Spider Bites

James R. Blackman, MD

Background: This review provides the physician with a clinical approach to the diagnosis and management of spider bites. It examines the recent literature concerning management of bites causing dermonecrosis, secondary infection, neuromuscular damage, and allergic reactions.

Methods: Using the key words "spider bites," "brown recluse spider bites," "necrotic arachnidism," "black widow spider bites," "latrodectism," and "*Tegenaria agrestis* (Hobo spider)," the MEDLINE files were researched for articles pertinent to the practicing physician. Texts related to spiders and spider bites were also consulted.

Results and Conclusions: At least 60 species of spiders have been implicated in human bites. Most cause bites of minimal medical importance, requiring little treatment. Some (brown recluse, Hobo spider) cause severe cutaneous and systemic reactions requiring intensive medical management. The black widow bite can cause severe neurologic problems requiring the use of antivenin. Spider bites are frequently difficult to diagnose because the spider is not seen at the time of the suspected bite. Such bites should be labeled arthropod bites, vector unknown. (J Am Board Fam Pract 1995; 8:288-94.)

Thirty thousand species of spiders identified worldwide have conquered essentially all ecological environments. Spiders, as arachnids, are closely related to scorpions, harvestmen, mites, and ticks. Approximately 60 species of spiders in North America have been implicated in human bites of medical importance. Most bites are by female spiders. Male spiders are almost always smaller and have fangs that are too short or fragile to envenomate humans. Deaths occur rarely and only with brown recluse and black widow envenomations.^{1,2}

The spider's body consists of two parts. The anterior portion (cephalothorax) serves locomotion, food uptake, and nervous integration. The posterior portion (abdomen) serves digestion, circulation, respiration, excretion, reproduction, and silk production. Spiders have eight legs and six or eight eyes.¹

Several mechanisms of injury have been described, including dermonecrosis, secondary infection, neuromuscular damage, and allergic reactions (including urticaria). Host factors also contribute to outcome. Children are more likely to have greater morbidity and mortality, hands and cutaneous areas with ample subcutaneous tissue develop more serious lesions, and individuals with underlying skin disorders develop more extensive cutaneous reactions. Treatment can also affect outcome.

The diagnosis of a spider bite is frequently very of difficult to make, especially when the spider has not been seen or recovered. It is essential for medical, medicolegal, and epidemiologic reasons to be absolutely sure. The medical literature is replete with undocumented case reports and studies. In a study of 600 suspected spider bites, 80 percent were caused by other arthropods and 10 percent by other disease states (Table 1).³

Diagnostic requirements for spider bites include the following: (1) The basic facts about spiders place them near the bottom of biting candidates. (2) If the spider was not seen or captured close to the site of injury and at the proper time, all evidence is circumstantial. (3) Determine whether systemic arachnidism has taken place. (4) If none of the above has occurred, state "probable (or possible) arthropod envenomation, vector unknown" in the medical record.³

Bites of Minimal Medical Seriousness

Most spider bites involving humans cause mini- is mal medical problems. The spider groups most g commonly implicated in producing tiny cutaneous lesions include orb weavers, jumping spiders, wolf spiders, and running spiders.^{1,2,4-6} Jumping spiders are the most common biter. Spiders rarely bite more than once and do not always the release venom. Bites result in erythema, local g edema, vesiculation, and pain. Secondary infecgtion, ecchymosis, ulceration, and lymphadenop-

Submitted, revised, 28 December 1994.

From the Family Practice Residency of Idaho, Boise, and the Rocky Mountain Center for Wilderness and Environmental Medicine, Boise. Address reprint requests to James R. Blackman, MD, Family Practice Residency of Idaho, 777 North Raymond, Boise, ID 83704.

Table 1. Different	Diagnosis	of Suspected	Necrotic
Spider Bites.			

Athropods	Disease States
Kissing bugs	Erythema chronicum migrans
Imbedded tick mouth parts	Erythema multiforme Lyme disease
Infected flea bites	Sporotrichosis
Vesicating bettles	Stevens-Johnson syndrome
Stinging Hymenoptera	Chronic herpes simplex
Mites	Poison ivy
Bedbugs	Warfarin
Flies	Poison oak
Water bugs	Erythema nodosa
	Gonococcal arthritis dermatitis
	Diabetic ulcer
	Bedsore
	Toxic epidermal necrolysis
	Infected herpes simplex
	Periarteritis nodosa
	Pyoderma gangrenosum
	Hypersensitivity to a foreign protein

athy can occur. Forty percent of bites occur on the hands. Treatment includes cool soaks, soothing lotions, analgesics, and tetanus prophylaxis.

