel and DEAE-cellulose chromatography) for the toxin components in *Or. savignyi* salivary secretions, detecting toxic fractions with undetermined LD50 (112). The toxin mixture was proteinaceous in nature (112).

Fresh oral secretion from *Or. savignyi* revealed high protein nitrogen content and was heat-stable up to approximately 80°C (113). An acidic toxin with a molecular mass of approximately 15 kDa was purified and characterized, and four putative-abundant proteins (TSGP1–4) involved in granule biogenesis in the salivary gland were confirmed (114). MALDI-MS and N-terminal sequencing identified three TSGPs as an acidic toxic homolog (TSGP2, ~15 kDa), a nontoxic homolog (TSGP3, ~16 kDa), and a basic toxin (TSGP4, ~17 kDa) (53, 114). Toxic components isolated by paper and thin-layer chromatography induced lethal effects in animals under experimental conditions (113). Prior to discovering a protein toxin in the salivary gland and larval extracts, the mechanisms and symptoms of paralysis were unclear. Howell suggested that heart failure might be a cause of death, and Mans et al. (2002) observed arrhythmic heartbeats leading to cardiac arrest following salivary gland extract injections (53, 113). Subcutaneous injection of purified toxins showed that TSGP2 primarily caused ventricular tachycardia and TSGP4 induced Mobitz-type ventricular block (53), suggesting a distinct pathogenesis for sand tampan toxicosis

by *Ornithodoros savignyi* compared to tick paralysis.

Paralysis associated with *Otobius* ticks. Most argasid ticks infest and cause paralysis primarily in poultry and livestock, including chickens, camels, cattle, and sheep. However, *Ot. megnini* is an exception, as it parasitizes equines and humans and has been associated with paralysis (31). In one case, a single *Ot. megnini* nymph found in the right ear of a 16-month-old baby resulted in weakness in the right leg, respiratory difficulty, and other paralysis-like symptoms (31). In equines, *Ot. megnini* infestations have been linked to more severe symptoms, including elevated creatine kinase levels and, in some cases, death (115). Despite these severe cases, not all *Ot. megnini* infestations cause paralysis; some only result in irritation and non-paralytic symptoms (116, 117). A recent case involving an 11-month-old cat demonstrated paralysis induced by an infestation of *Ot. megnini* nymphs. The cat exhibited depression, flaccid paralysis, and tachycardia (118). While no specific toxins have been identified in *Ot. megnini*, the consistent presence of nymphs in the ear canal of affected hosts suggests that the location of the infestation may be crucial in causing paralysis. Inflammatory reactions in the ear could potentially disrupt the host's neurological system, leading to paralysis.

MECHANISMS AND NEUROLOGICAL EFFECTS OF TICK-INDUCED PARALYSIS

Tick-induced paralysis typically manifests as ascending flaccid paralysis (Fig. 3) (2). This condition arises from a conduction block in motor nerve fibers, particularly the smaller ones, disrupting the secretion and release of ACh at the neuromuscular junction and at the nodes of Ranvier, without affecting ACh biosynthesis (119–121). Normally, motor neurons generate action potentials that travel down the axon (47). ACh, synthesized and stored in intracellular vesicles, is released into the extracellular space at the presynaptic end of the neuromuscular junction (47). It binds to receptors on muscle cells, causing muscle contraction (13, 47, 122). Flaccid paralysis occurs when tick toxins block ACh secretion and/or release. Despite similar clinical manifestations across different tick species, the mechanisms of toxin action can vary. These variations in mechanisms highlight the complexity of tick-induced paralysis, necessitating a closer look at how different species produce their specific effects on the nervous system.

In *De. andersoni*, paralysis manifests as motor polyneuropathy that primarily affects efferent pathways, with minimal impact on afferent pathways. This condition impairs impulse transmission from muscular nerves or spinal cord synapses (34, 123), potentially due to inhibited ACh release or destruction by anticholinesterase. This process affects the terminal motor fibers at the neuromuscular junction while leaving ACh receptors largely unaffected (49). The specific targeting of efferent pathways by *De. andersoni* underscores the diverse ways ticks can impair neuromuscular function, indicating other tick species may differ in their approach.

In *Rh. evertsi evertsi*, paralysis also presents as motor polyneuropathy of the peripheral nervous system, similar to *De. andersoni*. However, it predominantly affects slow nerve fibers and respiratory muscles, potentially leading to respiratory failure (124). Neurotoxins from this tick act on the nerves rather than directly at the neuromuscular junctions, with no reported inhibition of ACh release (23, 64, 125, 126). This shows the life-threatening potential of tick paralysis and the importance of understanding species-specific toxin actions.

Ix. holocyclus induces paralysis by affecting anterior horn neurons and cranial nerve cells, with minimal impact on peripheral nerves and the cerebral cortex (127). The holocyclotoxin appears to antagonize ACh secretion in a temperature-dependent manner, inhibiting ACh release above 30°C, likely by targeting processes between terminal membrane depolarization and release (119). It has minimal effect on the neuromuscular microendplate potential of the mouse extensor digitorum longus muscle, suggesting it does not target calcium-independent release vesicles or postsynaptic ACh receptors. However, it reduces the endplate potential in a calcium-dependent manner, indicating a presynaptic mechanism involving voltage-gated calcium channels (127). Similar presynaptic inhibitors of potassium and sodium channels are found in spiders and scorpions (128–131). Differences in neurotoxin action between *Ix. holocyclus* and *De. andersoni* likely exist, with *Ix. holocyclus* affecting the spread of nerve impulses along axons and *De. andersoni* affecting motor neurons in the efferent pathway. Despite these differences, both toxins lead to decreased presynaptic ACh and ascending flaccid paralysis, although the exact cellular mechanisms remain unclear. The role of presynaptic inhibition in *Ix. holocyclus* paralysis highlights a unique mechanism among

ticks, with implications for treatment and intervention strategies.

Ar. walkerae larvae cause paralysis in poultry by affecting the peripheral nervous system, particularly fast-conducting nerve fibers, which reduces the motor velocity of the median-ulnar and sciatic nerves (48, 123, 132, 133). This effect ranges from slight to moderate motor polyneuropathy, with minimal impact on the conduction velocity of afferent fibers (134). Efferent nerve fibers in respiratory muscles are also affected, leading to respiratory arrest, while cardiac muscles are generally unaffected (2). Additional studies suggest that these toxins impact not only sensory nerves but also motor nerves, affecting ACh release at neuromuscular junctions and receptor sensitivity at muscular synapses (48, 108). Larval extracts inhibit ACh release by affecting potassium-stimulated and veratrole-stimulated release of [³H] glycine from rat brain synaptosomes (108). Understanding the effects of *Ar. walkerae* on both motor and sensory nerves enhances our knowledge of tick paralysis in animals and should inform future research on its broader implications for both human and animal health.

GLOBAL ANALYSIS OF TICK PARALYSIS CASES

Human Cases of Tick Paralysis

Although human cases of tick paralysis are rare, they have been well-documented across various regions (135–137). A total of 288 tick paralysis cases were identified in reports spanning from 1898 to 2023. Most cases originated from North America, Australia, and Europe,

with fewer reports from Asia and Africa. Most patients had a history of travel or prolonged stays in forested or grassland areas, emphasizing these as potential risk factors for tick exposure. These findings underscore the geographical and demographic factors associated with tick paralysis in humans, highlighting the need for a deeper exploration of specific risk factors involved.

Demographic Characteristics

Of the 288 cases, gender information was recorded for 249 individuals: 96 males (38%) and 153 females (61%), with the remaining 39 cases of unknown gender (Table S1, Fig. 4a). The data indicate a significant gender association with the illness (Fig. 4a and 4b, $P < 0.001$), with females more frequently affected across all age groups. This trend is consistent with observations in tick-borne Lyme disease (138), where females are more often affected, in contrast to diseases like Rocky Mountain spotted fever, Colorado tick fever, and tick-borne encephalitis, which are more prevalent in males (139, 140).

Patient age was recorded for 268 cases, excluding 20 with unrecorded ages, and was categorized into three age groups: under 12 years ($n = 199$), 12 to 50 years ($n = 38$), and over 50 years ($n = 30$). The age distribution was statistically significant, with children under 12 years representing the most affected group (Fig. 4b, $P < 0.001$). This contrasts with tick-borne encephalitis, which predominantly affects adults. The high incidence in children may be attributed to their reduced ability to detect and remove ticks, leading to prolonged tick attachment

and greater toxin accumulation. Additionally, children's lower body weight increases their relative exposure to the paralytic toxin. Among the 199 child patients (under 12 years, including 37 with unrecorded sex), girls ($n = 119$, 60%) were more frequently affected (Fig. 4c, $P < 0.001$). This may be attributed to long hair providing cover for ticks, which can hinder their detection. In patients older than 12 years, a male predominance was observed (Fig. 4d, $P < 0.001$), with 39 males (68%) and 18 females (32%) affected, indicating that males over 12 are more susceptible to tick infestation (Table S1). The demographic analysis highlights the increased vulnerability of certain groups, particularly females and children, highlighting the need for a closer examination of environmental and seasonal influences.

Seasonality, Environmental and Geographical Risk Factors

Tick paralysis exhibits a strong seasonal pattern. Among the 111 cases with documented occurrence timing, most ($n = 71$, 64%) occurred in summer (Fig. 4e), with May being the most common month ($P < 0.001$). Fall ($n = 20$) and spring ($n = 7$) accounted for fewer cases, indicating season as a significant epidemiological risk factor. This seasonality may vary based on regional weather patterns and environmental factors.

Most patients with a clear history (66/77, $P < 0.001$) had direct exposure to natural environments, including rural living, mountain hiking, coastal trips, bushwalking, or outdoor work (Table S1). Close contact with tick-infested animals or humans was another risk factor ($n = 11$,

[Table S1](#)). Residence in areas with abundant vegetation was identified as a significant risk factor. Geographical factors also play a role, with many cases reported from the eastern coast of Australia and the Pacific Northwest of North America. Several patients had traveled to these regions prior to the onset of paralysis. Understanding the seasonality and environmental risks is crucial for developing prevention strategies, which is closely linked to the clinical manifestations of tick paralysis.

Clinical Manifestation

Initial symptoms and progression. Tick paralysis can be severe and potentially fatal; however, it is often reversible with timely tick removal and prompt treatment (141). Initial symptoms are typically mild and may include fatigue, pain, paresthesia, and ataxia (142, 143). Neurological symptoms, such as symmetric ascending flaccid weakness, usually begin 5-7 days after tick attachment (120). If the tick remains attached, paralysis may progress from the legs to the torso and arms, eventually compromising respiratory muscles within hours (142). In severe cases, muscles controlled by cranial nerves may weaken, leading to respiratory depression. Some children have died from respiratory failure without intervention ([Table S1](#)). Often, when respiratory symptoms appear, the tick has engorged and dropped off, explaining why some patients recover without the need for artificial ventilation or intubation. Recognizing the early signs and progression of tick paralysis is vital for effective intervention, and these symptoms can vary significantly depending on the tick species and attachment

site.

Variations in clinical presentation. Tick paralysis is marked by acute, rapidly progressive muscle weakness (144), with lateral staring-induced nystagmus reported in children (143, 145). Different tick species may cause distinct clinical manifestations due to variations in toxin pathophysiology (47). For instance, blood pressure is typically normal in cases of paralysis linked to *De. andersoni*, whereas hypertension is often associated with paralysis caused by *Ix. holocyclus* (34).

The clinical presentation may also vary based on the tick attachment site. The scalp and ears (including ear canals) are common attachment sites (Fig. 5a). Ticks on the scalp primarily affect extremity nerves, leading to weakness or even paralysis of all extremities (Table S1, Fig. 5b). Deep tendon reflexes in the limbs are often diminished or absent (Fig. 5b). As the illness progresses, extremity weakness may be accompanied by bulbar symptoms, such as ophthalmoplegia, dysarthria, and dysphagia. Ticks in the ear canal mainly affect facial nerves, causing severe partial facial weakness, paresthesia, and potentially unilateral facial palsy. Common symptoms include ear pain and facial asymmetry (Fig. 5c). Fever and hearing loss are rare initially but may develop with worsening inflammation in the ear canal. A Weber test shows lateralization, and a Rinne test is normal under tuning fork examination (146). These symptoms may result from neurotoxins spreading into the middle or inner ear through a perforated tympanic membrane. Ticks can also attach to other parts of the body, such as the axilla (15, 147), back (136, 148, 149), chin (150), eyelids (151, 152), limbs (153–156), necks (5, 142, 149), and shoulder (157).

