Meningitis: An Inflammatory Affliction Of The Central Nervous System

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Abstract:

Meningitis is characterized by the inflammation of the meninges, the protective membranes surrounding the brain and spinal cord. This potentially life-threatening condition can arise from various infectious agents, including bacteria, viruses, fungi, and parasites, as well as non-infectious causes such as chemical irritation, drug reactions, and certain cancers. This paper provides an overview of the etiology, pathogenesis, clinical manifestations, diagnostic approaches, and current treatment strategies for meningitis, emphasizing the importance of prompt diagnosis and intervention to minimize morbidity and mortality. We will also discuss preventative measures, including vaccination, and highlight ongoing research efforts aimed at improving patient outcomes.

Keywords: Meningitis, inflammation, meninges, central nervous system, bacterial meningitis, viral meningitis, fungal meningitis, diagnosis, treatment, vaccination.

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I. Introduction:

Meningitis, derived from the Greek word "mēninx" meaning membrane, refers to the inflammation of the leptomeninges, which consist of the pia mater and the arachnoid mater. These membranes, along with the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), provide crucial protection and support to the central nervous system (CNS). Inflammation of these structures can disrupt normal neurological function, leading to a spectrum of clinical presentations ranging from mild to severe and potentially fatal outcomes [1,2].

The etiological agents of meningitis are diverse, with infectious causes being the most common. Bacterial meningitis is a neurological emergency requiring immediate antibiotic treatment due to its rapid progression and high risk of mortality and long-term sequelae. Viral meningitis is generally less severe and often self-limiting. Fungal and parasitic meningitis are less common but can be particularly challenging to treat, often occurring in immunocompromised individuals. Non-infectious meningitis can result from various conditions, including autoimmune diseases, sarcoidosis, chemical exposure, and neoplastic infiltration of the meninges.

Understanding the underlying causes, pathogenic mechanisms, and clinical features of meningitis is crucial for timely diagnosis and appropriate management. This paper aims to synthesize current knowledge on meningitis, encompassing its diverse etiologies, the complex interplay of host-pathogen interactions, clinical presentation across different age groups, diagnostic modalities, therapeutic interventions, and preventative strategies. Furthermore, we will briefly touch upon the ongoing research aimed at improving our understanding and management of this significant neurological disorder.

II. Etiology:

Meningitis can be broadly classified based on its etiology into infectious and non-infectious causes:

Infectious Meningitis:

- **Bacterial Meningitis:** This is the most serious form of meningitis and is typically caused by pyogenic bacteria [9,10]. The common bacterial pathogens vary with age:
- Neonates: Streptococcus agalactiae (Group B Streptococcus), Escherichia coli, Listeria monocytogenes.
- Infants and Children: *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Neisseria meningitidis*, *Haemophilus influenzae* type b (Hib) (incidence has significantly decreased due to vaccination).
- Adolescents and Young Adults: Neisseria meningitidis, Streptococcus pneumoniae.
- Older Adults: Streptococcus pneumoniae, Listeria monocytogenes, Gram-negative bacilli.

- Other less common bacterial causes include *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (causing tuberculous meningitis), and various streptococcal and staphylococcal species, particularly in the context of neurosurgical procedures or head trauma.
- Viral Meningitis (Aseptic Meningitis): Viral meningitis [3,4] is more common and generally less severe than bacterial meningitis. Common causative viruses include:
- Enteroviruses (e.g., coxsackieviruses, echoviruses).
- Herpesviruses (e.g., herpes simplex virus type 2, varicella-zoster virus).
- \circ Mumps virus.
- Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV).
- Influenza viruses.
- Fungal Meningitis: Fungal meningitis [5] is relatively rare and typically affects individuals with compromised immune systems. Common fungal pathogens include:
- Cryptococcus neoformans.
- Candida species.
- Aspergillus species.
- Coccidioides immitis [6].
- ${\rm \circ} {\it Histoplasma \ capsulatum}.$
- Parasitic Meningitis: Parasitic meningitis is uncommon in developed countries. Examples include:
- o Angiostrongylus cantonensis (eosinophilic meningitis).
- Naegleria fowleri (primary amoebic meningoencephalitis).
- Gnathostoma spinigerum [7,8].

Non-Infectious Meningitis:

- **Drug-induced meningitis:** Certain medications, such as nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), antibiotics (e.g., trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole), and intravenous immunoglobulins, can cause meningeal inflammation.
- Chemical meningitis: Exposure to certain chemicals or intrathecal administration of medications can lead to meningeal irritation.
- Autoimmune diseases: Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), Behçet's disease, and sarcoidosis can involve inflammation of the meninges.
- Malignancy: Metastatic cancer to the meninges (leptomeningeal carcinomatosis) or primary brain tumors can cause meningeal inflammation.
- Trauma: Head injury or neurosurgical procedures can sometimes lead to non-infectious meningitis.

