Infectious Meningitis and Encephalitis

Amanda L. Piquet, MD1 Jennifer L. Lyons, MD2,3

1 Division of Neuroimmunology, Department of Neurology, University of Utah Hospital, Salt Lake City, Utah
2 Division of Neurological Infections and Inflammatory Diseases, Department of Neurology, Brigham and Women’s Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts
3 Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts


Abstract

The clinician who is evaluating a patient with a suspected central nervous system infection often faces a large differential diagnosis. There are several signs, symptoms, geographical clues, and diagnostic testing, such as cerebrospinal fluid abnormalities and magnetic resonance imaging abnormalities, which can be helpful in identifying the etiological agent. By taking a systematic approach, one can often identify life-threatening, common, and/or treatable etiologies. Here the authors describe some of the pearls and pitfalls in diagnosing and treating acute infectious meningitis and encephalitis.

Keywords

► encephalitis
► meningitis
► herpes simplex virus
► arbovirus

Encephalitis

Clinical Presentation

It is important to identify the clinical differences between encephalitis and encephalopathy. Encephalitis is a pathologic diagnosis, but the International Encephalitis Consortium1 has defined clinical criteria to assist with bedside diagnosis. These are inclusion of the major criteria of altered mental status (defined as altered level of consciousness, lethargy, or personality change) and at least 2 of the following minor criteria: fever (> 38°C within 72 hours of presentation), seizure not attributable to preexisting seizure disorder, new focal neurological deficit, cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) pleocytosis, and imaging and/or electroencephalography consistent with encephalitis.1 Encephalopathy, on the other hand, is the clinical term for a confusional state without localizable neurologic deficit. Encephalopathy does not imply an etiology, and although it can be due to an organic brain disease, often it is secondary to a systemic illness.

Not all encephalitides are infectious; however, viruses are the most commonly identified cause of acute encephalitis. Overall, there are more than 100 pathogens capable of causing encephalitis. Further, even in primary infectious encephalitis, there may be a robust inflammatory response seen in the central nervous system (CNS), thus justifying the concomitant use of corticosteroids in the setting of properly treating the infection. This is discussed further in the Treatment section below.

Herpes simplex virus (HSV) is the most commonly identified etiology of viral encephalitis in developed countries. Ninety percent of herpes simplex virus encephalitis (HSVE) is caused by HSV-1. It has a bimodal age distribution of < 20 years old and > 50 years old.2 Immunosuppression is not a risk factor for HSVE, and it does not have a seasonal predilection. Clinically, HSVE presents with symptoms of fever (90%), headache (81%), personality change (71%), and/or seizures (67%).3,4 If patients with recent HSVE present with relapsing symptoms a few weeks (typically 4–6 weeks) after a complete 14- to 21-day course of treatment with acyclovir, one should consider an immunomediated disorder with N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor (NMDAR) antibodies if there are no overt signs of true viral relapse. Studies suggest that HSVE can trigger anti-NMDAR encephalitis.5,6