Loxoscelism (Brown Recluse Envenomation)

The most important necrotizing arachnid found in North America is the brown recluse. Of 13 different species of *Loxosceles* in the United States, five are associated with necrotic bites.¹ The brown recluse (*Loxosceles reclusa*) is found primarily in the south central states, with other less toxic family members scattered throughout the rest of the country. It is absent from the Pacific Northwest. The spider has a body length of 8 to 15 mm with a leg length of 18 to 30 mm. Color varies from fawn to dark brown with darker legs. There is a violin-shaped figure on the anterodorsal cephalothorax. *Loxosceles* has three pair of eyes and two segmented fangs that deliver venom (Figure 1).

The brown recluse prefers hot, dry, abandoned environments, such as wood piles, vacant buildings, rock piles, tire piles, clothes piles, and boxes. During the day it prefers a quiet place, such as a closet, beneath furniture, or in any kind of receptacle. Its natural food includes beetles, flies, moths, and other spiders, obtained mostly at night. *Loxosceles* hibernates in the fall and winter and lives 1 to 3 years. It bites defensively when trapped against the skin.⁷

An association between necrotic spider bites and the brown recluse was made in 1957. Necrotic bites were thought to be similar to those of "gangrenous spots" caused by *Loxosceles laeta* of Chile.⁸ Once the relation between spider, venom, and documented bites was proved, the venom was purified. Sphingomyelinase-D was identified as the primary toxin affecting endothelial cells, red cells, and platelets. The pathological sequence involves aggregation of platelets, endothelial swelling, thrombosis, and necrosis of tissues.⁹ Serum amyloid P might be required for this reaction rather than complement.¹⁰ Severe envenomation can cause hemolysis of red cells or disseminated

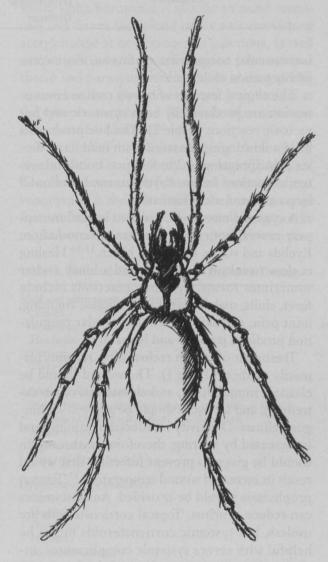


Figure 1. *Loxosceles reclusa*, the brown recluse spider $-\times 5.5$ (5 and $\frac{1}{2}$ times larger than actual size).

Characteristics	Brown Recluse	Black Widow
Bite	Brief stinging sensation	Minimally painful
Pain	Moderate 2–8 hours	Intense, 15 minutes-4 hours
Tissue reaction at hite site	Necrotic ulcer Black eschar	None
Muscle reaction	None	Muscle fasciculation and spasm
Systemic reaction	Fever and chills	Fever and chills
	Weakness and malaise	Sweating
	Nausea and vomiting	Salivation
	Joint pain	Urinary retention
	Skin rash	Priapism
	Jaundice	Nausea and vomiting
	Hematuria	Ptosis
	Disseminated intravascular coagulation	Headache
		Hypertension
		Dizziness

 Table 2. Comparative Features of Brown Recluse and Black Widow Spider

 Envenomations.

intravascular coagulation syndrome, more commonly seen in children.^{11,12}

The clinical features of brown recluse envenomation are produced by both cytotoxic and hemotoxic reactions (Table 2). The bite produces a brief mild stinging sensation with mild to moderate pain appearing in 2 to 8 hours. Local and systemic reactions follow. Erythema can be followed by pustule and ulcer formation.

A cyanotic macule or "volcano lesion" can appear several hours or days after envenomation. Eyelids and vulvae have been bitten.¹³⁻¹⁶ Healing is slow (weeks to months), and a black eschar sometimes forms. Systemic reactions include fever, chills, malaise, weakness, nausea, vomiting, joint pain, and skin rash. Intravascular coagulation produces jaundice and hematuria.

