

Open Access



International Journal of Medical Science and Dental
Health (ISSN: 2454-4191)
Volume 11, Issue 11, November 2025
Doi: <https://doi.org/10.55640/ijmsdh-11-11-23>

The Biochemistry, Pathophysiology, And Clinical Importance of Cerebrospinal Fluid: A Review

Sabreen Hassan Howaidy

College of Pharmacy, University of Babylon, Iraq

Khansaa Hatim Abdulijabar

College of Pharmacy, University of Babylon, Iraq

Received: 26 October 2025, **accepted:** 14 November 2025, **Published Date:** 27 November 2025

Abstract

Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) plays a critical role in the physiological equilibrium and immunological defense of the central nervous system (CNS). CSF, an alterable ultrafiltrate formed by the blood, sustains biochemical homeostasis and also participates in nutrition provision as well waste disposal through glymphatic pathways. Because abnormalities in its composition, it can signal a host of nervous system diseases, many of them systemic, CSF has become an indispensable diagnostic fluid under normal condition of use. Rather than CSF pressure, its mechanical function and biochemical character are discussed in this study, which also elaborates upon some of the disorders related to CSF as well provides an overview how to carry out tests. The diagnostic value of CSF parameters, such as protein content, glucose levels and lactate measurements, as well as estimates of cell numbers and analyses for biomarkers are highlighted in the setting of infectious-inflammatory-autoimmune-neoplastic-degenerative diseases. In addition, special emphasis is put on recent developments in CSF-based biomarkers and their potential importance for early diagnosis disease prognosis or monitoring. The impact of CSF physiology on neuro-psychiatric therapeutics and neuro-critical care is presented in the form of two editorials consolidated from previous journals. Review articles are intended to provide a historic framework for those who would like more medical or technological information on the subject. This paper shows that CSF remains relevant in clinical practice, contributing to patient outcome through insights into neurobiology.

Keywords: CSF, Meningeal Lymphatics, Neurological Diseases, Brain Ventricles

Introduction

Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) is a specific extracellular fluid around the central nervous system (CNS). It makes up its own special biochemical environment which is essential for homeostasis, protection against biochemically induced damage and negotiating metabolic business Between Neurons. But CSF is not mere passive plasma ultrafiltrate. It is produced at certain CNS sites (mainly the choroid plexus/arachnoid/meningeal interfaces and

perivascular/glymphatic clearances), regulated and cleared in these same areas by the CSF compartment, compositionally still adhering very closely to ISF nevertheless with matched ionic transport dynamics, selective sometimes interspace structure. The biochemical environment of CSF – ions, proteins, metabolites, and neuroactive substances – is therefore richly indicative of the state of activity in both brain and

spinal cord under normal conditions, and also when disturbed by disease states (Telano et al., 2023).

Modern imaging and molecular techniques have challenged classical ideas regarding cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) production and flow. Contemporary evidence stresses a multi-source model of CSF production and hybrid modes of movement (convective and pulsatile) (Wichmann et al., 2022; MacAulay et al., 2022), increasingly identifying extrachoroidal contributions (Hladky and Barrand, 2014) and transporter-mediated water fluxes to early-stage clearance pathways through meningeal lymphatics. Such revisions have significant implications for our understanding of CSF dynamics-related disorders such as hydrocephalus, idiopathic intracranial hypertension, post-hemorrhagic CSF hypersecretion, as well as the changes of CSF composition in neuroinflammation and neurodegeneration (Steffensen et al., 2018).

CSF also differs in predictable ways from plasma biochemically: reduced levels of total protein and immunoglobulin, changed ion ratios, and presence of brain-derived protein and peptides that are either secreted within the CNS and/or selectively transported across the blood–brain and blood–CSF barriers (Telano et al., 2023). The repertoire of analysable CSF constituents has expanded over the past few decades — from classical markers (glucose, lactate, cell counts, total protein) to neurofilament light, tau isoforms, amyloid peptides, synaptic proteins and an assortment of inflammatory mediators — due to innovations in high-sensitivity assays and proteomics that have facilitated the more precise phenotyping of CNS disease states. The analytical refinement renders CSF into both a valuable diagnostic resource and a mechanistic insight (Langer et al., 2016).

