



Pharmacotherapeutic approaches to Cerebrospinal Fluid (CSF) Infections: A comprehensive review

Dr. Edwin Dias^{1,2}, Jessica Maryiola Fernandes^{3}*

¹Professor and HOD, Department of Paediatrics, Srinivas Institute of Medical Sciences and Research Centre, Mangalore, Karnataka State, India.

²Adjunct professor, Srinivas university, Director of research and publication, India

³*Final Year Pharm D, Srinivas College of Pharmacy, Valachil, Mangalore, Karnataka State, India.

mail to: dredwindias@gmail.com¹² jessicaferns248@gmail.com^{3*}

ABSTRACT :

Infections of the central nervous system (CNS), specifically those involving the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), present a significant challenge in clinical medicine. These conditions include; meningitis, ventriculitis, and meningoencephalitis, can be caused by a wide range of pathogens such as bacteria, viruses, fungi, and parasites—affecting individuals of all ages. The rapid onset and potential for life-threatening complications necessitate prompt and accurate diagnosis followed by aggressive, targeted therapy.

This review provides a comprehensive summary of the epidemiology, diagnostic methods, and treatment strategies for CSF infections. Examining the epidemiological patterns and key risk factors that predispose patients to these infections, such as a history of neurosurgery, immunocompromised states, or the presence of medical devices are essential.

Accurate diagnosis is the key for effective management. Identification of the pathogen is crucial to tackle CSF infections as its treatment is uniquely challenging due to the blood-brain barrier, which limits drug penetration into the CNS. This review focuses on pharmacotherapeutic strategies that use agents capable of achieving therapeutic concentrations in the CSF and summarises evidence-based dosing regimens and the optimal selection of antimicrobial agents for bacterial, viral, fungal, and parasitic infections. This review also encompasses vaccination trends in regards to CSF infections. This comprehensive guide aims to serve as a valuable resource for clinicians, aiding in the prompt diagnosis and effective management of these serious and complex conditions.

Keywords: CSF infections, pharmacological therapy, meningitis, antibiotics, diagnostic measure, Vaccines.

1. Introduction

Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) infections are a critical class of central nervous system (CNS) diseases that can lead to severe inflammation of the meninges (meningitis), the brain tissue (encephalitis), or both (meningoencephalitis). These infections are a major global health concern, associated with significant illness and death, particularly when diagnosis and treatment are delayed.

The causes of these infections are diverse, ranging from bacteria like *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Neisseria meningitidis*, to viruses such as herpes simplex virus (HSV) and enteroviruses. Fungal pathogens like *Cryptococcus neoformans* and parasites like *Naegleria fowleri* also contribute to the complex etiology.

Effective treatment is incredibly challenging due to several factors, which necessitates the importance of early diagnosis and prompt therapy initiation. The blood-brain barrier (BBB), a natural protective mechanism, limits the ability of many drugs to reach therapeutic concentrations in the CSF^[1]. The rise of pathogen resistance further complicates the selection of appropriate antimicrobial agents. Additionally, treatment must be tailored to specific patient variables, including age and immune status. Despite these difficulties, initiating the correct therapy promptly is essential to minimize long-term neurological damage. Without timely intervention, patients face a high risk of serious and permanent neurological consequences such as developmental delays, hearing loss, cognitive impairment, and epilepsy.

2. Epidemiology and Risk Factors

2.1 Bacterial Infections

Bacterial meningitis incidence varies by geography and age, with *S. pneumoniae* and *N. meningitidis* being most common in adults, while *Group B Streptococcus* and *E. coli* dominate in neonates^[3]. The infectious pathogen can gain access to the CSF either through the bloodstream or through other measures like:

- Immunosuppression (e.g., HIV, chemotherapy)
- Neurosurgical interventions
- Skull fractures with CSF leaks
- Sinusitis or otitis media

2.2 Viral Infections

Viral meningitis and encephalitis are more frequent but generally less severe. Enteroviruses are prevalent in children, while HSV-1 and HSV-2 account for most cases of viral encephalitis.

2.3 Fungal Infections

Fungal CSF infections are less common and usually occur in immunocompromised individuals, especially those with HIV/AIDS or post-transplant immunosuppression^{[5][6]}.