Similar to scalp ticks, ticks attached to other body parts or cases with unrecorded tick locations typically cause ascending flaccid extremity weakness or paralysis (Fig. 5d and 5e). The diversity in clinical presentations emphasizes the need for tailored treatment approaches, which is particularly important when considering the severity and potential fatality of tick paralysis.

Severity and Fatality

Fatal cases. Clinical manifestations in children tend to be more severe than in adults due to their weaker immune systems. A total of 29 fatal cases were documented in Australia and North America (5, 15, 76, 158–160) (Table S1), all involving young patients. The tick species responsible for these deaths included *De. andersoni* ($n = 3$), *De. variabilis* ($n = 5$), *Ix. holocyclus* ($n = 6$), and *Ha. cinnabarina* ($n = 1$). The oldest fatality was a nearly 14-year-old boy who succumbed to respiratory failure, while the youngest was a 10-month-old infant (158). Most fatalities resulted from respiratory failure or paralytic complications, with no adult fatalities reported. The severity of tick paralysis, especially in children, highlights the importance of early detection and treatment, and the necessity to examine how these factors vary across different regions.

Regional Variation in Tick Paralysis

Prompt tick removal usually reverses tick paralysis, often reducing clinical symptoms within hours. However, in some countries, symptoms can significantly worsen after tick removal (143). Patients from North America and Australia experience different clinical progressions and prognoses after tick removal. Australian cases tend to worsen before gradually improving, in contrast to North American patients (47). However, clinical progression and prognosis appear more closely related to the specific neurotoxins of the tick species involved. For example, 13 cases caused by *Ix. holocyclus* deteriorated after tick removal for several days before symptoms began to regress, eventually leading to complete recovery. Of these, 11 were from Australia (147, 149, 152, 161–163), with the remaining two from Japan (164) and Singapore (165). Both the Japanese and Singaporean patients had traveled to Australia, where they were infested by Australian ticks. The holocyclotoxin secreted by *Ix. holocyclus* accumulates and increases in concentration, reducing presynaptic ACh release. Holocyclotoxin onset may require a time-dependent intracellular step, which could explain the delayed development of symptoms despite tick removal. The pathophysiological process persists until the neurotoxin is reduced, at which point patients begin to recover.

Besides *Ix. holocyclus*, species from *Dermacentor* (14, 15, 49, 166) and *Haemaphysalis* (76) have also been linked to cases where symptoms worsened after tick removal, although such deterioration is rare. Gregson (49) documented irregular respiration and an imperceptible pulse in a young boy after tick removal. Taylor (14) reported a 3-year-old Canadian child bitten by *De. andersoni* who remained in critical condition for at least 24 hours and developed a typhus-like rash after tick removal. Both Costa (166) and Mccornak (15)

recorded young children whose conditions worsened post-tick removal, with one case improving and another resulting in death from bulbar paralysis. These differences may be due to varying toxin pathologies, though the mechanism remains unclear. The regional differences in clinical outcomes suggest a strong influence of tick species and their neurotoxins.

Long-Term Effects and Co-Infections

Persistent symptoms. In most cases, patients fully recover within days after tick removal, but some experience lasting effects. A 78-year-old woman experienced persistent fatigue following a tick bite (167), although the tick species was not identified. Similar complaints of drowsiness and weakness were observed in an adult man infested by *Rh. simus* (168) and a nearly 4-year-old boy bitten by *De. variabilis* (15) who complained they were drowsy and weak always. Swanepoel (28) reported a 16-year-old boy bitten by *Hy. truncatum* who suffered permanent weakness in his wrist, fingers, and right-hand muscles. Gregson (49) summarized five cases where paralysis persisted for days after tick removal, only resolving when the skin at the attachment site was excised, suggesting that tick toxins may accumulate in the skin and continue to affect the body.

Co-infections. Additionally, ticks may transmit pathogens while secreting neurotoxins during feeding, leading to co-infections with tick-borne viral or bacterial diseases (164). Therefore, when patients develop fever, lymph node enlargement, or other atypical symptoms, concomitant infection with tick-borne pathogens should be considered. While most cases resolve after tick removal, some patients

experience persistent symptoms or co-infections, underscoring the need for ongoing monitoring and research into tick-borne diseases in both humans and animals.

Tick Paralysis in Animals

This condition has been documented in various domestic and wild animals, including canids (169–172), felids (135, 173), cattle (174), caprines (175–178), horses (179), gray fox (180), snake (181), llama (182), mouse (183), and birds (184, 185) ([Table 1](#)). A case of tick paralysis was also reported in a wapiti (*Cervus elaphus*) in China, although the tick species responsible was not identified. Tick paralysis in animals shares similarities with human cases, particularly in its progression and clinical outcomes, which is evident in species-specific patterns that further our understanding of the condition.

Onset and progression of tick paralysis. In animals, tick paralysis usually manifests 4 to 7 days after tick attachment, though symptoms can take up to 13 days to appear in some cases (172). Clinical signs include weakness, gait incoordination, voice changes, and increased respiratory effort. Most animals recover with prompt treatment and supportive care (135, 169, 173, 179). However, in acute cases, symptoms can progress rapidly within 12 hours to 5 days, beginning with limb paresis and advancing to hind-quarter or generalized

paralysis, respiratory depression, and, in severe cases, death—even after tick removal and antiserum treatment (171, 172).

Feline tick paralysis cases. Ellie Leister and colleagues analyzed 2,077 feline cases of tick paralysis caused by *Ix. holocyclus* between 2008 and 2016. Of these cases, all from the coastal city of Queensland, 46 experienced recurrent paralysis, and 1,742 resulted in death despite emergency treatment (186). These findings underscore the high mortality rate associated with tick paralysis in felines. The high mortality rate in feline tick paralysis cases highlights the severity of this condition in animals, leading to a broader comparison with other species and geographical patterns.

Comparative mortality and geographic patterns. A comparison between feline and canine tick paralysis cases reveals a higher mortality rate in felines. Both species' cases were reported predominantly from coastal areas, with canines also showing a significant occurrence at the city's edge near jungles. This similar geographic distribution highlights the environmental factors contributing to tick exposure and the subsequent risk of paralysis. Comparing mortality and geographic patterns across species provides valuable insights into the environmental factors driving tick paralysis, which can inform prevention and treatment strategies.

Seasonal discrepancies: Canine vs. human tick paralysis. In contrast to the feline cases, canine tick paralysis cases in Australia peaked at 1,124 during spring (out of a total of 1,650 cases), with a 42% recovery rate (187). This contrasts with the higher mortality rate observed in felines (186). Interestingly, the seasonality of canine tick paralysis cases contrasts with that of human cases. Over half of human paralysis cases (67 out of 105) occurred in the summer, while most canine cases were observed in spring. This discrepancy may be due to ticks seeking dogs as blood meal sources in spring when *Ixodes* spp. adult females are most active, whereas humans are more frequently exposed to tick bites during summer outdoor activities.

DIAGNOSIS AND RECOGNITION OF PATIENTS AT RISK

Early recognition of clinical manifestations and recent tick exposure is crucial for diagnosing tick paralysis. Diagnosis is often confirmed by identifying a tick along with generalized weakness and/or respiratory distress. A history of the patient being in tick-endemic regions or having recently visited forests is also important for accurate diagnosis. Physicians should carefully inspect areas where ticks commonly attach to humans, such as the scalp (especially under long, thick hair), ears, ear canals, groin, axilla, and perineum ([Table S1](#)). Early identification of the tick can prevent unnecessary clinical and laboratory investigations, reducing the risk of deterioration, fatal outcomes, and costly tests. Using a fine-toothed comb can be particularly useful in diagnosing tick paralysis, especially in individuals with thick, long

hair, who may be more susceptible to infestation. In some cases, paralysis may develop even after the tick has detached, which is more common in Australia. Cerebrospinal fluid tests typically yield normal results. The level of tick engorgement can affect imaging results, with highly engorged ticks showing a striking T1-hyperintense signal and T2-hypointensity on MRI , 214).

Clinical Manifestations

Tick paralysis typically presents as ascending flaccid paralysis that progresses over hours to days. Initial symptoms include fatigue, irritability, paresthesias, and muscle weakness, while fever and pain are uncommon (13). Some patients may exhibit apathy and loss of appetite, along with tingling and numbness in both the lower and upper extremities. Weakness usually begins in the lower limbs and ascends to the upper body as the toxin accumulates. Reflexes may become diminished or absent, and the condition can progress to generalized paralysis. Partial facial palsy, particularly involving the lower motor neurons, may occur, especially in cases of tick infestation in the ear canal (149, 190). Without prompt intervention, the paralysis may involve respiratory muscles, leading to respiratory depression and, ultimately, death. Mental status typically remains intact until hypoxia and hypercarbia set in, potentially causing convulsions (5, 97). Although rare, dilated pupils can be observed (15, 158). Gastrointestinal or other general intoxication symptoms are infrequent.

Differential Diagnosis

Due to the rarity of tick paralysis and limited clinical experience, the condition is often misdiagnosed, causing physicians to miss the narrow therapeutic window for effective treatment (191). In cases of rapidly progressive paralysis, it is crucial to rule out tick attachment first through a thorough skin inspection. Imaging can also help detect small nodules that may indicate tick presence, preventing oversight (191). A study of 143 children with non-traumatic acute flaccid paralysis in Australia over 4.5 years found that 3 had tick paralysis (192). Guillain-Barré syndrome (GBS) accounted for 67 cases (47%), with transverse myelitis contributing to 27 cases (19%). Other conditions presenting with acute flaccid paralysis included acute disseminated encephalomyelitis, spinal cord lesions, botulism, myasthenia gravis, and viral encephalitis. The overlapping symptoms of these conditions, such as irritability, paresthesia, fatigue, and muscle weakness, often lead to misdiagnosis of tick paralysis (193–198). Some diseases are particularly challenging to differentiate from tick paralysis, and rare disorders may not be present in their traditional form. As summarized in [Table 3](#), several conditions present with symptoms that overlap with tick paralysis, making differential diagnosis challenging. However, the table is not exhaustive and should be used as a guide alongside clinical judgment (193–198).

GBS is a significant differential diagnosis. Although treatments such as plasmapheresis and intravenous immunoglobulin are available, there is no definitive cure. The progression of GBS is slower than that of tick paralysis, with weakness developing over weeks rather than

hours or days (199). GBS may present with oropharyngeal weakness, respiratory failure, or autonomic nervous dysfunction (200). Symptoms often include prior gastrointestinal disturbances, such as emesis or diarrhea. GBS typically involves areflexia or hyporeflexia and elevated protein levels with normal cell counts in cerebrospinal fluid (200). Additionally, GBS presents with reduced nerve conduction velocity, decreased compound muscle action potential, and a prolonged "F" wave, indicating proximal nerve root demyelination, which does not occur in tick paralysis (11).

Poliomyelitis, also known as infantile paralysis, is another differential diagnosis often confused with tick paralysis, particularly in cases involving travel to polio-endemic areas. While rare due to vaccination efforts, polio is still endemic in regions of Afghanistan and Pakistan, according to WHO reports. Poliomyelitis typically presents with fever, meningitis, and asymmetric weakness, a major cause of lameness (201, 202). Cerebrospinal fluid analysis may show mildly elevated protein and lymphocytosis (203). MRI findings may also be abnormal.

Acute spinal cord lesions, which present with flaccid paraplegia or quadriplegia, differ from tick paralysis by including symptoms such as urinary retention and bowel incontinence at the sensory level (204). These lesions typically result in decreased sensation and organ function below the affected area, and protein levels can be significantly elevated in cerebrospinal fluid (11).