Arbovirus encephalitides are rare in the United States and are very much region- and season-dependent (see → Table 1). The majority of arbovirus infections are asymptomatic, making serum IgG positivity at times misleading in the incorrect context. When encephalitis does occur it is typically preceded by an influenza-like prodrome followed by a headache, altered level of consciousness, seizures, and focal neurologic
### Table 1: Epidemiology and clinical presentation of different arboviruses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arbovirus</th>
<th>Epidemiology</th>
<th>Clinical features and presentation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mosquito vector</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banna virus</td>
<td>Asia; rare</td>
<td>Flu-like symptoms, encephalitis; often misdiagnosed as JEV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dengue virus</td>
<td>South America, Central America, Mexico, Sub-Saharan Africa, South-East Asia, and Western Pacific</td>
<td>Encephalitis or encephalopathy; fever, arthralgias, headache, petechiae and other hemorrhagic manifestations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern equine encephalitis virus</td>
<td>Eastern U.S.; mainly along the Gulf coast, eastern seaboard, and Great Lakes</td>
<td>Most infection is subclinical, but can cause fulminating encephalitis with focal signs (cranial nerve palsies, seizures); mortality 30% with neurologic sequelae in most survivors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chikungunya virus</td>
<td>North America, Central, South America, Africa, South-East Asia, and Western Pacific</td>
<td>Rarely causes meningitis and/or encephalitis; high fevers, arthralgias</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamestown Canyon virus</td>
<td>Canada, Alaska, and northern U.S. states; sporadic cases</td>
<td>Encephalitis, meningitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese encephalitis virus</td>
<td>Most common causes of worldwide epidemic encephalitis; Asia</td>
<td>Seizures, extrapyramidal features, rhombencephalitis or poliomyelitis-like syndrome; mortality 20–30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La Crosse</td>
<td>Midwestern and eastern U.S.; highest incidence along Appalachian range</td>
<td>Seizure, hyponatremia, focal weakness/paralysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murray Valley encephalitis virus</td>
<td>Australia and New Guinea</td>
<td>Seizures, somnolence, similar to JEV; mortality 30%; mostly affects children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rocio virus</td>
<td>Brazil; typically part of an epidemic outbreak</td>
<td>Severe encephalitis; high mortality rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snowshoe hare virus</td>
<td>Canada, northern U.S., and eastern Asia</td>
<td>Encephalitis, meningitis; mild</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Louis encephalitis</td>
<td>Americas with a geographical range of Canada to Argentina; however, most cases in eastern and central U.S.; 2nd most common epidemic cause in U.S. after WNV</td>
<td>Tremors, seizures, focal signs, may cause extrapyramidal or cerebellar syndrome, hyponatremia, bladder dysfunction; mortality 20% in elderly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tahyna</td>
<td>Europe and Asia</td>
<td>Encephalitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuelan equine encephalitis virus</td>
<td>Florida and southwestern U.S., Central and South America</td>
<td>Flu-like syndrome with myalgias, mild encephalitis; children more than adults</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western equine encephalitis virus</td>
<td>West of Mississippi in the U.S. and Central and South America; rare</td>
<td>Encephalitis; mortality &lt; 5%; young children and older adults</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Nile virus</td>
<td>North and central America, Africa, Asia, Middle East, and southern Europe</td>
<td>Meningoencephalitis, tremors, myoclonus, may have extrapyramidal syndrome and/or poliomyelitis-like syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tick-borne vector</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado tick fever virus</td>
<td>Rocky Mountain region of U.S. (reported in Arizona, Colorado, Montana, Oregon, Utah, and Wyoming); rare</td>
<td>Fever, headaches, retro-orbital pain, myalgias, abdominal pain, malaise, meningitis, encephalitis; most severe infections in children, rare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eyach virus</td>
<td>Eastern Europe, France and Germany; rare</td>
<td>Meningitis, encephalitis, polyradiculoneuritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kemerovo virus</td>
<td>Eastern Europe and Russia</td>
<td>Meningitis, encephalitis, polyradiculitis; rare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyasanur forest disease virus</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>Early hemorrhagic fever with late encephalitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louping-ill virus</td>
<td>England, Scotland, and Ireland</td>
<td>Encephalitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negishi virus</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Encephalitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powassan virus</td>
<td>Canada and northeast region of the U.S. and Great Lake states</td>
<td>Encephalitis, mortality 5–10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tick-borne encephalitis</td>
<td>Europe, Eastern Russia, and Asia</td>
<td>Nonspecific prodrome, occasionally poliomyelitis-like syndrome; low mortality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sandfly vector</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toscana virus</td>
<td>Mediterranean region (especially Italy)</td>
<td>Meningitis, encephalitis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Abbreviations:** JEV, Japanese encephalitis virus; U.S., United States; WNV, West Nile virus.  
**Source:** Data from Cho TA, Mckendall RR, 2014\(^1\); Tunkel et al, 2008\(^2\), and CDC.gov\(^3\).
deficits. West Nile virus (WNV) is the most common of the flaviviruses in the United States and has been reported from all 48 contiguous states, accounting for approximately 98% of arthropod-borne encephalitis. West Nile virus, along with other flaviviruses throughout the world such as the St. Louis encephalitis virus, Japanese encephalitis virus, Powassan, and tick-borne encephalitis virus, can be associated with parkinsonism, tremor, and myoclonus. Patients with WNV can also present with a myelitis-like syndrome with acute flaccid paralysis. The flaviviruses in the United States, with the exception of Powassan (which is tick-borne), are transmitted by mosquitoes.

