

1 Muscle spasms – a common symptom following theraphosid spider bites?

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9 Highlights

- We examined 363 published bites by theraphosid spiders on the incidence of skeletal muscle cramps in human bite victims
- Muscle cramps were caused by Theraphosidae from Africa, Asia, Australia, North and South America
- Highest incidence rates were recorded for theraphosid subfamilies Poecilotheriinae, Harpactirinae and Stromatopelminae
- Subfamilies with high incidence rates have a high likelihood of yielding larger venom amounts

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19 **Abstract**

Despite the popularity of theraphosids, detailed reports on bite symptoms are still limited to few geographic regions and subfamilies. We therefore examined 363 published bite reports and noticed muscles cramps caused by theraphosids from nearly all continents and subfamilies. Symptoms are mostly locally restricted and mild, but 12.7% of victims experience pronounced cramps with highest incidence rates by Poecilotheriinae, Harpactirinae and Stromatopelminae subfamilies. We discuss how variations in venom quantity correlate with muscle cramp prevalence.

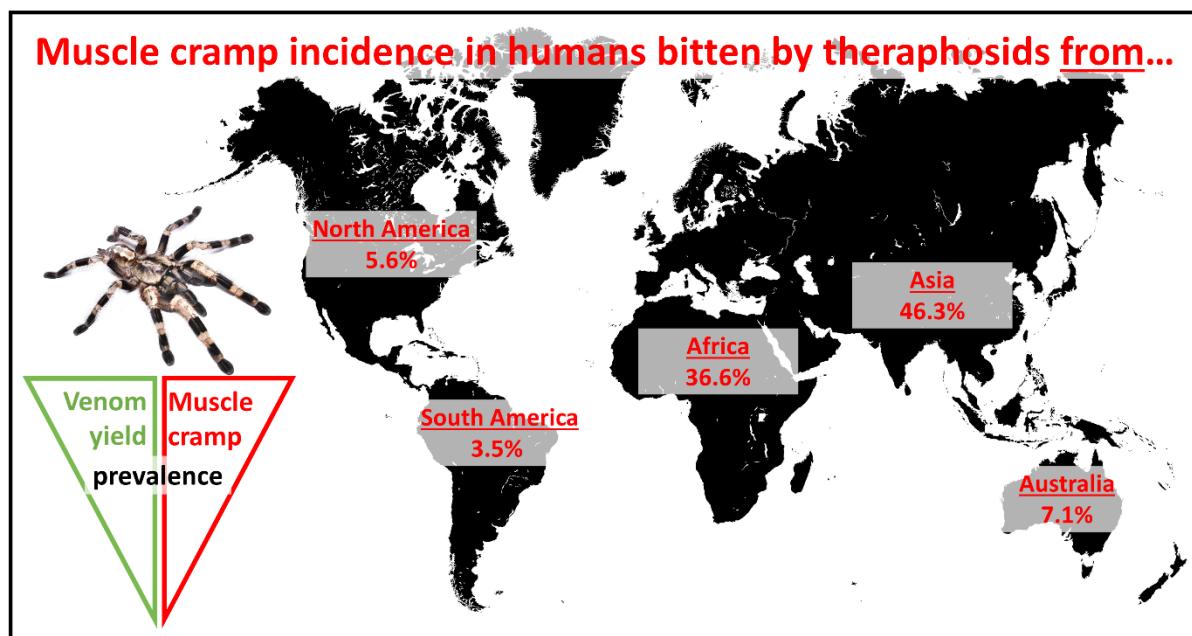
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29 **Keywords**

30 Theraphosidae; muscle cramps; convulsion; spider; envenomation; bite

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32 **Graphical Abstract**

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35 Spiders of the family Theraphosidae, commonly known as tarantulas or bird (-eating) spiders,
36 are an important food source in some countries (Yen and Ro, 2013) and popular “exotic pets”
37 in many countries throughout the world (Hauke and Herzig, 2020; Shivambu et al., 2020).
38 However, as a result of the anthropogenic impact, several species are already regarded as
39 endangered (Branco and Cardoso, 2020; Fukushima et al., 2020; Nanayakkara et al., 2015).
40 Despite the popularity and importance of theraphosid spiders, the toxic effects of their bites
41 on humans are rarely studied. Only two published studies gathered larger case series of bites
42 by “wild” theraphosid spiders from Australia and Brazil, respectively, comprising a total of 57
43 incidents (Isbister et al., 2003; Lucas et al., 1994). The recorded bites exclusively resulted in
44 minor outcomes, with local pain, puncture marks, redness, and swelling comprising the main
45 effects (Isbister et al., 2003; Lucas et al., 1994). These local signs and symptoms don’t
46 necessarily imply an actual envenomation, but could at least be partly attributed to a
47 mechanical irritation caused by the relatively large and powerful fangs of mygalomorph
48 spiders (Isbister and Gray, 2004). With theraphosids gaining in popularity as pets, the

