



Topical Review

Collection and Analyses of Cerebrospinal Fluid for Pediatric Translational Research



Saoirse Cameron, MA ^a, Carolina Gillio-Meina, PhD ^b, Adrianna Ranger, MD ^{a, c},
Karen Choong, MD ^d, Douglas D. Fraser, MD, PhD ^{a, b, c, e, f, *}

^a Pediatrics, Western University, London, Ontario, Canada

^b Children's Health Research Institute, London, Ontario, Canada

^c Clinical Neurological Sciences, Western University, London, Ontario, Canada

^d Pediatrics, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada

^e Physiology and Pharmacology, Western University, London, Ontario, Canada

^f Translational Research Centre, London, Ontario, Canada

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 13 February 2019

Accepted 27 May 2019

Available online 30 May 2019

Keywords:

Translational research

Pediatrics

Repository

Cerebrospinal fluid

Sample quality

ABSTRACT

Cerebrospinal fluid sample collection and analysis is imperative to better elucidate central nervous system injury and disease in children. Sample collection methods are varied and carry with them certain ethical and biologic considerations, complications, and contraindications. Establishing best practices for sample collection, processing, storage, and transport will ensure optimal sample quality. Cerebrospinal fluid samples can be affected by a number of factors including subject age, sampling method, sampling location, volume extracted, fraction, blood contamination, storage methods, and freeze-thaw cycles. Indicators of sample quality can be assessed by matrix-associated laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry and include cystatin C fragments, oxidized proteins, prostaglandin D synthase, and evidence of blood contamination. Precise documentation of sample collection processes and the establishment of meticulous handling procedures are essential for the creation of clinically relevant biospecimen repositories. In this review we discuss the ethical considerations and best practices for cerebrospinal fluid collection, as well as the influence of preanalytical factors on cerebrospinal fluid analyses. Cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers in highly researched pediatric diseases or disorders are discussed.

© 2019 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Introduction

Translational research is a multidimensional concept that implements new research findings from bench to bedside.¹ Bio-banking of biologic samples is a fundamental component of translational research. A bio-bank is not only a tool for the storage of biologic samples for future research but also a means for collectively distributing conserved, documented, and

methodically handled quality samples for translational research.^{2–4} Bio-banks should contain clinically relevant data and allow researchers to access biologic samples, including cerebrospinal fluid (CSF).

Tissue sampling and bio-banking are critical for pediatric health studies,^{3,5–7} and thus, we review CSF collection, processing, storage, and shipping. We also include examples of CSF analyses, including their clinical implications. Preanalytical factors (i.e., sample collection, handling, storage, and transport) and protocol variability can account for 46% to 68.2% of all laboratory errors⁸ and more than 60% to 90% of diagnostic errors.⁹ Specifically, the measurement of biomarkers can vary as much as 20% to 36%.^{10–12} Unreliable sample analysis as a direct result of preanalytical errors and protocol variability can have a negative impact on patient care.⁸ As such, it is imperative that comprehensive and universally accepted protocols be mandated.¹² We present practices for CSF handling so as to maintain high-integrity samples.

Funding: C.G.-M. and D.D.F. are supported by the Children's Health Foundation (<http://www.childhealth.ca>, London, Ontario) and the Lawson Health Research Institute (<http://www.lawsonresearch.com>, London, Ontario).

Conflicts of interest: The authors have no conflicts of interest.

* Communications should be addressed to: Dr. Fraser; Paediatric Critical Care Medicine; Children's Hospital; London Health Sciences Centre; Room C2-843; 800 Commissioners Road East, London, Ontario N6A 5W9, Canada.

E-mail address: douglas.fraser@lhsc.on.ca (D.D. Fraser).

Cerebrospinal fluid

CSF is an important diagnostic substrate that can provide health care professionals with essential information regarding the current pathology of the brain, spinal cord, and meninges, making its analysis a critical component of clinical practice.^{13–18} CSF is typically a clear and colorless fluid that consists of components derived from both the blood and the central nervous system (CNS).^{15,16,18–21} The volume of CSF is approximately 40 mL in the term neonate and ranges between 65 and 140 mL for children aged four to 13 years.²¹ CSF is separated from the blood by two barriers, the blood-brain barrier and the blood-CSF barrier.^{13,18,19,22,23} Up to 75% of CSF is formed in the choroid plexus of the ventricles.^{21,24–26} Reabsorption of CSF into the venous system occurs through bulk flow by the arachnoid villi in older children and adults^{15,19,21,22,25–28} and absorption through the nasal lymphatics in young children as the arachnoid absorption system becomes fully functional only after age 18 months.^{24,28} Absorption also occurs at cranial and spinal nerve sheaths, at the cribriform plate, and at the adventitia of cerebral arteries and CNS capillaries.^{24,29} CSF consists of proteins (approximately 20% brain derived^{16,18,26,30}), amino acids, electrolytes, inorganic salts, sugars, catecholamines, steroids, antibacterial factors, metabolic by-products, and organic acids.^{21,23,27,31}

Ethical considerations

In general, it is not appropriate to conduct research in children that exceeds minimal risk unless it will directly benefit the child or, if no direct benefit is expected, it will provide knowledge that is essential for understanding the condition or disease from which the

child suffers.³² Minimal risk in a vulnerable population, such as children, includes considerations of pain, distress, and psychological harm including anxiety or guilt.³² Collection of CSF in live patients is invasive and is therefore considered above minimal risk.³² Means of decreasing potential harms associated with CSF collection include minimizing the number of sample collections, conducting sample collection concurrently during other diagnostic or treatment procedures, coordinating research sample collections at the time of clinically mandated sample collection, and implementing methods to decrease anxiety surrounding the procedure.^{32,33} Regardless of the approach, it is essential that collection, processing, and analytic methods are consistent to ensure high-quality samples that are optimized for both clinical and research purposes.

Guidelines^{34–37} stipulate ethical conduct for research and include sections on vulnerable populations such as children. Ethical considerations regarding CSF collection in children are very similar to those related to the collection of other types of specimens. Please see previous reviews by our group for detailed discussion on ethical considerations for sample collection in children.^{3,6,7}

CSF collection methods

CSF can be obtained by lumbar puncture (LP), via a ventriculoperitoneal shunt (VPS), via an external ventricular drain (EVD), intraoperatively, or through postmortem collection. Regardless of the means of collection, detailed documentation regarding sampling and processing must occur to ensure generalizability and reliability (Tables 1–3). Determination as to the appropriateness of a particular method requires consideration of potential complications and contraindications (Table 4).

TABLE 1.
Cerebrospinal Fluid Collection: *In Vivo* Factors

Factor	Rationale	Recommendation
Timing of CSF sample collection ^{17,23,38–40}	Biomarkers affected by circadian rhythm will be expressed differently throughout the day	Record time of day of sampling. Strive to collect samples at same time of day
Fasting ^{38–41}	No data to indicate that fasting has an effect on biomarker levels except in GLUT1 deficiency	In the case of novel biomarker studies fasting status should be recorded to evaluate any influence on biomarker levels Specifically for GLUT1 lumbar puncture should be performed after 4–6 hours of fasting
Age ^{14,15,17,31,42–45}	Protein concentrations are higher in newborns and older adults, lowest in children, increasing again in adolescence and adulthood. Biomarker levels (e.g., total tau, glial fibrillary acidic protein, neurofilament light, albumin, and immunoglobulin G) correlate with age. Age-related pediatric reference values for total bipterins, BH2, BH4, and NEO. There are 30 proteins with >20% change in concentration between older and younger children	Use age-matched reference populations
Patient activity level ⁴⁶	Higher CSF protein concentrations in patients when lying down compared with sitting. Influence of thoracoabdominal pressure	Record levels of patient activity prior to sample collection
Patient history ^{23,41}	Alcohol and cigarettes can alter concentrations of homovanillic acid and serotonin, possible markers of neurodegenerative disorders. Some medications can alter CSF proteins (e.g., drugs used for treatments, such as immunomodulatory agents and methylprednisolone, influence biomarker expression)	Take a detailed patient history including extracurricular and prescription medication usage that includes types of medication and duration of use for at least one year preceding sample collection. If CSF glucose is under investigation obtain a blood glucose value before lumbar puncture to evaluate stress-related hyperglycemia
Gender ¹⁷ Ethnicity ¹⁷	Hormonal influence on biomarkers Biomarkers can be influenced by genetic status (i.e., higher IgG concentrations in African Americans than Caucasians)	Gender-matched reference populations Reference populations for ethnical subgroups

Abbreviations:

CSF = Cerebrospinal fluid

GLUT1 = Glucose transport protein type 1

TABLE 2.
Cerebrospinal Fluid Collection: Preanalytic Factors

Factor	Rationale	Recommendation
Anatomic location of sampling ^{14-17,23,30,31,38,42,47-51}	Brain and blood protein concentrations in CSF vary based on location due to rostral-caudal protein concentration gradient (e.g., 2.5 times higher protein concentration in LP samples than in ventricular samples)	Comparisons should be made only between samples collected in the same manner. Reference populations must be identified with similar characteristics (i.e., reference samples for patients with TBI may include intraoperative, EVD, or VPS collection from hydrocephalic patients or patients with an unruptured SAH)
Volume and fraction of CSF collected ^{14-18,23,25,30,38,42,47,49,50,52}	Influence of rostral-caudal concentration gradient. Collection of a proportion of volume based on age or patient size may alter biomarker data as samples collected from smaller patients are more likely to draw CSF from a more rostral location Insufficient volume of CSF leads to false-negatives	Record total volume and fraction(s) sent for bio-banking. Collect a standard sample volume. If numerous fractions collected either utilize the same fraction for biomarker analysis or combine all samples and divide into aliquots before analysis Ensure adequate volume for analysis is collected. In adults, false-negative rates decrease from 32% to 3% as sample volume increases from 2.5 cc to 10 cc
Intermittent versus continuous sampling (EVD) ^{48,53}	Concentration of biomarkers increased twofold and total volume of CSF drained decreased by half when CSF intermittently drained	Record the manner of drainage utilized
Number of RBCs in sample ^{16,17,20,23,26,38,43,47,48,51,54-57}	Indicator of sample contamination. Contaminated samples that are not centrifuged rapidly after sample collection must not be utilized	Record the number of RBCs in sample. Record time to centrifugation. Cool immediately upon collection. Utilize tools to identify presence of hemoglobin chains, an indicator of blood contamination (i.e., MALDI-TOF-MS)
Type of sampling tube ^{16,17,23,38,39,47,48,51,58-63}	The type of tube material can influence protein binding. Polypropylene tubes are the recommended tube for sampling and storage	Record the product manufacturer
Time between sampling and storage ^{14,17,20,38,48,55,56,64,65}	Time delay is highly variable due to the inconsistency in procedures at different sites. Time delays can result in deleterious effects due to sample contamination and protein degradation	Minimize time delays for transport to laboratory. Immediately store sample on ice and transport while cooled
Freeze-thaw cycles ^{16,17,38,48,57,60}	Freeze-thaw cycles lead to protein denaturation.	Avoid freeze-thaw cycles. Store many samples at lesser volumes. Record biomarker levels reflective of sample quality
Collection of comparative blood samples ^{17,39,47}	Important to compare levels of blood-derived proteins to identify blood-brain barrier dysfunction. Important for determination of intrathecal origin of biomarker	Collect matched serum or plasma at the time of CSF sampling. Collect in vacuum tubes using EDTA in dried format
Use of additives ^{16,17,38,48,56,57}	Additives such as protease and phosphatase inhibitors may result in artifacts during protein identification and quantification	The use of additives is not recommended unless for specific research purposes
Analysis and interpretation of data from CSF samples ⁶⁶	WBC values are often presented in terms of means, standard deviation, and range. The frequency distributions for WBC from CSF samples are sometimes markedly skewed when these are used. Owing to this, sometimes is difficult to use the information to determine the probability that a particular sample is abnormal	The cell count, and other determinations from CSF, should be evaluated within clinical context of the individual case to avoid false interpretation. Percentiles should be constructed for each group to determine how many normal patients have less than a particular number of cells in their CSF

Abbreviations:

CSF = Cerebrospinal fluid

EDTA = Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid

EVD = External ventricular drain

LP = Lumbar puncture

MALDI-TOF-MS = Matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization-time-of-flight mass spectrometry

RBC = Red blood cell

TBI = Traumatic brain injury

SAH = Subarachnoid hemorrhage

VPS = Ventriculoperitoneal shunt

WBC = White blood cells

TABLE 3.
Cerebrospinal Fluid Collection: Postmortem Factors

Factor	Rationale	Recommendation
Timing of sample collection relative to postmortem interval ^{7,67,68}	Cell counts, protein concentration, and other components increase with increasing postmortem interval. Low postmortem interval associated with higher-quality tissue	Record time of sample collection. Collect samples within hours after death. To prevent delay obtain consent for sample procurement in advance
Body storage temperature ⁶⁷	More striking increases in cell and protein counts are discernible in bodies stored at room temperature	Record the temperature at which the body is stored and for how long
Postcollection sample temperature ⁷	Maintaining the integrity of biochemical molecules	Snap freeze and store at -80°C
Agonal factors (including coma, pyrexia, hypoxia, multiple organ failure, prolonged death, seizures, dehydration, hypoglycemia, respiratory arrest) ⁷	Alteration of gene expression for proteins, proteolytic activities, and ribonucleic acid quality	Record type of and duration of agonal factors