Treatment of brown recluse bites remains primarily medical (Table 3). The wound should be cleaned, immobilized, and elevated (if on an extremity), and ice packs should be applied.⁷ Sphingomyelinase-D activity is reduced by cooling and is increased by heating; therefore, erythromycin should be given to prevent infection that would result in increased wound temperature.¹⁷ Tetanus prophylaxis should be provided. Antihistamines can reduce pruritus. Topical corticosteroids are useless, but systemic corticosteroids might be helpful with severe systemic complications, including hemolysis. Immediate total wound excision should be avoided to reduce morbidity.^{18,19} Delayed excision of the eschar might be necessary to allow for skin grafting. Hyperbarie oxygen therapy has been use successfully in some centers.^{20,2}

Recently, treatment with dapsone has generated con siderable attention.^{7,19,22,23} It is a member of a sulfone group $\mathbf{\bar{m}}$ of antibiotics used to treat $lep^{\underline{\alpha}}$ rosy. Dapsone appears to ac€ by inhibiting the inflamma tory response through limit ing neutrophil migration inte the bite site. Dapsone is use in doses of 50-200 mg/d for 10 to 25 days. It is most effec <u>a</u> tive when given early in the course of wound develop. ment. Numerous side effective

have been reported (Table 4) but are infrequent to rare. The hypersensitivity syndrome is not, believed to be dose related and occurs withing 2 to 6 weeks following discontinuation of the drug.^{24,25} Serological confirmation of brown recluse envenomation and an antivenin against sphingomyelinase-D could become available in the future.²⁶ Improperly treated or identified brown recluse envenomation could lead to seried ous long-term sequelae, such as poor wound heal fing, repeated failure of skin grafts, chronic pyon derma gangrenosum-like reactions, chronic paint deep vein thrombosis, and chronic hand function impairment.¹⁸

impairment.¹⁸ *Tegenaria agrestis* (Common Aggressive House Spider) A common important biter and cause of a neg

A common important biter and cause of a negretoric arachnidism, particularly in the Pacifican Northwest, is *Tegenaria agrestis*.²⁷ This common aggressive house spider, or hobo spider, is a memory ber of the funnel-web spiders (Agelenidae). It is moderately large (10 to 15 mm in length), nondescript, brown, and has a distinct herringbone stripe on its abdomen (Figure 2). It is found in human dwellings from March through December It nests around foundations of houses and in brick and wood piles, crawl spaces beneath mobile homes basement corners, railroad tie piles, garages, sheds and barns. Wandering male spiders are common biters in August and September. Prey include

Table 3. Comparative Treatment Plans for Br	own
Recluse and Black Widow Envenomations.	

Brown Recluse	Black Widow
Ice pack to bite site	Ice pack to bite site
Tetanus prophylaxis	Tetanus prophylaxis
Erythromycin	Calcium gluconate
Dapsone	Diazepam or meperidine
Corticosteroids for systemic complications	Antivenin
Delayed excision of eschar	
Skin grafting	

sowbugs, earwigs, silverfish, cockroaches, carpet beetles, and other spiders.

This spider was first described by Walckenaer in Europe in 1802.²⁸ It arrived in the Pacific Northwest in 1936, and slowly made its way across Washington state and into surrounding states. The hobo spider is the most common large spider in these areas and is the most common cause of necrotizing arachnidism. *Loxosceles* does not exist there.

The bite of Tegenaria agrestis is considerably more serious than that of the other small spiders. The cutaneous bite might not be felt.²⁹ An area of induration surrounded by erythema forms, then progresses to vesiculation, ulceration, and eschar formation. Systemic manifestations can include lethargy, headache, visual disturbances, anorexia, nausea, muscle weakness, and hallucinations. Thrombocytopenia and hemolysis can occur. About one-half of individuals envenomated develop systemic symptoms. These symptoms and findings suggest a bite similar to that of the brown recluse. It is not known whether Tegenaria venom contains sphingomyelinase-D. Treatment is symptomatic, and cutaneous necrosis rarely is severe enough to require skin grafting.

