Since January 2020 Elsevier has created a COVID-19 resource centre with free information in English and Mandarin on the novel coronavirus COVID-19. The COVID-19 resource centre is hosted on Elsevier Connect, the company’s public news and information website.

Elsevier hereby grants permission to make all its COVID-19-related research that is available on the COVID-19 resource centre - including this research content - immediately available in PubMed Central and other publicly funded repositories, such as the WHO COVID database with rights for unrestricted research re-use and analyses in any form or by any means with acknowledgement of the original source. These permissions are granted for free by Elsevier for as long as the COVID-19 resource centre remains active.
Meningococcal disease was first clinically characterised by Gaspard Vieusseux in 1805, and its causative agent was identified by Anton Weichselbaum in 1887, who named it *Diplococcus intracellularis meningitidis*. From the beginning, the disease was dreaded because of its epidemic nature, predilection for previously healthy children and adolescents, and high mortality. In the last decade of the 19th century, the concept of serum therapy for toxin-related bacterial diseases was identified. This concept was applied to meningococcal disease therapy, in an independent way, by Wilhelm Kolle, August von Wasserman, and Georg Jochmann in Germany, and Simon Flexner in the USA, resulting in the first successful approach for the treatment of meningococcal disease. During the first three decades of the 20th century, serum therapy was the standard treatment for meningococcal disease. With the advent of sulphonamides first and then antibiotics, serum therapy was abandoned. The great challenges that infectious diseases medicine is facing and the awaiting menaces in the future in terms of increasing antibiotic resistance, emergence of new pathogens, and re-emergence of old ones without effective therapy, make passive immunotherapy a promising tool. Acknowledging the achievements of our predecessors might teach us some lessons to bring light to our future.

**Introduction**

If I have seen further it is by standing on the shoulders of giants

Isaac Newton (1643–1727)

Meningococcal disease was never described in ancient times despite its distinctive rash in a substantial proportion of patients. In January 1805, Gaspard Vieusseux, a general practitioner, first clinically characterised meningococcal disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in practi- oner, first clinically characterised meningococcal disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in practitioner, first clinically characterised meningococcal disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva. Post-mortem examination of some disease in a short epidemic at the Eaux Vives quarter in Geneva, Switzerland.

New epidemics of the disease described by Vieusseux were subsequently reported in Medfield, MA, USA in 1806, and from 1806 to 1809 in other New England states, Virginia, Kentucky, Ohio, and Pennsylvania in the USA, and Canada. Throughout the 19th century, epidemics of meningococcal disease spread to most countries in Europe, North and South America, colonial Africa, and western Asia. In these epidemics, the mortality of the disease ranged from 69% to 100% of cases. Theodor Klebs, in 1875, was the first to observe cocci in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) of patients who died from meningitis. His findings were subsequently confirmed by many other authors from 1886 onwards. *Diplococcus pneumoniae* (Albert Fränkel’s *Pneumoniekokkus*) was considered the cause of epidemic and sporadic meningitis. In the years 1885–87, Anton Weichselbaum, a pathologist from Vienna (Austria-Hungary), while studying germs that caused meningitis, found in the post-mortem examination of eight patients who died from sporadic meningitis, was able to culture *Diplococcus pneumoniae* from two of them, whereas in the other six patients he observed a different micro-organism, and he named it *Diplococcus* on the basis of its morphology, *intracellularis* on the basis of its location, and *meningitidis* due to its potential to cause meningitis. The bacteriological study of meningitis epidemics occurring after 1897 led to *Diplococcus intracellularis meningitidis* being established as the main cause of epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis.

**Therapeutic attempts before serum therapy**

The high fatality of the meningococcal disease epidemics observed during the 19th century meant that this disease was considered one of those with the worst prognosis, only comparable to the plague and cholera. Therefore, countless methods were tested over this century with a therapeutic intent, replacing one another in accordance with the theories predominant at each period on the postulated cause of the disease.

Vieusseux recommended emetics and, occasionally, bloodletting. Lothario Danielson and Elias Mann observed the harmful effect of bloodletting and advised the administration of Fowler’s mineral solution and wine, whereas Nathan Strong Jr maintained that the best treatment was a nutritious diet and stimulant medicines. Alcoholic beverages, opium (either pure or as laudanum), potassium iodide, quinine, and many other compounds were extensively used and subject to heated scientific discussions. Opium was believed to be a specific remedy for meningococcal meningitis because of its stimulant properties. The most popular of the compounds initially used was mercury, administered as an ointment or orally as calomel (mercury chloride). With the aim of relieving the severe headaches of patients with meningitis, compresses soaked in cold water or sulphuric ether were applied to the head and rachis. The immersion of the patient two or three times a day in warm or hot water was likewise recommended. None of these remedies succeeded in modifying the course of the disease, although some of them could provide symptomatic relief.
At the end of the 19th century, Walter Essex Wynter was already using repeated lumbar punctures to treat tuberculous meningitis. Starting from 1891, CSF drainage, whether by means of repeated punctures, the insertion of trocars or catheters on a subarachnoid, lumbar, or cisternal level, with or without concomitant laminectomy, was one of the therapeutic pillars for bacterial meningitis for over a decade. The idea was to reduce the pressure of the CSF and to diminish its bacterial load. Other surgical procedures were also used for therapeutic purposes in the acute phase of meningococcal meningitis, including suboccipital decompression with the aim of ensuring the permanent drainage of the cisterna magna and trepanation in various locations. Subsequently, the practice of so-called intrathecal washings was advocated, done with repeated punctures of the subarachnoid space and the subsequent instillation of normal saline, distilled water, or sodium citrate solution.

In what was intended to be a therapeutic step forward, antiseptic substances were instilled intrathecally, such as lysol, protargol at 0·2%, carbolic acid solution at 0·5%, flavin, eusol, hexamine, helmitol, and hydrogen peroxide. All these treatment methods were shown to be completely ineffective, despite some specific successes alleged by the authors.

The dawn and golden age of serum therapy

In 1890, Emil Von Behring and Kitasato Shibasaburō laid the foundations of serum therapy for infectious diseases, because they generated serum containing antibodies capable of neutralising the effects of Clostridium tetani and Corynebacterium diphtheria toxins after immunising horses with these bacterial toxins. In 1891, Georg and Felix Klemperer showed that serum therapy protected rabbits from Streptococcus pneumoniae infection and paved the way for this type of treatment and for the development of similar serum-based treatments for other human infections.