49 likelihood of bite incidents in humans is increased. And as pet owners are usually well aware
50 of the taxonomic identities of their maintained pets (Fuchs et al., 2014), such incidents
51 typically fulfil the criteria of “verified bites” (Ilsbister and White, 2004). Thus, accidental bites
52 from pet arachnids represent an opportunity to gain novel insights on the toxic effects of
53 theraphosid venoms on humans.

54 Bite effects described from “pet” *Poecilotheria regalis*, *Pterinochilus murinus* and another
55 unidentified Asian theraphosid spider highlighted the occurrence of muscle spasms in all three
56 cases (Ahmed et al., 2009; Ahmed et al., 2010). In case of the bite caused by *P. regalis* the
57 cramps were locally restricted to the bitten hand, while in the other two bites the cramps
58 were considered to be generalized, affecting “virtually all [...] muscle groups”, and experienced
59 by the victims as agonizingly painful (Ahmed et al., 2009). Another study described one case
60 of a bite from a “pet” *P. regalis* and gathered information on further 26 bites from
61 *Poecilotheria* species (Fuchs et al., 2014). It was found that 58% of recorded *Poecilotheria* bites
62 resulted in muscle cramps. The occurrence of muscle cramps was typically accompanied by
63 several other local and systemic effects. Bite incidents, which resulted in muscle cramps
64 amongst other effects, were experienced more unpleasant and painful than incidents that
65 remained without muscle cramps. Most notably, it was found that muscle cramps caused by
66 *Poecilotheria* have a delayed onset (on average starting 10 hours after the bite) and are long-
67 lasting (7.6 days on average) (Fuchs et al., 2014). A single case of a bite from a “pet”
68 *Heteroscodra maculata* reported generalized muscle cramps, which started 4 hours and only
69 receded about 2 weeks after bite (Fuchs et al., 2018). All of these previous reports were caused
70 by pet spiders originating from Africa and Asia. Still, we expected that studying further reports
71 would likely reveal the possibility of other theraphosids also causing muscle spasms. Only
72 recently, we surveyed incidents caused by pet arachnids and, amongst others, gathered 285
73 bites from theraphosid spiders, which – to our knowledge – represents the largest study of
74 bites by the spider family Theraphosidae published to date (Hauke and Herzig, 2020). The most
75 common effects were local pain, swelling, puncture marks and redness, followed by muscle
76 cramps.

77 In the present study, we aimed to analyse the incidence of skeletal muscle spasms in humans
78 as a consequence of theraphosid spider bites and provide zoogeographic and phylogenetic
79 implications (with Theraphosidae phylogeny according to Foley et al., 2019). To this end, we
80 extracted data from published studies (de Haro and Jouglard, 1998; de Haro and Pommier,

81 2003; Hauke and Herzig, 2020; Isbister et al., 2003; Lucas et al., 1994) and analysed several
82 case reports (Ahmed et al., 2009; Dinamithra et al., 2013; Fuchs et al., 2018; Fuchs et al., 2014;
83 Raven and Covacevich, 2012; Takaoka et al., 2001). In addition, we used data from 882
84 theraphosid venom extractions performed by one of the authors (V.H.) to correlate the venom
85 yields with the respective spider sizes. In total, we compiled 363 bite incidents from
86 theraphosid spiders (with 304 cases from “pet” and 59 from “wild” specimen) and muscle
87 cramps occurred in 20.1% of all cases (Table 1). Notably, not all muscle cramps were
88 experienced as agonizing as in the aforementioned literature (Ahmed et al., 2009), but some
89 were described as rather mild (i.e. minor painful and/or locally restricted to bitten extremity).
90 Cramps with an explicitly more pronounced manifestation (i.e. accompanied with agonizing
91 pain and/or affecting several parts of the body) were recorded in 12.7% of all bites and
92 comprised 63.0% of all cramps, respectively.