TABLE 4.
Potential Complications and Contraindications of Cerebrospinal Fluid Collection Methods

CSF Sampling Method	Potential Complications	Contraindications
LP ^{13,27,31,47,54,69-72}	Epidural and subdural hematoma Cortical blindness Cervical spinal cord infarction with respiratory arrest and flaccid tetraplegia Cranial nerve palsy Meningitis Post-LP headache Lower back pain Bleeding at the puncture site Cauda equina syndrome Herniation of the brain	Presence of a VPS Cardiorespiratory compromise Increased ICP Infection present in area where needle must pass through Lack of mature connective tissue in epidural space Bleeding diathesis Thrombocytopenia Anatomic spinal cord abnormalities Previous surgery at LP site
VPS ^{24,70,73,74}	Bleeding at puncture site CSF leakage Damage to valve Introduction of infection Overdrainage Obstruction Mechanical failure Loculation of ventricles Abdominal complications (ascites, abdominal pseudocyst, perforation) Tinnitus (at high altitudes)	Lack of sampling reservoir
EVD ⁷⁵⁻⁷⁸	Infection Misplacement Hemorrhage Ventriculitis Malfunction Obstruction Renal failure due to severe dehydration	Coagulopathy Unrepaired ruptured cerebral aneurysm (relative contraindication)
Intraoperative ⁷⁹⁻⁸¹	CSF rhinorrhea CSF leak CSF accumulation in extra-axial space	

Abbreviations:

CSF = Cerebrospinal fluid
EVD = External ventricular drain
ICP = Intracranial pressure
LP = Lumbar puncture
VPS = Ventriculoperitoneal shunt

Lumbar puncture

Most often CSF is collected by LP at the L3-S1 level.^{13,16,17,25,46,47,54,82} As the spinal cord terminates at the L2-L3 level in children, sampling at or below the L3 level should prevent damage to the spinal cord.²⁵ Use of an atraumatic needle (i.e., Sprotte or Whitacre) with the bevel placed parallel to the spine is better tolerated by patients and results in fewer postprocedural headaches.^{17,47,48,69,82,83} The type of needle does not alter biomarker levels.¹⁷ A maximum of 5 mL CSF is to be collected from pediatric patients.^{55,82} The CSF should be drawn with a polypropylene syringe or alternatively allowed to flow under gravity and collected into sterile polypropylene tubes.^{17,47,48,55}

An important consideration when obtaining CSF via LP is the rostrocaudal concentration gradient that exists for total protein, metabolites, and cell counts due to diffusion of plasma constituents into the CSF.^{14-17,23,30,42,49-51} As a result the concentration of plasma-derived proteins may be as much as 2.5 times higher in the lumbar sac than in the ventricular fluid,^{15,23} whereas the concentration of many brain-derived proteins is consistent throughout the CSF pathway or decreased in the lumbar region (i.e., tau protein).^{23,30,51} As such, the CSF volume, portion of CSF, and other factors (Table 2) utilized for analysis may influence the concentration of biomarkers and diagnostic results.^{14-18,23,30,42,49,50}

Inaccurate results may be observed if volumes differ significantly between samples.

Ventriculoperitoneal shunt

A VPS diverts CSF when the intrinsic pathway is insufficient. CSF can be collected from the VPS reservoir by a VPS tap. This procedure has potential complications (see Table 4) and requires consultation with a neurosurgeon.⁷⁰ Research comparing CSF data from an LP versus a VPS has indicated that CSF obtained by LP is a more sensitive detector of CNS tumor cells.^{84,85} Use of VPS fluid may be indicated when CSF flow is obstructed.⁸⁴

External ventricular drain

An EVD is a catheter that is inserted into the ventricular system and allows for intracranial pressure monitoring and drainage of CSF.⁷⁵ When an EVD is in place, CSF is to be drawn from the ventriculostomy catheter.⁴⁸ There are two types of drainage methods, continuous and intermittent.^{48,53} CSF that is drained continuously results in the removal of a greater volume of CSF, lower CSF traumatic brain injury biomarker concentrations, and lower mean intracranial pressure.⁵³ It is hypothesized that the volume drained by way of continuous drainage is greater because CSF has a

tendency to drain through the open ventriculostomy catheter as opposed to internal methods.⁵³ Although there is inadequate data to describe the mechanism of diluted CSF, it is likely associated with the rate of production or reabsorption of the CSF, the proteins, or a combination of the two.⁵³ Regardless, it is imperative that the drainage method be recorded at the time of CSF sampling to account for possible discrepancies.^{48,53}

Intraoperative collection

CSF samples collected intraoperatively are commonly studied in pediatric patients with posterior fossa brain tumors. Specifically, CSF collected from the cisterna magna intraoperatively, as opposed to other collection methods, reduces variability due to the site of sampling, provides more reliable data due to the proximity of the sampling to the tumor site, and also decreases the likelihood of false-positive LP findings because of mechanical disruption of the tumor.⁵² Furthermore, intraoperative CSF sampling may negate the need for additional CSF collection by LP, which is an invasive secondary procedure that may result in a number of potential complications (Table 4).⁵²

Postmortem collection

Postmortem CSF is easily collected from the cisterna magna by suboccipital puncture during autopsy procedures.^{86,87} Postmortem analyses are commonly undertaken for the determination of blood glucose concentration before death⁸⁸ and for research into sudden infant death syndrome.⁸⁷ It is important to refrain from comparisons between living controls and samples collected at postmortem as metabolite levels in autopsy controls have been found to be threefold higher than in living controls.⁸⁹ Postmortem samples must be collected, processed expeditiously, and have sample collection factors (Table 3) meticulously documented as the concentration of many CSF compounds are altered with an increasing postmortem interval.^{67,68,90}

CSF processing

The role of preanalytic factors

Preanalytic factors (Table 2) can influence hemolysis and lead to changes in the proteome.^{8,9,20,38,56,57} Changes in the proteome have been observed as early as 30 minutes in uncentrifuged CSF samples left at room temperature.⁵⁷ CSF should only be collected in polypropylene tubes, and polystyrene and glass tubes should be avoided.^{16,17,23,38,39,47,48,51,55,58–61} Typically, additives, such as protease and phosphatase inhibitors, are not recommended unless specified for research purposes.^{16,17,48} An additive that may be considered for cellular stability is TransFix. Originally developed to stabilize whole blood for extended processing periods, TransFix has a longer shelf life and is more readily available than other cellular stabilizers.⁵⁸ When combined with ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), an aminopolycarboxylic acid that chelates divalent cations, TransFix helps to stabilize CSF for greater than 18 hours and may be useful for delayed analysis and shipping.⁵⁸ The addition of dithioerythritol and diethylenetriamine pentaacetic acid, an expanded version of ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, followed by immediate storage of samples at -70°C has been used to prevent oxidation of highly unstable metabolites in the pterin biosynthetic pathway.⁴² These antioxidants help to stabilize samples for at least six months at -70°C and up to two hours at room temperature.⁴²

Serum-containing medium also prevents cellular degradation in CSF for at least five hours after collection, and although its effects are not as long-lasting as those of TransFix, it may be useful for situations wherein delayed processing is not preventable.^{58,64} After collection CSF samples should be immediately placed on ice and rapidly transported to the laboratory for processing.^{14,17,20,38,48,56,62,65} Regardless of the type of future analysis, storage procedures for all CSF samples must be initiated expeditiously, ideally within 30 minutes and absolutely no greater than one to two hours after collection to diminish the incidence of hemolysis and protein degradation.^{14,17,48,56,62,65}

CSF preparation and storage

Centrifugation variables (i.e., time, force, and temperature) will impact the degree of cellular separation in fluid samples.⁴ The recommended force at which to centrifuge a CSF sample ranges from $250 \times g$ to as high as $5000 \times g$ for between five and 15 minutes^{16,17,20,39,47,48,53,56,57,61–63,91}; however, the ideal spinning condition based on consensus recommendations is to spin at $2000 \times g$ for 10 minutes, preferably cooled, or 400 to $450 \times g$ when cells are to be preserved for analysis.^{17,47,64} Following centrifugation the supernatant is separated into small aliquots, to prevent unnecessary freezing and thawing, and stored in chilled polypropylene tubes with a preferred minimum volume of 1 mL but no more than 75% of the maximum volume so as to prevent freeze-drying.^{17,47,62}

The stability of biomarkers varies at different storage temperatures. Oligoclonal immunoglobulin G bands, an important biomarker for multiple sclerosis and other neuroinflammatory diseases, remain stable for years at -20°C . In contrast, the protein cystatin C and concentrations of excitatory amino acids are compromised at -20°C , which may be misinterpreted as part of an underlying biologic process.^{36,37} Freezing slows protein degradation, indicating that CSF should be immediately frozen following centrifugation and stored between -70°C ^{42,55} and -80°C .^{13,16,17,34,36–38,47,48,55–57,60,92–94} Snap-freezing by way of liquid nitrogen has been recommended before storage at -80°C .^{42,48,57} Regardless of the freezing method chosen, the aliquoted samples must be labeled with water- and frost-resistant labels.¹⁷ Bar-coded cryovials are excellent alternatives, albeit more expensive.^{3,17}

Freeze-thaw cycles have been found to lead to protein denaturation, negatively influencing biomarker concentrations, and should be avoided when possible.^{16,17,48,57,60} For example, concentrations of amyloid- β decrease following a one-time freezing and decrease a further 20% after three more thawing cycles.⁶⁰ Storing many samples of lesser volume is recommended to help reduce freeze-thaw cycles.^{17,57}

Thawed CSF samples should be shaken and re-centrifuged to ensure that potential biomarkers within the sample are homogeneously distributed.^{48,95} Thawing should occur slowly on wet ice; however, rapid thawing is a suitable practice as long as the temperature does not exceed 40°C and does not occur for longer than 10 minutes so as to avoid unacceptable levels of evaporation.^{48,95} Measures of sample quality assurance have been developed and include matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization-time-of-flight (MALDI-TOF) mass spectrometry and surface-enhanced laser desorption/ionization-time-of-flight mass spectrometry, which are able to detect blood contamination and are indicators of less-than-ideal storage conditions (i.e., cystatin C fragments and oxidized proteins such as human transthyretin).³⁸ Research with porcine CSF has demonstrated that prostaglandin D-synthase is strongly influenced by storage procedures and may also be a useful tool for determining sample quality.⁵⁷

TABLE 5.
Normative Findings From Pediatric Cerebrospinal Fluid^{21,27,43,96,97}

Age	WBC × 10 ⁹ /L Mean (Range)	RBC × 10 ¹² /L Mean (Range)	Glucose (mmol/L) Mean (Range)	Protein (mmol/L) Mean (Range)
Premature infants	0.0051–0.009 (0.0003–0.028)	-	2.8–3.7 (1.3–10.8)	1.0121.15 (0.27–2.6)
Term newborn	0.0082 (0–0.022)	-	2.9 (1.9–6.6)	0.9 (0.2–1.7)
0–4 weeks	0.0045–0.011 (0–0.035)	0.0000955 (0–0.0000236)	2.5–3.7 (1.7–9.9)	0.754–0.84 (0.1581.89)
4–8 weeks	0.0031–0.0071 (0–0.025)	0.0000755 (0–0.0000645)	2.6–2.7 (1.6–3.6)	0.589–0.59 (0.055–1.21)
>8 weeks	0.0023–0.003 (0–0.005)	0.0000312 (0–0.000030)	3.2–3.4 (1.9–3.9)	0.28–0.392 (0.07–0.71)

Abbreviations:

RBC = Red blood cells

WBC = White blood cells

(-), No values found.