On April 19, 1906, Wilhelm Kolle and August von Wassermann (figure 1), from the Berlin Königlich Preußische Institut für Infektionskrankheiten [Royal Prussian Institute for Infectious Diseases], announced that they had obtained, starting from the immunisation of horses, a serum which protected guinea pigs against meningococcal disease. On the basis of the results obtained with animal experimentation, they recommended its use for meningococcal disease in humans. On May 17, 1906, Georg Jochmann described an equine antimeningococcal serum that protected guinea pigs from intraperitoneal meningococcal infection. Jochmann, who worked in Breslau (Wroclaw, in present-day Poland), had been experimenting with this serum since 1905, when the meningococcal disease epidemic still persisted in Upper Silesia (now part of Poland). The antimeningococcal serum was administered to 38 patients from Breslau and to 17 from Ratibor, and the results obtained were presented at the Internal Medicine Congress held in Munich, in April, 1906. 12 of the 17 patients from Ratibor presented a clinical benefit. This paper drew attention to the preference for the intrathecal over the subcutaneous route for its administration.

Simon Flexner (figure 2), from the New York Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research (NY, USA), began to study antimeningococcal serum therapy in 1905, independently from the German researchers. Flexner had researched the biological properties of meningococcus and was capable of producing experimental meningococcal meningitis in Macacus rhesus, thus obtaining a model to validate the effectiveness of the serum. Flexner immunised two Macacus nemestrinus to produce homologous serum. In a subsequent experiment, he injected meningococcal culture intrathecally into ten M rhesus. Five of them were treated, also intrathecally, with the previously obtained serum, whereas the other five animals were used as controls. All the saline, neosalvarsan, antimony tartrate, soamine, the subcutaneous injection of turpentine with the consequent formation of the so-called fixation abscesses, and the bilateral intracarotid injection of Pregl’s iodine solution were also used. All these treatment methods were shown to be completely ineffective, despite some specific successes alleged by the authors.
the controls died, but four of the animals treated with homologous antimeningococcal serum survived. Flexner continued his experimental studies and immunised horses for the production of serum intended for the treatment of humans.

The first serums available were those of Kolle and Wassermann, Jochmann, and Flexner. At the same time, other antimeningococcal serums appeared, such as that of Ruppel in Germany, that of Markl in Austria-Hungary, and subsequently that of Charles Dopter in France. The antimeningococcal serum was obtained by immunising horses with various slightly different methods (figure 3). Basically, the serum-obtaining procedure consisted of the subcutaneous or intravenous administration of increasing doses of initially dead meningococci and, in a subsequent phase, of living organisms. The differences in the results were based on whether or not the researchers immunised the horses with soluble autolytic products of the meningococcal culture, on the age of the strains administered, and on the use of strains from just one or numerous patients. Depending on the era, the success of immunisation of the horses was determined by different methods, including opsonic, complement fixation, agglutination, and animal protection studies with the immune serum.

From the first observations of meningitis treated with antimeningococcal serum, it was obvious that the intrathecal route of administration was the most effective. For the treatment, lumbar puncture was used to extract a volume of CSF equal to or slightly higher than the volume of serum to be administered (around 30 mL). The serum, previously heated to 37°C, was introduced into the spinal canal by means of repeated injections or using a gravity infusion system, consisting of a container and a rubber tube equipped with a shut-off valve. After introducing the intrathecal serum, the patient was placed in the Trendelenburg position. In the event of the blocking of the subarachnoid space or when impossible to practise the lumbar puncture, the serum administration was done on a cisternal or ventricular level. The daily administration of the serum continued until disappearance of the fever or of the diplococci from the CSF. In patients with meningitis, some authors also recommended the simultaneous administration of the serum by the intravenous route at high doses and, in the cases of meningococcal sepsis without meningitis, only intravenous administration. Hypersensitivity reactions were the most frequent side-effect following administration of the antimeningococcal serum, occurring in up to 75% of cases.

Table 1 summarises the results of the treatment with antimeningococcal serum in the first epidemics in which it was used. A marked reduction in mortality represented by serum therapy was apparent. It was also soon appreciated that the effectiveness of serum therapy was directly proportional to how early it was administered. The analysis of data from the epidemics outlined in table 1 shows a substantial reduction in the mortality for patients treated with the serum compared with that for untreated patients. However, these were not case-control studies but, rather, they were reports of survival of serum-treated compared with survival of untreated patients in the same meningococcal disease epidemic. Therefore, given the important limitations of the study design, data should be interpreted with great caution. Notwithstanding that limitation, the results were compelling enough, at the time, to settle serum therapy as the treatment of choice for meningococcal disease, and antimeningococcal serum continued to be the standard therapy, being recommended until the 1940s.

The subsequent history of antimeningococcal serum therapy runs parallel to the advances made in relation to the antigenic characteristics of meningococcus, which finally allowed its classification in serogroups. Flexner had already shown the existence of cases of meningococcal meningitis in which the strain responsible was shown to be resistant to serum therapy. At the beginning of serum therapy, the serum was prepared with, in an empirical
Historical Review

and random manner, cultures of meningococcus isolated from multiple patients. In 1909, Dopter described the so-called parameningococci α, β, and γ, which he isolated from the nasopharynx of individuals who had been in contact with patients affected by meningococcal meningitis, and which were morphologically and culturally identical to classic meningococcus but distinguishable from it because of agglutination reactions. In the same year, Harry Elser and James Huntoon specified the biochemical and serological characteristics of meningococcus culture, and the preparation of monovalent and polyvalent sera, the clinical use of which was often sequential, began. At the time of diagnosis, polyvalent serum was used first and, after typing the causal agent, treatment continued with the corresponding monovalent serum.

In the cases that appeared in 1914, a high percentage of failures of the serum therapy was recorded, the mortality thus rising to 65–70%, a figure similar to those of the pre-serum therapy era. These disappointing results were attributed to the fact that the serum available came from previous years, to the fact that presumably it did not contain antibodies against the strain responsible, and to deficient storage conditions. Serogroup-specific antimeningococcal sera were, therefore, obtained, and began to be applied in 1915, leading to a reduction in mortality similar to that of the beginning of the serum therapy era.

An attempt to enhance the effect of serum therapy was its complementation with fresh human serum obtained from the patients themselves or from individuals recovering from meningococcal disease, and later, with the addition of bacteria therapy or autologous vaccination, consisting of the administration (by the intrathecal route, subcutaneous route, or both) of CSF from the patient, enriched with glucose and subsequently heated with the aim of obtaining a liquid with 50–100 million dead meningococci per mL.

In 1931, Newell S Ferry and colleagues isolated specific soluble toxins from culture mediums of various kinds of Neisseria meningitidis. The injection of these toxins in guinea pigs and rabbits gave rise to the development of homologous antitoxins; these two antitoxins combined were called meningococcal antitoxin. Although the initial results with Ferry’s antitoxin showed more efficacy than those with standard serum therapy, in subsequent years no differences were observed in relation to the mortality between the two therapeutic options, although the patients treated with antitoxin presented fewer complications.