Latrodectism (Black Widow Spider Envenomation)

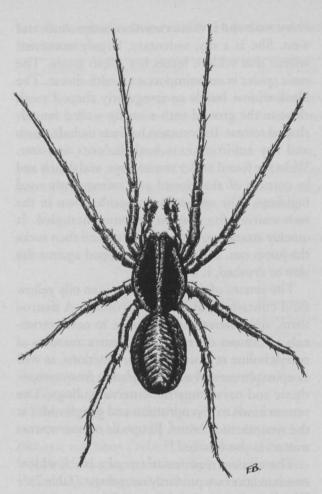
The black widow spider, *Latrodectus* species, provides an entirely different picture. The female spider, the primary envenomator, is coal black with hourglass-shaped markings of red or yellow on the ventral surface of the abdomen (Figure 3). She is subject to considerable variation in color, and several geographic species are found throughout the United States. This spider is found in every state and is more common in the south and west. She is a shy, sedentary, largely nocturnal animal that seldom leaves her silken home. The male spider is an unimportant health threat. The black widow builds an irregularly shaped mesh close to the ground with a strong-walled funnelshaped retreat. Its common habitats include warm and dry environments both indoors and out. Webs are found under stones, logs, and debris and in corners of abandoned and infrequently used buildings. The spider hangs upside down in the web waiting for prey to become entangled. It quickly attacks, paralyzes the prey, and then sucks the juices out. If the spider is trapped against the skin or crushed, it will bite.¹

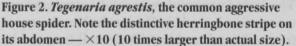
The venom of the black widow is an oily yellow fluid containing at least 15 proteins. A neurotoxin, alpha-latrotoxin, is specific to nerve terminals and causes the release of massive amounts of acetylcholine at neuromuscular junctions, as well as epinephrine and norepinephrine from sympathetic and parasympathetic nerve endings. The venom binds to glycoproteins and gangliosides at the synaptic membrane. Reuptake of neurotransmitters is also blocked.³⁰

The clinical manifestations of a black widow envenomation are primarily neurologic (Table 2).³¹ The least impressive feature of *Latrodectus* envenomation is the bite. Pain at the bite site varies from minimal to sharp. Two small fang marks might be recognized as tiny red spots. Venom pro-

Table 4. Potential	Complications	of Dapsone	Therapy.
--------------------	---------------	------------	----------

Mild and infrequent adverse reactions	
Nausea	
Vomiting	
Headache	
Dizzines	
Tachycardia	
Additional rare side effects	
Hemolysis and methemoglobinemia, especially in deficient individuals, infants, and the elderly	G6PD-
Minor rashes	
Erythema nodosum	
Toxic epidermal necrolysis	
Hypersensitivity syndrome	
Fever	
Headache	
Dermatitis	
Hepatitis	
Hemolytic anemia	
Leukopenia	
Mononucleois	





duces no tissue reactions. Within 15 minutes to 4 hours, muscle fasciculations and spasm begin around the bite site and then spread to regional muscles. Pain is intense and peaks in 2 to 3 hours. It can last 12 to 48 hours. Paresthesias and cutaneous hyperesthesia reinforce the diagnosis. Autonomic stimulation can produce sweating, increased salivation, fever, chills, urinary retention, priapism, nausea, vomiting, ptosis, headache, hypertension, and dizziness. Reflexes can become hyperactive. Elevated white cell count, proteinuria, and hematuria complicate the diagnosis of an acute abdomen. Acute severe hypersensitivity reactions can occur (less than 1 percent) with paralysis, hemolysis, renal failure, and coma. Delayed hypersensitivity can occur 2 to 3 days postenvenomation and cause intense pruritus with or without ecchymosis.

Treatment of black widow spider envenomation is primarily symptomatic, focusing on relieving muscle spasm (Table 3).³¹ The wound should be cleaned and ice intermittently applied to relieve spasm. Tetanus prophylaxis should be given. Neurologic symptoms respond to a slow intravenous infusion of 10 percent calcium gluconate solution. A 2- to 3-mL intravenous bolus is followed by increasing doses of 2-mL increments titrated to symptoms. Cardiac monitoring is essential. The pediatric dose is 0.1 mg/kg. Doses are repeated at 2- to 4-hour intervals. Methocarbamol can be given (1 g over 5 minutes with a second gram at 100 mg/h) if calcium treatment fails. Diazepam and narcotics can also relieve symptoms but can depress respiratory drive. Daantrolene sodium, a direct-acting muscle relaxant, has been used successfully.³² Severe hypertension is treated with standard intravenous drips of nitroprusside. Treatment with black widow anti-