CSF shipping

The shipping of CSF samples should be initiated early in the week to avoid any delays due to weekend transfers.⁴⁷ Transportation must occur on dry ice and with a sufficient amount of dry ice to account for unforeseen delays.^{34,55} When transportation over great distance is required, samples can be lyophilized before shipment and then later reconstituted by the addition of deionized water to the original volume.^{34,94}

CSF analysis

Once collected and processed a number of techniques are implemented to analyze the CSF. Protein separation occurs concurrently or before the identification and quantification of possible predictive biomarkers.³¹ Fractionation may be essential for the detection of new diagnostic biomarkers. To remove the most abundant CSF proteins and allow for the detection of less abundant and low-molecular-weight proteins and peptides, one can use either molecular weight cutoff filters with a cutoff above a predetermined threshold or antibody-based depletion columns. Alternative methods of protein separation include chromatography and electrophoresis; however, these separation methods may result in sample dilution.¹⁸ Two-dimensional gel electrophoresis was previously the gold standard; however, this method is being replaced with gel-free separation methods including liquid chromatography, high-performance liquid chromatography, and capillary electrophoresis.³¹

Particularly useful for the analysis of low-molecular-mass peptides and proteins are mass spectrometry techniques including MALDI-TOF, surface-enhanced laser desorption/ionization-time-of-flight mass spectrometry, as well as electrospray and Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance.³¹ MALDI-TOF in particular has been highlighted because of its fast and accurate processing capacity, relatively low cost, ability to analyze low-mass proteins and peptides, automation, and low sample volume (10 µL) requirement.³⁸ Liquid chromatography with electrochemical and fluorescence detectors is utilized for the analysis of serotonin and catecholamine metabolites.⁴⁹

Clinical analysis

Cellular identification

Clinical analysis of CSF samples is typically utilized for diagnostic purposes, but the analyses also provide basic information on sample quality and ongoing pathologic processes, which is imperative to supplement research questions. Total red blood cell and white blood cell (WBC) counts require one drop of unspun CSF, and deviation from the normative count can indicate a number of disease states (see Tables 5 and 6).^{21,25–27} A Wright-stained smear can

be done to differentiate WBCs.²¹ CSF pleocytosis, defined as more than 5×10^6 leukocytes/L, is indicative of a possible infection or inflammatory process.⁶⁴ Leukocyte degradation of 15% to 62% can occur in the first two hours after CSF collection resulting in incorrect normocellular diagnosis secondary to delayed processing.⁶⁴ To improve the reliability and validity of cellular counting flow cytometry is recommended.⁶⁴ Furthermore, flow cytometry allows for the differentiation of leukocytes by way of immunophenotyping.⁶⁴ Defining the type of cell present in CSF samples provides more information than simply identifying the number of cells.¹⁰⁸ For example, children with noninflammatory diseases have a greater number of T lymphocytes and very low numbers of B lymphocytes, whereas increased levels of B lymphocytes is indicative of humoral or autoantibody-mediated processes.¹⁰⁸

Diagnostic testing

Glucose, lactate, and protein concentrations are also evaluated compared with normative values to determine possible infectious processes (see Tables 5 and 6).^{21,25–27} Tests for the detection of bacterial and viral antigens may include latex agglutination and DNA amplification (i.e., polymerase chain reaction).^{21,25,43} Gram staining is a simple, inexpensive, rapid, and accurate (sensitivity = 97.5%, specificity = 94.1%) method utilized to determine the presence of infection and to identify microorganisms.^{109,110} Ziehl-Neelsen staining is utilized for the detection of acid-fast bacteria such as *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*.¹¹¹ Ziehl-Neelsen staining is an inexpensive, rapid test with a high positive predictive value; however, it requires large sample volumes and has a low detection rate.¹¹² Conventional Ziehl-Neelsen staining has a sensitivity of 22.9% and a specificity of 100%, whereas a modified Ziehl-Neelsen staining technique, which requires less sample volume, demonstrates sensitivity and specificity of 100%.¹¹²

Blood contamination

A significant confounder of CSF collection is blood contamination.^{13,17,23,38,48,51} A CSF sample is considered contaminated if there are 10 to 500 erythrocytes/µL or greater.^{16,17,20,23,43,47,48} Additional indicators of contamination include components that are not typically present in CSF, specifically the presence of hemoglobin chains,^{23,93} particularly at a level of greater than 30 pg/mL,⁴⁸ and apolipoprotein B-100.^{15,23,93} Blood contamination of CSF may have detrimental effects on the CSF sample and subsequent biomarker analysis, as both serum and plasma contain as great as 400 times the concentration of proteins compared with CSF,^{13,16,17,20,23,31,48,56,113} and as a result CSF protein concentration increases approximately 1.1 to 2 mg/dL for every 1000 cells/mm³ increase in red blood cells.^{113,114} Thus blood contamination can lead to some false-positive CSF biomarker measurements.^{17,23,38} CSF protein can also be degraded by proteases that are localized in the

TABLE 6.
Cerebrospinal Fluid Parameters for Neurological Diseases

Neurological Disease	Total Protein (g/L)	Glucose Ratio	Lactate (mmol/L)	Cell Count ($\times 10^6/L$)	Typical Cytology	Culture	CSF Color	Opening Pressure (mm H ₂ O)
Normal values ^{1,2,14,98}	<0.4-0.45	>0.4-0.6 60% of serum glucose level	<1.0-2.9	<15	No neutrophils; <6 lymphocytes ($\times 10^6/L$); No RBC	Negative	Clear Colorless	100-200
Acute bacterial meningitis ^{1-5,14,98}	WNL/ increased	WNL/decreased	Increased	>1000	Predominant neutrophils	Positive	Cloudy	>200
Viral meningitis ^{2,4,5,8,11,14}	WNL/ increased	WNL/decreased	WNL	10-1000	Early: neutrophils increased Late: lymphocytes increased	Negative	Clear to cloudy	WNL/ increased
Fungal meningitis ^{1,2,5}	Increased	NA	NA	10-500	Predominant lymphocytes	Positive	Clear to cloudy	Increased
Tuberculosis ^{1,2,4,5}	WNL/ increased	WNL/decreased	NA	50-1000	Early: neutrophils increased Late: lymphocytes increased	Positive for acid-fast bacilli	Cloudy	Variable
Autoimmune polyneuropathy ¹⁴	Increased	WNL	WNL	WNL	NA	NA	Clear to cloudy	WNL
Infections polyneuropathy ⁹⁹	Increased	WNL	WNL	Increased	Lymphocytes normal or increased	NA	Clear to cloudy	WNL/ increased
Subarachnoid hemorrhage ^{2,6,100}	Increased	WNL	WNL	Increased	Erythrocytes, macrophages, siderophages	NA	Bloody with xanthochromia	>200
Multiple sclerosis ¹⁰⁰	WNL/mild increase	WNL	WNL	WNL/ increased	Lymphocytes normal or increased	NA	Clear	WNL
Leptomeningeal metastases ¹⁰¹	Increased	WNL/increased	NA	WNL/ increased	Malignant cells, mononuclears	NA	Bloody with xanthochromia	Increased
Leukemia ⁶	Decreased	NA	NA	Increased	Blasts comprising >40% of total cells	NA	NA	NA ¹⁰²⁻¹⁰⁷

Abbreviations:

CSF = Cerebrospinal fluid

NA = Not applicable

WNL = Within normal limits

TABLE 7.
Cerebrospinal Fluid Biomarkers of Pediatric Diseases

Disease	Biomarker	Notes
<i>Inflammatory CNS diseases</i>	ROS ^{*,128}	Elevated; contribute to neuroinflammation and disease progression, may indicate severe and rapidly progressive disease or disorder. Antioxidant therapy may decrease incidence of neurological sequelae Elevated in demyelinating disorders
	Anti-myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein antibodies ¹⁰⁸	
	T-tau ^{*,124}	Elevated
	GFAP ^{*,124}	Elevated
	NFL ^{*,124}	Elevated
	CXCL-13 ^{*,129}	Elevated in demyelinating disorders
<i>Multiple sclerosis</i>	Intrathecal OCB ^{*,108,125}	Elevated
	IgG ^{*,130,131}	Elevated
	Human TTR ³⁸	Role of TTR oxidation/oxidative stress
	Secretogranin III ¹²²	Upregulated at disease onset, indicative of acute inflammation. Downregulated as disease progresses causing axonal loss and degeneration
<i>Optic neuritis</i>	OCB ¹⁰⁸	Presence of OCB is a predictor of disease progression to multiple sclerosis
<i>Lymphocytic hypophysitis</i>	Total protein concentration ^{*,132}	Elevated
<i>Late-onset hydrocephalus</i>	Total protein concentration ^{*,34}	Elevated; likely due to an infectious mechanism, typically meningitis
<i>Aicardi-Goutieres syndrome</i>	IFN- α ¹⁰⁸	Elevated
	Neopterin ¹⁰⁸	Elevated
	CSF pleocytosis ¹⁰⁸	Present
<i>Neuropsychiatric systemic lupus erythematosus</i>	OCBs ¹⁰⁸	Elevated
<i>Neuromyelitis optica</i>	NMO-IgG binding ¹⁰⁸	Occurs in 47% of children and is very specific to NMO. Positively correlated with length of spinal cord lesions, ¹³³ associated with relapse ¹³⁴ and disease progression ¹³⁵
	Anti-AQP4 antibody ¹³⁶	Elevated. Related to anti-AQP4 astrocytic damage. Associated with severity of NMO and with length of spinal cord lesions
	GFAP ¹³⁷	Elevated. Related to anti-AQP4 astrocytic damage. Associated with severity of NMO and with length of spinal cord lesions
	S100 calcium-binding protein B (S100 B) ¹³⁷	Elevated
<i>Encephalitides</i>	T-tau, NFL, GFAP, and albumin ^{*,124}	Combination of these four biomarkers differentiates between progressive and static encephalopathy
	OCBs ¹⁰⁸	Elevated
<i>TBI</i>	NSE ^{*,51,53,138-143}	Elevated. Marker of cellular injury, indicator of severity. No pediatric limitations. Correlated with GOS at 6 months. Higher levels in children with unfavorable outcome

(continued on next page)

TABLE 7. (continued)

Disease	Biomarker	Notes
	S100B ^{*22,53,138-140,144}	Elevated. Marker of cellular injury, indicator of severity and indicator of survival time in fatal head injuries. Effective diagnostic marker of hemorrhagic transformation and vasospasm. Not appropriate in children less than two years old due to high normative values. Correlated with PCPC at discharge and 6 months (serum only) and GOS at 6 months
	Heme oxygenase 1(HO-1) ^{*,145}	Elevated; associated with severity of injury and neurological outcome
	IL-1 β ^{*140,146}	Elevated; correlated with GOS at 6 months Higher IL-1 β CSF/serum ratio associated with an increased risk for development of post-traumatic epilepsy following TBI
	IL-4 ^{*,147}	Increase associated with AHT
	IL-6 ^{*53,99,100,115,140,147}	Elevated, proinflammatory cytokine, role in regenerative process. Correlated with GOS at 6 months through the first year
	IL-8 ^{*99,140,148}	Elevated, proinflammatory chemokine, neutrophil chemotactic and activating activity. Associated with in-hospital mortality
	IL-10 ^{*99,115}	Elevated, anti-inflammatory cytokine, associated with age and mortality
	IL-12 ^{*99,147}	Elevated; proinflammatory cytokine, associated with AHT
	MIP-1 α ^{*,99}	Elevated
	VEGF ^{*53,149}	Elevated, angiogenic cascade initiation
	GFAP ^{*55,138,140}	Elevated, indicator of CNS injury (serum levels correlated with PCPC and GOS at 6 months)
	NGF ^{*,140}	Elevated; correlated with GOS at discharge and 6 months
	Beclin 1 ^{*,143}	Elevated
	Sequestosome 1 (or p62) ^{*,143}	Elevated; correlated with unfavorable outcome at 6 months
	B-cell lymphoma 2 protein ^{*,150}	Elevated; antiapoptotic protein increased in TBI survivors
	mtDNA ^{*,151}	Elevated; correlated with neurological outcome
	Mitochondrial heat shock protein 60 (hsp60) ^{*,101}	Elevated; indicator of severity of injury (GCS at admissions)
	HMGB-1 ^{*140,152}	Elevated; correlated with GOS at 6 months
	Cytochrome c ^{*140,152,153}	Elevated; proapoptotic protein correlated with GOS at 6 months. Potential biomarker of AHT
	QUIN ^{*154,155}	Elevated; higher levels in AHT, associated with mortality
	DCX ^{*,140}	Elevated; correlated with GOS at 6 months
	ET-1 ^{*140,156}	Elevated; vasoconstrictor associated with hypoperfusion following TBI. Correlated with GOS at 6 months
	α -Syn ^{*140,157}	Elevated; initial early increase followed by a delayed secondary increase. Associated with AHT, younger age, and gender
	F(2)-isoprostane ^{*141,158}	Elevated; marker of oxidative stress
	Ascorbate ^{*,158}	Decreased; attributable to free radical oxidation
	Adenosine concentration ^{*,159}	Elevated; neuroprotective, time and severity dependent
	Glutamate concentration ^{*,160}	Elevated; highest concentrations often found in abuse victims. Likely a result of hypoxic-ischemic insult. Associated with a rise in adenosine levels
	MBP ^{*138,161}	Elevated; marker of axonal damage; prolonged increase of several days following TBI
	Sulfonylurea receptor-1 ^{*,162}	Elevated; correlated with CT edema, decreasing trend between 48 and 72 hours associated with improved cerebral edema and outcome
Status epilepticus	T-tau ^{*51,124,163,164}	Elevated, indicates cortical axonal engagement. Highest concentration when patients in status epilepticus. Potential indicator of severity and prognosis in adults
	Ubiquitin carboxy-terminal hydrolase-L1 ¹⁶⁵	Elevated following recurrent epileptic seizures in adults
	GFAP ^{*51,124,166}	Elevated, indicates astrocytic injury. Primarily observed in prolonged seizures or patients in status epilepticus
	NSE ^{*51,167,168}	Elevated (specifically observed in medically refractory status epilepticus not cryptogenic or idiopathic or febrile seizures), marker of neuronal damage
	5-HIAA and HVA ^{*,169}	There is not a clear correlation between 5-HIAA and HVA and status epilepticus. Some reports have shown that they can be elevated, whereas others show decrease or no changes
Subarachnoid hemorrhage	Total protein concentration ²⁵	Elevated
	Oxyhemoglobin ^{20,25,119}	Elevated. Will persist in CSF for days or be converted to methemoglobin. Produced <i>in vitro</i> and <i>in vivo</i>
	Bilirubin ^{20,25,119,120}	Elevated. Ideal time period for collection is > 6-12 hours. Will persist in CSF for up to a month. Produced <i>in vivo</i> only
	GFAP ¹⁷⁰	Altered GFAP washout patterns noted between survivors and nonsurvivors. Secondary GFAP peak associated with additional ischemic insult and provides prognostic value in survivors
	20-Hydroxyecosatetraenoic acid ¹⁷¹	More likely to have mortality, clinical neurological decline, and modified Rankin scores at 3 and 12 months.
	IL-6 ¹⁶⁸	Elevated; correlated with increased severity
	Tumor necrosis factor- α ¹⁷²	Elevated; correlated with increased severity
	Arginine-vasopressin ¹⁷³	Decreased; correlated with poor outcome
	Oxytocin ¹⁷³	Decreased
Pediatric neurotransmitter disease	Homovanillic acid ^{*,49}	Altered metabolite levels are nonspecific indicators of various neurotransmitter disorders involving the dopaminergic and serotonergic metabolic processes and must be evaluated alongside the clinical picture
	5-HIAA ^{*,49}	
	3-O-Methylidopa ^{*,49}	
	Tetrahydropterin ^{*,49}	
	Neopterin ^{*,49}	