The availability of antimeningococcal serum starting from 1906 and its proven therapeutic effectiveness meant that Jochmann, and subsequently Ruppel, recommended its prophylactic use in close contacts of patients with meningococcal disease. However, this measure was only used in isolated cases. The first evidence that there were asymptomatic carriers of N meningitidis and of the fundamental role that they played in the epidemiological chain of the disease meant that, in the beginning of

| Serum-treated patients | Untreated patients | Type of serum |
|------------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| **Number** | **Mortality (%)** | **Mortality (%)** | **Type of serum** |
| Steiner | 2280 | 37.0 | 77.0 | Flexner |
| Flexner | 1294 | 30.9 | 75.0 | Flexner |
| Robb | 300 | 30.0 | 72.0 | Flexner |
| Sophian | 161 | 15.5 | No available data | Flexner |
| Netter | 100 | 28.0 | 49.0 | Dopter |
| Dopter | 402 | 16.4 | 65.0 | Dopter |
| Levy | 165 | 18.2 | 52.1 | Dopter |
| Krohne | 59 | 40.6 | 66.0 | Kolle and Wassermann |
| Leick | 34 | 32.4 | 55.0 | Kolle and Wassermann |
| Neglein | 30 | 26.6 | 50.0 | Kolle and Wassermann |
| Tobben | 29 | 34.0 | 56.0 | Kolle and Wassermann |
| Kleinschmidt | 21 | 19.0 | 62.5 | Kolle and Wassermann |
| Quenstedt | 18 | 22.2 | 56.2 | Kolle and Wassermann |
| Jehle | 41 | 45.0 | 70.0 | Markl |
| Weiss and Eder | 23 | 39.0 | 85.0 | Markl |
| Schoene | 30 | 25.0 | 53.0 | Jochmann |
| Total | 4987 | 28.7 | 60.1 | |

*Data from Heiman and Feldstein, Sophian and colleagues, Flexner and colleagues, and Worster-Drought and Kennedy*

Table 1: Outcome of meningococcal disease and treatment with serum therapy
the 20th century, attempts were already being made to eradicate carrier status. In 1906, Wassermann used sprays of dried antimeningo coccal serum, injecting it through the nostrils. However, the results obtained were discouraging, unlike the experiences described by Karl Kutscher, and Paul Carnot and Cayrel, who also used sprays.57,58

The twilight of serum therapy

In the mid-1930s, Gladwin Buttle and colleagues, 59 and Perrin Long and Eleanor Bliss60 described favourable experimental results in the treatment of meningococcal disease with 4-sulphamide-ʹ2ʹ-4-diaminoazabenzene or Prontosil (ie, sulfamidochrysoidine). The first application of sulphamides in the treatment of human meningococcal disease took place in 1937 when Francis Schwentker and colleagues47 treated ten patients with meningococcal meningitis and one with sepsis without meningitis with sulphanilamide intrathecally and subcutaneously. All ten patients survived. The authors specified that subsequent studies were required to define the role of sulphanilamide as monotherapy or as adjuvant to serum therapy. Starting from 1937, numerous studies were done on the treatment of meningococcal disease with sulphamides, and the good results obtained endorsed them as the treatment of choice for the following 25 years. Table 2 shows the results of the treatment of meningococcal disease with sulphamides in the 9 years following their introduction.61–75

In 1937 and 1938, strains of meningococcus with variable degrees of resistance to sulphamides were isolated in Baltimore, MD and Washington DC, USA.76 In 1941–43, Emanuel Schoenbach and John Phair,77 in a study of 430 strains of meningococcus from army patients and carriers, found that eight (1·9%) of these strains were not inhibited in vitro by a concentration of sulphadiazine of 0·5 mg/μL. The first epidemic due to serogroup B meningococcus resistant to sulphadiazine occurred in the spring of 1963, in the US Naval Training Center of San Diego (CA).78,79 Shortly afterwards, in Fort Ord (Marina, CA, USA), another epidemic of meningococcal disease occurred, also caused by serogroup B meningococcus; 50% of whose isolates were resistant to sulphamides.80,81 These findings were reproduced shortly after in the civilian population.82 Therefore, in the USA, sulphamides ceased to be the treatment of choice for meningococcal disease starting from 1965. In 1968, an epidemic was detected caused by sulphamide-resistant N meningitidis in Meknes (Morocco),83 and in 1971–72, in São Paulo (Brazil).84 The epidemics were caused by serogroup C meningococcus with resistance to sulphamides in 95% of the isolates.84,85 The geographical dispersion of sulphamide resistance in N meningitidis determined the generalised abandonment of sulphamides and the beginning of the era of treatment with penicillin.

In 1944, David Rosenberg and Phillip Arling86 treated 65 patients with meningococcal meningitis, using intrathecal penicillin, at doses of 1×10⁴ units of penicillin every 24 h, associated with concomitant administration by intramuscular or intravenous route. Only one of the patients died, and all the other patients recovered without sequelae. In the same year, Manson Meads and colleagues87 treated nine patients with similar doses of penicillin and all survived. Despite these results, it was believed that treatment with sulphamides was superior, given that the response to penicillin was slower than to sulphamides, the carrier status remained after treatment.

| Table 2: Outcome of patients with meningococcal meningitis treated with sulphamides, serum therapy, or both |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number treated with sulphamide | Mortality (%) | Number treated with sulphamide and serum | Mortality (%) | Number treated with serum therapy | Mortality (%) |
| Roche and McSweeney** (1935–39) | 11 | 9·1% | 56 | 57·1% | 36 | 75·0% |
| Waghelstein** (1937–38) | 72 | 15·3% | 140 | 19·3% | 368 | 26·0% |
| Banks*** (1937–40) | 310 | 6·1% | 70 | 15·7% | 14 | 14·3% |
| Goldring et al**** (1937–44) | 209 | 9·1% | - | - | - | - |
| Davis et al***** (1937–45) | - | - | 352 | 6·8% | - | - |
| Banks***(1938) | 16 | 6·2% | 59 | 11·8% | 38 | 16·0% |
| Feldman et al****** (1938–41) | 24 | 8·3% | - | - | - | - |
| Hodes and Strong*** (1938–42) | 110 | 11·% | - | - | - | - |
| Somers**** (1939) | 143 | 10·2% | - | - | - | - |
| Bryant and Fairman***** (1939) | 189 | 4·8% | - | - | - | - |
| Beeson and Westerman**** (1939–41) | 2455 | 9·5% | 965 | 18·7% | - | - |
| Banks et al****** (1939–44) | 33450 | 22·2% | - | - | - | - |
| Banks et al******* (1939–44) | 4222 | 8·4% | - | - | - | - |
| Jubb** (1940) | 2357 | 9·2% | 849 | 13·8% | 2279* | 36·6% |
| Scheld and Mandell*** (1940–45) | 140541 | 3·8% | - | - | - | - |
| Horwitz and Perroni** (1941–43) | 450 | 11·1% | - | - | - | - |