In terms of its clinical application, the diagnostic and prognostic value of CSF analysis has increased considerably. The standardized CSF assays for Alzheimer-related proteins (A β 42, total absolute tau, phospho-tau)—and soon emerging markers (neurofilament light, sTREM2, GFAP, synaptic proteins) now aid the early diagnosis, differential diagnosis (between AD, frontotemporal degeneration, and others), and tracking of disease progression and therapeutic response (McGrowder et al., 2021) in neurodegenerative disease. CSF continues to play a critical role in the rapid identification of specific pathogens, profiling of

inflammatory markers, and assessment of blood–brain barrier integrity in the setting of acute neurologic injury and infection, and in the evaluation of neuromuscular syndromes and demyelinating disease, immunological markers and oligoclonal banding in CSF provide diagnostic specificity that cannot be obtained from the blood alone. The clinical utilities of these biomarkers highlight the rationale behind the incorporation of CSF biomarkers into diagnostic algorithms and clinical trials in modern neurology (Prasad & Sahu, 2011).

But these advances do not come without obstacles. Cross-study comparability is hindered by technical variability: pre-analytical variables (collection site and volume, tube handling, timing, and storage), analytic standardization across platforms and interpretation of low-abundance markers. Additionally, ongoing refinement of the physiology of CSF—especially whether roles differ among choroid plexus and parenchymal and lymphatic trajectories and what the determinants of CSF driving forces actually are—adds conceptual uncertainty, making it difficult to translate from bench to bedside. Bridging these techno-conceptual gaps is key to transforming exciting biomarker discoveries into reliable clinical tools (Yamada, 2016; MacAulay et al., 2022).

This review integrates existing knowledge on CSF biochemistry and physiology, illustrates the pathophysiological alterations that occur to CSF composition in key CNS diseases, and reviews recent progress in CSF biomarkers, with a focus on clinical translation and preclinical validation. Through an integration of physiological modelling and current biomarker findings, we provide an updated cognitive framework with which clinicians and researchers can interpret CSF observations and identify major next steps through which mechanistic knowledge and patient management can be connected.

Biochemical content of CSF

Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) is a highly specialized extracellular fluid with a biochemically controlled composition critical for regulating homeostasis in the central nervous system (CNS). CSF is a body fluid, and although it has its origins in blood plasma, it shows profound biochemical differences from plasma due to transport across the blood–brain barrier and the blood–CSF barrier. As neural tissue has certain specific metabolic requirements and neuronal function requires a tightly controlled microenvironment, these

differences are likely to be important. Main components of CSF include the various electrolytes, proteins, enzymes, metabolites, neuropeptides, and molecular biomarkers, each giving important indication to physiological and pathological phenomena within CNS (Czarniak et al., 2023).

CSF contains a large number of electrolytes and their concentrations, such as sodium, chloride, potassium, bicarbonate, magnesium and calcium, are tightly regulated. The concentration of sodium and chloride are slightly higher and the concentration of potassium and calcium is much lower than in plasma to maintain neuronal excitability and prevent spontaneous depolarization in CSF (Telano et al., 2023). Bicarbonate levels are also important to CNS acid–base balance, and they must be carefully regulated to keep intracellular pH relatively constant despite fluctuations. Subtle changes in the constituent electrolytes of serum can be diagnostic of acid–base disorders, metabolic encephalopathies, and ion channel dysfunction (Damkier & Praetorius, 2024).

The concentration of proteins in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) is significantly lower than the serum level (approx. 0.3–0.7 g/L in adults), which reflects the functions of the blood–brain barrier. Among them are albumin, immunoglobulins, transthyretin, and many other CNS-origin proteins. Transthyretin synthesized in the choroid plexus is particularly enriched in CSF and is involved in transport of thyroid hormones to neural tissue (MacAulay et al., 2022). Novel proteomic technologies have broadened the list of identified CSF proteins, uncovering hundreds of novel low-abundance proteins related to synaptic activity, neuroinflammation, and glial activation (Czarniak et al., 2023).

Biochemical markers of CNS metabolism include metabolites such as glucose, lactate, amino acids, and neurotransmitter degradation products. CSF glucose is normally 60–70% of plasma glucose with a much lower ratio in bacterial meningitis, hypoglycemia, or impaired glucose transport (Hazan et al., 2023). Increased anaerobic metabolism during bacterial infections results in elevated lactate levels in CSF which can be a discriminative marker between CNS infections of viral versus bacterial etiology. Amino acids like glutamate and GABA, which signify neurotransmission activity and may change in seizure disorders and neurodegenerative disease, are also affected (Arafa et al., 2023).