2.4 Parasitic Infections

Rare in developed countries, parasitic CSF infections are typically travel-related or linked to poor sanitation. *Naegleria fowleri* and *Taenia solium* (neurocysticercosis) are the most implicated organisms

3. Pathophysiology

CSF infections typically begin when pathogens from a primary site, often the nose or throat, enter the bloodstream and travel to the central nervous system. For bacterial meningitis, this involves bacteria first colonising the nasopharynx, then invading the bloodstream and evading the body's defences. Next, they penetrate the blood-brain barrier (BBB)—a protective shield wherein the bacteria multiply quickly due to limited immune factors.

This rapid growth triggers a severe inflammatory response, releasing harmful chemicals that further increase BBB permeability, leading to dangerous cerebral edema and increased intracranial pressure. The inflammation also damages blood vessels, potentially causing reduced blood flow and direct neuronal damage. While viral infections are often milder, they can still cause brain inflammation and damage. Fungal and parasitic infections, though less common, follow similar invasion paths and typically cause slower, but more intense, inflammation, especially in children or adults with weakened immune systems.

3. Diagnosis

Diagnosis involves a combination of clinical assessment and laboratory testing, including:

- **Lumbar puncture:** Elevated opening pressure, pleocytosis, hypoglycorrhachia, and elevated protein are characteristic findings.
- **CSF Gram stain and culture:** Essential for identifying bacterial pathogens.
- **Polymerase chain reaction (PCR):** Useful for viral pathogens and tuberculosis.
- **India ink staining and cryptococcal antigen test:** Used in suspected fungal infections.
- **Neuroimaging (CT/MRI):** To identify complications such as abscess or hydrocephalus.

4. Pharmacological Therapy

Managing CSF infections involves a delicate balance between timely, broad spectrum antibiotic administration and pathogen-specific treatment. Achieving therapeutic concentrations in CSF mandates careful selection of these Antimicrobial agents based on the causative organism, CSF penetration, and local resistance profiles which helps tailor the choice of drugs. The time sensitive nature of these infections, with a 1-hour window for initiating therapy, necessitates a two pronged approach; Empiric therapy and Targeted therapy.

Empiric Therapy is initiated immediately upon clinical suspicion of a CS infection, before definitive diagnostic results from CSF cultures or PCR are available. This approach is critical because delaying effective treatment for even a few hours can lead to a significant increase in mortality and long-term neurological damage.

The choice of empiric regimen is a highly calculated decision based on several factors, including the patient's age, immune status, and any predisposing conditions (e.g., recent neurosurgery or trauma), as well as the most likely pathogens in the community. The selection is also influenced by local resistance patterns, with clinicians consulting antibiograms to choose agents that are most likely to be effective in their region.

Targeted Therapy is a pathogen-specific approach. Once the causative agent is identified, empiric therapy is de-escalated or modified to targeted therapy, optimising efficacy and minimising unnecessary drug exposure and resistance. This is a crucial aspect of antimicrobial stewardship, as it optimises treatment efficacy while minimising the risks associated with broad-spectrum antibiotic use, such as the development of antimicrobial resistance and adverse drug effects. This strategic shift from broad to narrow-spectrum therapy is a fundamental principle of modern infectious disease management, ensuring that patients receive the most appropriate treatment for their infection without contribution to the global rise in antimicrobial resistance.

4.1 Bacterial CSF Infections

Bacterial CSF infections also known as bacterial meningitis, is caused by bacterial invasion into the meninges and the subarachnoid space^[1]. This infection, triggers an inflammatory response which displays characteristic symptoms such as fever, headache and stiff neck alongside other clinical manifestations such as altered mental status, seizures and neurological deficits. This medical emergency requires an immediate administration of IV antibiotics and the therapy is often initiated empirically on suspected infection^[2] to minimise complications and the risk of fatality. The therapy is also assisted with supportive measures to tackle the symptomatic nature of the infection. On further diagnosis and identification, appropriate targeted therapy based off of antibiotic susceptibility and pathogen-specific parameters is duly continued.