**Diagnostic Work-Up**

Herpes simplex virus polymerase chain reaction (PCR) from the CSF is 98% sensitive and 94% specific for HSVE. However, it can be negative early in the disease. If the PCR is negative and suspicion is high, repeat the test and/or complete a course of treatment. The optimal time for PCR positivity in untreated HSV disease is 2 to 10 days after symptom onset. It is unknown how soon after starting acyclovir the sensitivity of the PCR declines, but some studies have suggested the sensitivity remains high for 5 to 7 days. However, caution should be used when interpreting these results because vidarabine was used rather than acyclovir in most of these cases.

Several arboviruses can cause encephalitis and vary widely in epidemiology; however, most have a seasonal prevalence limited to the summertime. Diagnostic testing should be based on geographic location and travel history. For most arboviruses, serologic testing of serum and CSF is preferred to PCR. This is because measurable viral replication typically occurs prior to the symptom onset. For example, in patients with WNV, CSF PCR is approximately 57% sensitive for neuroinvasive disease. That said, in the very acute infection window, the PCR may still be positive and the IgM may be negative. The percentage of seropositive patients increases by approximately 10%/d during the first week of illness. However, caution should be used when interpreting these results because vidarabine was used rather than acyclovir in most of these cases.

Diagnostic testing for cytomegalovirus (CMV) and Epstein–Barr virus (EBV) on the CSF of an adult is usually unnecessary unless the patient is severely immunocompromised. Testing for such can sometimes cloud the picture, as positive results may not indicate active disease. Furthermore, the neurologic complications of acute systemic CMV and/or EBV infection are often entirely immunomediately.

Always remember serum testing early in the diagnostic workup. All patients should have blood cultures sent, and human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) testing should be performed as well because this will substantially change the differential diagnosis.

Newer diagnostic techniques include approaches with next-generation sequencing on spinal fluid. Unbiased next-generation sequencing is not yet commercially available; this approach still needs validation. However, there have been case reports of successful pathogen detection using this technique in undiagnosed infectious encephalitis. Examples include astrovirus in an immunocompromised boy and neuroleptospirosis in a young boy with severe combined immunodeficiency.

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is often a very useful tool in encephalitis and certain findings can help identify potential etiologies (see Fig. 1):

- For HSVE, the MRI most classically has unilateral or asymmetrical T2/ fluid-attenuated inversion-recovery (FLAIR) hyperintensities in the mesial temporal lobes. However, HSV is not limited to this MRI finding and has many atypical presentations. Therefore, it is advisable not to rule out HSV based solely on imaging.
- Magnetic resonance imaging in WNV can be highly variable with findings ranging from normal to T2 hyperintense lesions in the deep gray matter and brainstem, lesions in the lobar structures, or even leptomeningeal disease. Additionally, spinal MRI may be useful in the setting of acute flaccid limb weakness given WNV has tropism for anterior horn cells resulting in a poliomyelitis-like syndrome.

![Fig. 1](https://example.com/image.png) Magnetic resonance images of various infectious encephalitides. (A) Patient with herpes simplex virus encephalitis. Asymmetric T2/ fluid-attenuated inversion-recovery (FLAIR) hyperintensities and edema involving the bilateral mesial temporal lobes are seen. (B) Patient with eastern equine encephalitis virus. Abnormal T2/FLAIR hyperintensities of the bilateral basal ganglia and thalami, left greater than right are seen. Additionally, there is T2 prolongation in the midbrain and mesial temporal lobes (not shown here). (C) Patient with West Nile virus encephalitis. There is a small area of T2/FLAIR hyperintensity in the right basal ganglia (white arrow). (D) Patient with Powassan encephalitis. Seen are T2/FLAIR hyperintensities involving the bilateral insula, opercula, perisylvian temporal lobes, medial thalami, caudate nuclei, and putamina.)
• Brainstem involvement, or rhombencephalitis, may be seen on MRI scans with HSV, WNV, enterovirus, and 
  Listeria monocytogenes, and can also be autoimmune. 
  
