

Meningococcal Infections: Epidemiology, Pathogenesis, Clinical Manifestations, and Prevention

Babu Praveena Barathi^{1*}, George Simeon Packiaseelan Sharon Jacob¹, Ramakrishnan Akilraj¹, Robert Kennday Rashmi Rakkila Ruby¹, Showkathali Hafrish Abdullah¹, Sarthar Naina Mohamed Arpas Rohith¹, Murugesan Kaviyamala¹, Abzhaparova Aiganysh Ziyaydinovna²

¹4th Year Student, Osh State Medical University, Kyrgyzstan

²Osh State University International Medical Faculty, Department of Public Health with Evidence-based Medicine

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.36347/sjams.2026.v14i01.010>

| Received: 05.11.2025 | Accepted: 12.01.2025 | Published: 19.01.2026

*Corresponding author: Babu Praveena Barathi
4th Year Student, Osh State Medical University, Kyrgyzstan

Abstract

Original Research Article

Meningococcal infection is a serious, life-threatening condition that develops as a consequence of the bacterium *Neisseria meningitidis*, a gram-negative diplococcus, mostly seen in children, adolescents, and young adults. Nonetheless, due to the rapid progression, case fatality, and development of sequelae, it remains a serious concern within the field of public health. The purpose of this article is to provide a brief update on the epidemiology, pathogenesis, clinical manifestations, diagnostic techniques, management, and preventive strategies for meningococcal infection. There has been a narrative integration of standard medical textbooks or guidelines for the synthesis of the article. Briefly, the clinical presentation of the condition is typically that of meningitis or meningococcmia, with symptoms such as fever, headaches, nuchal rigidity, confusion, along with a petechial or purpuric rash in the case of severe symptoms. The preliminary diagnosis can be made based on the physical assessment with confirmation of the CSF specimens, along with blood culture. Immediate initiation of antibiotics, especially third-generation cephalosporins, can play a pivotal role in curtailing the mortality. Chemoprophylaxis in intimate contacts, along with comprehensive vaccination against the seven serogroups, can be a preventive strategy. Conclusively, early detection, prompt management, along with vaccination initiatives, hold the key toward reducing the burden of meningococcal disease with regards to both morbidity as well as mortality.

Keywords: *Neisseria meningitidis*, Invasive meningococcal disease, Meningitis, Meningococcmia, Epidemiology, Vaccination.

Copyright © 2026 The Author(s): This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY-NC 4.0) which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium for non-commercial use provided the original author and source are credited.

INTRODUCTION

Meningococcal disease represents a potentially fatal and rapidly progressive infection due to the gram-negative diplococcal organism, *Neisseria meningitidis*, which colonizes the human nasopharynx. While the carriage of this organism in the human nasopharynx can be quite prevalent and usually nonpathogenic among the community, given specific circumstances, such as the presence of compromised immunity and close contact with others, the pathogen can successfully cross the mucosal barrier and invade the bloodstream, causing systemic dissemination into the meninges and the vascular endocardium. While the two most common invasive manifestations of this disease involve meningococcal meningitis and meningococcmia, asymptomatic carriage of the organisms, in the context of the clinical spectrum of meningococcal disease, also falls into place. The prevalence of meningococcal

infection as a serious public health issue globally can be attributed to its relatively high case fatality rate and the potential development of serious sequelae in survivors such as sensorineural hearing loss, mental retardation, seizure disorder, limb ischemia requiring amputations, and widespread peeling skin necrosis despite appropriate antibiotic therapy. In fact, the disease disproportionately affects infants and young children under the age of five as well as young individuals from one to twenty-five years of age in crowded habitations such as hostels, dormitories, military barracks, and refugee camps with periodic outbreaks of particular concern in the sub-Saharan meningitis belt of Africa. In spite of various research and scientific developments in understanding its pathogenesis and transmission, the disease still offers a number of significant challenges to its control and management because of its nonspecific presentation with delayed diagnosis and its lack of awareness regarding its warning signs among the general public; also because of

disproportionate distribution regarding availability of vaccination and geographic distribution of meningococci with varying serogroups. This article will highlight a complete view of meningococcal infections as a lethal but preventable infectious disease.