Botulism, caused by *Clostridium botulinum* toxin, also presents with flaccid paralysis. Like tick paralysis, botulism reduces ACh release. Symptoms often begin with cranial nerve involvement, leading to descending paralysis that primarily affects extraocular muscles and

pupils (199). Patients may develop dysphonia and dysphagia due to lower cranial nerve involvement (205), and gastrointestinal symptoms may also occur. Hematological exams in botulism typically do not show abnormal protein or white blood cell elevations.

Transverse myelitis, which can be triggered by viral, bacterial, or parasitic infections, presents with pain, paresthesia, motor deficits, and bladder dysfunction (210, 211). Elevated protein levels and T-lymphocytes are often seen in cerebrospinal fluid (207). MRI of the spinal cord typically shows lesions with high signal intensity on T2-weighted sequences, particularly in the cervical region, conus medullaris, or thoracic spinal cord (206, 207).

TREATMENT

The primary treatment for tick paralysis is the prompt removal of the tick(s) (208). A thorough examination of the patient's skin is essential, including areas such as the scalp, ear canal, nose, and armpits. The recommended method involves using fine-toothed tweezers to grasp the tick parallel to the skin and applying steady, even force to remove it intact, including the mouthparts, which can be challenging to extract (17, 216). Care must be taken to avoid squeezing the tick, which could inject additional toxins and worsen the condition. When removing ticks from the ear canal, combining tick removal with antibiotic treatment may be advisable to prevent otitis media. If patients exhibit atypical symptoms during tick paralysis, a combination treatment may be necessary to address potential co-infections.

Patients should be observed for at least 24 to 48 hours, or longer if necessary, after tick removal to ensure steady and clear improvement. For example, in cases of paralysis caused by *Ix. holocyclus*—particularly common in Australia—there is a risk of significant deterioration after tick removal, including life-threatening angioedema (210). Patients with respiratory failure may require mechanical ventilation in an intensive care unit to manage dyspnea.

Antitoxins derived from dogs are another treatment option, though they carry risks of acute anaphylaxis and neuropathy. These antitoxins are generally administered in small amounts and reserved for severely ill patients in Australia (143). The injection of anti-paralysis tick serum has demonstrated efficacy in neutralizing paralysis toxins. Recently, a synthetic anti-venom vaccine derived from holocyclotoxins has shown effectiveness in immunizing dogs (211). This suggests that synthetic or recombinant vaccines could be valuable in preventing tick paralysis and may contribute to future vaccine development, although further testing in animals is needed to assess their immunological efficacy.

CONTROL AND PREVENTION

To reduce the risk of tick-borne diseases and tick paralysis, effective repellents should be applied to the skin, such as trans-p-methane-3,8-diol and N,N-Diethyl-3-methylbenzamide (212, 213). Minimizing tick attachment is the most effective way to prevent tick paralysis. In

addition to using repellents, individuals should wear appropriate outfits — such as long-sleeves, long socks — when participating in outdoor activities. It is advisable to avoid walking through dense vegetation and to take precautions when working in bushy areas. Following outdoor activities, particularly in forested environments, individuals should thoroughly check their skin for ticks. For controlling tick paralysis in dogs and cats, the development of anti-tick vaccines represents an effective strategy.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Tick paralysis is a potentially fatal condition with significant implications for human and animal health. Its epidemiology is influenced by factors such as seasonality, geography, age, and gender. Clinical outcomes are determined by several variables, including the species and number of ticks, the rate and amount of toxin secretion, host immune response, and the sensitivity of the tick attachment site. The condition arises from neurotoxins secreted by the salivary glands of various tick species, which accumulate in the host when the tick remains attached for several days. These toxins primarily inhibit acetylcholine release at neuromuscular junctions, leading to symptoms such as lethargy, weakness, unsteady gait, dilated pupils, ascending symmetrical paralysis, slurred speech, and reduced deep tendon and gag reflexes. Severe cases may involve respiratory distress, bradycardia, decreased oxygen saturation, and asystole. Fortunately, tick paralysis is generally reversible with prompt intervention, primarily through tick removal. However, removal can sometimes exacerbate

the condition, requiring respiratory support and intensive care. Immunoassays to detect and quantify antibodies against tick toxins can also be valuable in assessing immune status and monitoring post-immunization responses. Future efforts should focus on advancing our understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying tick paralysis, improving diagnostic tools, and developing targeted therapies to enhance patient outcomes and reduce the health impacts of this condition.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Supplemental material is available online only.

Supplemental file 1

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AUTHORS CONTRIBUTORS

GHL, CY, HME, YPD, and YTF conceived the review. YPD, YTF, and GHL wrote the initial draft. CY and HME reviewed and abstracted data from the selected articles, and revised the manuscript. YPD, YTF, MLC, and GHL produced the figures and verified the data. XQZ, JLW, XLZ, and SCX assisted with editing. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

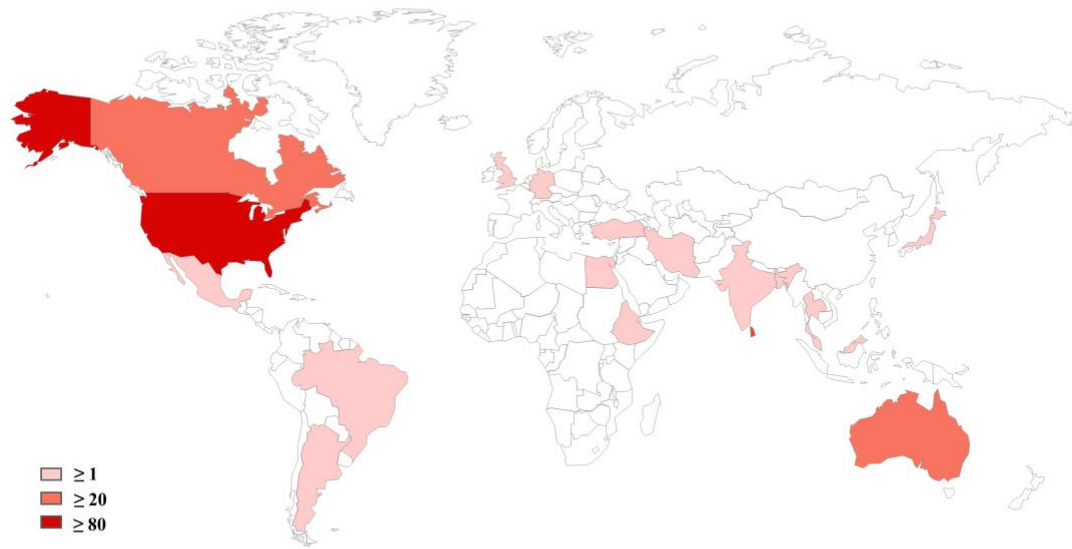


FIG.1. Global distribution of reported tick paralysis cases in humans. Areas shaded in darker red indicate a higher number of reported cases, while lighter red areas have fewer cases. Regions with no color represent areas where no cases have been reported.

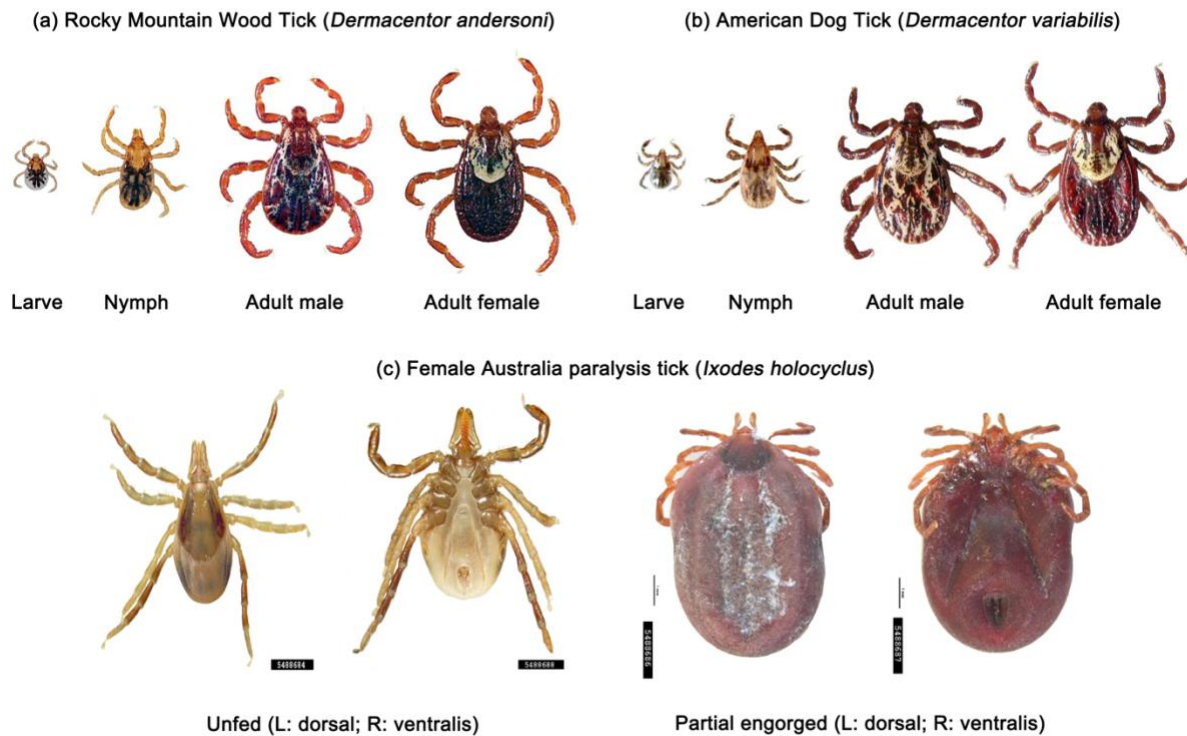


Fig. 2. Images of the three most common ticks causing human paralysis globally. **(a)** Life stages of the Rocky Mountain Wood Tick (*Dermacentor andersoni*) (Adapted from: Tick Encounter). **(b)** Life stages of the American Dog Tick (*Dermacentor variabilis*) (Adapted from: Tick Encounter). **(c)** Unfed and partially engorged female Australia paralysis tick (*Ixodes holocyclus*) (Adapted from the Pest and Diseases Image Library, Bugwood.org)