• Ischemic and hemorrhagic changes can be seen in varicel-
la-zoster virus (VZV), HSV, infectious endocarditis, syphi-
lis, tuberculosis, and fungal meningitis. 
• Petechial or microhemorrhages can be seen with many 
infections; they can help to determine the risk of anti-
coagulation and/or antplatelets when such therapies are 
being considered. Always obtain gradient echo or suscep-
tibility-weighted imaging when obtaining MRIs.

Treatment
Some encephalitides are entirely immunomediated and not 
necessarily of infectious etiology. However, the most severe 
infectious encephalitides often have a significant component 
of immunomediated destruction; therefore, corticosteroids 
can help mitigate damage and/or mass effect. It is important 
to recognize that corticosteroids can worsen certain infec-
tious conditions (fungal, tuberculous, or parasitic) if they are 
not being treated concomitantly. Always consider geographi-
cal location/travel history before initiating a steroid trial. For 
example, in patients who migrate from endemic to 
tuberculosis and Strongyloides, reactivation of occult infec-
tion is possible with corticosteroids, so their use should be 
avoided.

For HSVE, it is recommended to treat with acyclovir for 14 
to 21 days to reduce disease recurrence; early recommenda-
tions for only 10 days of treatment have long fallen out of 
favor due to reports of relapse. Renal function must be 
monitored closely while on acyclovir, and prophylactic 
hydration is recommended. Steroids have also been sug-
gested for treatment in HSVE given the strong inflammatory 
cascade and immune response seen with the infection. Case 
reports of concomitant or delayed administration of cortico-
steroids compared with acyclovir alone have showed favor-
able outcomes, and a randomized trial evaluating their 
timing and utility is underway (German Trial of Acyclovir 
and Corticosteroids in Herpes-Simplex-Virus-Encephalitis 
[GACHE]).

Meningitis
Clinical Presentation
Clinical signs of meningitis include fever, headache, nuchal 
rigidity, and vomiting with or without photophobia, but not 
all patients present with all of the cardinal signs and symp-
toms. It is important to recognize that approximately 95% of 
patients with bacterial meningitis have altered mental sta-
tus. Seizures may be a clue to differentiating meningitis 
versus encephalitis, as they are usually a late manifestation in 
meningitis, but not infrequently a presenting symptom of 
encephalitis, especially HSVE.

Prior to a lumbar puncture, patients should undergo 
computed tomography of the head if there are focal neuro-
logic deficits, underlying immune compromise, a decreased 
level of consciousness, or papilledema. Symptoms of epidural 
abscess can rarely look like meningitis, and so if there are any 
red flags (such as back pain or cauda equina syndrome), then 
one needs to be cautious before performing a lumbar puncture, 
and the patient may require further imaging for investigation.

When neuroinvasive, Listeria monocytogenes can present as 
meningitis, encephalitis, abscess, or ventriculitis, resulting 
in hydrocephalus. Rhombencephalitis typically presents as a 
biphasic illness with a prodrome of fever, headache, and 
nausea followed by focal deficits (cranial neuropathies, pyra-
midal tract weakness, ataxia, and brainstem findings). Listeria 
meningitis and encephalitis can occur in an immunocompe-
tent individual without clear predisposing factors. However, 
particular conditions such as < 1 month of age, > 50 years of 
age, underlying malignancy, and pregnancy place individuals 
at higher risk.

Rashes associated with meningitis and meningoencepha-
ritis include

• Rocky Mountain spotted fever is associated with a rash of < 1 cm erythematous macules that begins on the wrists 
  and ankles and subsequently spreads centrally to involve 
  the trunk and face. Petechial lesions around the axilla, 
palms of the hands, and soles of feet are characteristic.
• Other infections that may present with lesions on the 
palms and soles include meningococcemia and syphilis. 
The rash seen with meningococcemia begins with pete-
chial lesions on the trunk and lower extremities and 
progresses to involve the mucous membranes and conj-
unctiva. These disseminated lesions can become gangrenous.
• Patients with VZV meningitis or encephalitis may have a 
  history of shingles in the past several months, but if they 
do not, it does not exclude the possibility of VZV.
• An erythematous rash on the trunk can be seen with 
  enterovirus and WNV.