• Empirical Therapy

Age Group	Common Pathogens	Empirical Regimen
Neonates	GBS, <i>E. coli</i> , <i>Listeria</i>	Ampicillin (150–200 mg/kg/day IV q6h) + Cefotaxime (150–200 mg/kg/day IV q6–8h)
Adults (<50 years)	<i>S. pneumoniae</i> , <i>N. meningitidis</i>	Ceftriaxone (2 g IV q12h) + Vancomycin (15–20 mg/kg IV q8–12h)
Adults (≥50 years)	Add coverage for <i>Listeria</i>	Ceftriaxone + Vancomycin + Ampicillin (2 g IV q4h)

• Targeted Therapy

Pathogen	Drug(s) of Choice	Dosage
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	Ceftriaxone or Penicillin G (if sensitive)	Penicillin G: 4 million units IV q4h
<i>N. meningitidis</i>	Ceftriaxone or Penicillin G	Ceftriaxone: 2 g IV q12h
<i>Listeria monocytogenes</i>	Ampicillin + Gentamicin	Ampicillin: 2 g IV q4h; Gentamicin: 5–7 mg/kg/day IV
MRSA or penicillin-resistant <i>S. pneumoniae</i>	Vancomycin + 3rd-gen cephalosporin	Vancomycin: trough level 15–20 µg/mL

4.2 Viral CSF Infections

Several viral meningitis cases are self-limiting and require only supportive care such as adequate rest, fluids and pain management, however specific antiviral therapy is crucial for certain viral pathogens.

The symptoms of viral meningitis often resembles flu-like illness initially, which then progress to classic signs of meningitis, especially bacterial meningitis. Thus the therapy is often initiated as broad spectrum antibiotics and corticosteroids, until bacterial meningitis is ruled out by confirmatory diagnostic CSF analysis wherein the antibiotics are discontinued and antiviral therapy is initiated.

Viral etiologies, particularly Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV) encephalitis, are a significant concern given their severity and management. The recommended duration of therapy for confirmed HSV encephalitis is typically 14-21 days and adjustment is primarily recommended in cases of renal impairment,^[4] given it's nephrotoxicity. As for other Viruses such as Cytomegalovirus (CMV); Ganciclovir, often in combination with Foscarnet, is preferred whilst Enteroviruses have no particular antiviral therapy.

Virus	Antiviral Agent	Dosage
HSV-1/2	Acyclovir	10 mg/kg IV q8h for 14–21 days
VZV	Acyclovir	10–15 mg/kg IV q8h
CMV	Ganciclovir or Foscarnet	Ganciclovir: 5 mg/kg IV q12h
Enteroviruses	Supportive care	N/A

Fungal CSF Infections

Fungal meningitis are relatively rare but have a high morbidity and mortality rate, with capability of being severe, especially in immunocompromised individuals. Unlike bacterial meningitis which progress rapidly, the symptoms of fungal meningitis develop more gradually, spanning from weeks to over months, which often results to delayed diagnosis and treatment. The diagnosis heavily relies on lumbar puncture and CSF analysis to determine the infection.

The treatment of fungal CSF infections is complex and involves prolonged courses of high-dose antifungal agents [6]. The choice of anti fungal agents depends upon the specific pathogen and the patient's clinical status. The Induction phase often lasts 2 weeks, followed by high dose fluconazole consolidation for 8 weeks whilst the Maintenance phase lasts for about ≥ 1 year or until immune reconstitution, with continuation of low dose Fluconazole. Intrathecal/intraventricular antifungals may also be necessary for refractory cases.

The management also involves addressing the intracranial pressure which is a dangerous complication of anti fungal CSF infection^[12].

Pathogen	Antifungal Regimen	Dosage
<i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i>	Amphotericin B + Flucytosine → Fluconazole	Amphotericin B: 0.7–1 mg/kg/day IV + Flucytosine: 100 mg/kg/day PO in 4 divided doses
<i>Candida spp.</i>	Amphotericin B ± Flucytosine	Same as above
<i>Aspergillus spp.</i>	Voriconazole	6 mg/kg IV q12h × 2 doses, then 4 mg/kg q12h

4.4 Parasitic CSF Infections

Parasitic infections of the CSF are rare but can often be life-threatening cause of meningoencephalitis. The clinical manifestations vary, depending on the specific parasite, location of infection as well as the host's immune status. The clinical features are generally similar to the other CSF infections, although a key diagnostic feature of this infection is eosinophilia^[7]

Anti parasitics such as Anthelmintics are the choice of drugs for parasitic infections. The therapy is heavily depended on the diagnostic evidence and clinical presentations, necessitating aggressive treatment to minimise the progression of the disease and high fatality rates.