93 Table 1 shows that the incidence rates of muscle cramps caused by African (36.6%) and Asian
94 (46.3%) theraphosids are considerably higher than those from Australian (7.1%), North
95 American (5.6%) and South American species (3.5%), but it also provides evidence that muscle
96 cramps are not exclusive to Old World species (please note that there were no incidents from
97 European species; accordingly, we refrain from drawing any conclusions on theraphosids from
98 Europe). The proportion of pronounced muscle cramps is above 65% for African, Asian and
99 North American theraphosids. Australian and South American species on the other hand
100 exhibited much lower ratios (0.0% and 20.0%, respectively). Interestingly, 67.1% of all cramps
101 were caused by representatives of the genera *Poecilotheria* and *Pterinochilus*, while the
102 remaining 32.9% were spread across 13 further genera (plus a further unidentified Asian
103 genus (Ahmed et al., 2009; Ahmed et al., 2010)). Thus, these two Old Word genera appear to
104 be the dominant cause for reported muscle cramps attributed to theraphosid spider bites.

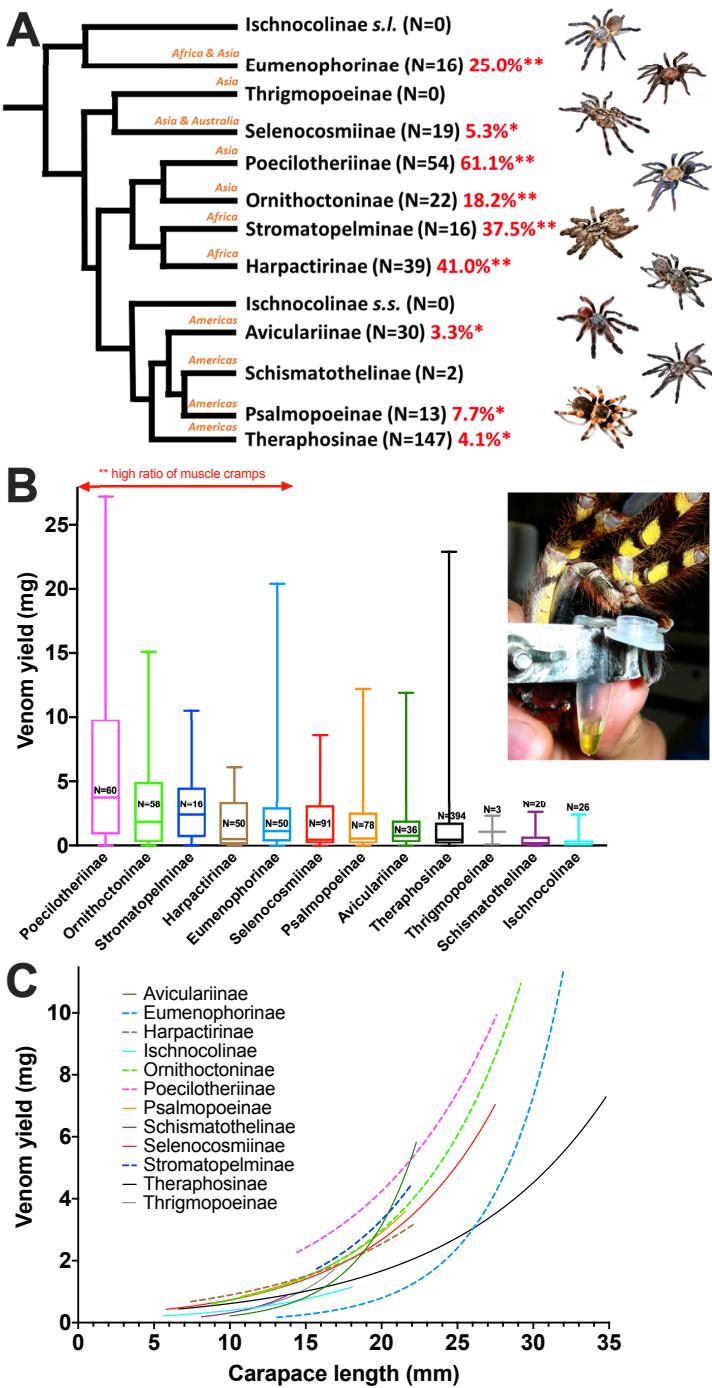
105 **Table 1:** Overview on muscle cramps caused by theraphosid spiders from different geographical origins (data
106 extracted from (Ahmed et al., 2009; de Haro and Jouglard, 1998; de Haro and Pommier, 2003; Dinamithra et al.,
107 2013; Fuchs et al., 2018; Fuchs et al., 2014; Hauke and Herzig, 2020; Isbister et al., 2003; Lucas et al., 1994; Raven
108 and Covacevich, 2012; Takaoka et al., 2001). ^aGeographical origin (North America includes species from Central
109 America) of theraphosids causing muscle cramps (and number of corresponding cases); ^bIncidence rate of all
110 reported muscle cramps (including mild and pronounced manifestations); ^cIncidence rate of cramps with
111 pronounced manifestation; ^dRatio of pronounced muscle cramps amongst all reported cramps; ^eTheraphosid
112 genera (and subfamilies) that caused muscle cramps; genera that caused pronounced muscle cramps are
113 highlighted in bold.