*Data from 1931 to 1934 only. †Data from service personnel.
and that treatment with penicillin was difficult because of the need for daily lumbar puncture. In 1952, Mark Lepper and colleagues compared treatment with penicillin and with sulfisoxazole in 78 patients with meningococcal meningitis. The doses of penicillin were higher than those previously used by the intramuscular or intravenous route, without intrathecal administration. It was concluded that penicillin at high doses was at least as effective as sulfisoxazole for the treatment of meningococcal meningitis and that its intrathecal administration was not essential. The first series of patients with meningococcal meningitis treated with penicillin is summarised in Table 3.86–91

In 1965, Theodore Eickhoff and Maxwell Finland isolated strains of meningococcus with a minimum inhibitory concentration for penicillin of 0.1–0.2 μg/mL. In October, 1985, a strain of meningococcus was isolated in Madrid with an minimum inhibitory concentration of 0.2–2 μg/mL for penicillin from a blood culture of an 8-month child affected by sepsis and meningitis, who was cured with penicillin. Overall, in Spain, the frequency of isolations with decreased susceptibility to penicillin increased from 0.4% in 1985, to 46% in the first 4 months of 1990. Among these strains with decreased susceptibility to penicillin, serogroup C, and serogroups and serotype or subtype B4P1.15 and C2b were initially shown to be predominant. In 1988, Enid Sutcliffe reported the isolation of strains of meningococcus with decreased susceptibility to penicillin in the UK.

The penicillin susceptibility decrease mechanism in N meningitidis is the modification of the penicillin binding proteins, and only exceptionally the production of β-lactamases. Of the strains with reduced sensitivity, penicillin binding protein 3 shows an affinity 30–80 times lower for penicillin by comparison with that of sensitive strains. No alteration whatsoever has been shown in the permeability of the external membrane and no production of inactivating enzymes or of β-lactamase has been shown in the pathogenic strains of neisseria isolated in Spain, although it has been shown among saprophytes.

In 1951, Fred McCrumb and colleagues used, for the first time, chloramphenicol in the treatment of meningococcal disease. 15 patients with meningococcal meningitis received this drug orally or intravenously. They were all cured without sequelae. However, since 1952, the serious side-effects of chloramphenicol have been shown, in the form of aplastic anaemia and, in 1959, grey baby syndrome was described with high doses of chloramphenicol. These serious adverse effects limited its use and relegated it to a secondary role in the treatment of meningococcal disease.

The development of second-generation and third-generation cephalosporins yielded compounds with a great spectrum of antimicrobial activity and a greater capacity to cross the blood–brain barrier compared with older antibiotics, including penicillin. In 1974, José Correa and colleagues treated meningococcal meningitis with cefacetrile with a good therapeutic response. Since then, excellent results have been published in the treatment of meningococcal meningitis with second-generation and third-generation cephalosporins. At present, the empirical treatment of bacterial meningitis acquired in the community always includes a third-generation cephalosporin.

From passive serum therapy to active immunisation

In 1966, Irving Goldschneider and colleagues began their pivotal studies on human immunity against meningococcus and its increasing incidence due to the absence of serum bactericidal antibodies. Furthermore, they showed that the capsular polysaccharides of certain serogroups induced the formation of protective antibodies against the disease due to meningococci from the same serogroup. The following study in vaccine research was the isolation and purification of polysaccharides, thus beginning the path to obtain antimeningococcal vaccines.

The monovalent C antimeningococcal vaccine was obtained by Emil Gotschlich and colleagues in 1969, based on specific capsular polysaccharides of serogroup C, and was capable of inducing bactericidal antibodies in the serum of six volunteers. The C vaccine was the first to be administered on a large scale, initially being tested in US basic military training centres. The monovalent A antimeningococcal vaccine was also obtained by Gotschlich and colleagues in 1969, and was associated with high effectiveness in numerous tests. The bivalent A and C antimeningococcal vaccine was composed of specific capsular polysaccharides of the serogroups A and C, and became necessary when epidemic outbreaks occurred and which were caused simultaneously by both serogroups in São Paulo and in regions of the African savannah. No significant differences were found in the concentrations of antibodies induced by the bivalent A and C vaccine when comparing them with those induced separately by the A and C vaccines.

Macleod Griffiss and colleagues obtained the bivalent Y and W135 vaccine in 1981, which finally led to the tetravalent A, C, Y, and W135 antimeningococcal vaccine.

### Table 3: Early reports of the outcome of meningococcal meningitis treated with penicillin

| Number treated with penicillin | Route used                        | Mortality (%) |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|
| Rosenberg and Arling           | Intrathecal, intramuscular, or intravenous | 1.5%          |
| Meads et al                    | Intrathecal, intramuscular, or both | 0%            |
| Lepper et al                   | Intramuscular                      | 2.5%          |
| Keefer et al                   | Intrathecal, intramuscular, or intravenous | 20.0%        |
| White et al                    | Intrathecal, intramuscular, or intravenous | 0%           |

*Lepper and colleagues also reported that 38 patients were treated with sulphamidine, with a 0% mortality.*

---

**Table 3: Early reports of the outcome of meningococcal meningitis treated with penicillin**

Historical Review
vaccine, tested for the first time by William Hankins and colleagues\textsuperscript{132} in 1982. In several studies\textsuperscript{129-135} on volunteer adults, results showed that the immunogenicity and the adverse effects of the tetravalent vaccine were similar to those presented by the A, C, or bivalent A and C vaccines and that the immune response was serogroup specific.