III. Pathogenesis:

The pathogenesis of meningitis varies depending on the causative agent. However, several common steps are often involved:

- Colonization and Invasion: In bacterial meningitis, the pathogen often initially colonizes the nasopharynx or other mucosal surfaces. Subsequent invasion into the bloodstream (bacteremia) allows the bacteria to reach the CNS.
- Crossing the Blood-Brain Barrier (BBB): The BBB, a highly selective barrier protecting the brain, poses a significant challenge for pathogens. Bacteria can cross the BBB through various mechanisms, including:
- Transcellular penetration: Direct passage through endothelial cells.
- **Paracellular penetration:** Passage between endothelial cells, facilitated by disruption of tight junctions.
- o "Trojan horse" mechanism: Transport within infected host cells (e.g., monocytes).
- Inflammatory Response: Once in the subarachnoid space, the presence of pathogens triggers a vigorous inflammatory response. Bacterial components, such as lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and peptidoglycan, activate resident immune cells (e.g., microglia) and recruit peripheral leukocytes (e.g., neutrophils) into the CSF. This inflammatory cascade involves the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines (e.g., TNF-\alpha, IL-1\$\beta\$, IL-6), chemokines, and other mediators.
- **Neurological Injury:** The inflammatory response, while crucial for pathogen clearance, can also contribute to neurological injury through several mechanisms:
- **Increased intracranial pressure (ICP):** Inflammation and edema in the brain parenchyma and meninges, along with altered CSF flow, can elevate ICP, leading to cerebral herniation and reduced cerebral blood flow.
- **Cerebral edema:** Vasogenic edema (increased permeability of the BBB), cytotoxic edema (cellular swelling), and interstitial edema (hydrocephalus) can contribute to increased ICP and neuronal damage.

- Excitotoxicity: Excessive release of excitatory neurotransmitters like glutamate can lead to neuronal overstimulation and death.
- Vascular complications: Inflammation can affect cerebral blood vessels, leading to vasculitis, thrombosis, and stroke.
- Viral, Fungal, and Parasitic Pathogenesis: Viral meningitis typically involves direct viral invasion of the meninges, followed by a host immune response. Fungal and parasitic pathogens often reach the CNS via hematogenous spread, particularly in immunocompromised individuals. The mechanisms of tissue damage vary depending on the specific organism and the host immune response.

IV. Clinical Manifestations:

The clinical presentation of meningitis can vary depending on the age of the patient, the causative agent, and the duration of illness. Classic symptoms often include:

- Fever: Elevated body temperature is a common sign of infection.
- Headache: Often severe and throbbing.
- Neck stiffness (nuchal rigidity): Difficulty and pain upon flexing the neck forward.
- Photophobia: Increased sensitivity to light.
- Phonophobia: Increased sensitivity to sound.
- Altered mental status: Confusion, lethargy, irritability, or decreased level of consciousness.
- Nausea and vomiting: May be present due to increased ICP.

In infants, the presentation may be more subtle and can include:

- Fever
- Irritability
- Poor feeding
- Lethargy
- Vomiting
- Bulging fontanelle (soft spot on the head)
- Seizures
- Specific signs that may suggest meningeal irritation include:
- Kernig's sign: Inability to fully extend the knee when the hip is flexed at 90 degrees due to hamstring pain.
- Brudzinski's sign: Passive flexion of the neck leads to flexion of the hips and knees.

The presence and severity of these signs can vary, and their absence does not necessarily rule out meningitis, especially in very young or elderly individuals, or those with underlying medical conditions.

V. Diagnosis:

Prompt and accurate diagnosis is critical for effective management of meningitis. The diagnostic workup typically involves:

- Clinical Evaluation: A thorough history and physical examination, including assessment of neurological signs and symptoms.
- **Blood Tests:** Complete blood count (CBC) to assess for leukocytosis, blood cultures to identify potential bloodstream infections, and measurement of inflammatory markers (e.g., C-reactive protein, procalcitonin).
- Lumbar Puncture (LP): This is the cornerstone of meningitis diagnosis. CSF is obtained for analysis, including:
- **Opening pressure:** Elevated pressure suggests increased ICP.
- Cell count and differential: Increased white blood cell (WBC) count with a predominance of neutrophils suggests bacterial meningitis, while a lymphocytic predominance may be seen in viral or tuberculous meningitis.
- \circ **Protein level:** Elevated protein is common in bacterial and tuberculous meningitis.
- **Glucose level:** Decreased CSF glucose relative to serum glucose is characteristic of bacterial and tuberculous meningitis (due to bacterial metabolism of glucose).
- Gram stain and culture: To identify the causative bacteria.
- Polymerase chain reaction (PCR): To detect viral DNA or RNA, as well as bacterial DNA in some cases.
- Latex agglutination tests: For rapid detection of specific bacterial antigens.
- Acid-fast stain and culture: To detect *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*.
- Fungal stains and cultures: To identify fungal pathogens.
- Neuroimaging (CT or MRI of the Brain): Neuroimaging is often performed *before* LP in patients with signs of increased ICP (e.g., papilledema, altered mental status, focal neurological deficits), to rule out mass

lesions that could lead to herniation after LP. However, if bacterial meningitis is strongly suspected and there are no contraindications, antibiotics should not be delayed for imaging.