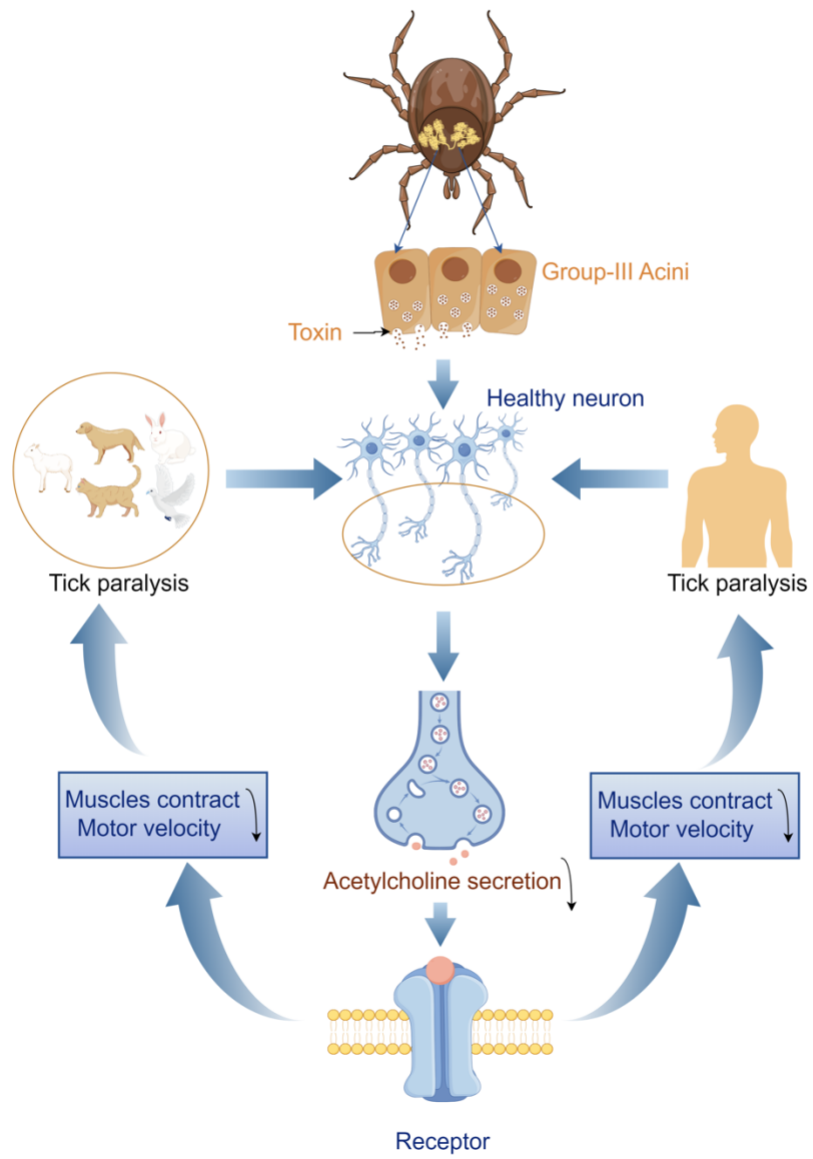
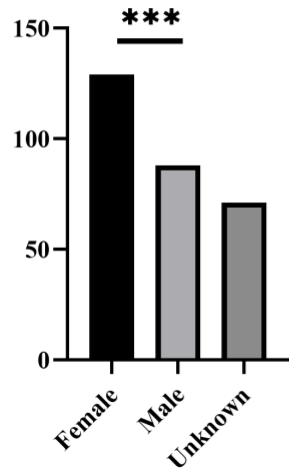
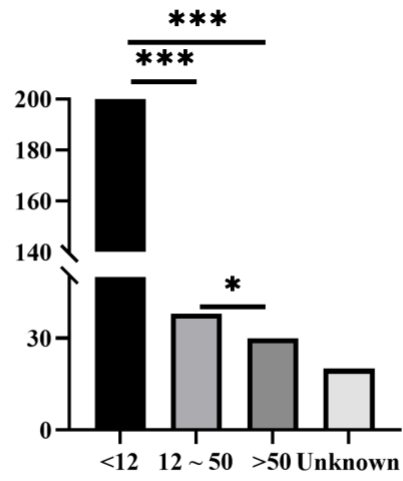


FIG. 3. Schematic illustration of the molecular pathogenesis of tick paralysis in humans and animals (Illustration designed using FigDraw).

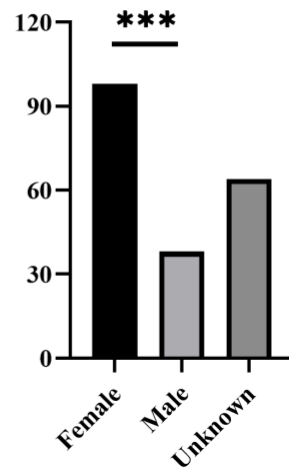
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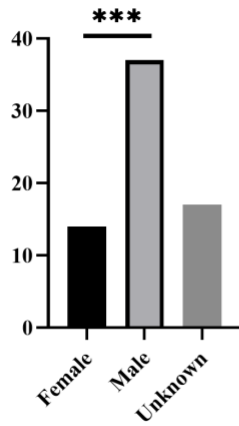
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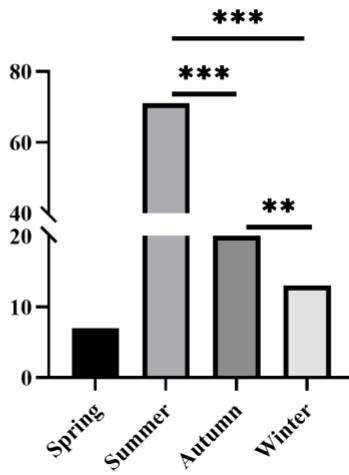


FIG. 4. Global distribution of reported human cases of tick paralysis by gender, age, and season, analyzed by Pearson's chi-squared test.

(a) Gender distribution. **(b)** Age distribution (<12, 12 to 50, and >50). **(c)** Gender distribution of cases in individuals under 12 years old. **(d)**

Gender distribution of cases in individuals aged 12 years and older. **(e)** Seasonal distribution. *: $P < 0.05$; **: $P < 0.01$; ***: $P < 0.001$

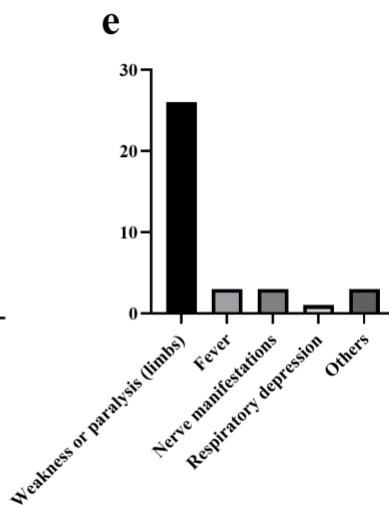
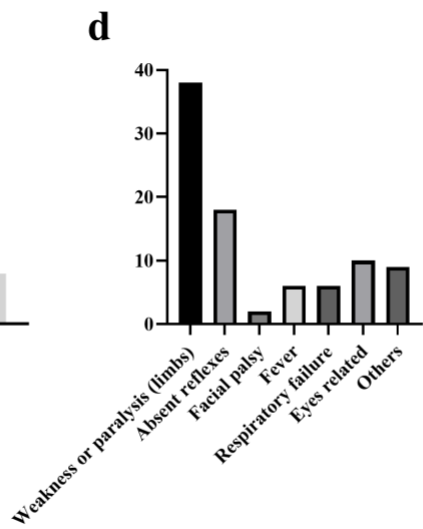
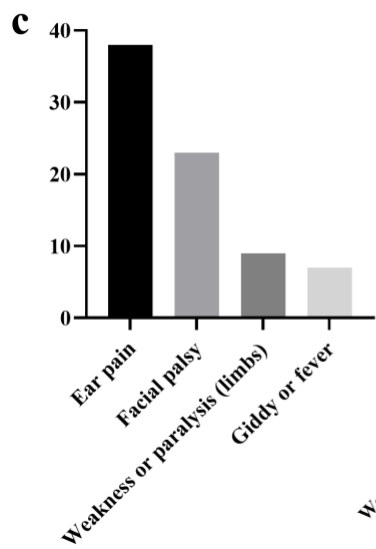
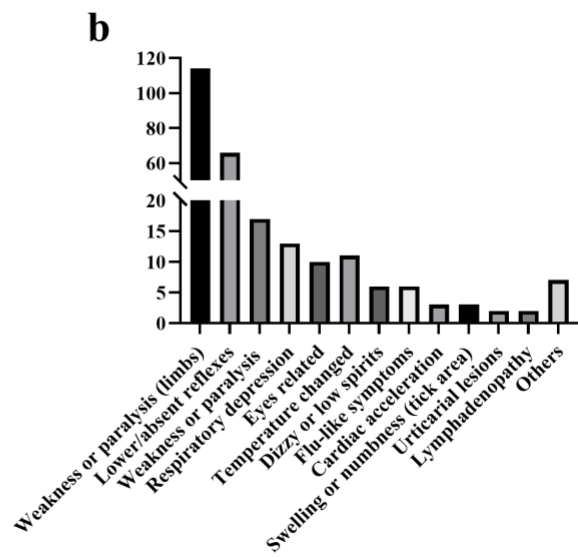
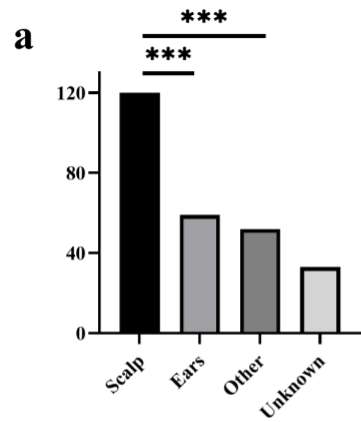


FIG. 5. Clinical manifestations of human tick paralysis based on tick attachment locations. **(a)** Distribution of tick attachment sites (statistical analysis performed using Pearson’s chi-squared test, ***: $P < 0.001$). **(b)** Clinical symptoms associated with ticks infesting the scalp. **(c)** Clinical symptoms associated with ticks infesting the ears. **(d)** Clinical symptoms associated with ticks infesting the back, neck, axilla, and other parts (excluding scalps and ears). **(e)** Clinical symptoms of tick paralysis with unrecorded tick attachment sites.

TABLE 1 Tick species causing tick paralysis worldwide

| Family | Genus | Species (Common name) | Geographical location | Hosts reported on | Reference |
|----------|------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|------------|
| Ixodidae | <i>Amblyomma</i> | <i>Am. americanum</i> Linnaeus, 1758 (Long Star tick) | USA (mainly coast) | Canids, humans | (214, 215) |
| | | <i>Am. argentinae</i> Neumann, 1905 | Argentina | Reptiles | (51) |
| | | <i>Am. cajennense</i> Fabricius, 1787 (Cayenne tick) | America | Cattle, goats, sheep | (216) |
| | | <i>Am. hebraeum</i> Koch, 1844 (Bont tick) | South Africa | Humans, goats, sheep | (217) |
| | | <i>Am. maculatum</i> Koch, 1844 (Gulf Coast tick) | Central America | Canids, humans | (153, 218) |
| | | <i>Am. ovale</i> Koch, 1844 | America | Humans | (219) |
| | | <i>Am. rotundatum</i> Koch, 1844 | America | Poikilotherm | (181) |
| | | <i>Am. variegatum</i> Fabricius, 1794 (Tropical bont tick) | Africa | Sheep | (175) |
| | | <i>Dermacentor</i> | <i>De. albipictus</i> Packard, 1869 | North America | Ungulates |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|---|-------------------|------------------------------|--------------|
| | <i>De. andersoni</i> Stiles, 1908 (Rocky Mountain wood tick) | North America | Humans, mammals | (6) |
| | <i>De. auratus</i> Supino, 1897 | Oriental realm | Humans | (21) |
| | <i>De. variabilis</i> Say, 1821 (American dog tick) | North America | Canids, humans | (5, 15, 220) |
| | <i>De. silvarum</i> Olenov, 1931 | Eurasia | Sheep | (77) |
| | <i>De. rhinocerinus</i> Denny, 1843 | Africa | Rabbits | (221) |
| | <i>De. reticulatus</i> Fabricius, 1794 (Ornate cow tick) | Palaearctic realm | Sheep | (222) |
| | <i>De. occidentalis</i> Marx, 1892 (Net tick) | North America | Canids, humans, ungulates | (49) |
| | <i>De. nuttalli</i> Olenov, 1928 | Palaearctic realm | Ungulates | (1) |
| | <i>De. marginatus</i> Sulzer, 1776 (Ornate sheep tick) | Palaearctic realm | Humans, ungulates | (178, 223) |
| <i>Haemaphysalis</i> | <i>Ha. chordeilis</i> Packard, 1869 (Bird tick) | North America | Humans | (77) |
| | <i>Ha. sulcata</i> Canestrini & Fanzago, 1878 | Eurasia | Humans, ungulates | (22) |
| | <i>Ha. punctata</i> Canestrini & Fanzago, 1878 (Red sheep tick) | Palaearctic realm | Ungulates, birds | (178, 224) |
| | <i>H. parva</i> Neumann, 1897 | Middle East | Sheep | (120) |
| | <i>Ha. kutchensis</i> Hoogstraal & Trapido, 1963 (Kutch haemaphysalid) | Oriental realm | Rabbits | (225) |
| | <i>Ha. inermis</i> Birula, 1895 (Winter tick) | Europe | Ungulates | (34) |
| | <i>Ha. cinnabarina</i> Koch, 1844 | Brazil | Humans, ungulate | (76) |
| <i>Hyalomma</i> | <i>Hy. truncatum</i> Koch, 1844 (Shiny Hyalomma) | South Africa | Humans, sheep | (28, 95) |
| | <i>Hy. detritum</i> Schulze, 1919 | Oriental realm | Sheep | (78) |