However, plain polysaccharide vaccines, although effective and safe in the short term in close community settings, had several shortcomings. These vaccines are poorly immunogenic or not at all in young children (younger than 2 years), do not elicit immunological memory, and are ineffective against carriage.\textsuperscript{136,137} The development of conjugate vaccines in the 1990s was a major breakthrough in vaccinology; they contain a polysaccharide molecule, chemically conjugated to a T-cell-stimulating antigen, such as the diphtheria or tetanus toxoids.\textsuperscript{138} They are immunogenic in children and adults, elicit immunological memory, and eliminate the carrier status, thereby making them suitable for population-scale interventions.\textsuperscript{139} Monovalent conjugate serogroup C and A, and quadrivalent conjugate meningococcal vaccines have been licensed to date, to our knowledge.\textsuperscript{139}

The last addition to the vaccine armamentarium against meningococcus is the multicomponent serogroup B meningococcal vaccine, which is immunogenic and safe in children (older than 2 months), adolescents, and adults (no data for people older than 50 years).\textsuperscript{140} Results from clinical trials\textsuperscript{141} suggest that serogroup B meningococcal vaccine, like the other conjugate vaccines, might lead to herd immunity, reducing not only carriage of the serogroup included in the vaccine but also of other serogroups. Therefore, high population immunity caused by the efficacy of the vaccine against transmission and the coverage achieved might herald the removal of meningococcus and meningococcal disease eradication or extinction.\textsuperscript{142}

**Back to the future: antibodies for infectious disease therapy**

The discovery of sulphonamides and later of antibiotics, and their subsequent introduction in the 1930s and 1940s, led to dereliction of serum therapy for a period of 10 years, given that these new compounds were broadly effective, had fewer side-effects, and were cheaper treatment options. However, the field was not completely abandoned for meningococcal disease, although greatly restricted to experimental research and isolated clinical experiences.\textsuperscript{143-147} Passive antibody therapy for infectious diseases then became limited to infections not treated with antibiotics, such as the treatment and prevention of hepatitis B virus, rabies virus, respiratory syncytial virus, *Clostridium tetani*, *Clostridium botulinum*, anthrax, *Clostridioides difficile* colitis, vaccinia virus, echovirus, and enterovirus.\textsuperscript{148}

However, looming threats in the field of infectious diseases have made the scientific community turn its sight back to the use of antibodies for therapeutic use. These threats include the development of multidrug-resistant bacteria with limited or no response to existing treatments, caused by the broad and general use of antibiotics in veterinary and human medicine, which according to the WHO and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention cause more than 25,000 deaths in Europe and similar numbers in the USA because of antibiotic-resistant infections.\textsuperscript{149} Moreover, the emergence of new pathogens, such as severe acute respiratory syndrome, Middle East respiratory syndrome, or the re-emergence of old known pathogens without available vaccines (such as Ebola virus and its 2014 epidemic in west Africa), further highlights the need for new therapeutic approaches, including passive immunotherapy.\textsuperscript{150} Furthermore, the problems encountered when treating infections in immunosuppressed patients, such as transplant or HIV-infected patients, show how difficult the role of antimicrobial chemotherapy is in the absence of effective immunity.

The revolution in technologies for the development, selection, generation, and purification of fully human antibodies has eased the means of producing an unlimited supply of homogeneous monoclonal antibodies. Thus, in the past few decades, a huge number of monoclonal antibodies have caused a dramatic effect in the fields of oncology, autoimmune diseases, allergy, bowel inflammatory diseases, and in a few orphan diseases. However, only palivizumab for the prevention and treatment of respiratory syncytial virus, and bezlotoxumab for the prevention of recurrence of *C difficile* infections, have been approved for infectious diseases.\textsuperscript{151,152}

Given the growing challenges in the infectious diseases field, new therapeutic options are greatly needed. In this setting, antibodies and antibody-derived treatments...
might offer hope to address these challenges, and perhaps the lessons learned by our predecessors in the past might help us to find new answers for the future. Like the philosopher George Santayana said “Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it.”

Contributors
PD and NB designed the review. PD, VP, AM, and NB searched for the bibliography. The manuscript was drafted by PD, VP, AM, and NB. All authors provided input to the report and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Declaration of interests
We declare no competing interests.