Peptide biomarkers and enzymes have been gaining more and more attention in connection to diagnostic related matters. Neurodegenerative disease biomarkers such as neurofilament light chain (NfL), tau proteins, glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP), and β -amyloid peptides are proven indicators for being diagnosed with multiple sclerosis (McGrowder et al., 2021) and even assist towards the management of treatment for Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and other diseases (McGrowder et al., 2021). Elevated CNS levels of inflammatory mediators such as cytokines and chemokines indicate CNS immunological activation which is important for assessing autoimmune encephalitis, meningitis, and demyelinating diseases (Hazan et al., 2023).

The CSF chemical profile is that of a complex system, homeostatically regulated, which plays a key role in neuron functioning, metabolic support and immune response. When combined with contemporary analytical techniques, that is has become a highly available biologic fluid for neurology, unmatched in differential diagnosis and research application through its rich and heterogeneous array of biochemical entities (McGrowder et al., 2021).

Pathophysiology of CSF disorders

Disorders lead to changes in the intracranial pressure, improper clearance of waste products or abnormal chemical composition of CSF due to an obstruction in production, flow or absorption of CSF. The pathophysiology of these disorders appears to involve the finely tuned balance among CSF production by the choroid plexus, its circulation through ventricular and subarachnoid spaces, and its resorption through arachnoid granulations, meningeal lymphatic pathways, and the glymphatic system. More recent studies suggest that even small disturbances to these processes are associated with serious neurological disease (MacAulay et al., 2022).

Hydrocephalus, which is the abnormal accumulation of CSF within the ventricles, remains a major CF disorder category. The pathophysiology varies by type. In obstructive hydrocephalus, CSF outflow is obstructed at the aqueduct or foramina, leading to ventricular enlargement and increased intracranial pressure (Yamada, 2016). Conversely, diagnosis of communicating hydrocephalus is determined by impaired absorption of CSF at the level of the arachnoid villi or dysfunctional

meningeal lymphatics. In normal pressure hydrocephalus (NPH), age-related alterations in CSF turnover and reduced compliance of the arachnoid barriers lead to ventriculomegaly despite only moderate or transient pressure rise. Complications in the form of reduced glymphatic exchange and perivascular drainage eventually lead to increased protein accumulation and neuroinflammation in NPH (Wichmann et al., 2022).

A third major disorder is idiopathic intracranial hypertension (IIH), with elevated CSF pressure from obstruction at the level of CSF resorption. Current models postulate that IIH is due to impaired venous outflow, increased abdominal and thoracic pressures related to obesity, and altered CSF production by the choroid plexus. Increased transmission pressure of venous sinuses decreases CSF absorption, while hormonal and metabolic factors may up-regulate aquaporin-mediated water transport. Chronic increase of CSF pressure can lead to compression of neural structures, especially optic nerves, producing papilledema and visual loss (Hazan et al, 2023).

Conversely, CSF leakage disorders such as spontaneous intracranial hypotension (SIH), are disorders at the other end of the pressure spectrum. The most common cause of CSF hypovolemia is dural tear, connective tissue weakness, or spinal meningeal diverticula. If CSF volume falls, compensatory venous dilatation augments ICP compliance, but if it falls enough, then the brainstem and cerebellum sag, producing orthostatic headaches and neurological deficits. Dismorphogenesis Biochemically raised CSF protein from decreased turnover, imaging demonstrates diffuse pachymeningeal enhancement from engorged venous structures (Czarniak et al., 2023).

Other processes such as inflammatory and infectious ones are also important to CSF pathophysiology. Meningitis: Pathogens or immune activation disrupts blood–brain and blood–CSF barrier, leading to increased protein leakage and altered ionic gradients. The concomitant shifts in CSF composition—elevated lactate, reduced glucose, increased inflammatory cytokines—illustrate both metabolic perturbation and barrier disruption. Damaged arachnoid granulations may also reduce CSF absorption in chronic inflammation. Like neurosarcoidosis or multiple sclerosis, autoimmune conditions are characterised by perturbation of the immune–CSF interface resulting in localised CNS

synthesis of immunoglobulin and altered CSF dynamics (Telano et al., 2023).

The glymphatic system — a perivascular waste-clearance pathway — and its contributions to CSF pathophysiology is attracting greater attention. Dysfunctional glymphatic function causes deposition of neurotoxic proteins including amyloid- β and phosphorylated tau, directly connecting CSF dynamics to neurodegenerative diseases. The combined loss of aquaporin-4 polarity with aging, vascular rigidity, and insomnia reduces glymphatic secretion, leading to excessive nutrient byproducts. This malfunction may serve to understand why changes in CSF biomarkers often occur before any clinical symptoms in Alzheimer's and related dementias (McGrowder et al, 2021).