| | | | | |
|---------------|--|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|
| | <i>Hy. aegyptium</i> Linnaeus, 1758 (Bont leg tick) | Palaearctic realm | Sheep, tortoise | (27, 34) |
| | <i>Hy. excavatum</i> Koch, 1844 | Turkey, Egypt | Humans, sheep | (22, 94) |
| | <i>H. dromedarii</i> | Egypt | Humans | (22) |
| | <i>H. marginatum</i> | Turkey, Sri Lanka | Humans | (21, 226) |
| <i>Ixodes</i> | <i>Ix. arboricola</i> Schulze & Schlottke, 1930 (Tree-hole tick) | Europe | Birds | (34) |
| | <i>Ix. brunneus</i> Koch, 1844 | North America | Birds | (227) |
| | <i>Ix. gibbosus</i> Nuttall, 1916 | Palaearctic realm | Ungulates | (228) |
| | <i>Ix. frontalis</i> Panzer, 1798 (Passerine tick) | Europe | Birds | (34) |
| | <i>Ix. eudyptidis</i> Maskell, 1885 (New Zealand seabird tick) | Tasmania, New Zealand | Albatrosses, petrels | (229) |
| | <i>Ix. crenulatus</i> Koch, 1844 | Europe | Sheep | (66) |
| | <i>Ix. cornuatus</i> Roberts, 1960 (Tasmanian paralysis tick) (synonym of <i>I. robertsi</i>) | Australia (mainly Tasmania) | Canids, felids, humans | (171, 230, 231) |
| | <i>Ix. cookei</i> Packard, 1869 (American Castor Bean tick) | North America | Humans | (34) |
| | <i>Ix. hexagonus</i> Leach, 1815 (European dog tick) | Europe and USA | Humans | (120) |
| | <i>Ix. tasmani</i> Neumann, 1899 (Common marsupial tick) | Australia | Marsupials | (232) |
| | <i>Ix. tancitarium</i> Cooley and Kohls, 1942 | Mexico | Humans | (155) |
| | <i>Ix. scapularis</i> Say, 1821 (Black-legged tick) | North America, Europe, and China | Canids, humans | (233) |
| | <i>Ix. rubicundus</i> Neumann, 1904 (Karoo paralysis tick) | South Africa | Humans, mammals, rabbits | (234–236) |

| | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|---|---------------------------------|----------------|
| | <i>Ix. ricinus</i> Linnaeus, 1758 (Castor bean tick) | Europe, North America, Africa | Humans, sheep | (178) |
| | <i>Ix. redikorzevi</i> Olenov, 1927 | Palaearctic realm | Humans | (237) |
| | <i>Ix. pacificus</i> Cooley & Kohls, 1943 (California black-legged tick) | North America | Canids, hare, humans | (220, 238) |
| | <i>Ix. muris</i> Bishopp & Smith, 1937 (Mouse tick) | North America | Canids, felids | (239) |
| | <i>Ix. holocyclus</i> Neumann, 1899 (Australian paralysis tick) | Australia and Malyasia | Canids, humans, sheep, mouse | (84, 230, 240) |
| | <i>Ix. hirsti</i> Hassall, 1931 (Hirst's marsupial tick) | Australia (mainly Tasmania) | Felids | (66) |
| <i>Rhipicentor</i> | <i>R. nuttalli</i> Cooper & Robinson, 1908 | Africa and Australia | Canids | (241) |
| <i>Rhipicephalus</i> | <i>Rh. annulatus</i> Say, 1821 (Cattle tick) | Eurasia, Africa, and North America | Humans | (34) |
| | <i>Rh. warburtoni</i> Walker & Horak, 2000 | South Africa | Goats, sheep | (96) |
| | <i>Rh. tricuspis</i> Dönitz, 1906 | Africa | Ungulates | (34) |
| | <i>Rh. simus</i> Koch, 1844 | Africa | Humans, sheep | (95, 97) |
| | <i>Rh. sanguineus</i> Latreille, 1806 (Brown dog tick) | Worldwide | Canids, humans | (22) |
| | <i>Rh. punctatus</i> Warburton, 1912 | Africa | Ungulates | (95) |
| | <i>Rh. praetextatus</i> Gerstäcker, 1873 | Africa | Humans | (34) |
| | <i>Rh. evertsi</i> Neumann, 1897 (Red-legged tick) | Africa | Sheep | (242) |
| | <i>Rh. exophthalmos</i> Keirans & Walker, 1993 | Botswana | Goats, sheep, rabbits | (93) |
| | <i>Rh. bursa</i> Canestrini & Fanzago, 1878 | Palaearctic realm, South Africa, North America | Sheep | (94) |
| <u>Argasidae</u> <i>Otobius</i> | <i>Ot. megnini</i> Dugès, 1883 | Nearctic and Palaearctic | Cats, horse, humans | (31, 118) |

| | | | | |
|---------------------|--|-----------------------------|----------------------|-------|
| | (Ear tick) | realms, South Africa | | |
| <i>Ornithodoros</i> | <i>Or. savignyi</i> Audouin, 1827 (African eyed tampan) | Africa, Asia | Camel, cattle, sheep | (114) |
| | <i>Or. lahorensis</i> Clifford, Kohls & Sonenshine, 1964 | Africa and Central Asia | Cattle, sheep | (243) |
| | <i>Or. capensis</i> Neumann, 1901 (Seabird soft tick) | Oceans and coastal realm | Seabirds | (110) |
| <i>Argas</i> | <i>Ar. africolumbae</i> Hoogstraal, et al., 1975 | South Africa | Birds | (244) |
| | <i>Ar. walkerae</i> Kaiser & Hoogstraal, 1969 (Southern Fowl tampan) | Africa | Birds | (125) |
| | <i>Ar. sanchezi</i> Dugès, 1887 (Adobe tick) | North America | Birds | (245) |
| | <i>Ar. robertsi</i> Hoogstraal, Kaiser & Kohls, 1968 (Robert's Australian bird argasid) | Australasia and Asia | Birds | (246) |
| | <i>Ar. reflexus</i> Fabricius, 1794 (African bird Argasid) | Palaearctic realm | Birds | (246) |
| | <i>Ar. radiatus</i> Railliet, 1893 (North American bird Argas) | North America | Birds | (247) |
| | <i>Ar. persicus</i> Oken, 1818 (Bluebug) | Palaearctic | Birds | (248) |
| | <i>Ar. monolakensis</i> Schwan, Corwin & Brown, 1992 | USA | Gulls | (249) |
| | <i>Ar. miniatus</i> Koch, 1844 (Chicken tick) | America | Birds | (250) |
| | <i>Ar. arboreus</i> Kaiser, Hoogstraal & Kohls, 1964 (Egyptian heron rookery argasid) | Egypt | Egrets | (251) |

TABLE 2 Characteristics and comparison of the most common tick toxins, including tick paralysis toxin, sweating sickness toxin, tampan toxin, and ivotoxin. #: Mr: Molecular mass; pI: isoelectric point; PD: protease digestion *: the structure might be suspected.

| Disease | Tick | Structure* | Mr# | pI# | Immunity | PD# | Mechanism of toxin |
|--------------------------------------|---|---|---|---------------|----------------|------------|--|
| Sweating sickness, Mhlosinga, Magudu | <i>Hyalomma truncatum</i> | Three immunogenic and three non-immunogenic proteins (possible) | 27 – 33 kDa 24 – 42 kDa (non) | - | Partial | - | - |
| Paralysis | <i>Rhipicephalus evertsi evertsi</i> | A trimeric complex resulting in toxin | ~ 11 kDa; toxin ~ 68 kDa | 6 | Limited | Inactivate | Impair the conduction along peripheral nerve fibers |
| Paralysis | <i>Ixodes holocyclus</i> | Holocyclotoxin, three polypeptides of HT1 (with structure fold), HT2, and HT3 | HT-1 ~ 6 kDa HT2/HT-3 ~ 5 kDa | 8.86 4.5-5 | Full | Resistant | Inhibit the release of acetylcholine from the neuromuscular junctions |
| Paralysis | <i>Argas walkerae</i> | An oligomer | Complexes within 43 - 115 kDa; 11 kDa at acid pH (cross-reactivity with the 4B12) | 4.5 | Partial | - | Inhibit the release of [³ H] glycine from brain synaptosomes |
| Tampan toxicosis | <i>Ornithodoros savignyi</i> | TSGPs | TSGP1, ~ 18 kDa; TSGP2, ~ 15 kDa; TSGP3, ~ 16 kDa; TSGP4, ~ 17 kDa | - | Partial | - | Ventricular tachycardia by TSGP2; Mobitz-type ventricular block by TSGP4 |
| Paralysis | <i>Dermacentor andersoni</i> | Soluble polypeptides | 36 – 43 kDa | - | Dose-dependent | - | Affect efferent pathway and suppression of acetylcholine release from the synapse |
| Protease inhibitors | <i>Amblyomma hebraeum</i> ; <i>Rh. evertsi evertsi</i> <i>Rh. microplus</i> <i>Rh. decoloratus</i> <i>Hy. truncatum</i> | Four peptide fractions | ~ 10 kDa ~ 5 – 6 kDa ~ 30 – 35 kDa ~ 40 kDa ~ 27 kDa | - | Limited | Resistant | 1. Specific non-competitive fast-binding inhibition of trypsin (<i>Am. hebraeum</i>) 2. Competitive fast-binding inhibitor of trypsin (<i>Rh. evertsi evertsi</i>) 3. Competitive slow-binding inhibition of trypsin and fast tight-binding inhibition of chymotrypsin (<i>Rh. decoloratus</i> & <i>Hy. truncatum</i>) 4. Competitive slow-binding inhibitor of |

chymotrypsin (*Rh. microplus*)

1 **TABLE 3** Differential diagnosis and clinical characteristics of tick paralysis and closely related disorders
 2 that may present with similar clinical features.

3 *: TP: tick paralysis; GBS: Guillain-Barré syndrome; Polio: poliomyelitis; ASCI: acute spinal cord injury;
 4 TM: transverse myelitis.

5 a: cerebrospinal fluid; b: white blood cells; c: magnetic resonance imaging; d: intravenous immunoglobulin;
 6 e: plasma exchange; f: intravenous.