Diagnostic Work-Up
Listeria has been reported with normal CSF cell counts, and the 
Gram stain may not show bacteria. Cerebrospinal fluid culture 
is positive in approximately 40% of patients with listeriosis. 
Blood cultures can be helpful if drawn before the initiation of 
antibiotics. Even though antibody titers are typically unreliable 
in the acute phase, they can be used later in culture-negative 
cases in patients treated empirically.

Viral meningitis may present with a predominance of 
polymorphonuclear leukocytes in the CSF with a transition to 
a lymphocytic pleocytosis over 24 hours. As entroviral 
infections are a common cause of viral meningitis, they 
should be at least considered during the diagnostic workup.

If the enterovirus PCR is positive and the CSF culture is 
negative for 48 hours, antibiotics may be discontinued. 
Additionally, if the clinical suspicion is low for HSVE and 
the HSV PCR is negative in the setting of a positive enterov-
irus PCR, acyclovir may also be discontinued. This may 
avoid prolonged exposure to unnecessary antimicrobial 
medications.

As in the diagnostic work-up for encephalitis, early serum 
testing with blood cultures (ideally before the initiation of 
antibiotics) and for HIV should be performed.
Some so-called chronic meningitides can in fact have a rather sudden onset, so low glucose in the CSF of an acutely ill patient may not mean bacterial meningitis. Cerebrospinal fluid glucose is typically mildly decreased in tuberculous meningitis at approximately 35 to 40 mg/dL.21

Herpes simplex virus-2 is the most common cause of chronic or recurrent meningitis. Although this designation is for recurrent bouts of lymphocytic CSF pleocytosis with HSV DNA detection, the literature on this entity sometimes include cases with HSV PCR negative pleocytosis and/or no lumbar puncture data at all, making the epidemiology difficult to determine. As many patients with a history of meningitis also have migraine whose symptoms can mimic meningitis, it is important to make this diagnostic distinction so as not to overtreat more mundane etiologies of headache in these patients.

A note on vaccines: The routine (as of 2015) meningococcal vaccine does not cover serogroup B, which causes up to one-third of cases of meningococcal meningitis in the United States; therefore, vaccination does not rule out meningococcal disease. Additionally, although pneumococcal vaccines tend to prevent more severe forms of the bacteria, with 90 known subtypes, vaccination does not altogether prevent meningitis by Streptococcus pneumoniae as well.22

**Treatment**

It is imperative to start treatment with antibiotics immediately if bacterial meningitis is suspected. Once antibiotics are initiated, after 4 to 12 hours the organism may be absent in CSF culture; however, pleocytosis and protein elevation will persist.

Adjunctive treatment with dexamethasone should be initiated early (before the first dose of antibiotics) in bacterial meningitis in developed countries. However, it is most useful in pneumococcal meningitis and discontinuation of the steroids should be considered based on the results of the CSF Gram stain and culture.23

Recurrent meningitis is most often caused by HSV-2 when an agent is found. However, the literature varies widely regarding the recommendations for treatment and/or prophylactic antiviral therapy. The most recent literature has not supported the use of prophylactic medication.24

**Conclusion**

Infectious meningitis and encephalitis carry significant associated morbidity and mortality. The diagnosis of both meningitis and encephalitis can be quite challenging because there are several etiologies, including infectious and noninfectious. Unfortunately, many cases remain undiagnosed. Future diagnostics including next-generation sequencing show promise in the diagnosis of CNS infections. However, with careful clinical investigation and knowing the diagnostic pearls and pitfalls, one can often identify life-threatening, common, and/or treatable etiologies.

**References**

2. Steiner I. Herpes simplex virus encephalitis: new infection or reactivation? Curr Opin Neurol 2011;24(3):268–274