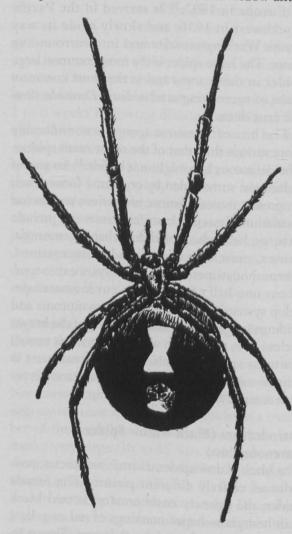


Figure 3. *Lactrodectus* species, the black widow spider. Note the hourglass-shaped marking on the ventral surface of the abdomen — $\times 10$ (10 times larger than actual size).

venin (Lyovac-Merck, Sharpe, & Dohme) could be indicated and is quite effective. Antivenin use is generally restricted to severe poisonings and in pregnant women and children.^{33,34} Obligatory skin testing is advised before a vial of antivenin (2.5 mL diluted with 10 to 50 mL of normal saline) is given. A second vial is seldom necessary. Following infusion of antivenin, relief is often dramatic and rapid (1 hour). The patient should be observed for development of acute anaphylaxis and delayed serum sickness.

Tarantulas

American tarantulas (15 to 18 cm) are not true tarantulas, but are wolf spiders. Approximately 30 to 40 species live in the United States, primarily from the Southwest United States to the Mississippi River, and then north into California, Oregon, Utah, and Southwest Idaho.³⁴ Tarantulas live in burrows and hunt only a few yards from their home. They attack only when vigorously provoked or roughly handled. The bite can vary from almost painless to a deep throbbing pain lasting up to 1 hour. The venom injected is primarily a hyaluronidase and a protein toxic to cockroaches and mice. Treatment includes immobilization, elevation, systemic analgesics, and tetanus prophylaxis. An unusual component of tarantula toxicity is produced from urticaria-producing hairs on the surface of the abdomen. The tarantula, when upset, will roughly scratch the lower surface of its abdomen with its legs and flick hairs into the invader's skin. The hairs cause pruritus and hives that can last several weeks. These cutaneous manifestations are particularly noted for imported color species. Treatment includes topical corticosteroids and antihistamines. If pruritus is severe, oral corticosteroids should be given for 1 to 2 weeks.

Prevention

Because spiders have little defense against insecticides, they can be reduced in numbers. Black widow spider webs can be sprayed directly. Exterminators spray or dust insecticides indoors in all large cracks and crevices, behind and under appliances, sinks, baseboards, cupboards, closets, and especially attics. Outdoors they spray under eves, around bases and window areas of houses, and in wood piles. Repeated treatment is usually necessary. It is helpful to clear away old furniture, tires, junk, newspapers, old clothes, and boxes and to plug openings and crevices into houses. Complete eradication is impossible and should not be expected.^{34,35}

References

- 1. Rees RS, Campbell DS. Spider bites. In: Auerbach PS, Geehr EC, editors. Management of wilderness and environmental emergencies. St. Louis: C.V. Mosby, 1989:542-9.
- 2. Russell FE. Arachnid envenomations. Emerg Med Services. 1991; 20(5):16-47.
- 3. Russell FE, Gertsch WJ. For those who treat spider or suspected spider bites. Toxicon 1983; 21(3):337-9.
- 4. Russell E. Bite by the spider *Phidippus formosus*: case history. Toxicon. 1970; 8:193-4.
- 5. Krinsky WL. Envenomation by the sac spider Chiracanthium mildei. Cutis 1987; 40(2):127-9.
- 6. Campbell DS, Rees RS, King LE. Wolf spider bites. Cutis 1987; 39(2):113-4.
- Erickson T, Hryhorczuk DO, Lipcomb J, Burda A, Greenberg B. Brown recluse spider bites in an urban wilderness. J Wilderness Med 1990; 1(4):258-64.
- 8. Anderson PC. Loxoscelism and the history of the Missouri brown spider: a recollection of Dr. Joseph Flynn. Mo Med 1990; 87(10):747-52.
- 9. Rees RS, O'Leary JP, King LE Jr. The pathogenesis of systemic loxoscelism following brown recluse spider bites. J Surg Res 1983; 35:1-10.
- Gates CA, Rees RS. Serum amyloid P component: its role in platelet activation stimulated by sphingomyelinase-D purified from the venom of the brown recluse spider (*Loxosceles reclusa*). Toxicon 1990; 28(11): 1303-15.
- Vorse H, Seccareccio P, Woodruff K, Humphrey GB. Disseminated intravascular coagulopathy following fatal brown spider bite (necrotic arachnidism). J Pediatr 1972; 80(6):1035-7.
- 12. Chu JY, Rush CT, O'Connor DM. Hemolytic anemia following brown spider (*Loxosceles reclusa*) bite. Clin Toxicol 1978; 12(5):531-4.
- Zeligowski AA, Peled IJ, Wexler MR. Eyelid necrosis after spider bite. Am J Ophthalmol 1986; 101(2):254-5.
- Edwards JJ, Anderson RL, Wood JR. Loxoscelism of the eyelids. Arch Ophthalmol 1980; 98(11): 1997-2000.
- Wesley, RE, Ballinger WH, Close LW, Lay AM. Dapsone in the treatment of presumed brown recluse spider bite of the eyelid. Ophthalmic Surg 1985; 16(2):116-20.
- Magrina JF, Masterson BJ. Loxosceles reclusa spider bite: a consideration in the differential diagnosis of chronic, nonmalignant ulcers of the vulva. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1981; 140(3):341-3.
- King LE Jr, Rees RS. Treatment of brown recluse spider bites. [letter]. J Am Acad Dermatol 1986; 14(4):691-2.1
- DeLozier JB, Reaves L, King LE Jr, Rees RS. Brown recluse spider bites of the upper extremity. South Med J 1988; 81(2):181-4.