7

| Characteristics | TP* | GBS* | Botulism* | Polio* | ASCI* | TM* |
|--------------------------|--|--|---|---|---|---|
| Fever | Rare | Rare | Rare | Present | Absent | Variable |
| Pain | Rare | Rare | Absent | Present | Frequent | Frequent |
| Paresthesia | Rare | Present dominantly | Absent | Present | frequent | Frequent |
| Dilated pupils | Rare | Rare | Present | Absent | Absent | Absent |
| Gastrointestinal signs | Absent | Present | Present | Rare | Absent | Absent |
| CSF ^a protein | Normal | Elevated | Normal | Mildly elevated | Variable | Elevated |
| CSF WBC ^b s | Normal | Normal | Normal | Elevated | Variable | Elevated |
| MRI ^c | Normal | Generally normal | Normal | Abnormal | Abnormal | Abnormal |
| Spread | Tick bite | - | Eating food with toxins or bacterial spores | Fecal-oral route | - | - |
| Cause | Tick toxins | Problem with the immune system | <i>Clostridium botulinum</i> toxin | Poliovirus (types 1, 2, and 3) | Trauma to the spinal cord | Viral, bacterial, and fungal infections all included |
| Treatment | Tick removal, antibiotics | IVIg ^d , PE ^e , and breathing aids can ease symptoms | Antitoxin, antibiotics, severe with mechanical ventilation | No cure, only prevented by the Polio vaccine | Surgery, antibiotics, long-term hospitalization and rehabilitation | IV ^f steroids, PE, medication of virus |
| Prognosis | Generally complete recovery within hours to days | Recovery within months to years, some have lasting effects | Most patients recover, and a few die from breathing failure or secondary infections | Most people fully recover, some can be permanent paralysis or develop post-polio syndrome | Decrease or loss of sensation and organ function below the normal level | Varying lengths of time, pain or TM recurrent mainly depending on the cause of TM |

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TABLE S1. Reported human cases of tick paralysis worldwide and the associated tick species.

| Tick species | Geographical Location | Patients | Clinical symptoms | Site of tick attachment | Reported exposure |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------|--|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <i>Dermacentor andersoni</i> Stiles | USA Princeton | 11yrs* F* | Quadriplegia, muscles twitched, dyspnea, cardiac acceleration, rapid heart | Near the crown of the head | - |
| | USA Washington | 8yrs F | Dizzy, gait staggering, eyelid swollen and inflammation, leukocytosis | The right axilla | - |
| | USA Carolina | 8yrs - | Paralysis of arms, hands, back, neck, and legs, sensation changed | - | - |
| | USA | 63yrs M | Bilateral paralysis of legs, numbness, absent reflexes | The right axilla | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | 18mont hs F | Ataxia, limbs paralysis, stopped breathing | The occipital region | Visiting tick popular region |
| | Canada | 4yrs M | Unable to walk, tingled legs, losing eyesight in left eye, paralysis | The head | - |
| | Canada Alberta | 20yrs M | Spotted fever, difficulty to lift arms, pain in arms | The left axilla (male tick) | Staying a tick popular region |
| | USA Idaho | 6yrs F | Difficulty in standing and walking, pain in legs, absent patellar reflexes, ataxia in extremities | The scalp | Playing outside |
| | USA Colorado | 4yrs F | Paralysis of all extremities | The scalp | - |
| | USA Colorado | 49yrs M | Diplopia, numbness and prickling on fingers, unsteady gait, urinary retention, dysphagia, dyspnea | The groin | Visiting Rocky Mountain National Park |
| | USA | 4yrs F | Weakness of legs, drowsy, unable to walk and swallow, respiratory distress, dysphagia | The right ear | - |
| | Canada Alberta | 4yrs M | Irritable, clumsy, unsteady gait, incoordination of extremities, partial paralysis of lower extremities and developed to arms, diminished muscle strength and muscle tone, absent superficial reflexes | The scalp | |

| | | | | |
|-------------------------|---|---|--------------------------------------|--|
| Canada Calgary | 3yrs F | Dizzy, typhus-like rash, tingling in hands, inability to walk, headache, absent reflexes | The right occipital region | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 3yrs M | Unable to stand, complete paralysis, acute bulbar poliomyelitis, absent abdominal reflexes, flaccid paralysis of neck and pharynx, absent cough and swallowing reflexes | The scalp | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 66yrs F | Numbness of tongue and hands, tingled feet, inability to stand, diplopia, difficulty in swallowing, diminished DTRs | The pubic area | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 5yrs F | Weakness of extremities, absent DTRs, unable to walk | The scalp | - |
| USA Oregon | 3.5yrs F | Weakness, ataxia, difficulty in standing, sitting or walking | The hairline of the occipital region | Having a trip to Oregon |
| Canada British Columbia | 8yrs F | Peculiar gait, absent reflexes, incoordinate respiration, abnormal abdominal muscles, elevated plasma creatine phosphokinase | The right temporal area of the scalp | - |
| USA Colorado | 4yrs M* | Fever, inability to walk and feed himself, flaccid paralysis of all extremities, striking weakness, leukocytosis | The scalp | Camping in the mountains |
| USA Washington | 6yrs F | Weak grip, bilateral weakness of extremities, decreased bilateral tendon reflexes, and mild facial weakness | The scalp | Live close to rivers or creeks, or experience mountains or parks |
| USA Washington | 3yrs (n=5); 6yrs (n=1); 2yrs (n=1); 4yrs | Weak grip, bilateral weakness of extremities, decreased bilateral tendon reflexes, and mild facial weakness | The scalp or behind the ear | Live close to rivers or creeks, or experience mountains or parks |

| | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|--|---|--------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|
| | (n=3); 5yrs | | | | | |
| | (n=1); 82yrs | | | | | |
| | (n=1); 54yrs | | | | | |
| | (n=1) | | | | | |
| | | Deteriorated neurologic condition, distal lower extremity areflexia, weakness, drooling, absent DTRs* of upper and lower extremities | | Below the occiput | vacationing on a dude ranch | |
| | USA Los Angeles | 1.5yrs F | | | | |
| | | bilateral lower extremity weakness, tingling sensation, ophthalmoplegia, dysarthria, lower nerve conduction, and areflexia | | Hairline | Hiking in mountains | |
| | USA Colorado | 6yrs F | | | | |
| | | Diplopia, dysarthria, limb weakness, dysmetria, areflexia | | Mid-back | Working in a cabin in the Thompson-Nicola region | |
| | Canada British Columbia | 83yrs M | | | | |
| | | Lower/absent extremity reflexes, mild generalized hypotonia, and weakness | | Left occipital scalp | - | |
| | Canada British Columbia | 2yrs F | | | | |
| | | Ataxia, extremity paresthesia | | Scalp | Living on a farm | |
| | Canada British Columbia | 6yrs M | | | | |
| <i>Dermacentor variabilis</i> Say | Canada British Columbia | 2 infants | Convulsions | Necks | - | |
| | Canada British Columbia | 5yrs - | Convulsions | The back of the head | - | |
| | USA Washington | 22yrs F | Complete motor paralysis of extremities | The skin over the coccyx | - | |
| | Canada British Columbia | 4yrs - | Complete paralysis of extremities | The nape of the neck | - | |
| | Canada British Columbia | 4yrs - | Almost complete paralysis | Neck | - | |
| | | | Loss of appetite, abdominal pain, great restlessness, severe pains in the knees, inability of the lower extremities | | The scalp above the left ear | Living in a small "jack" pine grove |
| | USA Washington | 4yrs F | | | | |
| | | | The inability of lower extremities, unable to stand, subnormal temperature, fast and thready pulse, vomiting | | The occipital region | Exposure in the woods |
| | USA Idaho | 7yrs M | | | | |

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|----------------|-------------|---|--|---|
| USA Idaho | 3.5yrs M | Unable to walk, generalized weakness of muscles and increased over time, (atypical infantile paralysis was suspected) | The head | Previously infested by wood ticks during spring |
| USA Idaho | 5yrs F | Unable to stand or walk, pain in legs, can't control muscles | The occiput | Walking through the forest |
| USA Idaho | 9yrs F | Unable to stand, dizzy, vomit | The scalp | - |
| USA Washington | 4yrs F | No appetite, drowsy | The scalp | - |
| USA Montana | - | - | The hair | - |
| USA Montana | 5yrs F | All extremities paralysis, absent reflexes, unable to talk and swallow | The scalp | - |
| USA Georgia | 9yrs F | Legs paralysis, arms weakness, thick speech, nystagmus | The scalp | - |
| USA Georgia | 7yrs F | Ataxia, no sensation of ear, eyes, nose, and throat, unsteady walk | The scalp | - |
| USA Carolina | 4yrs F | Ataxia, weakness, general malaise, unable to stand | The scalp | - |
| USA New York | 3yrs F | Weakness in legs, unable to walk or stand, ataxic gait, low spirits, no DTRs in extremities | Behind the right ear | Been a suburb |
| USA Texas | 2.5yrs F | Fever, unable to move | The posterior cervical glands on the left side | - |
| USA Kentucky | 4yrs F | Weakness progressed to complete paralysis of all extremities, diminished reflexes, ankle, | The scalp in the occipital region | Having a dog infested with many ticks |

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|--------------------|----------|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| | | | and knee jerks, miliaria rubra | | |
| USA | 9yrs F | Onset or irritable and progressed ataxia, weakness in legs rapidly progressed to other parts, ascending flaccid paralysis | The scalp | Visiting a rural area | |
| USA Tennessee | 4yrs F | Uncoordinated extremities, absent superficial reflexes | The left occipital region | - | |
| USA New York | 3.5yrs F | Headache, pain in the right leg, unable to walk, absent DTRs, diminished reflexes | The left frontotemporal region | Petting a dog | |
| USA Florida | 5.5yrs F | Unable to stand or walk, large, tender posterior cervical lymph nodes bilaterally, left parietal region of the scalp | The left parietal region of the scalp | Having a dog infesting ticks severely | |
| USA Georgia | 7yrs F | Unsteady gait and inability to walk, generalized paralysis, weak grip | The scalp (a male and a female) | - | |
| USA Wisconsin | 3yrs M | Afebrile, mild bilateral otitis media, slight truncal titubation, moderate flaccid weakness of lower extremities, absent DTRs, mild reflexes in arms | The scalp | Exposed on woods near rural | |
| USA Georgia | 6yrs F | Truncal instability, ataxic gait, diminished reflexes, hypoventilation | The left parietal area of the scalp | - | |
| USA New Jersey | 5yrs F | Diplopia and progressive weakness | Left parietal scalp | Possibly petting dogs | |
| USA New Jersey | 7yrs F | Ascending paralysis and ataxia | The posterior scalp | Possibly petting dogs | |
| USA North Carolina | 5yrs F | Unsteady gait progressed to inability to walk, absent DTRs | The occipital region of the scalp | - | |
| USA Pennsylvania | 4yrs F | Progressive lower extremity weakness, compressive thoracic arachnoid cyst, respiratory depression | Behind the left ear | - | |
| USA New York | 2yrs F | Rapidly progressing ascending paralysis, hyporeflexia | The right retroauricular | Living in the forest and petting dogs | |

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|-------------------------------|-----------------------|---------|--|---|--|
| | | | | area | |
| | USA Mississippi | 84yrs M | Subacute ataxia, bulbar palsy, unilateral weakness, and absent DTRs | Gluteal fold | Traveling coastal Mississippi |
| | USA Tennessee | 82yrs M | Dizziness, nausea, and vomiting upon standing up, slight weakness in multiple muscles, ataxic gait | The right anterior thigh (male tick) | Gardening in parks |
| | USA Tennessee | 5yrs F | Fever, progressive gait difficulty, lower reflexes, diplopia | Scalp | - |
| | USA Los Angeles | 88yrs M | Gait instability, progressive truncal ataxia | Left lateral chest | On a road trip, arriving in Coachella Valley |
| | USA Florida | 4yrs F | Diffuse weakness of all extremities, unable to stand, absent sense | Posterior aspect of the scalp | - |
| <i>Dermacentor marginatus</i> | Iran Tehran | 48yrs F | Facial edema, headache, head itching, swelling behind the ear, disequilibrium, fever | The vertex region of the skull | Working to the mountainous countryside |
| | Turkey Niğde | 71yrs M | Itching and localized redness | The medial aspect of the right lower eyelid | Living in countryside |
| <i>Dermacentor</i> sp. | Malaysia | 65yrs F | Right facial palsy, haemorrhagia in the right tympanic membrane | The right ear (nymph) | - |
| | USA Pennsylvania | 4yrs F | Areflexic in lower extremities, unsteady gait, increasing respiratory distress, unable to move upper extremities | The superior retro auricular scalp | - |
| <i>Ixodes scapularis</i> | USA Mississippi | 11yrs M | Numbness and tingling over the left parietal area, movement difficulty, ataxia | Left occiput | Camping in the forest |
| <i>Ixodes tancitarius</i> | Mexico Valle de Bravo | - M | Paralysis symptoms | The hand | Working in Valle |
| <i>Ixodes rubicundus</i> | Republic of | 4yrs - | Lossing sensory of arms and hands, weakness | The axilla | - |

| | | | | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------|--|--|---|
| | Sierra Leone | | of arm muscle | | |
| <i>Ixodes holocyclus</i> | Australia | 13 months F | Motor paralysis, fever | Behind left ear | Hugged by a man who walked through the jungle |
| | Australia Sydney | 35yrs F | Pain and weakness of legs, blurring vision | The inner side of the right labium majus | - |
| | Australia Sydney | 2 months F | Severely paralyzed in all extremities, difficulty in swallowing, absent jerk-knees and reflexes, fever, respiratory distress | The right breast | - |
| | Australia Sydney | 7yrs M | Unsteady gait, double vision, difficulty in swallowing, breathing distress, absent reflexes and knee jerks, fever | Behind the ear and on the occipital region | - |
| | Australia Sydney | Nearly 6yrs F | Lump on head, unsteady gait, flaccid paralysis, absent knee jerks, breathing failure | The scalp | Having a picnic |
| | Australia New South Wales | 45yrs M | Left upper limb discomfort | The lateral aspect of the left axilla | Bushwalk |
| | Australia Queensland | 67yrs M | Left-sided facial weakness | The posterior superior aspect of the lateral EAC | Working outdoor |
| | Australia New South Wales | 57yrs M | Right facial nerve palsy | Right parietal scalp | Hiking on the Central Coast |
| | Australia Sydney Auburn | 16 months M | Dilated pupils, muscle paresis, swallow hard, stertorous breath | The scalp | - |
| | Australia Erina Shire Gosford | 2yrs M | - | - | - |
| | Australia Matcham | 10m M | - | The left carotid region | - |
| | Australia Queensland | 19mon F | Serous nasal discharge and a slight cough, weakness, respiratory depression | The left ear | Camping in the rainforest area |
| | Australia Goomeri | 3yrs F | Unsteady gait | The left ear | - |