References
1. Vierusseaux G. Mémoire sur la maladie qui a régné à Genève au printemps de 1805. J Med Chir Pharmacol 1806; II: 113–82.
2. Matthey A. Recherches sur une maladie particulière qui a régné à Genève en 1805. J Med Chir Pharmacol 1806; II: 243–53.
3. Danielson L, Mann E. The history of a singular and very mortal disease, which lately made its appearance in Medfield. Med Agric Rpt 1816; I: 65–69.
4. Arnell DR. Observations on the spotted fever, as it appeared in Orange County, State of New York, in 1806 and 1809. New Med Phy J 1810–1811; I: 117–20.
5. North E, Daniels BD Jr. A treatise on a malignant epidemic commonly called spotted fever; interspersed on the nature of fever in general, &c; and an appendix, in which is republished a number of essays written by different authors on this epidemic, with the addition of original notes: containing also a few original and selected cases, with clinical remarks. New York, NY: T & J Swords, 1811.
6. Strong N Jr. An inaugural dissertation on the disease termed petechial, or spotted fever. MD thesis. Medical and Philosophical Register 1811: 12–31, 57–74, and 96–106.
7. Hirsch A. Epidemic cerebro-spinal meningitis. In: Hirsch A, ed. Handbuch of geographical and historical pathology. volume 3 (Diseases of organs and parts). London: The New Sydenham Society, 1886: 547–94.
8. Foà P, Bordoni-Uffreduzzi G. Ueber die Aetologie der Meningitis cerebrospinalis epidemica. Zeitschr F Hyg 1888; 6: 67–93.
9. Weichselbaum A. Ueber die Aetologie der akuten Meningitis cerebrospinalis. Fortschr Med 1887; 5: 253–58.
10. Councilman WT, Mallory FB, Wright JH. Epidemic cerebro-spinal meningitis [history of the disease]. In: Councilman WT, Mallory FB, Wright JH, eds. Epidemic cerebro-spinal meningitis and its relation to other forms of meningitis. A report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts. Boston, MA: Wright & Potter, 1898: 9–17.
11. Faber EE. Bakteriologische Untersuchungen von Fällen epidemischer Cerebrospinalmeningitis in Kopenhagen im Sommer 1898. Z Hyg Infektionskr 1900; 34: 253–58.
12. Albrecht H, Glom A. Ueber die Aetologie und pathologische Anatomie der Meningitis cerebrospinalis epidemica. Wien Klin Wochenschr 1903; 14: 984–96.
13. Bettencourt A, França C. Ueber die Meningitis cerebrospinalis epidemica und ihren specifischen Erreger. Z Hyg Infektionskr 1904; 46: 461–516.
14. Chalard L. Contribution à l’étude de l’épidémiologie de la méningite cérébro-spinales épidémique . PhD Thesis. Université de Paris, 1910; 12–35.
15. Ringsheim. Berichte über die in der Hygienischen Station zu Beuthen O.-S. vorgenommenen bakteriologischen Untersuchungen bei epidemischer Genickstarre. Dtsch Med Wochenschr 1905; 31: 1007–20 and 1227–18.
16. Kolle W, Wassermann A. Versuche zur Gewinnung und Wertbestimmung eines Meningoccusserums. Dtsch Med Wochenschr 1906; 32: 609–12.
17. Osler W, Ledingham JCG. Discussion on the epidemiology of cerebro-spinal meningitis. Lancet 1915; I: 553–55.
18. Blackfan KD. The treatment of meningococcus meningitis. Medicine (Baltimore) 1922; I: 139–212.
19. Jaccoud S. Tifus cerebro-spinal. In: Jaccoud S, ed. Tratado de patología interna (volume 3). Madrid: C Bailly-Bailierra, 1891: 654–61.
20. Offizielle Bericht über das hier herrschende Fieber (Gens). Med Chir Ztg 1805: 2: 189–192.
21. Schifferli. Nachricht von der bösartiger Epidemie zu Gens im Feuflinge diese Jahres. J Prakt Arzneykunde Wundarzneykunst 1805; 2: 181–87.
22. Stille A. Epidemic meningitis or cerebro-spinal meningitis. Philadelphia, PA: Lindsay and Blakiston, 1867.
23. Foster M, Gaskell JF. Historical. In: Foster M, Gaskell JF, ed. Cerebro-spinal fever. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1916: 1–12.
24. Heiman H. Feldstein S. History, In: Heiman H, Feldstein S, ed. Meningococcus meningitis. Philadelphia, PA: J B Lippincott, 1913: 2–11.
25. Wynter WE. Four cases of tuberculous meningitis in which paracentesis of the theca vertebralis was performed for relief of fluid pressure. Lancet 1891; 3531: 981–82.
26. Worster-Drought C, Kennedy AM. Treatment. In: Worster-Drought C, Kennedy AM, eds. Cerebro-spinal fever: the etiology, symptomatology, diagnosis and treatment of epidemic cerebro-spinal meningitis. London: A & C Black, 1919: 393–460.
27. Dopter C. Sérothérapie antimeningococcique. In: Dopter C, ed. L’infection méningococcique. Paris: JB Baillière & fils, 1921: 413–508.
28. Crawford AS. The intracutoid treatment of meningitis. Experiences with Pregl’s solution of iodine: a further report. JAMA 1932; 98: 1531–35.
29. Behring EA, Kita6ato S. Ueber das zustandekommen der diphtherie-immunität und der tetanus-immunität bei thieren. Dtsch Med Woch 1890; 49: 1113–14.
30. Klemperer G, Klemperer F. Versuche uber immunsirung und heilung bei der pneumokokkeninfektion. Berl Klin Wochenschr 1891; 28: 831–35.
31. Kolle W, Wassermann A. Versuche zur Gewinnung und Wertbestimmung eines Meningoccusserums. Dtsch Med Wochenschr 1906; 32: 609–12.
32. Joehann G. Versuche zur Serodiagnostik und Sérotherapie der epidemischen Genickstarre. Dtsch Med Wochenschr 1906; 32: 788–93.
33. Flexner S. Experimental cerebro-spinal meningitis in monkeys. J Exp Med 1907; 9: 142–71.
34. Flexner S. Experimental cerebrospinal meningitis and its serum therapy. JAMA 1906; 47: 560–66.
35. Sophian A. Epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis. Saint Louis, MO: CV Mosby Co. 1913.
36. Cushing H, Sladen FJ. Obstructive hydrocephalus following cerebrospinal meningitis, with intraventricular injection of antitoxin meningococcic serum. J Exp Med 1908; 10: 546–57.
37. Herrick WW. The intravenous serum treatment of epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis. Arch Intern Med 1918; 21: 541–63.
38. Bolduan NW. The treatment of meningococcosis meningitis: intraspinal use of antitoxin meningococcic serum at Bellevue Hospital, other forms of meningitis. Proc Soc Exp Biol Med 1919; 157–63.
39. Flexner S. The results of the serum treatment in thirteen hundred cases of epidemic meningitis. J Exp Med 1913; 17: 553–76.
40. Worster-Drought C, Kennedy AM. Prophylaxis. In: Worster-Drought C, Kennedy AM, eds. Cerebro-spinal fever: the etiology, symptomatology, diagnosis and treatment of epidemic cerebro-spinal meningitis. London: A & C Black, 1919: 373–92.
41. Christian HA. The principles and practice of medicine. New York, NY: Appleton-Century Company, 1944.
42. Dopter C. Etude de quelques germes issus du rhino-pharynx, voisins du méningocoque (paraméningocoques). C R Soc Biol (Paris) 1909; 67: 74–76.
43. Elser WJ, Huntoon FM. Studies on meningitis. J Med Res 1909; 26: 371–341.
44. Foster M, Gordon MH. Cerebro-spinal fever. In: Macpherson WG, Herringham WP, Elliott TR, Ballfour A, eds. History of the Great War based upon official documents: medical services; diseases of the war (volume I). London: His Majesty’s Stationery Office, 1922: 147–73.
45. Fairley NH, Stewart CA. Cerebrospinal fever (service publication number 9). Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia, 1916: 161.
46. Kaufmann SH. Immunology’s foundation: the 100-year anniversary of the Nobel Prize to Paul Ehrlich and Elie Metchnikoff. Nat Immunol 2009; 9: 705–12.
Swentker FF, Gelman S, Long PH. The treatment of meningococcic meningitis with sulfanilamide. Preliminary report. JAMA 1937; 108: 1607–08.

Davies DJ. Studies in meningococcosis infections. J Infect Dis 1907; 4: 538–81.

Crowe HW. Some aspects of the cerebro-spinal fever problem. Lancet 1915; ii: 1217–33.

Ferry NS, Notton JF, Steele AH. Studies of the properties of bouillon filtrates of the meningococcus: production of a soluble toxin. J Immunol 1931; 21: 293–312.

Ferry NS. Meningococcic antitoxin. 11. Therapeutic test on monkeys. J Immunol 1912; 23: 125–67.

Ferry NS, Schornack PJ. Meningococcic toxin and antitoxin: IV. Further tests on guinea pigs and rabbits. J Immunol 1934; 26: 143–60.

Ferry NS, Steele AH. Active immunization with meningococcus toxin. J Immunol 1912; 23: 125–67.

Hoyne AL. Meningococcic meningitis: a new form of therapy. JAMA 1935; 104: 980–83.

Hoyne AL. Intravenous treatment of meningococcic meningitis with meningococcic antitoxin. JAMA 1936; 107: 478–81.

Kiefer F. Zur Differentialdiagnose des Erregers der epidemischen. Cerebrospinalmumitsus und der Gonorrhoe. Boll Klin Wochenschr 1896; 33: 628–30.

Kutscher K. Ueber Untersuchungen der Nase und der Nase. Dtsch Med Wochenschr 1896; 32: 1073–71.

Dopter C. Prophylaxie. In: Dopter C, ed. L'infection méningococcique. Paris: J B Baillière & fils, 1921: 514–22.

Banks HS. Serum and sulphanilamide in acute meningococcal meningitis. Including its use in twenty-four consecutive cases treated under field conditions. J Pediatr 1942; 28: 455–59.