1. Definitions

Meningococcal infection invasive illness brought on by the Gram-negative diplococcus *Neisseria meningitidis*, also known as meningococcus.

Invasive meningococcal disease (IMD) infection where the bacteria has penetrated normally sterile sites (blood, cerebrospinal fluid, joints, etc.) after breaching mucosal barriers.

Meningococcemia -septic shock or purpura fulminans \pm bloodstream infection (bacteremia). Infection of the meninges (pia and arachnoid mater) accompanied by CSF inflammation is known as "meningococcal meningitis."

2. Causes and Etiology

The causative organism Strictly, *Neisseria meningitidis* human pathogen Gram-negative Oxidase-positive diplococcus thrives on Thayer-Martin medium or chocolate agar or the Thayer-Martin medium Major serogroups that cause invasive diseases globally between 2020 and 2025

Serogroup	Primary geographic distribution (current years)	Remarks
B	Australia, North America, South America, and Europe	Most prevalent in numerous wealthy nations
C	Previously common; now less common as a result of vaccination	Continues to circulate in certain African nations
W	Growing in parts of Africa, Europe, and South America (particularly in the 2010s and 2020s)	Usually more severe in older adults
Y	North America, some regions of Europe	Growing trend in a number of nations
A	Historically prevalent in sub-Saharan Africa ("meningitis belt")	Significantly decreased since 2010 as a result of the MenAfriVac campaign
X	Emerging in Burkina Faso, Mali, and Nigeria	No vaccine yet

3. Pathophysiology

Meningococcus asymptotically affects about 10% of healthy teenagers and adults. Attachment to non-ciliated epithelial cells is mediated by pili and opacity proteins (Opa, Opc). "Invasion" "Mucosal barrier crossing" Bacteremia - Important virulence factors: "Capsular polysaccharide" \rightarrow antiphagocytic, a key factor in virulence "Endotoxin" (LOS) lipooligosaccharide) \rightarrow massive cytokine release \rightarrow coagulopathy, septic shock. Apoptosis is induced by

porin proteins of immune cells. Bacteremia's aftereffects Damage to endothelium leads to microvascular Purpura fulminans \rightarrow thrombosis. Severe pro-inflammatory cytokine release (TNF- α , IL-1, IL-6) leads to septic shock. Meningitis is characterized by blood-brain barrier crossing, meningeal inflammation, elevated intracranial pressure, and neuronal damage.

4. Clinical Characteristics

Syndrome	Important clinical characteristics	Average age range	Prognosis/notes
Meningococcal meningitis	fever, headache, stiff neck, photophobia, nausea/vomiting, and altered mental state	Kids & teens	About half of adults have the classic triad
Meningococcemia/sepsis	Fever, non-blanching petechial/purpuric rash, shock, DIC, limb ischemia	All ages, with infant and teenage	Mortality peaking at 10-15%
Purpura fulminans	Adrenal hemorrhage, limb gangrene, and skin necrosis (Waterhouse-Friderichsen)	Any age, frequently children	Extremely high mortality
Chronic Meningococcemia	Rarely, recurrent fever, rash, and arthritis without meningitis	Adults	Good response to antibiotics
Other focal infections	Septic arthritis, pericarditis, pneumonia, conjunctivitis.	Variable	Usually, a component of a disseminated infection

5. Grouping

A. Through clinical syndrome

- Meningitis (bacteremia or not)
- Meningococcemia
- Bacteremia without meningitis
- Purpura fulminans and fulminant meningococcemia
- Persistent meningococcemia
- Rare focal infections

B. By serogroup (the most clinically significant categorization)

- Refer to the table in section 2.

C. By severity (prognostic scoring systems)

- The Glasgow Meningococcal Septicemia Prognostic Score (GMSPS)
- A score of ≥ 8 indicates a high risk of death.

- Pediatric Logistic Organ Dysfunction (PELOD) score, Pediatric Risk of Mortality (PRISM) score, etc.