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|-----------------------|---------|--|---|----------------------------------|
| Australia Yandina | 2yrs F | Irritable, weakness, and paralysis | The scalp | - |
| Australia Brisbane | 3yrs F | Cough, weak, and stridor | The scalp | - |
| Australia Brisbane | 6yrs F | Left-sided facial palsy | The left ear | - |
| Australia Bunya | 3yrs M | Unsteady gaits, weakness of lower extremities | The scalp | Staying in the mountains |
| Australia Brisbane | 3yrs F | Weakness, glassy eyes | The scalp | - |
| Australia | 22yrs F | A firm lump | The scalp | - |
| Australia Brisbane | 63yrs M | - | Eyelids (larva) | Living in a rural area |
| Japan Yamaguchi | 59yrs M | Sore throat and nasal discharge, fever, lethargy, edema, and sensory loss around eschar on the scalp | Scalp | Staying at a farm |
| Australia | 48yrs M | Lethargy, myalgia, unsteadiness, urticarial lesions, generalized lymphadenopathy | The scalp, face, neck, back, and limbs (with 44 | Hiking through bushes and creeks |

| | | | | | |
|--|---------------------------|------------|--|---|---|
| | | | | ticks) | |
| | England London | - F | Small black lump' in the groin area | The lower leg | Traveling to the coast |
| | Singapore | 63yrs F | Swelling and pain over the right temporal region, febrile, nerve weakness | Temporal scalp | Visiting a house near scrubland |
| | Turkey Aydin | 45yrs M | Facial palsy | External ear canal | - |
| <i>Ixodes ricinus</i> or <i>Ixodes holocyclus</i> | Australia | 4.5yrs F | Absent appetite, vomiting, nearly unconscious, absent reflexes, weakness of muscles, the knee jerks were absent | The scapula of the right shoulder | - |
| <i>Amblyomma americanum</i> | America | young M | Ataxia, diminished reflexes, vomiting | - (2 nymphs) | - |
| | USA Florida | 38yrs M | Complete paralysis of legs, decreased reflexes of arms, missing sensory from legs to inguinal areas | The scalp, the right thigh, and the left axilla | Working and living in the forest |
| <i>Amblyomma maculatum</i> | USA Louisiana | 7yrs F | Generalized, symmetrical flaccid paresis, weakness, lethargy, ataxia, diminished reflexes, adiadokinesia | The scalp | - |
| | Mexico Jalisco | 22yrs M | Flaccid paraplegia, areflexia, dyspnea, difficulty in breathing | Feet | Living in a rural area and contacting cattle with ticks |
| | Canada | 3yrs M | Ataxia, extremities weakness, hyporeflexia | Back (over 50 ticks) | Visiting rural for 1 week |
| <i>Amblyomma</i> spp. | Brazil Minas Gerais State | 28yrs M | Febrile, respiratory depression, erythematous papular lesions, mild bilateral ptosis, intense gastralgia, nausea, profuse sweating, malaise, | Right inguino-femoral region | Contacting animals with ticks |

| | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------|---|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | | | muscle weakness, blurred vision, severe bilateral ptosis, dry cough, headache, and dysphagia | | |
| | Thailand | 5yrs F | acute unilateral right complete facial paralysis and right otalgia | Right tympanic membrane | Traveling to the park |
| <i>Haemaphysalis cinnabarina</i> | Canada British Columbia | ~10yrs F | knee jerks absent, consciousness unimpaired, quickened pulse, paralysis of legs and abdominal muscles developed, respiratory depression | The scalp | - |
| <i>Haemaphysalis</i> sp. | India | Newborn M | lethargy and reduced activity, no appetite, yellowish discoloration of extremities, poor respiratory, lower DTRs, and generalized hypotonia | Under the chin | Living ticks popular region |
| <i>Hyalomma marginatum marginatum</i> | Turkey | 3yrs F | Facial palsy (HB* IV), ear pain, unable to close eyelids, lispings, paresthesia on the left face | The external ear canal | - |
| | Turkey | 47yrs M | Localized facial palsy (HB III) | The ear | - |
| <i>Hyalomma truncatum</i> | South Africa | 16yrs M | Inability to move hands and fingers, diminished elbow flexion, paralyzed long flexors of fingers, unfunctional muscles | The right axilla (male tick) | - |
| | South Africa Pretoria | 21yrs M | Burning pain from the right axilla o elbow, and developing to the entire arm, weakness in lifting arm, weakness of arm muscles, fever | The right axilla (male tick) | Working in farms |
| | South Africa Pretoria | 22yrs M | Anaesthesia of a large area of arms, motor weakness | The axilla | Working in farms |
| | South Africa | 23yrs M | Pain in ear | The ear | Staying in forest |
| <i>Hyalomma</i> sp. | Turkey Central Anatolia | 33yrs M | Facial palsy (HB II), onset pain of the right ear, unable to close eyelid, afebrile | The right external | - |

| | | | | | | |
|---|------------------------|--|--|---|----------------|-----------------------------|
| | | | | | auditory canal | |
| <i>Dermacemor auratus</i> + <i>Hyalomma marginatum isaaci</i> | Sri Lanka | 9mons-67yrs (29 patients, 12 M, 17 F) (2 infants, 15 kids aged < 12yrs, 12 adults) | Sudden onset of acute ear pain, edematous ear canal, enlarged and tender lymph nodes | The ears (most tympanic membrane) (29 nymphs of <i>D. auratus</i> , 1 unfed male adult of <i>H. m. Isaaci</i>) | - | |
| <i>Rhipicephalus simus</i> | Somalia | 4yrs M | Weakness in legs, diminished reflexes, absent knee jerks | The leg | - | |
| | Somalia | 6yrs F | Tonic and clonic convulsions of the neck and face muscles, tachycardia, and tachypnea | The neck | - | |
| | Spain | - | - | - | - | |
| | Greece | - | - | - | - | |
| | South Africa Transvaal | Adult M | Headache for 3 weeks, got weaker, inability to walk and swallow, drowsy, generalized weakness, absent abdominal reflexes | The lower abdomen | - | |
| <i>Rhipicephalus</i> sp. | Ethiopia | 7yrs M | Left ear pain, left-sided facial swelling, facial pain and weakness, facial palsy (HB IV) | The ear | | Closely contact with cattle |
| <i>Otobius megnini</i> | South Africa | 16months M | Pain in knees, refusing to walk, weakness of the right leg, respiration difficulty, unable to sit or lift head | The right ear canal (nymph tick) | - | |
| Possible <i>Rhipicephalus sanguineus</i> , <i>Hyalomma dromedarii</i> , <i>H. anatolicum excavatum</i> , and <i>Haemaphysalis</i> | Egypt Giza Governorate | - (4 kids unrecorded ages) | Diarrhea, vomiting, irritability, and mild intermittent fever, and the smaller two experienced nervous manifestations | - | | |

| <i>sulcata</i> | | | | | |
|----------------|-------------------------|----------|---|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Unclassified | Canada British Columbia | 2 kids | Suddenly paralysis | - | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | - | Symptoms of acute ascending paralysis | The nape of the neck | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | - | Symptoms of acute ascending paralysis | The right temple | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | 4yrs F | Unable to stand and control leg muscles | The nape of the neck | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | 3.5yrs - | Almost complete paralysis of legs, missing reflexes | The neck | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | - | Weaker | The nape of the neck | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | 3yrs F | Complete paralyzed legs and missing reflexes, paresis | The nape of the neck | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | 3~4yrs | Legs paralysis and absence of reflexes | The neck | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | 2 kids | Symptoms of paralysis | - | - |
| | USA Ashcroft | - | Paralysis | - | - |
| | Canada Bella Coola | - | Paralysis | - | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | 5yrs F | Unable to stand | The head | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | 6yrs F | Flaccid paralysis of all extremities, aphonia, dysphagia, labored breathing | Skin (2 ticks) | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | 10yrs F | Complete flaccid paralysis | - | - |
| | Canada British Columbia | 9 cases | - | - | - |
| | USA Florida | 24yrs M | Sudden onset of pain in the lower back, severe weakness and developed to paralysis of all extremities, difficulty in opening mouth and swallowing, muscle deglutition, labored respirations | - | Fishing and across the forest |
| | Canada British Columbia | 2yrs M | Unable to walk, restless, agitated, generalized ataxia, lethargy, poor sucking reflexes, difficulty to swallow | The scalp | - |

| | | | | |
|----------------------------|---------|--|---|---|
| USA | 2yrs M | Paralysis | - | - |
| USA | 2yrs M | Moribund suddenly | The occiput | - |
| USA | 2yrs F | Tired legs, difficulty to stand | The head | - |
| USA | 11yrs F | Bulbar paralysis | - | - |
| Israel | 19yrs M | Complete paralysis of the right arm | The right axilla (male tick) | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 4yrs M | Flaccid paralysis from the hips down, weak arms, hyperesthesia, conditions deteriorated | The left axilla | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 3yrs F | Slight paralysis of the right leg onset, conditions stuporous 24 hours later, and legs and arms were entirely paralysis, unable to swallow, rapid pulse, fever | The scalp | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 28yrs M | Rapid pulse, rash, fever, missing sensation from the hip joint in right leg, paralysis in the left leg | The left leg | - |
| USA Montana | 2yrs F | Unable to walk and stand, rapid pulse, absent DTRs | The nape of the neck (a male and a female tick) | - |
| USA Montana | 5yrs F | Unable to walk for at least 48 hours, missing reflexes | The scalp | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 8yrs F | General paralysis, rapid pulse, febrile | The arm | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 6yrs F | General paralysis of the whole body | The head | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 5yrs F | Unable to walk and stand | - | - |
| Canada British | 8yrs M | Legs numbness, unable to stand and move, | The skull | - |