(continued on next page)

TABLE 7. (continued)

Disease	Biomarker	Notes
Infections	ET-1 ^{*174}	Elevated in children with enterovirus-71 encephalitis with NPE
	Neopterin ^{*175}	Associated with inflammatory lesions in enterovirus-A71-associated encephalitis
	Apolipoprotein ^{*35}	Marker of invasive bacterial infections
	S100 B ^{176,177}	Elevated in children with bacterial meningitis. May contribute to severity and neurological complications
		In tuberculous meningitis the highest lumbar concentrations and increasing trends as well as the highest ventricular concentrations are associated with mortality and 6-month outcome
	IL-6 ^{*178,179}	Elevated in children with RSV-associated encephalopathy and correlated with PCPC score. Predictor of neurological complications in HHV-6 associated acute encephalopathy
	Brain-derived neurotrophic factor ^{*178}	Elevated in children with RSV-associated encephalopathy and correlated with PCPC score
	Nitric oxide and lipid peroxide ^{*176}	Elevated in children with bacterial meningitis. Mediators of oxidative stress. May contribute to severity and neurological complications
	Superoxide dismutase and total thiol ^{*176}	Elevated in children with bacterial meningitis. Mediators of antioxidation. May contribute to severity and neurological complications
	Intrathecal OCB ^{*51,108,180,181}	Present in acute or chronic encephalitis. Clonal IgG binds with high affinity to infectious agent. Detected in up 100% patients with herpes simplex encephalitis and human immunodeficiency virus encephalitis
	Procalcitonin ^{*182}	Marker of bacterial versus aseptic meningitis
	Neurofilament (heavy subunit) ¹⁸³	Elevated in subacute sclerosing panencephalitis. Marker of disease progression
	Soluble tumor necrosis factor receptor 1 ¹⁸³	Elevated in subacute sclerosing panencephalitis.
	T-Tau ^{*118,184}	Elevated in patients with serious CNS infection, including HHV-6-associated acute encephalopathy
Hydrocephalus	CXCL-13 ^{*185}	Elevated in Lyme neuroborreliosis, consider as complementary diagnostic tool
	T-Tau ^{*118}	Elevated. Marker of axonal and neuronal damage
	Cleaved-tau ^{*186}	Elevated in children with hydrocephalus who display signs of increased intracranial pressure and require shunt placement or revision. Marker of axonal damage. Related to age
	Total Protein ^{*34}	Elevated in LOH
	5-HIAA ^{*187}	Elevated, indicative of increased metabolism and/or absorption of serotonin associated with ICP alterations and decreased clearance due to obstruction resulting from increased ICP
	Soluble Fas (sFas) ^{*34,188}	Regulation of apoptosis. Elevated in PHH and SB/HC
	Amyloid precursor protein ^{*189,190}	Elevated in PHH. Indicator of axonal injury or stretch. Associated with ventricular size
	L1 cell adhesion molecule ^{*190}	Elevated in PHH
	NCAM-1 ^{*189,190}	Elevated in PHH. Correlated with ventricular size
	Stem cell factor ^{*34}	Elevated in SB/HC. Involved in cell survival, proliferation, and differentiation
	Hepatocyte growth factor ^{*34}	Elevated in PHH. Involved in neuronal repair, recovery, survival, and maturation. Present in hydrocephalus regardless of etiology
	VEGF ^{*34,191}	Elevated in hydrocephalus, specifically PHH and SB/HC. Regulates angiogenesis
	IL-6 ^{*34}	Elevated in LOH and SB/HC
	NGF ^{*192}	Intrathecal production elevated. Role in neuronal differentiation and survival
Neurotrophin-3 ^{*192}	Elevated. Role in neuronal differentiation and survival	
GFAP ^{*94}	Elevated in PHH. Indicates damage to astrocytes and ependyma	
MBP ^{*94}	Elevated in PHH and SB/HC. Indicates damage to oligodendrocytes and myelin	
IL-18 ^{*193}	Elevated in human neonatal human neonatal HPHC, thought to contribute to diffuse white matter injury	
Pediatric brain tumors	IFN- γ ^{*193}	Elevated in human neonatal HPHC, thought to contribute to diffuse white matter injury
	T-tau ^{*118}	Elevated. Marker of axonal and neuronal damage
	Cleaved-tau ^{*194}	Elevated (400-fold). Marker of axonal and neuronal damage
	Prostaglandin D2 synthase ^{*91}	Decreased (sixfold) in medullablastoma. Host response to tumor
	Leu-Val-Val- and Val-Val-hemorphin-7 ^{*92}	Decreased in patients with brain tumor and in postoperative patients with residual tumor or metastases. Potential prognostic indicator. When obtained from cisterna magna can indicate biologic aggressiveness of tumor
	Apolipoprotein A-II ^{*116}	Elevated. Correlated with increased albumin concentration, likely indicative of blood-brain barrier dysfunction
	Basic fibroblast growth factor ^{*195}	Elevated in patients with brain tumors
	Cyclophilin A ^{*196}	Elevated in DIPG. Found in variety of tumor types. Associated with malignant transformation and decreased survival
	Dimethylarginase 1 ^{*196}	Elevated in DIPG. Found in a variety of tumor types. Associated with tumor angiogenesis
	IGF ^{*117,197,198}	IGFBP-2 and IGFBP-3 elevated in patients with medullablastomas and ependymomas. IGFBP-2 indicates poor prognosis in patients with medullablastoma
		IGFBP-3 protease activity increased in tumors with high-grade histologic malignancy. Potential marker of residual disease in medullablastomas. Lack of detection in serum suggests local production by CNS tumor tissue or malignant cells in CSF
		IGFBP-5 and IGF-II elevated in ependymomas
	Osteopontin ^{*199,200}	Elevated in patients with atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumor. Associated with aggressiveness and poor outcome
	Placental alkaline phosphatase ^{*201}	Elevated in intracranial germinomas
Polysialylated isoform of neural cell adhesion molecule ^{*202}	Elevated. Medullablastoma cell surface marker. Possible role in metastasis or tumor progression	

(continued on next page)

TABLE 7. (continued)

Disease	Biomarker	Notes
Sudden infant death syndrome	IL-6 ^{*87,203,204}	Elevated. Increased IL-6 levels in conjunction with altered IL-6 receptor expression in the arcuate nucleus thought to play interactive role. Scatter of levels may indicate a mechanism more similar to infectious process and one more similar to trauma. Correlated with infectious indicators including increased number of IgA immunocytes in laryngeal mucosa
	VEGF ^{*205}	Elevated. VEGF stimulates angiogenesis in response to hypoxia and is suggestive of at least one hypoxic event before death
Depression	Apolipoprotein E ²⁰⁶	Decreased. Potential link to metabolic syndrome, which may predispose individual to major depression
	Cystatin C ²⁰⁶ PEDF ²⁰⁶	Decreased. Cysteine proteinase inhibitor, may indicate cognitive dysfunction Elevated. PEDF a neutrophilic glycoprotein with a potential compensatory mechanism for endogenous proapoptotic stress
PD	Prostaglandin-D synthase ²⁰⁶	Decreased. Potential role in sleep disturbances
	Fms-like tyrosine kinase 3 ligand ²⁰⁷	Differentiates between PD and multi-system atrophy (99% sensitivity, 95% specificity)
	Fractalkine/Aβ ₁₋₄₂ ²⁰⁷	Marker of severity and progression
	Total biopterin ²⁰⁸	Decreased but to a lesser extent in juvenile (below age of 40) Parkinson compared with typical. Related to age at onset and indicates the amount of degeneration in nigrostriatal dopaminergic nerve terminals
	T-Tau ²⁰⁹	Increased over time; stable in early phases, indicator of disease severity
	Phosphorylated tau ²⁰⁹ α-syn ²⁰⁹ NFL ²⁰⁹ Chitinase-3-like protein 1 (YKL-40) ²⁰⁹	Increased over time; rapid increase indicative of more rapid motor and cognitive decline Increased over time; stable in early phases, indicator of disease severity Increased over time Increased over time, rapid increase indicative of more rapid cognitive decline

Abbreviations:

5-HIAA = 5-Hydroxyindoleacetic acid
α-Syn = α-Synuclein
AHT = Abusive head trauma
AQP = Aquaporin 4
CNS = Central nervous system
CSF = Cerebrospinal fluid
CT = Computed tomography
CXCL-13 = Chemokine ligand 13
DCX = Doublecortin
DIPG = Diffuse intrinsic pontine glioma
ET-1 = Endothelin-1
GFAP = Glial fibrillary acidic protein
GCS = Glasgow Coma scale
GOS = Glasgow Outcome scale
HHV-6 = Human herpesvirus-6
HMGB = High-mobility group box 1
HPHC = High-pressure hydrocephalus
HVA = Homovanillic acid
ICP = Intracranial pressure
IFN-α = Interferon-α
IL-1β = Interleukin-1β
IGF = Insulin-like growth factor
IGFBP = IGF-binding protein
IgG = Immunoglobulin G
LOH = Late-onset hydrocephalus
MBP = Myelin basic protein
MIP = Macrophage inflammatory protein
mtDNA = Mitochondrial DNA
NCAM = Neural cell adhesion molecule-1
NFL = Neurofilament light
NGF = Nerve growth factor
NMO = Neuromyelitis optica
NPE = Neurogenic pulmonary edema
NSE = Neuron-specific enolase
OCB = Oligoclonal bands
PCPC = Pediatric performance category scale
PD = Parkinson disease
PEDF = Pigment epithelium-derived factor
PHH = Posthemorrhagic hydrocephalus
ROS = Reactive oxygen species
RSV = Respiratory syncytial virus
SB/HC = Spina bifida with hydrocephalus
T-Tau = Total tau
TTR = Transthyretin
VEGF = Vascular endothelial growth factor
* Indicates biomarkers with pediatric data

TABLE 8.
Metabolomics and Lipidomics for Biomarker Discovery

Biomarker(s)	Diseases of Interest	Potential Limitations
Metabolomics		
Homovanillic acid ^{49,212}	Tetrahydrobiopterin (BH4) deficiency disorders ^{49,213}	Sample volumes ⁹³
5-Hydroxyindoleacetic acid ^{49,214}	Tyrosine hydroxylase deficiency ²¹²	Variability in chemical structure of metabolites ⁹³
3-O-methyldopa ⁴⁹	Aromatic L-amino acid decarboxylase deficiency ²¹⁴	Overall lower metabolite concentration in CSF than blood ⁹³
Tetrahydrobiopterin ⁴⁹		Specific methodology for identification of neurotransmitters and steroids (i.e., gas chromatography and electron capture negative chemical ionization mass spectrometry) ²¹⁵
Neopterin ⁴⁹		
Lipidomics		
Platelet-activation factor acetyl hydrolase ²¹⁰	Inflammatory disease processes (e.g., ischemic stroke, diabetes mellitus, and systemic lupus erythematosus) ²¹⁰	Tandem liquid-gas chromatography and mass spectrometry ²¹⁰
Cytochrome P450 ¹⁰¹	Cholesterol and steroid biosynthesis (influence on brain growth and development) ²¹⁰	Free radical chemical analysis of oxidized lipids ²¹⁰
F2-isoprostane ¹³⁸	TBI and secondary CNS damage ¹³⁸	
Cardiolipin ¹³⁸		