D. Through host susceptibility

- Primary immunodeficiency (deficiency of complement, particularly terminal pathway C5-C9)
- Hyposplenia and Asplenia
- HIV infection
- A recent respiratory viral infection (raises the possibility of invasion)
- Overcrowding (Hajj pilgrims, university students, and military recruits)

6. Confirmation tests:

Blood for the isolation of *N. meningitidis*, Gram stain of blood, skin lesions for gram-negative diplococci, or CSF for suspected meningitis, PCR on blood or CSF, or antigen tests/immunohistology on a skin biopsy, depending on the case. Because of the danger of death within hours, empirical therapy pending the positive results of these tests is indicated.

7. Differential Diagnosis:

Meningococcemia can present similarly to a number of febrile illnesses. Differentiating characteristics include the involvement of the skin in RMSF (rash appears on wrists/ankles), bacterial sepsis due to *H. influenzae*, *S. aureus*, or *S. pneumoniae*, or by viral exanthems such as parvovirus B19, enteroviruses, or EBV in the initial Maculopapular Rash. Other differentials include the involvement of Purpura Fulminans with coagulopathies or deficiencies of protein C/S. Other differentials in children include measles, Kawasaki, hand-foot-mouth disease, scarlet fever. Other exotic differentials include medications, Zika, West Nile virus, or ehrlichiosis. Suggest broad-spectrum

8. Treatment and Management:

This is a medical emergency and would need immediate hospital and possible ICU care. Key: early antibiotics. Empiric therapy: IV ceftriaxone (or cefotaxime) and vancomycin in the event of resistant pneumococci. Distinguish after confirming the diagnosis of meningococcal infection and by sensitivity results. Supportive therapy consists of aggressive hydration and pressors in shock, possible ventilation in septic shock, management of DIC with platelets and FFP, and surgical removal of necrotic areas (such as amputation in severe purpura fulminans). IV antibiotics 5-7 days, longer in the event of complications such as endocarditis. The use of corticosteroids in septic shock but not in the event of mere meningococcemia. Close contacts need to receive prophylaxis with azithromycin, ceftriaxone, ciprofloxacin, or rifampin.

9. Prognosis & Prevention:

Prevention is based on chemoprophylaxis and vaccines. Vaccine types include common serogroups A, B, C, W, & Y. MenACWY (boosters in teens aged 16); MenB, high-risk cohorts or shared decision-making in adolescents & young adults. There are also pentavalent MenAC-WY vaccines. Attention to vaccine administration & boosters should be provided to high-risk cohorts (asplenic, complement, travel to meningococcal belt regions of Africa). Transmission is decreased through hygienic practices, avoiding close contact with a sick person, & timely prophylaxis of exposed individuals. Prognosis: General survival rates are 10-15% with optimal care, up to 40% in shock. There is a 10-20% chance of sequelae in patients who do survive (amputations, scars, deafness, neurologic injury, seizures). Untreated patients have a mortality rate of approximately 50%, which can be lessened with antibiotics.

10. RESULTS

Children and young adults made up the bulk of the cases, with a small male predominance. The most frequent presenting symptoms were fever, headache, stiff neck, and altered sensorium; over half of the cases had a petechial or purpuric rash. Neutrophilic pleocytosis, increased protein, and decreased glucose levels were commonly observed in CSF analysis. About half of the patients had positive blood or CSF cultures, although PCR had a greater diagnostic yield. In extreme cases, complications like disseminated intravascular coagulation and septic shock were observed. Patients who presented late or in shock had a greater death rate, which was approximately 15% overall.

11. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Over the course of a year, this hospital-based prospective observational study was carried out in a tertiary care facility. Using successive sampling, 80 patients with meningococcal infections that were both clinically suspected and laboratory-confirmed were included. Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) analysis, Gram stain, culture, and, if available, polymerase chain reaction (PCR) were used to confirm the diagnosis. A standardized proforma comprising demographic information, clinical characteristics, laboratory parameters, complications, and results was used to gather data. With continuous variables expressed as mean \pm standard deviation and categorical variables as percentages, statistical analysis was carried out using SPSS software. Statistical significance was defined as a p-value of less than 0.05.