Origin (cases) ^a	All cramps ^b	Pronounced cramps ^c	Ratio ^d	Responsible theraphosid genera (subfamilies) ^e
Africa (N=71)	36.6%	23.9%	65.4%	<i>Heteroscodra</i> , <i>Stromatopelma</i> (each Stromatopelminae), <i>Hysterocrates</i> , <i>Pelinobius</i> (each Eumenophorinae), <i>Pterinochilus</i> (Harpactirinae)
Asia (N=82)	46.3%	31.7%	68.4%	<i>Haplopelma</i> (Ornithoctoninae), <i>Poecilotheria</i> (Poecilotheriinae)
Australia (N=14)	7.1%	0.0%	0.0%	<i>Selenocosmia</i> (Selenocosmiinae)
Europe (N=0)	No cases recorded			
North America (N=54)	5.6%	3.7%	66.7%	<i>Brachypelma</i> , <i>Phormictopus</i> , <i>Tliltocatl</i> (each Theraphosinae)
South America (N=142)	3.5%	0.7%	20.0%	<i>Avicularia</i> (Aviculariinae), <i>Grammostola</i> , <i>Pamphobeteus</i> (each Theraphosinae), <i>Psalmopoeus</i> (Psalmopoeinae)
Theraphosidae	20.1%	12.7%	63.0%	
Average (N=363)				

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115 In agreement with previous publications (Ahmed et al., 2009; Andreev-Andrievskiy et al.,
 116 2017; Herzog and King, 2013), we think the muscle spasms are likely caused by toxins that
 117 target voltage-gated ion channels. However, as muscle spasms were recorded from several
 118 different, non-closely related Theraphosidae subfamilies (Figure 1A), any phylogenetic
 119 implications appear cryptic, and we cannot rule out that several different venom components
 120 (maybe even with additive or synergistic effects) rather than a single toxin are responsible for
 121 causing these symptoms. Besides toxicity, the available venom amount might be another
 122 important factor contributing to the prevalence of muscle cramps. We noticed that
 123 theraphosid subfamilies with high incidence rates for muscle cramps often have a high
 124 likelihood for yielding larger venom amounts upon “milking” (Figure 1B,C). Interestingly,
 125 members of the subfamily Poecilotherinae, which have the highest incidence rate for causing
 126 muscle cramps, also yield the highest venom amounts amongst all Theraphosidae subfamilies
 127 when comparing similarly sized spiders (Figure 1C). Accordingly, differences in the severity of
 128 symptoms and the prevalence of muscle cramps following theraphosid bites might be rather
 129 a consequence of varying venom amounts than of differences in venom toxicity. However, the
 130 “milked” venom quantities are only an estimate for the available venom amounts and the
 131 quantities that are actually administered during a bite might be influenced by various
 132 behavioural factors (Morgenstern and King, 2013). For example, spiders, in general, are known
 133 to use their venom sparingly, often even administering no venom (i.e. “dry bites”) for
 134 defensive purposes (Nelsen et al., 2014). Furthermore, the ecological role for inflicting muscle
 135 spasms needs further elucidation. Humans are not amongst the natural prey of theraphosid