Banks HS. Serum and sulphanilamide in acute meningococcal meningitis: a preliminary survey based on 113 cases. Lancet 1938; ii: 7–13.

Feldman HA, Sweet LK, Dowling HF. Sulfadiazine therapy of purulent meningitis. Including its use in twenty-four consecutive patients with meningococcal meningitis. War Med 1942; 2: 995–1007.

Hodes HL, Strong PS. Treatment of meningococcal meningitis with sulfanilamides. JAMA 1942; 119: 691–94.

Somers RBU. M. & B. 693 in cerebrospinal fever. A review of 143 cases treated under field conditions. J Pediatr 1942; 28: 455–59.

Banks HS. Serum and sulphanilamide in acute meningococcal meningitis: a preliminary survey based on 113 cases. Lancet 1938; ii: 7–13.

Feldman HA, Sweet LK, Dowling HF. Sulfadiazine therapy of purulent meningitis. Including its use in twenty-four consecutive patients with meningococcal meningitis. War Med 1942; 2: 995–1007.

Hodes HL, Strong PS. Treatment of meningococcal meningitis with sulfanilamides. JAMA 1942; 119: 691–94.

Somers RBU. M. & B. 693 in cerebrospinal fever. A review of 143 cases treated under field conditions. J Pediatr 1939; 1: 923–22.

Bryant J, Fairman HD. Chemotherapy of cerebrospinal fever in the field. Lancet 1939; i: 923–26.

Beeeson BP, Westerman E. Cerebrospinal fever. Analysis of 3375 cases, with special reference to sulphonamide therapy. Br Med J 1943; i: 497–504.

Banks KS, Priest RC, Rook A, Allison VD. Cerebrospinal fever. In: Cope VZ, ed. History of the Second World War medicine and pathology. London: His Majesty’s Stationery Office, 1946; 270–94.

Jubb AA. Chemotherapy and serumotherapy in cerebrospinal (meningococcal) meningitis: an analysis of 3206 case reports. Br Med J 1943; i: 501–04.

Scheld WM, Mandell GL. Sulfonamides and meningitis. JAMA 1984; 251: 791–94.

Horwitz A, Perroni J. Meningococcic meningitis in Santiago, Chile, 1941 to 1943. An epidemic of 4464 cases. Arch Intern Med 1946; 74: 365–70.

Feldman HA. Meningococcal disease, 1965. JAMA 1966; 134: 201–04.

Schoenbach EB, Phair J. The sensitivity of meningococci to sulfadiazine. Am J Hyg 1948; 47: 177–86.

Millar JW, Swess EE, Feldman HA, Silverman C, Frank P. In vivo and in vitro resistance to sulfadiazine in strains of Neisseria meningitidis. JAMA 1963; 186: 139–41.

Bristow WM, Van Peenen PFD. Volk R. Epidemic meningitis in naval recruits. Am J Public Health 1965; 55: 1039–45.

Gauld JR, Nitz RE, Hunter DH, Rust JH, Gauld RL. Epidemiology of meningococcal meningitis at Fort Ord. Am J Epidemiol 1965; 82: 56–72.

Brown JW, Condit PK. Meningococcal infections—Fort Ord and California. Calif Med 1965; 102: 171–80.

Leedon JM, Ivler D, Mathies AW, Thrupp LD, Portnoy B, Wehrle PF. Importance of sulfadiazine resistance in meningococcal disease in civilians. N Engl J Med 1965; 273: 1395–401.

Alexander CE, Sanborn WR, Cherriere G, Crocker JH, Ewald PE, Kay CR. Sulfadiazine-resistant group A Neisseria meningitidis. Science 1968; 161: 1019.

Souza de Morais J, Munford RS, Risi JB, Antezana E, Feldman RA. Epidemic disease due to serogroup C Neisseria meningitidis in São Paulo, Brasil. J Infect Dis 1974; 129: 1071–75.

de Oliveira Bastos C, Taunay Ade, da Cruz Tiriba A, Ayroza Galva AO. Meningitis meningocócica en São Paulo, Brasil: informe preliminar. Bol Oficina Sanit Panam 1975; 79: 54–62.

Rosenberg DH, Arling PA. Penicillin in the treatment of meningitis. JAMA 1944; 125: 1011–17.

Meads M, Harris HW, Samper BA. Finland. Treatment of meningococcal meningitis with penicillin. N Engl J Med 1944; 231: 509–12.

Lepper MH, Dowling HF, Wehrle PF, Blatt NH, Spies HW. Brown M. Meningococcic meningitis: treatment with large doses of penicillin compared to treatment with Ganserin. J Lab Clin Med 1952; 40: 891–900.

Keefer Ch S, Blake FG, Marshall EK Jr, Lockwood JS, Wood B Jr. Penicillin in the treatment of infections: a report of 500 cases. JAMA 1943; 122: 1217–24.

Herrell WE, Kennedy RLJ. Penicillin: its use in pediatrics. J Pediatr 1944; 24: 505–16.

White WL, Murphy FD, Filipin IF. Penicillin in the treatment of pneumococcal, meningococcal, streptococcal and staphylococcal meningitis. Am J Med Sci 1945; 210: i–17.

Eickhoff TC, Finland M. Changing susceptibility of meningococci to antimicrobial agents. N Engl J Med 1965; 272: 395–98.

Sáez-Nieto JA, Vázquez JA, Marcos C. Meningococcic moderately resistant to penicillin. Lancet 1990; 336: 54.

Sutcliffe EM, Jones DM, El-Sheikh S, et al. Penicillin-insensitive meningococci in the UK. Lancet 1988; i: 657–58.

Dillon JR, Paüzé M, Yeung KH. Spread of penicilllase-producing and transfer plasmids from gonococcus to Neisseria meningitidis. Lancet 1983; i: 779–81.

Botha P. Penicillin-resistant Neisseria meningitidis in southern Africa. Lancet 1988; i: 54.

Mendelman PM, Campos J, Chaffin DO, Lefax DA, Smith Al, Sáez-Nieto JA. Relative penicillin G resistance in N. meningitidis and reduced affinity of penicillin-binding protein 3. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1988; 32: 706–09.

Sáez-Nieto JA, Campos J. Resistencia a antimicrobianos en Neisseria meningitidis. Enf Infect Microbial Clin 1988; 6: 450–53.

Pintado C, Salvador C, Rotger R, Nombeia C. Multiresistance plasmid from commensal neisseria strains. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1985; 27: 120–24.

McCrum FR, Hall HE, Merideth AM, Deane GE, Minar JV, Woodward TE. Chloramphenicol in the treatment of meningococcal meningitis. Am J Med 1951; 10: 696–703.