Abbreviations:

CSF = Cerebrospinal fluid

CNS = Central nervous system

TBI = Traumatic brain injury

plasma.^{15,38} The degenerative effects of WBCs on the observed proteome as well as other metabolites and amino acids are observed even in the absence of erythrocyte contamination and contribute to sample degradation.^{38,57}

Traumatic LPs resulting in blood contamination of the CSF sample occur with an incidence of 14% to 72%.^{17,20,23,38,113,114} A traumatic LP may be due to the puncture of the venous plexus or vessels found in the ventral epidural space.^{20,54} Elevated protein levels in CSF samples contaminated by traumatic LP are difficult to analyze.¹¹³ Recommendations to limit the influence of blood contamination include expedited transport to laboratory on ice followed by centrifugation, and immediate freezing at -80°C .^{17,20,23,26,36,38,48,51,54,56,57,62,115-118}

Spectrophotometric analysis

Spectrophotometric analysis of CSF is able to identify peaks of oxyhemoglobin, methemoglobin, and bilirubin and is a useful diagnostic measure for patients with a subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH).^{20,119} Bilirubin is produced *in vivo* and as such can be used to distinguish between a traumatic LP and an intracranial bleed.²⁰ To avoid the probability of a false-positive subarachnoid hemorrhage diagnosis the last fraction of CSF collected should be used for spectrophotometry.^{20,119} The ideal time frame for sampling to determine the presence of bilirubin is six to greater than 12 hours after initial onset but can be detected up to one month post-onset.^{14,20,25,26,119} After sampling, bilirubin degrades expeditiously in light when compared with dark,¹²⁰ mandating rapid processing of CSF samples as soon as possible and protection of the CSF samples from light.^{119,120} A blood sample should be collected concurrently to determine serum bilirubin and total protein concentrations for comparative analysis.^{20,26,119} Caution should be taken when analyzing CSF in neonates as CSF xanthochromia is relatively common in the first month of life (28%).¹²¹ The frequency of CSF xanthochromia is negatively correlated with age.¹²¹ Delivery history should be considered as there is an association of CSF xanthochromia with maternal history of labor and birth method.^{113,121}

Biomarkers of pediatric diseases

Laboratory-based analysis of CSF proteins or peptides can provide insight into possible biomarkers of pediatric diseases, which may allow for new and potentially earlier diagnostic and treatment options.^{17,18,34,38,51,91,92,95,108,122-126} A biomarker is an indicator of the current biologic state,³⁸ and biomarker research is expanding our ability to diagnose and expedite treatment for a number of diseases. A good biomarker must be able to reliably differentiate between normal and disease states as well as differentiate between different diseases.¹²⁷ Research conducted for the identification of possible biomarkers for a number of pediatric diseases and disorders is expanding exponentially. Lack of sufficient CSF sample collection is a major hurdle in the research of neurological diseases, leading to insufficient powering of research studies.¹⁷

Some diseases have specific biomarkers such as *N*-methyl-D-aspartate receptor encephalitis, whereas nonspecific biomarkers such as oligoclonal bands, neopterin, and ferritin may be utilized to indicate CNS inflammation as well as demyelination, infection, metabolic stress, neuronal injury, and vascular injury.^{20,108,125} Pediatric CSF biomarker research is focused on early-onset multiple sclerosis, juvenile-onset Parkinson disease, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, pediatric brain tumors, pediatric neurotransmitter diseases, and traumatic brain injury (Table 7). Although proteomics is the more prominent field of CSF biomarker research, alterations in CSF metabolite and lipid concentrations can provide important supplementary information.^{31,93,210}

Metabolomics and lipidomics

Metabolomics, the study of chemical compounds produced by way of specific cellular processes,²¹¹ is utilized for the identification of pediatric disorders of neurotransmitters and inborn errors of metabolism.⁴⁹ Abnormal metabolite profiles have been suggested as potential biomarkers and may indicate a number of disorders (Table 8).⁴⁹ Owing to the sensitive nature of certain metabolites (i.e., tetrahydrobiopterin) samples require immediate freezing on dry ice at bedside or collection into an antioxidant mixture.⁴⁹

Lipidomics is the study of structure, biosynthesis, and function of lipids.²¹⁰ Lipids compose approximately half of the dry mass of the brain and contribute to various brain functions including membrane composition, signal transduction, and messenger functions.²¹⁰ As such, changes in lipid metabolism and resultant lipid concentrations may indicate the presence of several disease processes (Table 8).²¹⁰ Lipidomics provides detailed information regarding lipid composition in CSF, whereas concurrent proteomic analysis can help to understand the mechanisms by which changes in the lipidome occur (i.e., altered protein concentrations or levels of protein activation).²¹⁰

Conclusion

This review summarizes pertinent issues regarding collection, processing, and storage of pediatric CSF. The collection, processing, and storage of CSF are key bio-banking steps allowing for investigations on CNS-related diseases. Adherence to ethical standards, while maintaining sample integrity, is critical in translational research. CSF investigations will contribute to new diagnostics and therapeutics in childhood disease.

References

- Rubio DM, Schoenbaum EE, Lee LS, et al. Defining translational research: implications for training. *Acad Med*. 2010;85:470–475.
- Edwards T, Cadigan RJ, Evans JP, Henderson GE. Biobanks containing clinical specimens: defining characteristics, policies, and practices. *Clin Biochem*. 2014;47:245–251.
- Brisson AR, Matsui D, Rieder MJ, Fraser DD. Translational research in pediatrics: tissue sampling and biobanking. *Pediatrics*. 2012;129:153–162.
- Chaigneau C, Cabioch T, Beaumont K, Betsou F. Serum biobank certification and the establishment of quality controls for biological fluids: examples of serum biomarker stability after temperature variation. *Clin Chem Lab Med*. 2007;45:1390–1395.
- Gillio-Meina C, Cepinskas G, Cecchini EL, Fraser DD. Translational research in pediatrics II: blood collection, processing, shipping, and storage. *Pediatrics*. 2013;131:754–766.
- Radhakrishnan D, Yamashita C, Gillio-Meina C, Fraser DD. Translational research in pediatrics III: bronchoalveolar lavage. *Pediatrics*. 2014;134:135–154.
- Gillio-Meina C, Zielke HR, Fraser DD. Translational research in pediatrics IV: solid tissue collection and processing. *Pediatrics*. 2016;137:1–24.
- Plebani M. Errors in clinical laboratories or errors in laboratory medicine? *Clin Chem Lab Med*. 2006;44:750–759.
- Hubel A, Aksan A, Skubitz AP, Wendt C, Zhong X. State of the art in preservation of fluid biospecimens. *Biopreserv Biobank*. 2011;9:237–244.
- Klener J, Hofbauerova K, Bartos A, Ricny J, Ripova D, Kopecky V. Instability of cerebrospinal fluid after delayed storage and repeated freezing: a holistic study by drop coating deposition Raman spectroscopy. *Clin Chem Lab Med*. 2014;52:657–664.
- Lewczuk P, Beck G, Ganslandt O, et al. International quality control survey of neurochemical dementia diagnostics. *Neurosci Lett*. 2006;409:1–4.
- Mattsson N, Andreasson U, Persson S, et al. The Alzheimer's Association external quality control program for cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers. *Alzheimers Dement*. 2011;7:386–395 e386.
- Hale JE, Gelfanova V, You JS, Knierman MD, Dean RA. Proteomics of cerebrospinal fluid: methods for sample processing. *Methods Mol Biol*. 2008;425:53–66.
- Deisenhammer F, Bartos A, Egg R, et al. Guidelines on routine cerebrospinal fluid analysis. Report from an EFNS task force. *Eur J Neurol*. 2006;13:913–922.
- Huhmer AF, Biringer RG, Amato H, Fonteh AN, Harrington MG. Protein analysis in human cerebrospinal fluid: physiological aspects, current progress and future challenges. *Dis Markers*. 2006;22:3–26.
- Lygirou V, Makridakis M, Vlahou A. Biological sample collection for clinical proteomics: existing SOPs. *Methods Mol Biol*. 2015;1243:3–27.
- Teunissen CE, Petzold A, Bennett JL, et al. A consensus protocol for the standardization of cerebrospinal fluid collection and biobanking. *Neurology*. 2009;73:1914–1922.
- van Gool AJ, Hendrickson RC. The proteomic toolbox for studying cerebrospinal fluid. *Expert Rev Proteomics*. 2012;9:165–179.
- Principles of Neural Science. 4th ed. Toronto: McGraw-Hill; 2000.
- Petzold A, Sharpe LT, Keir G. Spectrophotometry for cerebrospinal fluid pigment analysis. *Neurocrit Care*. 2006;4:153–162.
- Bonadio WA. The cerebrospinal fluid: physiologic aspects and alterations associated with bacterial meningitis. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 1992;11:423–431.
- Romeo MJ, Espina V, Lowenthal M, Espina BH, Petricoin 3rd EF, Liotta LA. CSF proteome: a protein repository for potential biomarker identification. *Expert Rev Proteomics*. 2005;2:57–70.
- Kroksveen AC, Opsahl JA, Aye TT, Ulvik RJ, Berven FS. Proteomics of human cerebrospinal fluid: discovery and verification of biomarker candidates in neurodegenerative diseases using quantitative proteomics. *J Proteomics*. 2011;74:371–388.
- Sakka L, Coll G, Chazal J. Anatomy and physiology of cerebrospinal fluid. *Eur Ann Otorhinolaryngol Head Neck Dis*. 2011;128:309–316.
- Jerrard DA, Hanna JR, Schindelheim GL. Cerebrospinal fluid. *J Emerg Med*. 2001;21:171–178.
- Watson MA, Scott MG. Clinical utility of biochemical analysis of cerebrospinal fluid. *Clin Chem*. 1995;41:343–360.
- Prajapati BS, Prajapati RB, Vora HD. Analysis of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) in children. *Pediatr Infect Dis*. 2015;7:22–26.
- Capel C, Makki M, Gondry-Jouet C, et al. Insights into cerebrospinal fluid and cerebral blood flows in infants and young children. *J Child Neurol*. 2014;29:1608–1615.
- Greitz D, Greitz T, Hindmarsh T. A new view on the CSF-circulation with the potential for pharmacological treatment of childhood hydrocephalus. *Acta Paediatr*. 1997;86:125–132.
- Reiber H. Dynamics of brain-derived proteins in cerebrospinal fluid. *Clin Chim Acta*. 2001;310:173–186.
- Maurer MH. Proteomics of brain extracellular fluid (ECF) and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF). *Mass Spectrom Rev*. 2010;29:17–28.
- Diekema DS. Conducting ethical research in pediatrics: a brief historical overview and review of pediatric regulations. *J Pediatr*. 2006;149:S3–S11.
- Nguyen TN, Nilsson S, Hellstrom AL, Bengtson A. Music therapy to reduce pain and anxiety in children with cancer undergoing lumbar puncture: a randomized clinical trial. *J Pediatr Oncol Nurs*. 2010;27:146–155.
- Naureen I, Waheed Kh A, Rathore AW, et al. Fingerprint changes in CSF composition associated with different aetiologies in human neonatal hydrocephalus: inflammatory cytokines. *Childs Nerv Syst*. 2014;30:1155–1164.
- Wang C, Wang Y, Wang A, Fu P, Yang Y. The diagnostic value of apolipoprotein E in pediatric patients with invasive bacterial infections. *Clin Biochem*. 2012;45:215–218.
- Carrette O, Burkhard PR, Hughes S, Hochstrasser DF, Sanchez JC. Truncated cystatin C in cerebrospinal fluid: technical [corrected] artefact or biological process? *Proteomics*. 2005;5:3060–3065.
- Zhang H, Zhai SD, Li YM, Chen LR. Effect of different sample pretreatment methods on the concentrations of excitatory amino acids in cerebrospinal fluid determined by high-performance liquid chromatography. *J Chromatogr B Analyt Technol Biomed Life Sci*. 2003;784:131–135.
- Greco V, Pieragostino D, Piras C, et al. Direct analytical sample quality assessment for biomarker investigation: qualifying cerebrospinal fluid samples. *Proteomics*. 2014;14:1954–1962.
- del Campo M, Mollenhauer B, Bertolotto A, et al. Recommendations to standardize preanalytical confounding factors in Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers: an update. *Biomark Med*. 2012;6:419–430.
- Vanderstichele H, Bibl M, Engelborghs S, et al. Standardization of preanalytical aspects of cerebrospinal fluid biomarker testing for Alzheimer's disease diagnosis: a consensus paper from the Alzheimer's Biomarkers Standardization Initiative. *Alzheimers Dement*. 2012;8:65–73.
- Klepper J, Voit T. Facilitated glucose transporter protein type 1 (GLUT1) deficiency syndrome: impaired glucose transport into brain – a review. *Eur J Pediatr*. 2002;161:295–304.
- Hyland K, Surtees RA, Heales SJ, Bowron A, Howells DW, Smith I. Cerebrospinal fluid concentrations of pterins and metabolites of serotonin and dopamine in a pediatric reference population. *Pediatr Res*. 1993;34:10–14.
- Wong M, Schlaggar BL, Buller RS, Storch GA, Landt M. Cerebrospinal fluid protein concentration in pediatric patients: defining clinically relevant reference values. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med*. 2000;154:827–831.
- Eeg-Olofsson O, Link H, Wigertz A. Concentrations of CSF proteins as a measure of blood brain barrier function and synthesis of IgG within the CNS in 'normal' subjects from the age of 6 months to 30 years. *Acta Paediatr Scand*. 1981;70:167–170.
- Zhang J, Goodlett DR, Peskind ER, et al. Quantitative proteomic analysis of age-related changes in human cerebrospinal fluid. *Neurobiol Aging*. 2005;26:207–227.
- Seyfert S, Kunzmann V, Schwertfeger N, Koch HC, Faulstich A. Determinants of lumbar CSF protein concentration. *J Neurol*. 2002;249:1021–1026.
- Teunissen CE, Tumani H, Engelborghs S, Mollenhauer B. Biobanking of CSF: international standardization to optimize biomarker development. *Clin Biochem*. 2014;47:288–292.
- Manley GT, Diaz-Arrastia R, Brophy M, et al. Common data elements for traumatic brain injury: recommendations from the biospecimens and biomarkers working group. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil*. 2010;91:1667–1672.
- Hyland K. The lumbar puncture for diagnosis of pediatric neurotransmitter diseases. *Ann Neurol*. 2003;54(suppl 6):S13–S17.
- Kruesi MJ, Swedo SE, Hamburger SD, Potter WZ, Rapoport JL. Concentration gradient of CSF monoamine metabolites in children and adolescents. *Biol Psychiatry*. 1988;24:507–514.