ggs. Downloaded from http://www.jabim.org/ on a June 2025 by guest. Protected by copy

- 19. Rees RS, Altenbern P, Lynch JB, King LE Jr. Brown recluse spider bites. A comparison of early surgical excision versus dapsone and delayed surgical excision. Ann Surg 1985; 202(5):659-63.
- Svendsen FJ. Treatment of clinically diagnosed brown recluse spider bites with hyperbaric oxygen: a clinical observation. J Ark Med Soc 1986; 83(5): 199-204.
- Bozzuto TM. Loxosceles envenomation [letter]. Am J Emerg Med 1991; 9(2):203.
- 22. King LE Jr, Rees RS. Dapsone treatment of a brown recluse bite. JAMA 1983; 250(5):648.
- 23. Rees R, Campbell D, Rieger E, King LE. The diagnosis and treatment of brown recluse spider bites. Ann Emerg Med 1987; 16(9):945-9.
- 24. Iserson KV. Methemoglobinemia from dapsone therapy for a suspected brown spider bite. J Emerg Med 1985; 3:285-8.
- Wille RC, Morrow JD. Case report: dapsone hypersensitivity syndrome associated with treatment of the bite of a brown recluse spider. Am J Med Sci 1988; 296(4):270-1.
- Wilson DC, King LE. Intriguing webs in the urban wilderness. J Wilderness Med 1991; 2(1): 55-70.
- 27. Crawford R, Vest DK. The hobo spider and other European house spiders. Burke Museum Edu-

cational Bulletin No. 1, University of Washington, Seattle, July 1988.

- Vest DK. Necrotic arachnidism in the Northwest United States and its probable relationship to *Tegenaria agrestis* (Walckenaer) spiders. Toxicon 1987; 25(2):175-84.
- 29. Fisher RG, Kelly P, Krober MS, Weir MR, Jones R. Necrotic arachnidism. West J Med 1994; 160(6): 570-2.
- Timms PK, Gibbons RB. Latrodectism effects of the black widow spider bite. West J Med 1986; 9 144(3):315-7.
- Moss HS, Binder LS. A retrospective review of black widow spider envenomation. Ann Emerg Med 1987; 16(2):188-92.
- 32. Ryan PJ. Preliminary report: experience with the use of dantrolene sodium in the treatment of bites by the black widow spider *Latrodectus besperus*. J Toxicol Clin Toxicol 1983-84; 2194(5):487-9.
- Handel CC, Izquierdo LA, Curet LB. Black widow spider (*Latrodectus mactans*) bite during pregnancy. West J Med 1994; 160(3):261-2.
- Stewart CE. Bites and stings. In: Stewart CE. Environmental emergencies. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins, 1990:160-9.
- 35. Hall RD, Anderson PC. Brown recluse spider bites: can they be prevented? Mo Med 1981; 78(5):243-4.