136 spiders and a primary role as a defensive mechanism against larger predators appears unlikely
137 given the late onset of the cramps, often starting only several hours after the bite (Fuchs et
138 al., 2014). Interestingly, theraphosid venoms also cause similar symptoms including
139 convulsions in mice, but with a much quicker onset (Andreev-Andrievskiy et al., 2017;
140 Finlayson and Smithers, 1939) and it is known that theraphosids occasionally prey on small
141 vertebrates including mammals such as bats and rodents (Valdez, 2020). Accordingly, the
142 toxins responsible for causing muscle spasms may actually have evolved to target smaller
143 vertebrate prey, but a defensive purpose of these toxins against smaller vertebrate predators
144 can also not be ruled out. Nevertheless, much like the potential lethality of funnel-web spider
145 venom (Herzig et al., 2020), the agonizing effects of theraphosid venoms inducing muscle
146 cramps in humans might have to be considered as an unfortunate evolutionary coincidence.



148 **Figure 1: Muscle cramp incidence rates and venom yields in theraphosid subfamilies. A:** Phylogeny (modified
149 from (Foley et al., 2019)) of all theraphosid subfamilies (except Selenogyrinae; note that the subfamily
150 Ischnocolinae appears paraphyletic, indicated by the two groups Ischnocolinae *sensu stricto* and Ischnocolinae
151 *sensu lato*, and houses species from various continents). The continents of origin (in orange) and incidence rates
152 of muscles cramps (in red) are indicated; *= muscle cramps reported; **= high incidence rate (> 10%) of muscle
153 cramps reported and respective case numbers (N) according to Table 1. Photos of spiders were taken by one of
154 the authors (T.H.) and represent theraphosid subfamilies, from which muscle cramps were reported (from top
155 to bottom): *Monocentropus balfouri* (Eumenophorinae), *Selenocosmia peerboomi* (Selenocosmiinae),
156 *Poecilotheria ornata* (Poecilotheriinae), *Haplopelma lividum* (Ornithoctoninae), *Heteroscodra maculata*

157 (Stromatopelminae), *Ceratogyrus darlingi* (Harpactirinae), *Caribena versicolor* (Aviculariinae), *Tapinauchenius*
158 *plumipes* (Psalmopoeinae), and *Brachypelma smithi* (Theraphosinae). **B:** Box & whisker plot of venom yields in
159 different theraphosid subfamilies based on N=882 electric “milking” performed by one of the authors (V.H.)
160 during which the carapace length was determined. The bottom and top line of each box indicate the 25 and 75
161 percentile, respectively, and the line inside the box denotes the median venom yield. The whiskers represent the
162 minimum and maximum venom yield and the numbers of milkings are indicated separately for each subfamily.
163 The red arrow marks those subfamilies with incidence rates for muscle cramps of above 10% according to panel
164 A. Inset shows the milking (photo courtesy of Ingo Wendt) of a *Poecilotheria fasciata* by one of the authors (V.H.)
165 yielding 19.2 mg (when dried) of the yellow-colored venom, which is characteristic for this genus. **C:** Non-linear
166 regression analysis with exponential growth (calculated in Prism 8 for macOS) for the venom yields in different
167 theraphosid subfamilies based on the dataset of N=882 milkings as detailed in panel B. Subfamilies with a high
168 incidence rate of muscle cramps according to panel A are indicated by dashed lines. The color scheme for the
169 subfamilies corresponds to the respective colors in panel B.

170 Previous attempts of relieving patients’ muscle spasms and easing pain included the
171 administration of benzodiazepines, magnesium and/or calcium, but remained without clear
172 evidence for efficacy (Ahmed et al., 2009; Fuchs et al., 2018; Fuchs et al., 2014). Interestingly,
173 in experiments in mice chlorpromazine, an antipsychotic drug, effectively suppressed muscle
174 cramps (Andreev-Andrievskiy et al., 2017). However, at this stage chlorpromazine has not yet
175 been evaluated on human bite victims for its potential to ameliorate muscle spasms. More
176 research is therefore required to identify the theraphosid toxins responsible for causing
177 skeletal muscle cramps and to elucidate their mode of action and their ecological role in the
178 venom.

179

180 **Conflict of interest**

181 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

182

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