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|---------------|--|--|---|
| Columbia | | sleepy and dull | | |
| Canada British Columbia | 40yrs M | Difficulty to speak, incoordination, weak muscle strength, absent knee jerks | The back | - |
| USA Wyoming | 10yrs M | Double vision, unable to lift legs and head, ptosis of left upper eyelid, absent DTRs | The back | - |
| Australia Melbourne | 45yrs M | Facial paralysis | The auditory canal | Fishing nearby lake |
| Australia New South Wales | 2yrs - | Facial paralysis lasting 2 weeks | The auditory canal | - |
| Australia Sydney | Nearly 2yrs F | Unsteady gait, weakness of the right leg, absent reflexes and muscle strength, conditions worsen | The left occipital region | - |
| Australia Sydney | 10yrs M | Weakness in the right arm, paralysis of the dorsiflexor, paresis of arms and legs | The right axilla | - |
| Australia Sydney | 7yrs F | Fever, pain in the right head, paralysis of the right frontalis and orbicularis oculi muscles, absent DTRs | The right temple | - |
| Australia Sydney | 10yrs M | Pain in legs, weakness of legs, paresis of all muscles of the legs, sluggish knee jerks | The scalp | Living in suburb |
| Australia | 11yrs M | Giddy, generalized weakness, facial palsy | The ear | Walking through bushes |
| Canada British Columbia | 3yrs | Their body was limp and muscular weakness | - | - |
| USA Washington | Nearly 2yrs M | Difficulty in walking and progressed to unable to walk and control arms | The scalp in the right temporal region | Spending several days at a nearby mountain lake |
| USA Idaho | 2yrs F | Sudden inability, unable to stand, complete paralysis of legs | The scalp | - |
| USA Idaho | - | Vomiting, fever, prostration, loss of appetite, and other general symptoms of an intoxication | - | - |
| USA Washington | 6yrs F | No appetite, unsteady walk, dilated pupils | The scalp | - |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------|------------|---|--|--|
| Australia Bellingen | 3yrs M | A great deal of edematous swelling over both supraorbital margins | The center of the forehead | - |
| Australia Eden | 13months F | Paralysis, respiration depression | Behind the left ear | - |
| Australia Mullumbimby | 13~14yrs M | Semi-comatose, legs and muscles paralysis | Membrana tympani | |
| Australia Wagonga | 3yrs F | High fever, convulsive, muscle paresis | The chest on the left side is nearly under the arm | - |
| Australia Eastwood | 3yrs M | High fever, extreme cardiac weakness, pulse softness, and threading | - | - |
| USA Carolina | Adult F | Tingling and numbness in the lower and upper extremities, unable to stand, difficulty in talking and swallowing, decreased muscle strength, uncoordinated movement | The scalp | Visiting the farm |
| France | 48yrs M | Weakness and pain in right arm | - | - |
| USA New York | 4yrs - | Flaccid paralysis of all extremities, advanced to cranial nerves severely, respiratory depression | - | - |
| USA Georgia | 4yrs F | Paralyzed legs | The scalp | - |
| USA Kentucky | 6months M | Generalized flaccid weakness | Scalp | Visiting areas where ticks are prevalent |
| USA | 10yrs F | Inability to walk, fever, nausea, leg weakness developed to flaccid paralysis, increased ataxia, absence of reflexes | The scalp | Living in rural region |
| Australia Sydney | 3yrs F | Unsteady gait | The scalp | - |
| USA Philadelphia | 5yrs F | Ascending paralysis, symmetric flaccid paralysis, mild bilateral facial weakness, absent reflexes in the lower extremities, and diminished in the upper extremities | The right ear | - |
| USA | 1.5yrs | Difficulty in walking, swallowing, and | Behind the left | - |

| | | | | |
|-------------------------|------------|--|---------------------------------------|--|
| | M | drinking, flaccid weakness of all extremities, leg paralysis, incoordination of arms | ear | |
| Canada British Columbia | 1.5yrs F | General weakness, drowsiness, irritability, and right-leg paresis | - | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 5yrs F | Progressive weakness in legs, unable to stand, transitory weakness, able to raise legs but unable to control their directions | The scalp near the vertex | - |
| Canada British Columbia | 5yrs F | Unable to stand | The scalp | - |
| - | 2yrs F | Complete paralysis suddenly | The head | - |
| -- | 4yrs F | Weakness of extremities, flaccid paralysis, breathing distress, absent reflexes, vomiting | - | - |
| USA California | 3yrs F | Paralysis | - | Having a trip to Oregon |
| USA | 5.5yrs F | Unable to stand muscle weakness, severe ataxia with incoordination, dysmetria, intention tremor, hypotonia, and absent muscle stretch reflexes | Behind the right ear lobe | - |
| USA Mississippi | 5yrs M | Continuous ataxia, uncoordinated extremities, pronounced weakness with absent DTRs in lower extremities | The left temporal area behind the ear | - |
| USA Mississippi | 3yrs F | Walking difficulty, profound muscular weakness, absent DTRs in lower extremities | The scalp of the occipital region | - |
| USA Florida | 6yrs F | Ascending paralysis, afebrile, unable to walk or control legs, extremely weak muscles, absent reflexes | The scalp | - |
| USA | 2yrs F | Fever, unable to walk, DTRs decreased, slight unsteadiness | Behind the right ear | - |
| | 2yrs (n=4) | | | |
| USA Washington | 4yrs (n=5) | Weak grip, bilateral weakness of extremities, decreased bilateral tendon reflexes, and mild facial weakness | The scalp, behind ear, and groin | Live close to rivers or creeks, or experience mountains or parks |
| | 8yrs (n=1) | | | |
| | 54yrs | | | |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------|---------|---|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| | (n=1) | | | | |
| | 1yrs | | | | |
| | (n=1) | | | | |
| | 3yrs | | | | |
| | (n=3) | | | | |
| | 51yrs | | | | |
| | (n=1) | | | | |
| | 76yrs | | | | |
| | (n=1) | | | | |
| | 5yrs | | | | |
| | (n=1) | | | | |
| | 7yrs | | | | |
| | (n=1) | | | | |
| USA | 5yrs F | Dizzy, absent and muscle strength DTR in the lower extremities, unable to perform Romberg test | Behind left ear | - | |
| USA Carolina | 7yrs F | Ataxic, unsteady, and wide-based gait, weakness bilaterally in legs, absent reflexes, dysmetria | On the left lateral scalp | | Living in rural and petting outdoor dogs |
| USA Carolina | 5yrs F | Minimal non-fatigue ptosis, lateral rectus muscle paresis bilaterally, neck flexor and extensor weakness, absent stretch reflexes | The scalp behind her ears (2 ticks) | | Living in a rural area |
| USA Los Angeles | 5yrs F | Generalized weakness | The scalp | - | |
| USA Colorado | 86yrs M | Difficulty in standing and moving, deteriorated weakness, absence of DTRs | The back | | Petting a dog often outside |
| USA Colorado | 78yrs F | General weakness, difficulty in walking, facial weakness, slurred speech, confusion, decreased DTRs | The neck | | Hiking or walking outside every day |
| USA Colorado | 58yrs M | Tingling sensation in hands, perioral numbness, unable to stand | The back | | Working in the yard and outdoor recreational activities |
| Germany | 47yrs M | Diplopia, blurred vision, dizziness, difficulty | The right leg | - | |

| | | | | | |
|----------------|---------|--|---|---|--------------------|
| | | | walking, nerve palsy on the right-hand side, positive Romberg test | | |
| Turkey | 66yrs M | | Weakness of the left arm, decreased DTRs, reduced muscle strength | The left supraclavicular area | - |
| Malaysia | 5yrs F | | Left otalgia, left-sided facial asymmetry (HB IV) | Posterior canal wall near the tympanic membrane | - |
| Malaysia | 1yrs F | | High-grade fever, rigor, irritable behaviors, right-sided asymmetry (HB IV), and the weakened right angle of the mouth | The right ear canal | - |
| Malaysia | 78yrs F | | Generalized lethargy and weakness, slight right-sided facial weakness (HB II) | The tympanic membrane of the right ear canal | - |
| USA Florida | 42yrs M | | Flu-like symptoms, fatigue, and developed to generalized weakness | The right occipital area | Hiking in Colorado |
| India | 3yrs M | | The angle of the mouth towards the right side, saliva drooling, pain in the left ear, left-sided isolated lower motor neuron facial palsy (HB IV), inflammation of the left ear canal | The tympanic membrane of the left ear | Living in rural |
| Malaysia | 64yrs F | | Sudden onset of facial asymmetry, facial nerve palsy (HB III) | The left ear | - |
| Ethiopia Shewa | 60yrs M | | The right arm flaccid monoplegia | The right arm | Living in rural |
| USA Georgia | 7yrs F | | Acute onset proximal muscle weakness | The scalp | - |
| Malaysia | 73yrs F | | Spinning sensation, nausea, vomiting, and mild headache, developed left-sided facial asymmetry and facial weakness, reduced | The ear canals | - |

| | | hearing | | |
|--------------------|---------|---|---------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Malaysia | 61yrs F | Left ear pain associated with foreign body sensation and left facial weakness, left facial asymmetry (HB II), unable to control eye muscles | The tympanic membrane of the left ear | Contacting with a cat |
| - | 4yrs F | Facial nerve paralysis left otalgia, left-sided facial asymmetry | The ear | - |
| USA Mississippi | 2yrs F | Lower extremities weakness, unsteady gait, truncal ataxia | The ear | Living in rural |
| USA | 4yrs M | Progressive weakness of all extremities, afebrile, absent DTRs, diffuse hypotonia | The scalp | - |
| Malaysia | 7yrs F | Left otalgia left facial asymmetry | The ear | - |
| Malaysia | 71yrs F | Sudden-onset giddiness and left facial nerve palsy with progressively reduced hearing bilateral for a week duration, profound sensorineural hearing loss with right mild-to-moderate sensorineural hearing loss | External ear | - |
| Malaysia | 3yrs M | Ear pain progressed, right facial asymmetry, reduced hearing, unable to close eyes, absence of the right nasolabial fold | The ear tympanic membrane | - |
| Turkey | 10yrs F | Pain and itching in the right ear, unable to close the right eye, facial palsy (HB VI) | The ear | - |

15 House-Brackmann grade
16

17 **TABLE S2.** Summary of human tick paralysis cases by country, including the number, frequency, and associated tick species.
 18

| Tick species | Number | Realms | Frequency |
|--|--------|-----------------------------|-----------|
| <i>Amblyomma americanum</i> | 2 | USA | 2 |
| <i>Amblyomma maculatum</i> | 3 | Mexico | 1 |
| | | Canada | 1 |
| | | USA | 1 |
| <i>Amblyomma</i> spp. | 2 | Brazil | 1 |
| | | Thailand | 1 |
| <i>Dermacentor andersoni</i> Stiles | 38 | USA | 26 |
| | | Canada | 12 |
| <i>Dermacentor variabilis</i> Say | 37 | USA | 32 |
| | | Canada | 5 |
| <i>Dermacentor marginatus</i> | 2 | Iran | 1 |
| | | Turkey | 1 |
| <i>Dermacentor</i> sp. | 2 | USA | 1 |
| | | Malaysia | 1 |
| <i>Haemaphysalis cinnabarina</i> | 1 | Canada | 1 |
| <i>Haemaphysalis</i> sp. | 1 | India | 1 |
| <i>Hyalomma marginatum marginatum</i> | 2 | Turkey | 2 |
| <i>Hyalomma</i> sp. | 1 | Turkey | 1 |
| <i>Hyalomma truncatum</i> | 3 | South Africa | 3 |
| <i>Hyalomma marginatum isaaci</i> + <i>Dermacemor auratus</i> | 29 | Sri Lanka | 29 |
| <i>Ixodes rubicundus</i> | 1 | Republic of Sierra Leone | 1 |
| <i>Ixodes scapularis</i> | 1 | USA | 1 |
| <i>Ixodes tancitaris</i> | 1 | Mexico | 1 |
| <i>Ixodes holocyclus</i> | 25 | Australia | 21 |
| | | Japan | 1 |
| | | Singapore | 1 |
| | | England | 1 |
| | | Turkey | 1 |
| <i>Ixodes ricinus</i> or <i>I. holocyclus</i> | 1 | Australia | 1 |
| <i>Otobius megnini</i> | 1 | Europe | 1 |
| <i>Rhipicephalus simus</i> | 5 | Somalia | 2 |
| | | Greece | 1 |
| | | Spain | 1 |
| | | South Africa | 1 |
| <i>Rhipicephalus</i> sp. | 1 | Ethiopia | 1 |

| | | | |
|---|-----|-----------|----|
| Possible <i>Rhipicephalus sanguineus</i> , <i>Hyalomma dromedarii</i> , <i>H.</i> <i>anatolicum excavatum</i> , and <i>Haemaphysalis sulcata</i> | 4 | Egypt | 4 |
| Unknown | 125 | USA | 56 |
| | | Canada | 37 |
| | | Australia | 13 |
| | | Malaysia | 9 |
| | | France | 1 |
| | | Germany | 1 |
| | | India | 1 |
| | | Ethiopia | 1 |
| | | Israel | 1 |
| | | Turkey | 2 |
| | | unknown | 3 |

19

20 Number: The total number of cases caused by the corresponding tick; Frequency: The clinical case reported in the country by
21 the corresponding tick.

22

23

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