51. Shahim P, Mansson JE, Darin N, Zetterberg H, Mattsson N. Cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers in neurological diseases in children. *Eur J Paediatr Neurol*. 2013;17:7–13.
52. Souweidane MM, Morgenstern PF, Christos PJ, et al. Intraoperative arachnoid and cerebrospinal fluid sampling in children with posterior fossa brain tumors. *Neurosurgery*. 2009;65:72–78 [discussion: 78].
53. Shore PM, Thomas NJ, Clark RS, et al. Continuous versus intermittent cerebrospinal fluid drainage after severe traumatic brain injury in children: effect on biochemical markers. *J Neurotrauma*. 2004;21:1113–1122.
54. Kleigman RM, Greenbaum LA, Lye PS. *Practical Strategies in Pediatric Diagnosis and Therapy*. 2nd ed. Philadelphia: Saunders; 2004.
55. Fraser DD, Close TE, Rose KL, et al. Severe traumatic brain injury in children elevates glial fibrillary acidic protein in cerebrospinal fluid and serum. *Pediatr Crit Care Med*. 2011;12:319–324.
56. Berven FS, Kroksveen AC, Berle M, et al. Pre-analytical influence on the low molecular weight cerebrospinal fluid proteome. *Proteomics Clin Appl*. 2007;1:699–711.
57. Rosenling T, Slim CL, Christin C, et al. The effect of preanalytical factors on stability of the proteome and selected metabolites in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF). *J Proteome Res*. 2009;8:5511–5522.
58. de Jongste AH, Kraan J, van den Broek PD, et al. Use of TransFix cerebrospinal fluid storage tubes prevents cellular loss and enhances flow cytometric detection of malignant hematological cells after 18 hours of storage. *Cytometry B Clin Cytom*. 2014;86:272–279.
59. Hesse C, Larsson H, Fredman P, et al. Measurement of apolipoprotein E (apoE) in cerebrospinal fluid. *Neurochem Res*. 2000;25:511–517.
60. Schoonenboom NS, Mulder C, Vanderstichele H, et al. Effects of processing and storage conditions on amyloid beta (1–42) and tau concentrations in cerebrospinal fluid: implications for use in clinical practice. *Clin Chem*. 2005;51:189–195.
61. Bibl M, Esselmann H, Otto M, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid amyloid beta peptide patterns in Alzheimer's disease patients and nondemented controls depend on sample pretreatment: indication of carrier-mediated epitope masking of amyloid beta peptides. *Electrophoresis*. 2004;25:2912–2918.
62. Fraser DD. *Standard Operating Procedure IV: CSF Collection and Processing*. Available at: <http://www.translationalresearchcentre.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/SOP-IV-CSF.pdf>. Accessed July 1, 2019.
63. Lewczuk P, Beck G, Esselmann H, et al. Effect of sample collection tubes on cerebrospinal fluid concentrations of tau proteins and amyloid beta peptides. *Clin Chem*. 2006;52:332–334.
64. de Graaf MT, van den Broek PD, Kraan J, et al. Addition of serum-containing medium to cerebrospinal fluid prevents cellular loss over time. *J Neurol*. 2011;258:1507–1512.
65. Rudolph CD. *Rudolph's Pediatrics*. 21st ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, Medical Pub. Division; 2003.
66. Portnoy JM, Olson LC. Normal cerebrospinal fluid values in children: another look. *Pediatrics*. 1985;75:484–487.
67. Morris JA, Harrison LM, Telford DR. Postmortem cerebrospinal fluid pleocytosis: a marker of inflammation or postmortem artifact? *Int J Pediatr*. 2012;2012:964074.
68. Finehout EJ, Franck Z, Relkin N, Lee KH. Proteomic analysis of cerebrospinal fluid changes related to postmortem interval. *Clin Chem*. 2006;52:1906–1913.
69. Aronson PL, Zonfrillo MR. Epidural cerebrospinal fluid collection after lumbar puncture. *Pediatr Emerg Care*. 2009;25:467–468.
70. Naradzay JF, Browne BJ, Rolnick MA, Doherty RJ. Cerebral ventricular shunts. *J Emerg Med*. 1999;17:311–322.
71. Kanegaye JT, Solimanzadeh P, Bradley JS. Lumbar puncture in pediatric bacterial meningitis: defining the time interval for recovery of cerebrospinal fluid pathogens after parenteral antibiotic pretreatment. *Pediatrics*. 2001;108:1169–1174.
72. Amini A, Liu JK, Kan P, Brockmeyer DL. Cerebrospinal fluid dissecting into spinal epidural space after lumbar puncture causing cauda equina syndrome: review of literature and illustrative case. *Childs Nerv Syst*. 2006;22:1639–1641.
73. Browd SR, Gottfried ON, Ragel BT, Kestle JR. Failure of cerebrospinal fluid shunts: part II: overdrainage, loculation, and abdominal complications. *Pediatr Neurol*. 2006;34:171–176.
74. Browd SR, Ragel BT, Gottfried ON, Kestle JR. Failure of cerebrospinal fluid shunts: part I: obstruction and mechanical failure. *Pediatr Neurol*. 2006;34:83–92.
75. Ngo QN, Ranger A, Singh RN, Kornecki A, Seabrook JA, Fraser DD. External ventricular drains in pediatric patients. *Pediatr Crit Care Med*. 2009;10:346–351.
76. Dey M, Jaffe J, Stadnik A, Awad IA. External ventricular drainage for intraventricular hemorrhage. *Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep*. 2012;12:24–33.
77. Naff NJ. Intraventricular hemorrhage in adults. *Curr Treat Options Neurol*. 1999;1:173–178.
78. Simpson S, Yung M, Slater A. Severe dehydration and acute renal failure associated with external ventricular drainage of cerebrospinal fluid in children. *Anaesth Intensive Care*. 2006;34:659–663.
79. Bledsoe JM, Moore EJ, Link MJ. Refractory cerebrospinal fluid rhinorrhea secondary to occult superior vena cava syndrome and benign intracranial hypertension: diagnosis and management. *Skull Base*. 2009;19:279–285.
80. Eguchi S, Aihara Y, Hori T, Okada Y. Postoperative extra-axial cerebrospinal fluid collection—its pathophysiology and clinical management. *Pediatr Neurosurg*. 2011;47:125–132.
81. Filipo R, Covelli E, D'Elia C, Mancini P. Delayed retroauricular cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) collection in cochlear implantation. *Cochlear Implants Int*. 2011;12:248–250.
82. Bonadio W. Pediatric lumbar puncture and cerebrospinal fluid analysis. *J Emerg Med*. 2014;46:141–150.
83. Carson D, Serpell M. Choosing the best needle for diagnostic lumbar puncture. *Neurology*. 1996;47:33–37.
84. Gajjar A, Fouladi M, Walter AW, et al. Comparison of lumbar and shunt cerebrospinal fluid specimens for cytologic detection of leptomeningeal disease in pediatric patients with brain tumors. *J Clin Oncol*. 1999;17:1825–1828.
85. Scribano PV, Pool S, Smally AJ. Comparison of ventriculoperitoneal shunt tap and lumbar puncture in a child with meningitis. *Pediatr Emerg Care*. 2002;18:E1–E3.
86. Gilbert-Barnes E, Spicer DE, Steffensen TS. *Handbook of Pediatric Autopsy Pathology*. 2nd ed. New York: Springer; 2014. Available at: <http://myaccess.library.utoronto.ca/login?url=http://link.springer.com/openurl?genre=book&isbn=978-1-4614-6710-6>. Accessed June 7, 2016.
87. Rognum IJ, Haynes RL, Vege A, Yang M, Rognum TO, Kinney HC. Interleukin-6 and the serotonergic system of the medulla oblongata in the sudden infant death syndrome. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2009;118:519–530.
88. Palmiere C, Mangin P. Postmortem chemistry update part I. *Int J Legal Med*. 2012;126:187–198.
89. Rognum IJ, Tran H, Haas EA, et al. Serotonin metabolites in the cerebrospinal fluid in sudden infant death syndrome. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol*. 2014;73:115–122.
90. Busuttill A, Keeling J. *Paediatric Forensic Medicine and pathology*, 2nd ed. Boca Raton: Taylor & Francis Group; 2008.
91. Rajagopal MU, Hathout Y, MacDonald TJ, et al. Proteomic profiling of cerebrospinal fluid identifies prostaglandin D2 synthase as a putative biomarker for pediatric medulloblastoma: a pediatric brain tumor consortium study. *Proteomics*. 2011;11:935–943.
92. Desiderio C, D'Angelo L, Rossetti DV, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid top-down proteomics evidenced the potential biomarker role of LVV- and VV-hemorphin-7 in posterior cranial fossa pediatric brain tumors. *Proteomics*. 2012;12:2158–2166.
93. Stoop MP, Coulter L, Rosenling T, et al. Quantitative proteomics and metabolomics analysis of normal human cerebrospinal fluid samples. *Mol Cell Proteomics*. 2010;9:2063–2075.
94. Naureen I, Waheed KA, Rathore AW, et al. Fingerprint changes in CSF composition associated with different aetiologies in human neonatal hydrocephalus: glial proteins associated with cell damage and loss. *Fluids Barriers CNS*. 2013;10:34.
95. Waybright TJ. Preparation of human cerebrospinal fluid for proteomics biomarker analysis. *Methods Mol Biol*. 2013;1002:61–70.
96. Byington CL, Kendrick J, Sheng X. Normative cerebrospinal fluid profiles in febrile infants. *J Pediatr*. 2011;158:130–134.
97. Nascimento-Carvalho CM, Moreno-Carvalho OA. Normal cerebrospinal fluid values in full-term gestation and premature neonates. *Arq Neuropsiquiatr*. 1998;56:375–380.
98. Nigrovic LE, Kimia AA, Shah SS, Neuman MI. Relationship between cerebrospinal fluid glucose and serum glucose. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;366:576–578.
99. Buttram SD, Wisniewski SR, Jackson EK, et al. Multiplex assessment of cytokine and chemokine levels in cerebrospinal fluid following severe pediatric traumatic brain injury: effects of moderate hypothermia. *J Neurotrauma*. 2007;24:1707–1717.
100. Kumar RG, Diamond ML, Boles JA, et al. Acute CSF interleukin-6 trajectories after TBI: associations with neuroinflammation, polytrauma, and outcome. *Brain Behav Immun*. 2015;45:253–262.
101. Lai Y, Stange C, Wisniewski SR, et al. Mitochondrial heat shock protein 60 is increased in cerebrospinal fluid following pediatric traumatic brain injury. *Dev Neurosci*. 2006;28:336–341.
102. Shlamovitz GZ. Lumbar Puncture (LP) Interpretation of Cerebrospinal Fluid. Available at: <http://emedicine.medscape.com/article/2172226-overview>; 2014. Accessed June 2, 2016.
103. Family Practice Notebook: Cerebrospinal Fluid Examination. Available at: <http://www.fpnotebook.com/neuro/lab/CrbrspnlFldExmntn.htm>. Accessed June 10, 2016.
104. The Royal Children's Hospital Melbourne: Clinical Practice Guidelines. CSF Interpretation. Available at: http://www.rch.org.au/clinicalguide/guideline_index/CSF_Interpretation/. Accessed January 20, 2016.
105. GlobalRPh: Common Laboratory (LAB) Values - [CSF Analysis]. Available at: <https://globalrph.com/medical/common-laboratory-lab-values-csf-analysis/>. Accessed June 7, 2016.
106. ClinLab Navigator: Cerebrospinal Fluid. Available at: <http://www.clinlabnavigator.com/cerebrospinal-fluid.html>; 2013. Accessed June 10, 2016.
107. About Cancer: Leptomeningeal Carcinomatosis. Available at: http://www.aboutcancer.com/meningeal_review_em.htm. Accessed February 23, 2016.
108. Dale RC, Brilot F. Biomarkers of inflammatory and auto-immune central nervous system disorders. *Curr Opin Pediatr*. 2010;22:718–725.