Claudon DB, Holbrook AA. Fatal aplastic anemia associated with chloramphenicol (chloromycin) therapy. JAMA 1952; 149: 912–14.
Historical Review

102 Smiley RK, Cartwright GE, Wintrobe MM. Fatal aplastic anemia following chloramphenicol (chloromycin) administration. JAMA 1952; 149: 914–18.

103 Rheingold JJ, Spurling CL. Chloramphenicol and aplastic anemia. JAMA 1952; 149: 1301–04.

104 Burns LE, Hodgman JE, Cass AB. Fatal circulatory collapse in premature infants receiving chloramphenicol. N Engl J Med 1959; 261: 1138–21.

105 Sutherland JM. Fatal cardiovascular collapse of infants receiving large amounts of chloramphenicol. Am J Dis Child 1959; 97: 761–67.

106 Lambdin MA, Waddell WW Jr, Birdsong McL. Chloramphenicol toxicity in the premature infant. Pediatrics 1960; 25: 935–40.

107 Lischer H, Seligman SJ, Krammer A, Parmerle AH Jr. An outbreak of neonatal deaths among term infants associated with administration of chloramphenicol. J Pediatr 1961; 59: 21–34.

108 Dámaso D, Betalacaminas Il, Celermas: cefalosporinas y cefamacinas. In: Dámaso D, ed. Antibacterianos. Madrid: Marketing Pharm, 1990: 135–79.

109 McGill F, Heyderman RS, Michael DB, 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: 405–18.

110 van de Beek D, Cabellos C, Dzugova O, et al. ESCMID guideline: diagnosis and treatment of acute bacterial meningitis. Clin Microbiol Infect 2016; 22: S37–62.

111 van de Beek D, Brouwer MC, Thwaites GE, Tunkel AR. Advances in treatment of bacterial meningitis. Lancet 2012; 380: 1079–92.

112 Goldschneider I, Gotschlich EC, Artenstein MS. Human immunity to the meningococcus I: The role of humoral antibodies. J Exp Med 1969; 129: 1307–26.

113 Goldschneider I, Gotschlich EC, Artenstein MS. Human immunity to the meningococcus II: Development of immunity. J Exp Med 1969; 129: 1327–48.

114 Gotschlich EC, Liu TV, Artenstein MS. Human immunity to the meningococcus: III. Preparation and immunological properties of the group A, group B, and group C meningococcal polysaccharides. N Engl J Med 1970; 282: 417–20.

115 Gold R, Artenstein MS. Meningococcal infections: 2. Pneumoniae polyvalent meningococcal polysaccharide vaccine in children 1969–70. Bull World Health Organ 1971; 45: 279–82.

116 Devine LF, Pierce WE, Floyd TM, et al. Evaluation of group C meningococcal polysaccharide vaccines in marine recruits, San Diego, California. Am J Epidemiol 1970; 92: 25–32.

117 Taunay Ade E, Galvao PA, de Morais JS, Gotschlich EC, Feldman RA. Disease prevention by meningococcal serogroup C polysaccharide in preschool children: results after eleven months in Sao Paulo, Brazil. Pediatr Res 1974; 8: 155.

118 WHO. Grupo de estudio de la OMS sobre lucha contra la meningitis cerebrospinal. Lucha contra la meningitis cerebrospinalse (serie de informes técnicos numero 588). Geneva: World Health Organization, 1976.

119 Jamba G, Bytchenko B, Cervantes JL, Gotschlich EC, Dellicour S, Greenwood B. Systematic review: Impact of meningococcal vaccination on pharyngeal carriage of meningococci. Trop Med Int Health 2007; 12: 1409–21.

120 Jennings H. Further approaches for optimizing polysaccharide-protein conjugate vaccines for prevention of invasive bacterial disease. J Infect Dis 1992; 165 (suppl 1): S156–59.

121 McCarthy P, Shargay R, Moghadam LS. Meningococcal vaccines: current status and emerging strategies. Vaccines (Basel) 2018; 6: pii: E12.

122 Martin NG, Snape MD. A multicomponent serogroup B meningococcal vaccine is licensed for use in Europe: what do we know, and what are we yet to learn? Expert Rev Vaccines 2013; 12: 837–58.

123 Read RC, Baxter D, Chadwick DR, et al. Effect of a quadrivalent meningococcal ACWY glycoconjugate or a serogroup B meningococcal vaccine on meningococcal carriage: an observer-blind, phase 3 randomised clinical trial. Lancet 2014; 384: 2123–31.

124 Domingo P, Pomer V. Bacterial meningitis: the end of the beginning? Lancet Infect Dis 2016; 16: 271–72.

125 Taqi AM, Macfarlane JT, Morton R, Wali SS, Greenwood BM. Treatment of acute meningococcaemia with chemotherapy and immune plasma. J Infect 1980; 10: 145–49.

126 Saladin R, Baldwin G, Alpert G, et al. Effect of human immunoglobulin preparation for intravenous use in a rabbit model of meningococcal endotoxin-induced shock. Crit Care Med 1992; 20: 836–7.

127 Raff HV, Ambrosio DM, McIver J, et al. Preparation of human hyperimmune globulin to Haemophilus influenzae b, Streptococcus pneumoniae, and Neisseria meningitidis. Infect Immun 1984; 45: 248–54.

128 Raff HV, Deveraux D, Shuford W, Abbott-Brown D, Maloney C. Human monoclonal antibody with protective activity for Escherichia coli K1 and Neisseria meningitidis group B infections. J Infect Dis 1988; 157: 118–23.
147 Plested JS, Harris SL, Wright JC, et al. Highly conserved Neisseria meningitidis inner-core lipopolysaccharide epitope confers protection against experimental meningococcal bacteremia. J Infect Dis 2003; 187: 1223–34.

148 Casadevall A. Antibody-based therapies for emerging infectious diseases. Emerg Infect Dis 1996; 2: 200–08.

149 ECDC. Summary of the latest data on antibiotic resistance in the European Union 2015. Stockholm: European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control, 2016.

150 Beigel JH, Voell J, Kumar P, et al. Safety and tolerability of a novel, polyclonal human anti-MERS coronavirus antibody produced from transchromosomic cattle: a phase 1 randomised, double-blind, single-dose-escalation study. Lancet Infect Dis 2018; 18: 410–18.

151 Hey A. History and practice: antibodies in infectious diseases. Microbiol Spectr 2015; 3: AID-0026–2014.

152 Wilcox MH, Gerdling DN, Posten JR, et al. Bezlotoxumab for prevention of Clostridium difficile infection. N Engl J Med 2017; 376: 305–17.

153 Santayana G. The life of reason: the phases of human progress, volume 1. New York, NY: Charles Scribner’s Sons, 1905.

© 2019 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.