Disease	Treatment	Dosage
Neurocysticercosis (<i>Taenia solium</i>)	Albendazole ± corticosteroids	Albendazole: 15 mg/kg/day PO in divided doses for 8–28 days
Primary Amoebic Meningoencephalitis (<i>Naegleria fowleri</i>)	Amphotericin B ± Miltefosine	Amphotericin B: IV + intrathecal routes; Miltefosine: 50 mg PO TID

Anti epileptic drugs are also administered as supportive therapy for seizures and corticosteroids for brain Edema/ inflammation. In case of appearance of cysts, surgical interventions are also made.

5. Adjunctive Therapy and Supportive Care

Adjunctive and supportive therapies are crucial for optimizing positive clinical outcomes in patients diagnosed with CSF infections. The application of these additional therapeutic measures are patient specific, considering their severity and recovery regardless of the pathogen identified for the infectious disease^[16].

- Dexamethasone (0.15 mg/kg IV q6h):** Reduces inflammation in bacterial meningitis caused by *S. pneumoniae*; given before or with the first antibiotic dose^[10]. It also aids in preventing neurological complications, particularly hearing loss. The duration is typically 2-4 days.
- Seizure management:** Phenytoin or levetiracetam are most common choice of drugs. If seizures persist, other AEDs like Valproic Acid, Carbamazepine, or Oxcarbazepine may be considered. The decision for long-term AEDs depends on the risk of recurrent seizures after the acute infection resolves.
- Intracranial pressure (ICP) monitoring:** Elevated ICP is a serious complication that can lead to cerebral herniation and death. Especially in fungal and parasitic infections with hydrocephalus. ICP can be managed by several measures :
 - Positioning: Head elevation to 30 degrees, neutral neck position.
 - Hyperosmolar Therapy.
 - Mannitol: An osmotic diuretic that draws water out of the brain.
 - Hypertonic Saline (e.g., 3% NaCl): Also an osmotic agent that can effectively reduce ICP and improve cerebral perfusion.
 - Sedation and Analgesia: To prevent agitation, coughing, and straining, which can increase ICP.
 - Ventricular Drainage: In cases of hydrocephalus or refractory ICP, external ventricular drains may be placed.
 - Hyperventilation: Brief, controlled hyperventilation can transiently reduce ICP by causing cerebral vasoconstriction, but prolonged use can lead to cerebral ischemia.

4. Nutritional and fluid support: Essential in pediatric and immunocompromised patients.

5. Vaccines for CSF infections

Vaccines have been of an extreme importance to target infectious diseases, including CNS infections. Its effect, stems from years of research and successful immunisation campaigns which aimed to reduce the global burden of morbidity and mortality from CSF infections. Vaccines are often tailored to target pathogens and strains, providing a sustainable strategy for disease control.

- **Bacterial Meningitis Vaccines:**

Vaccination against the major causes of bacterial meningitis, is one of the many measures to fight it. The vaccines are classified according to the specific pathogen they're effective against.

1. **Pneumococcal vaccines:** *S. pneumoniae* is the common cause for pneumococcal infections and the vaccines often preferred are given as following;
 - **Pneumococcal Conjugate Vaccines (PCVs):** These vaccines, like PCV13 and PCV20, trigger an immunological response that is dependent on T cells by conjugating a polysaccharide from the bacterial capsule to a carrier protein. They have considerably decreased the incidence of invasive pneumococcal illness, including meningitis, and are very effective in newborns and young children^[17]
 - **PPSVs, or pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccines:** These have polysaccharides from 23 distinct pneumococcal serotypes. PPSV23 is one such vaccine. Adults at higher risk, such as those with asplenia, cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) leaks, or other immunocompromising disorders, are advised to take it^[18].
2. **Meningococcal Vaccines:** Both sporadic and epidemic meningitis are frequently caused by *N. meningitidis*. To protect against the most common serogroups (A, B, C, W, and Y), vaccines are available.
 - **Meningococcal Conjugate Vaccines (MenACWY):** Often advised for teenagers and high-risk persons, these vaccines are effective against serogroups A, C, W, and Y^[19].
 - **Meningococcal vaccines against serogroup B (MenB):** The antigenic variety of serogroup B strains has made the development of MenB vaccines (such as Bexsero® and Trumenba®) more difficult. Adolescents and other people who are more vulnerable, like those who have particular illnesses or are in an outbreak, are now advised to take them^[20].
3. **Haemophilus influenzae Type B (Hib) Vaccine:** One of the most effective public health initiatives has been the conjugate vaccine known as Hib. In many nations, the incidence of Hib meningitis has dropped by almost 99% since it was widely incorporated into childhood vaccination schedules.
 - **Availability:** The Hib vaccine is administered as a component of the Pentavalent vaccination at 6 weeks, 10 weeks, and 14 weeks of age and is included in the national immunization schedule.
 - **Impact:** The Hib vaccine is now a mainstay of childhood vaccination in India due to its extensive use, which has resulted in a notable drop in the frequency of Hib-related illnesses, such as meningitis.
4. **Viral Encephalitis Vaccines:** Even though encephalitis can be caused by a wide variety of viruses, there are vaccines for a handful that are particularly dangerous to public health, especially in certain areas.
 - **Japanese encephalitis vaccines:** A flavivirus infection spread by mosquitoes, JE is widespread in regions of Asia and the Western Pacific. One important preventive strategy for locals and visitors to endemic areas is vaccination. Ixiaro® and other commonly used inactivated vaccines have been shown to be successful in preventing the disease^[22].
 - **Tick-Borne Encephalitis (TBE) Vaccines:** Parts of Europe and Asia are infected with TBE, a virus spread by ticks. For people who live in or are visiting endemic areas where they will be exposed to ticks often, an inactivated vaccination (such as TICOVAC®) is advised^[23].