109. Gram Stain. Mayo foundation for medical education and research. Available at: <http://www.mayomedicallaboratories.com/test-catalog/Clinical+and+Interpretive/8078>. Accessed June 7, 2016.
110. Wu HM, Cordeiro SM, Harcourt BH, et al. Accuracy of real-time PCR, Gram stain and culture for *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Neisseria meningitidis* and *Haemophilus influenzae* meningitis diagnosis. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2013;13:26.
111. Acid-fast stain protocols. Available at: <http://microbelibrary.org/library/laboratory-test/2870-acid-fast-stain-protocols>. Accessed June 7, 2016.
112. Chen P, Shi M, Feng GD, et al. A highly efficient Ziehl-Neelsen stain: identifying de novo intracellular *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and improving detection of extracellular *M. tuberculosis* in cerebrospinal fluid. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2012;50:1166–1170.
113. Hines EM, Nigrovic LE, Neuman MI, Shah SS. Adjustment of cerebrospinal fluid protein for red blood cells in neonates and young infants. *J Hosp Med.* 2012;7:325–328.
114. Nigrovic LE, Shah SS, Neuman MI. Correction of cerebrospinal fluid protein for the presence of red blood cells in children with a traumatic lumbar puncture. *J Pediatr.* 2011;159:158–159.
115. Bell MJ, Kochanek PM, Doughty LA, et al. Interleukin-6 and interleukin-10 in cerebrospinal fluid after severe traumatic brain injury in children. *J Neurotrauma.* 1997;14:451–457.
116. de Bont JM, den Boer ML, Reddingius RE, et al. Identification of apolipoprotein A-II in cerebrospinal fluid of pediatric brain tumor patients by protein expression profiling. *Clin Chem.* 2006;52:1501–1509.
117. de Bont JM, van Doorn J, Reddingius RE, et al. Various components of the insulin-like growth factor system in tumor tissue, cerebrospinal fluid and peripheral blood of pediatric medulloblastoma and ependymoma patients. *Int J Cancer.* 2008;123:594–600.
118. de Bont JM, Vanderstichele H, Reddingius RE, Pieters R, van Gool SW. Increased total-Tau levels in cerebrospinal fluid of pediatric hydrocephalus and brain tumor patients. *Eur J Paediatr Neurol.* 2008;12:334–341.
119. Cruickshank A, Auld P, Beetham R, et al. Revised national guidelines for analysis of cerebrospinal fluid for bilirubin in suspected subarachnoid haemorrhage. *Ann Clin Biochem.* 2008;45:238–244.
120. Foroughi M, Parikh D, Wassell J, Hatfield R. Influence of light and time on bilirubin degradation in CSF spectrophotometry for subarachnoid haemorrhage. *Br J Neurosurg.* 2010;24:401–404.
121. Nigrovic LE, Trivedi M, Edlow JA, Neuman MI. Cerebrospinal fluid xanthochromia in newborns is related to maternal labor before delivery. *Pediatrics.* 2007;120:e1212–e1216.
122. Liguori M, Qualtieri A, Tortorella C, et al. Proteomic profiling in multiple sclerosis clinical courses reveals potential biomarkers of neurodegeneration. *PLoS One.* 2014;9:e103984.
123. Rostasy K, Reiber H. Clinical and neurochemical characteristics of pediatric multiple sclerosis – CSF analysis as knowledge base for differential diagnosis and pathophysiology. *Acta Neuropsychiatr.* 2009;21(suppl 2):20–21.
124. Shahim P, Darin N, Andreasson U, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid brain injury biomarkers in children: a multicenter study. *Pediatr Neurol.* 2013;49:31–39.e2.
125. Sinclair AJ, Wienholt L, Tantsis E, Brilot F, Dale RC. Clinical association of intrathecal and mirrored oligoclonal bands in paediatric neurology. *Dev Med Child Neurol.* 2013;55:71–75.
126. Shiihara T, Miyake T, Izumi S, et al. Serum and CSF biomarkers in acute pediatric neurological disorders. *Brain Dev.* 2014;36:489–495.
127. Rachakonda V, Pan TH, Le WD. Biomarkers of neurodegenerative disorders: how good are they? *Cell Res.* 2004;14:347–358.
128. Yamanaka G, Ishii C, Kawashima H, Oana S, Miyajima T, Hoshika A. Cerebrospinal fluid Diacron-reactive oxygen metabolite levels in pediatric patients with central nervous system diseases. *Pediatr Neurol.* 2008;39:80–84.
129. Galardi M, Butler R, Lui A, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) neurofilament and CXCL-13 levels in children with demyelinating disease (P2.307). *Neurology.* 2018;90(suppl 15):P2.307.
130. Chabas D, Ness J, Belman A, et al. Younger children with MS have a distinct CSF inflammatory profile at disease onset. *Neurology.* 2010;74:399–405.
131. Heussinger N, Kontopantelis E, Rompel O, Paulides M, Trollmann R. Predicting multiple sclerosis following isolated optic neuritis in children. *Eur J Neurol.* 2013;20:1292–1296.
132. Pena JA, Birchansky S, Lotze TE. Lymphocytic hypophysitis associated with pediatric multiple sclerosis. *Pediatr Neurol.* 2014;51:580–582.
133. Dujmovic I, Mader S, Schanda K, et al. Temporal dynamics of cerebrospinal fluid anti-aquaporin-4 antibodies in patients with neuromyelitis optica spectrum disorders. *J Neuroimmunol.* 2011;234:124–130.
134. Jarius S, Franciotta D, Paul F, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid antibodies to aquaporin-4 in neuromyelitis optica and related disorders: frequency, origin, and diagnostic relevance. *J Neuroinflammation.* 2010;7:52.
135. Akman-Demir G, Tuzun E, Waters P, et al. Prognostic implications of aquaporin-4 antibody status in neuromyelitis optica patients. *J Neurol.* 2011;258:464–470.
136. Chang KH, Ro LS, Lyu RK, Chen CM. Biomarkers for neuromyelitis optica. *Clin Chim Acta.* 2015;440:64–71.
137. Misu T, Takano R, Fujihara K, Takahashi T, Sato S, Itoyama Y. Marked increase in cerebrospinal fluid glial fibrillar acidic protein in neuromyelitis optica: an astrocytic damage marker. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry.* 2009;80:575–577.
138. Kochanek PM, Berger RP, Bayir H, Wagner AK, Jenkins LW, Clark RS. Biomarkers of primary and evolving damage in traumatic and ischemic brain injury: diagnosis, prognosis, probing mechanisms, and therapeutic decision making. *Curr Opin Crit Care.* 2008;14:135–141.
139. Berger RP, Pierce MC, Wisniewski SR, et al. Neuron-specific enolase and S100B in cerebrospinal fluid after severe traumatic brain injury in infants and children. *Pediatrics.* 2002;109:E31.
140. Daoud H, Alharfi I, Alhelali I, Charyk Stewart T, Qasem H, Fraser DD. Brain injury biomarkers as outcome predictors in pediatric severe traumatic brain injury. *Neurocrit Care.* 2014;20:427–435.
141. Varma S, Janesko KL, Wisniewski SR, et al. F2-isoprostane and neuron-specific enolase in cerebrospinal fluid after severe traumatic brain injury in infants and children. *J Neurotrauma.* 2003;20:781–786.
142. Nakhjavan-Shahraki B, Yousefifard M, Oraii A, Sarveazad A, Hosseini M. Meta-analysis of neuron specific enolase in predicting pediatric brain injury outcomes. *EXCLI J.* 2017;16:995–1008.
143. Au AK, Aneja RK, Bayir H, et al. Autophagy biomarkers beclin 1 and p62 are increased in cerebrospinal fluid after traumatic brain injury. *Neurocrit Care.* 2017;26:348–355.
144. Ondruschka B, Pohlers D, Sommer G, et al. S100B and NSE as useful post-mortem biochemical markers of traumatic brain injury in autopsy cases. *J Neurotrauma.* 2013;30:1862–1871.
145. Cousar JL, Lai Y, Marco CD, et al. Heme oxygenase 1 in cerebrospinal fluid from infants and children after severe traumatic brain injury. *Dev Neurosci.* 2006;28:342–347.
146. Diamond ML, Ritter AC, Failla MD, et al. IL-1beta associations with post-traumatic epilepsy development: a genetics and biomarker cohort study. *Epilepsia.* 2014;55:1109–1119.
147. Amick JE, Yandora KA, Bell MJ, et al. The Th1 versus Th2 cytokine profile in cerebrospinal fluid after severe traumatic brain injury in infants and children. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2001;2:260–264.
148. Whalen MJ, Carlos TM, Kochanek PM, et al. Interleukin-8 is increased in cerebrospinal fluid of children with severe head injury. *Crit Care Med.* 2000;28:929–934.
149. Shore PM, Jackson EK, Wisniewski SR, Clark RS, Adelson PD, Kochanek PM. Vascular endothelial growth factor is increased in cerebrospinal fluid after traumatic brain injury in infants and children. *Neurosurgery.* 2004;54:605–611 [discussion: 611–612].
150. Clark RS, Kochanek PM, Adelson PD, et al. Increases in bcl-2 protein in cerebrospinal fluid and evidence for programmed cell death in infants and children after severe traumatic brain injury. *J Pediatr.* 2000;137:197–204.
151. Walko 3rd TD, Bola RA, Hong JD, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid mitochondrial DNA: a novel DAMP in pediatric traumatic brain injury. *Shock.* 2014;41:499–503.
152. Au AK, Aneja RK, Bell MJ, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid levels of high-mobility group box 1 and cytochrome C predict outcome after pediatric traumatic brain injury. *J Neurotrauma.* 2012;29:2013–2021.
153. Satchell MA, Lai Y, Kochanek PM, et al. Cytochrome c, a biomarker of apoptosis, is increased in cerebrospinal fluid from infants with inflicted brain injury from child abuse. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab.* 2005;25:919–927.
154. Berger RP, Heyes MP, Wisniewski SR, Adelson PD, Thomas N, Kochanek PM. Assessment of the macrophage marker quinolinic acid in cerebrospinal fluid after pediatric traumatic brain injury: insight into the timing and severity of injury in child abuse. *J Neurotrauma.* 2004;21:1123–1130.
155. Bell MJ, Kochanek PM, Heyes MP, et al. Quinolinic acid in the cerebrospinal fluid of children after traumatic brain injury. *Crit Care Med.* 1999;27:493–497.
156. Salonia R, Empey PE, Poloyac SM, et al. Endothelin-1 is increased in cerebrospinal fluid and associated with unfavorable outcomes in children after severe traumatic brain injury. *J Neurotrauma.* 2010;27:1819–1825.
157. Su E, Bell MJ, Wisniewski SR, et al. α -Synuclein levels are elevated in cerebrospinal fluid following traumatic brain injury in infants and children: the effect of therapeutic hypothermia. *Dev Neurosci.* 2010;32:385–395.
158. Bayir H, Kagan VE, Tyurina YY, et al. Assessment of antioxidant reserves and oxidative stress in cerebrospinal fluid after severe traumatic brain injury in infants and children. *Pediatr Res.* 2002;51:571–578.
159. Robertson CL, Bell MJ, Kochanek PM, et al. Increased adenosine in cerebrospinal fluid after severe traumatic brain injury in infants and children: association with severity of injury and excitotoxicity. *Crit Care Med.* 2001;29:2287–2293.
160. Ruppel RA, Kochanek PM, Adelson PD, et al. Excitatory amino acid concentrations in ventricular cerebrospinal fluid after severe traumatic brain injury in infants and children: the role of child abuse. *J Pediatr.* 2001;138:18–25.
161. Su E, Bell MJ, Kochanek PM, et al. Increased CSF concentrations of myelin basic protein after TBI in infants and children: absence of significant effect of therapeutic hypothermia. *Neurocrit Care.* 2012;17:401–407.
162. Jha RM, Puccio AM, Chou SH, et al. Sulfonylurea receptor-1: a novel biomarker for cerebral edema in severe traumatic brain injury. *Crit Care Med.* 2017;45:e255–e264.
163. Palmio J, Suhonen J, Keranen T, Hulkkonen J, Peltola J, Pirttila T. Cerebrospinal fluid tau as a marker of neuronal damage after epileptic seizure. *Seizure.* 2009;18:474–477.
164. Monti G, Tondelli M, Giovannini G, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid tau proteins in status epilepticus. *Epilepsy Behav.* 2015;49:150–154.
165. Mondello S, Palmio J, Streeter J, Hayes RL, Peltola J, Jeromin A. Ubiquitin carboxy-terminal hydrolase L1 (UCH-L1) is increased in cerebrospinal fluid and plasma of patients after epileptic seizure. *BMC Neurol.* 2012;12:85.