• Other Tests: Depending on the clinical context, additional tests may be performed, such as serological tests for specific viral or fungal pathogens.

VI. Treatment:

The treatment of meningitis[11] depends on the underlying etiology:

- **Bacterial Meningitis:** This requires immediate administration of empiric broad-spectrum antibiotics, typically within one hour of presentation. Once the causative organism is identified through CSF culture [15] and sensitivity testing, the antibiotic regimen is adjusted accordingly. Common empiric antibiotic regimens often include a third-generation cephalosporin (e.g., ceftriaxone, cefotaxime) plus vancomycin to cover common pathogens, including penicillin-resistant *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. Adjunctive therapy with corticosteroids (e.g., dexamethasone) has been shown to improve outcomes in some cases of bacterial meningitis, particularly in pneumococcal meningitis. Supportive care, including management of increased ICP, seizures, and fluid and electrolyte balance, is also crucial.
- Viral Meningitis: Treatment is primarily supportive, including rest, hydration, and pain relief. Antiviral medications [12,13], such as acyclovir, may be indicated for specific viral etiologies, such as herpes simplex virus or varicella-zoster virus.
- Fungal Meningitis: Treatment involves prolonged courses of antifungal medications, such as amphotericin B, fluconazole, or voriconazole, depending on the specific fungal pathogen and the patient's immune status.
- **Parasitic Meningitis:** Treatment varies depending on the specific parasite and may involve antiparasitic drugs and supportive care. Eosinophilic [14] meningitis caused by *Angiostrongylus cantonensis* is often self-limiting, with treatment focused on symptom management.
- Non-Infectious Meningitis: Management focuses on treating the underlying cause, such as discontinuing the offending drug, managing the autoimmune disease with immunosuppressants, or treating the underlying malignancy.

VII. Prevention:

Vaccination has significantly reduced the incidence of meningitis caused by certain bacterial pathogens:

- Haemophilus influenzae type b (Hib) vaccine: Routine childhood vaccination has dramatically decreased Hib meningitis.
- Pneumococcal conjugate vaccines (PCV): Protect against several serotypes of *Streptococcus pneumoniae*.
- Meningococcal conjugate vaccines (MCV): Protect against several serogroups of *Neisseria meningitidis* (e.g., serogroups A, C, W, Y). Vaccines against serogroup B are also available.

Chemoprophylaxis (antibiotics given to close contacts) is recommended in cases of meningococcal meningitis to prevent secondary spread of the infection.

VIII. Prognosis And Complications:

The prognosis of meningitis varies greatly depending on the etiology, the age and overall health of the patient, and the timeliness and effectiveness of treatment. Bacterial meningitis carries the highest risk of mortality and long-term sequelae, including:

- Hearing loss
- Neurological deficits (e.g., cognitive impairment, learning disabilities, seizures, motor deficits)
- Hydrocephalus
- Cerebral palsy
- Death

Viral meningitis generally has a good prognosis, with most patients making a full recovery. Fungal and parasitic meningitis can have a variable prognosis depending on the specific pathogen and the host's immune status.

IX. Ongoing Research:

Ongoing research efforts are focused on:

- Developing more rapid and accurate diagnostic tests, including point-of-care assays.
- Improving our understanding of the host-pathogen interactions and the mechanisms of neurological injury.
- Identifying novel therapeutic targets and developing adjunctive therapies to reduce inflammation and improve outcomes in bacterial meningitis.
- Developing and implementing new and improved vaccines against a broader range of meningeal pathogens.

• Understanding the long-term sequelae of meningitis and developing strategies for rehabilitation and support.

X. Conclusion:

Meningitis remains a significant global health concern due to its potential for severe morbidity and mortality. Understanding the diverse etiologies, pathogenic mechanisms, and clinical presentations is crucial for prompt diagnosis and appropriate management. While significant progress has been made in prevention through vaccination and treatment with antibiotics and other antimicrobial agents, ongoing research is essential to further improve diagnostic capabilities, therapeutic strategies, and long-term outcomes for individuals affected by this inflammatory affliction of the central nervous system. The interdisciplinary collaboration of clinicians, microbiologists, immunologists, and neuroscientists is vital in the continued fight against meningitis.

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