6. Pharmacokinetic and Pharmacodynamic Considerations in Children

Drug dosing in children is complex due to differences in absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion compared to adults.

- **CSF Penetration:** For CSF infections, drugs must effectively cross the blood-brain barrier. Beta-lactam antibiotics generally penetrate inflamed meninges well. Vancomycin penetration is variable but improved with inflammation. Aminoglycosides have poor CSF penetration after systemic administration, necessitating intrathecal administration in some refractory Gram-negative CNS infections (though rarely practiced now).
- **Volume of Distribution:** Children, especially infants, have a higher percentage of total body water, affecting the volume of distribution for hydrophilic drugs.
- **Metabolism and Excretion:** Hepatic and renal maturation affects drug metabolism and excretion, particularly in neonates and young infants. Doses often need to be adjusted based on age and organ function.
- **Drug Monitoring:** Therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) is often essential for drugs with narrow therapeutic indices, such as vancomycin, aminoglycosides, voriconazole, and some AEDs, to ensure therapeutic levels and minimize toxicity.

7. Conclusion

In conclusion, CSF infections, whether caused by bacteria, viruses, fungi, or parasites, represent a formidable clinical challenge with a significant risk of morbidity and mortality. The unique pathophysiology of the central nervous system, particularly the protective yet restrictive blood-brain barrier, complicates both diagnosis and treatment. The most critical factor in achieving favorable outcomes is a high index of clinical suspicion followed by the rapid initiation of empiric antimicrobial therapy. This broad-spectrum approach bridges the crucial diagnostic gap while laboratory tests, such as CSF culture and PCR, are underway. Once a causative pathogen is identified, treatment must be swiftly de-escalated to a targeted, pathogen-specific regimen. Successful therapy hinges on the careful selection of agents with proven efficacy against the identified pathogen and, importantly, a demonstrated ability to penetrate the blood-brain barrier to achieve therapeutic concentrations in the CSF. The rise of antimicrobial resistance underscores the importance of this targeted approach and the need for continuous surveillance of local resistance patterns. While newer molecular diagnostics have revolutionized the speed and accuracy of pathogen identification, and the development of novel antiviral and antifungal agents, alongside sustainable and effective Vaccines offers hope, these life-threatening conditions continue to demand a multidisciplinary team approach. The collaborative expertise of infectious disease specialists, neurologists, and clinical pharmacists is fundamental to optimizing patient care, managing complications, and ultimately improving outcomes for those afflicted with CSF infections.