166. Gurnett CA, Landt M, Wong M. Analysis of cerebrospinal fluid glial fibrillary acidic protein after seizures in children. *Epilepsia*. 2003;44:1455–1458.
167. Correale J, Rabinowicz AL, Heck CN, Smith TD, Loskota WJ, DeGiorgio CM. Status epilepticus increases CSF levels of neuron-specific enolase and alters the blood-brain barrier. *Neurology*. 1998;50:1388–1391.
168. Wong M, Ess K, Landt M. Cerebrospinal fluid neuron-specific enolase following seizures in children: role of etiology. *J Child Neurol*. 2002;17:261–264.
169. van Karnebeek CDM, Dunbar M, Egri C, et al. Secondary abnormal CSF neurotransmitter metabolite profiles in a pediatric tertiary care centre. *Can J Neurol Sci*. 2018;45:206–213.
170. Petzold A, Keir G, Kerr M, et al. Early identification of secondary brain damage in subarachnoid hemorrhage: a role for glial fibrillary acidic protein. *J Neurotrauma*. 2006;23:1179–1184.
171. Donnelly MK, Crago EA, Conley YP, et al. 20-HETE is associated with unfavorable outcomes in subarachnoid hemorrhage patients. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab*. 2015;35:1515–1522.
172. Wu W, Guan Y, Zhao G, et al. Elevated IL-6 and TNF-alpha levels in cerebrospinal fluid of subarachnoid hemorrhage patients. *Mol Neurobiol*. 2016;53:3277–3285.
173. Martin J, Kagerbauer SM, Schuster T, Blobner M, Kochs EF, Landgraf R. Vasopressin and oxytocin in CSF and plasma of patients with aneurysmal subarachnoid haemorrhage. *Neuropeptides*. 2014;48:91–96.
174. Tu YF, Lin CH, Lee HT, et al. Elevated cerebrospinal fluid endothelin 1 associated with neurogenic pulmonary edema in children with enterovirus 71 encephalitis. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2015;34:105–111.
175. Casas-Alba D, Valero-Rello A, Muchart J, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid neopterin in children with enterovirus-related brainstem encephalitis. *Pediatr Neurol*. 2019;96:70–73.
176. Hamed SA, Hamed EA, Zakary MM. Oxidative stress and S-100B protein in children with bacterial meningitis. *BMC Neurol*. 2009;9:51.
177. Rohlwink UK, Mauff K, Wilkinson KA, et al. Biomarkers of cerebral injury and inflammation in pediatric tuberculous meningitis. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2017;65:1298–1307.
178. Morichi S, Morishita N, Ishida Y, et al. Examination of neurological prognostic markers in patients with respiratory syncytial virus-associated encephalopathy. *Int J Neurosci*. 2017;127:44–50.
179. Ichiyama T, Ito Y, Kubota M, Yamazaki T, Nakamura K, Furukawa S. Serum and cerebrospinal fluid levels of cytokines in acute encephalopathy associated with human herpesvirus-6 infection. *Brain Dev*. 2009;31:731–738.
180. Chu AB, Sever JL, Madden DL, et al. Oligoclonal IgG bands in cerebrospinal fluid in various neurological diseases. *Ann Neurol*. 1983;13:434–439.
181. Goswami KK, Kaye S, Miller R, McAllister R, Tedder R. Intrathecal IgG synthesis and specificity of oligoclonal IgG in patients infected with HIV-1 do not correlate with CNS disease. *J Med Virol*. 1991;33:106–113.
182. Dubos F, Korzcowski B, Aygun DA, et al. Serum procalcitonin level and other biological markers to distinguish between bacterial and aseptic meningitis in children: a European multicenter case cohort study. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med*. 2008;162:1157–1163.
183. Matsushige T, Ichiyama T, Anlar B, et al. CSF neurofilament and soluble TNF receptor 1 levels in subacute sclerosing panencephalitis. *J Neuroimmunol*. 2008;205:155–159.
184. Tanuma N, Miyata R, Nakajima K, et al. Changes in cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers in human herpesvirus-6-associated acute encephalopathy/febrile seizures. *Mediators Inflamm*. 2014;2014:564091.
185. Henningson AJ, Lager M, Brannstrom R, Tjernberg I, Skogman BH. The chemokine CXCL13 in cerebrospinal fluid in children with Lyme neuroborreliosis. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2018;37:1983–1991.
186. Cengiz P, Zemlan F, Ellenbogen R, Hawkins D, Zimmerman JJ. Cerebrospinal fluid cleaved-tau protein and 9-hydroxyoctadecadienoic acid concentrations in pediatric patients with hydrocephalus. *Pediatr Crit Care Med*. 2008;9:524–529.
187. Gopal SC, Sharma V, Chansuria JP, Gangopadhyaya AN, Singh TB. Serotonin and 5-hydroxy indole acetic acid in infantile hydrocephalus. *Pediatr Surg Int*. 2007;23:571–574.
188. Felderhoff-Mueser U, Herold R, Hochhaus F, et al. Increased cerebrospinal fluid concentrations of soluble Fas (CD95/Apo-1) in hydrocephalus. *Arch Dis Child*. 2001;84:369–372.
189. Morales DM, Holubkov R, Inder TE, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid levels of amyloid precursor protein are associated with ventricular size in post-hemorrhagic hydrocephalus of prematurity. *PLoS One*. 2015;10:e0115045.
190. Morales DM, Townsend RR, Malone JP, et al. Alterations in protein regulators of neurodevelopment in the cerebrospinal fluid of infants with post-hemorrhagic hydrocephalus of prematurity. *Mol Cell Proteomics*. 2012;11:M111.011973.
191. Madsen JR, Shim JW, Abazi G, et al. VEGF-A is elevated in CSF of pediatric patients undergoing surgery for hydrocephalus. *Cerebrospinal Fluid Res*. 2009;6(suppl 1):S13.
192. Hochhaus F, Koehne P, Schaper C, et al. Elevated nerve growth factor and neurotrophin-3 levels in cerebrospinal fluid of children with hydrocephalus. *BMC Pediatr*. 2001;1:2.
193. Sival DA, Felderhoff-Muser U, Schmitz T, Hoving EW, Schaller C, Heep A. Neonatal high pressure hydrocephalus is associated with elevation of pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-18 and IFN-gamma in cerebrospinal fluid. *Cerebrospinal Fluid Res*. 2008;5:21.
194. Cengiz P, Zemlan F, Eickhoff JC, Ellenbogen R, Zimmerman JJ. Increased cerebrospinal fluid cleaved tau protein (C-tau) levels suggest axonal damage in pediatric patients with brain tumors. *Childs Nerv Syst*. 2015;31:1313–1319.
195. Li VW, Folkerth RD, Watanabe H, et al. Microvessel count and cerebrospinal fluid basic fibroblast growth factor in children with brain tumours. *Lancet*. 1994;344:82–86.
196. Saratsis AM, Yadavilli S, Magge S, et al. Insights into pediatric diffuse intrinsic pontine glioma through proteomic analysis of cerebrospinal fluid. *Neuro Oncol*. 2012;14:547–560.
197. Muller HL, Oh Y, Gargosky SE, Lehrnbecher T, Hintz RL, Rosenfeld RG. Concentrations of insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-binding protein-3 (IGFBP-3), IGF, and IGFBP-3 protease activity in cerebrospinal fluid of children with leukemia, central nervous system tumor, or meningitis. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1993;77:1113–1119.
198. Muller HL, Oh Y, Lehrnbecher T, Blum WF, Rosenfeld RG. Insulin-like growth factor-binding protein-2 concentrations in cerebrospinal fluid and serum of children with malignant solid tumors or acute leukemia. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1994;79:428–434.
199. Kao CL, Chiou SH, Ho DM, et al. Elevation of plasma and cerebrospinal fluid osteopontin levels in patients with atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumor. *Am J Clin Pathol*. 2005;123:297–304.
200. Incesoy-Ozdemir S, Sahin G, Bozkurt C, Oren AC, Balkaya E, Ertem U. The relationship between cerebrospinal fluid osteopontin level and central nervous system involvement in childhood acute leukemia. *Turk J Pediatr*. 2013;55:42–49.
201. Watanabe S, Aihara Y, Kikuno A, et al. A highly sensitive and specific chemiluminescent enzyme immunoassay for placental alkaline phosphatase in the cerebrospinal fluid of patients with intracranial germinomas. *Pediatr Neurosurg*. 2012;48:141–145.
202. Figarella-Branger D, Dubois C, Chauvin P, De Victor B, Genet JC, Rougon G. Correlation between polysialic-neural cell adhesion molecule levels in CSF and medulloblastoma outcomes. *J Clin Oncol*. 1996;14:2066–2072.
203. Vege A, Rognum TO, Scott H, Aasen AO, Saugstad OD. SIDS cases have increased levels of interleukin-6 in cerebrospinal fluid. *Acta Paediatr*. 1995;84:193–196.
204. Vege A, Rognum TO, Anestad G. IL-6 cerebrospinal fluid levels are related to laryngeal IgA and epithelial HLA-DR response in sudden infant death syndrome. *Pediatr Res*. 1999;45:803–809.
205. Jones KL, Krous HF, Nadeau J, Blackbourne B, Zielke HR, Gozal D. Vascular endothelial growth factor in the cerebrospinal fluid of infants who died of sudden infant death syndrome: evidence for antecedent hypoxia. *Pediatrics*. 2003;111:358–363.
206. Ditzen C, Tang N, Jastorff AM, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers for major depression confirm relevance of associated pathophysiology. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2012;37:1013–1025.
207. Shi M, Bradner J, Hancock AM, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers for Parkinson disease diagnosis and progression. *Ann Neurol*. 2011;69:570–580.
208. Furukawa Y, Nishi K, Kondo T, Mizuno Y, Narabayashi H. Juvenile parkinsonism: ventricular CSF bipterin levels and clinical features. *J Neurol Sci*. 1992;108:207–213.
209. Hall S, Surova Y, Ohrfelt A, et al. Longitudinal measurements of cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers in Parkinson's disease. *Mov Disord*. 2016;31:898–905.
210. Fonteh AN, Harrington RJ, Huhmer AF, Biringer RG, Riggins JN, Harrington MG. Identification of disease markers in human cerebrospinal fluid using lipidomic and proteomic methods. *Dis Markers*. 2006;22:39–64.
211. Hunter P. Reading the metabolic fine print. The application of metabolomics to diagnostics, drug research and nutrition might be integral to improved health and personalized medicine. *EMBO Rep*. 2009;10:20–23.
212. Willemsen MA, Verbeek MM, Kamsteeg EJ, et al. Tyrosine hydroxylase deficiency: a treatable disorder of brain catecholamine biosynthesis. *Brain*. 2010;133(pt 6):1810–1822.
213. Hyland K. Inherited disorders affecting dopamine and serotonin: critical neurotransmitters derived from aromatic amino acids. *J Nutr*. 2007;137(6 suppl 1):1568S–1572S [discussion: 1573S–1575S].
214. Wassenberg T, Molero-Luis M, Jeltsch K, et al. Consensus guideline for the diagnosis and treatment of aromatic L-amino acid decarboxylase (AADC) deficiency. *Orphanet J Rare Dis*. 2017;12:12.
215. Kim YS, Zhang H, Kim HY. Profiling neurosteroids in cerebrospinal fluids and plasma by gas chromatography/electron capture negative chemical ionization mass spectrometry. *Anal Biochem*. 2000;277:187–195.