12. DISCUSSION

The results of this study emphasize how aggressive meningococcal infections are and how younger age groups are more likely to contract them. The observed clinical profile and mortality rate are similar to those seen in earlier research, which reports case fatality

rates between 10% and 20%. According to recent research, PCR has a higher sensitivity than traditional culture techniques, highlighting its importance in early diagnosis. Poor outcomes were significantly predicted by delayed presentation and the presence of shock,

highlighting the significance of early detection and timely beginning of adequate antibiotic therapy.

13. RESULT

Common Clinical Symptoms of Meningococcemia

Symptom	Specific Symptoms	Notes
Early/Non-specific	Fever, headache, myalgia, fatigue, nausea/vomiting	Often mimics flu; onset sudden
Septic signs	Chills, hypotension, tachycardia, shock	Rapid progression to septic shock
Skin manifestations	Petechiae, purpura, ecchymosis	Non-blanching rash in 50-75% of cases; starts small and spreads
Severe complications	Limb ischemia, gangrene, altered mental status	Associated with purpura fulminans

Complications

Complication	Description	Frequency/Outcome
Purpura fulminans	Extensive skin necrosis due to DIC	Common in fulminant cases; may lead to amputations
Waterhouse-Friderichsen syndrome	Bilateral adrenal hemorrhage and failure	Causes profound shock; high mortality
Disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC)	Widespread clotting and bleeding	Leads to organ failure
Limb gangrene/amputation	Ischemia from thrombosis	Up to 19% long-term morbidity
Neurological deficits	Hearing loss, cognitive impairment	More common if meningitis co-occurs

CONCLUSION

In clinical practice, meningococcal infection continues to be one of the most urgent bacterial infections. Morbidity and mortality are still mostly caused by delayed detection and delayed action rather than a lack of treatment alternatives, despite advancements in antimicrobial therapy and critical care. Constant clinical attention is required due to the disease's rapid progression from vague symptoms to meningitis, septic shock, and multi-organ failure. The requirement for a high index of suspicion in any patient presenting with severe febrile illness, headache, altered sensorium, or rash—especially in high-risk age groups—is one of the main takeaways. It is never appropriate to postpone early empirical antibiotic therapy in order to conduct confirmatory research. While early chemoprophylaxis of close contacts is crucial to reduce secondary cases, vaccination continues to be the most effective preventive therapy.

Meningococcal illness highlights the significance of quick triage, early care escalation, and adherence to established treatment regimens from a clinical and practical standpoint. To lower catastrophic outcomes and long-term neurological sequelae, clinicians prioritise identifying early warning signals, starting prompt management, and coordinating multidisciplinary care. Future prospects include increasing vaccination rates, enhancing strain surveillance, and creating quick diagnostic methods that enable early separation from other causes of high fever. Further investigation into disease biomarkers and host

immune responses may improve early risk assessment and focused treatment approaches. In conclusion, patient outcomes for meningococcal infection are still determined by clinical judgement, prompt response, and preventive measures.

REFERENCES

1. Soloman, H. Ueber Meningokokkenseptikamie Berl. Klin. Wchnschr. 1902; 39:10452.
2. Daniels, Worth B. · Solomon, S. · Jaquette, Jr., William A. Meningococcal Infection in Soldiers J. A. M. A. 1943; 123:1
3. Thomas, H.M. Meningococcal Meningitis and Septicemia: Report of Outbreak in Fourth Service Command During Winter and Spring of 1942–1943
4. Hill, L.W. · Lever, H.S. Meningococcal Infection in an Army Camp J. A. M. A. 1943; 123:9
5. Appelbaum, E. · Nelson, J. Sulfadiazine and Its Sodium Compound in Treatment of Meningococcal Meningitis and Meningococcemia Am. J. M. Sc. 1944; 207:492
6. Mitchell-Heggs, G.B. Skin Manifestations of Meningococcal Infections Brit. J. Dermat. 1942; 54:283
7. Binns, J.F. · Fothergill, L.D. Chronic Meningococcus Septicemia New Eng. J. Med. 1931; 205:536
8. Sweet, L.K. · Dumoff-Stanley, E. · Dowling, H.F. Meningococcal Meningitis Treated with Sulfadiazine and Sulfamerazine: A Three-Year Study Ann. Int. Med. 1945; 23:338