REFERENCES

1. Tunkel AR, Hartman BJ, Kaplan SL, Kaufman BA, Roos KL, Scheld WM, et al. Practice guidelines for the management of bacterial meningitis. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2004;39(9):1267–84.
2. van de Beek D, de Gans J, Tunkel AR, Wijdicks EF. Community-acquired bacterial meningitis in adults. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;354(1):44–53.
3. Brouwer MC, Tunkel AR, van de Beek D. Bacterial meningitis. *Lancet*. 2010;380(9854):2139–49.
4. Whitley RJ, Kimberlin DW, Roizman B. Herpes simplex viruses. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1998;26(3):541–55.
5. Nathan CL, Emmert BE, Nelson E, Berger JR. CSF Fungal infections: a review. *Journal of the neurological sciences*. 2021;422.
6. Kauffman CA. Fungal infections in older adults. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2001;33(4):550–5.
7. White AC Jr. Neurocysticercosis: updates on epidemiology, pathogenesis, diagnosis, and management. *Annu Rev Med*. 2000;51:187–206.
8. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Primary Amebic Meningoencephalitis (PAM) – *Naegleria fowleri* [Internet]. 2022 [cited 2025 Jul 22]. Available from: <https://www.cdc.gov/parasites/naegleria/>
9. Kimberlin DW. Herpes simplex virus infections of the central nervous system. *Semin Pediatr Infect Dis*. 2005;16(1):17–23.
10. Thwaites GE, Nguyen DB, Nguyen HD, Hoang TQ, Do TT, Nguyen TC, et al. Dexamethasone for the treatment of tuberculous meningitis in adolescents and adults. *N Engl J Med*. 2004;351(17):1741–51.
11. Nau R, Sorgel F, Eifert H. Penetration of drugs through the blood–cerebrospinal fluid/blood–brain barrier for treatment of central nervous system infections. *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 2010;23(4):858–83.
12. Brouwer MC, van de Beek D. Fungal meningitis. *N Engl J Med*. 2019;381(2):162–171.
13. Perfect JR, Dismukes WE, Dromer F, Goldman DL, Graybill JR, Hamill RJ, et al. Clinical practice guidelines for the management of cryptococcal disease. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2010;50(3):291–322.
14. Panel on Opportunistic Infections in Adults and Adolescents with HIV. Guidelines for the prevention and treatment of opportunistic infections in HIV-infected adults and adolescents. *MMWR Recomm Rep*. 2009;58(RR-4):1–207.
15. Hasbun R, Abrahams J, Jekel J, Quagliarello VJ. Computed tomography of the head before lumbar puncture in adults with suspected meningitis. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;345(24):1727–33.
16. Török ME. Diagnosis and treatment of bacterial meningitis. *Clin Med (Lond)*. 2013;13(4):348–52.
17. O'Brien, K. L., et al. Efficacy of a 7-valent pneumococcal conjugate vaccine in children. *N Engl J med*. 2003; 348(11); 1017-1025.
18. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Pneumococcal Vaccination [Internet]. 2021 [cited 2025 Aug 24]
19. World Health Organization (WHO). Meningococcal meningitis [Internet]. 2023 [cited 2025 Aug 24]
20. Marshall H, et al. A review of meningococcal B vaccines. *Hum Vaccin Immunother*. 2014;10(4):932–42.
21. Peltola H. Worldwide *Haemophilus influenzae* type b disease: a review of the past 20 years. *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 2000;13(2):302–17.
22. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Japanese Encephalitis Vaccine Information [Internet]. 2024 [cited 2025 Aug 24].
23. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Tick-borne Encephalitis Vaccine Information [Internet]. 2024 [cited 2025 Aug 24].
24. McGill F, Heyderman RS, Michael BD, Defres S, Beeching NJ, Borrow R, et al. The UK joint specialist societies guideline on the diagnosis and management of acute meningitis and meningococcal sepsis in immunocompetent adults. *J Infect*. 2016;72(4):405–38.
25. Marais S, Thwaites G, Schoeman JF, Török ME, Misra UK, Prasad K, et al. Tuberculous meningitis: a uniform case definition for use in clinical research. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2010;10(11):803–12.
26. Danel C, Guillemin L, Lortholary O. Amphotericin B: spectrum and therapeutic use. *Rev Med Interne*. 2001;22(8):768–76.
27. Solomon T, Michael BD, Smith PE, Sanderson F, Davies NW, Hart IJ, et al. Management of suspected viral encephalitis in adults—Association of British Neurologists and British Infection Association National Guidelines. *J Infect*. 2012;64(4):347–73.
28. Graybill JR, Sobel J, Saag M, Van Der Horst C, Powderly W, Cloud GA, et al. Diagnosis and management of increased intracranial pressure in patients with AIDS and cryptococcal meningitis. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2000;30(1):47–54.
29. Kaplan SL. Treatment of bacterial meningitis. *Curr Treat Options Neurol*. 2002;4(3):229–38.