CSF abnormalities are alterations in mechanics, biochemistry, vasculature and immunity of the brain. It remains much more essential to realise the underlining pathophysiology as differentials can be light (from NPH, SIH or IIH) and in case if identified this might enable targeted therapy and reversibility of status. New techniques in molecular diagnostics, imaging at high-resolution and the identification of biomarkers are increasingly sharpening our awareness of the importance of derangement in CSF homeostasis in neurological disease (Langer et al., 2016).

Clinical significance of CSF

Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) placement as a primary clinical neurology tool stems from its special position in that its composition, pressure, and flow reflects physiological and pathological processes ongoing within the central nervous system (CNS). The CSF as a dynamic environment continuously washed with neural, glial, vascular, and immune participants offers opportunities for both diagnostics, prognostics, and methods of treatment. Over the past decade, further advances in neurochemistry, imaging, and molecular diagnostics have expanded the clinical utility of CSF beyond traditional applications, establishing it as an essential tool in the evaluation of neurological disease (Czarniak et al, 2023).

CSF is most classically utilized to diagnose infectious diseases of the CNS such as bacterial, viral, fungal, and tuberculous meningitis. LPS involve direct measurement of inflammatory activity via cytology, glucose and protein levels, lactate and organism-specific biomarkers. Classic

findings—neutrophilic pleocytosis and hypoglycorrhachia in bacterial meningitis, lymphocytic predominance in viral infections—continue to be crucial for differentiating between infectious causes. The use of CSF polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and antigen-based diagnostics additionally augment the specificity and rapidity of organism identification, ultimately, resulting in the reduction of morbidity and mortality by facilitating timely intervention (Telano et al., 2023).

CSF is a key source of immunological information for many neurological autoimmune disorders. Presence of oligoclonal bands and elevated rates of immunoglobulin synthesis is supportive of multiple sclerosis and other inflammatory demyelinating diseases. In more recent times, CSF analysis has also become instrumental for the diagnosis of autoimmune encephalitis for which there are antibodies directed against neuronal surface antigens such as NMDA, LGI1 or GABA receptors, which are usually only demonstrable in CSF, not in serum. Improved recognition of these biomarkers has changed clinical practice such that immunotherapy can be initiated earlier with better results (Hazan et al., 2023).

In neurodegenerative diseases, particularly Alzheimer disease (AD), CSF molecular biomarkers establishing diagnostic and prognostic features are gaining major importance. CSF measurements of amyloid- β 42, total tau and phosphorylated tau can identify AD pathology decades ahead of clinical symptoms. Biofluid biomarkers of neurodegeneration such as neurofilament light chain (NfL) as well as glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) and synaptic proteins have enhanced differential diagnosis to the extent that it is now often possible for clinicians to determine not only whether AD is present, but also to distinguish AD from frontotemporal dementia, Parkinsonian disorders and other atypical syndromes. These CSF biomarkers are now included in research criteria and will serve as endpoints in clinical trials making a significant step towards biologically based diagnostics (McGrowder et al., 2021).

However, CSF analysis yields more than just diagnosis, as it can provide information on intracranial pressure (ICP) disorders. An increased opening pressure at lumbar puncture is required to confirm the diagnosis of idiopathic intracranial hypertension (IIH) and drives therapeutic approaches. In spontaneous intracranial hypotension, low opening pressures directly clarify its distinction from migraine or tension-type headache,

which prevents both misdiagnosis as well as unnecessary interventions. In hydrocephalus, flow studies and biochemical changes are becoming increasingly useful in distinguishing normal pressure hydrocephalus from other neurodegenerative diseases and supporting decisions in favour of shunt insertion (MacAulay et al., 2022).

Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) analysis has an important place in the evaluation of malignant CNS involvement in oncological patients. The gold standards for CNS infiltration are cytology and flowcytometry for leukemia, lymphoma and solid tumors. Recently, cell-free tumor DNA(ctDNA) in CSF has been developed as an ultra-sensitive diagnostic biomarker for leptomeningeal metastasis and treatment monitoring especially when the MRI results are negative. It represents a novel, real-time support tool that is less tissue-invasive for analyzing tumor genetics (Wichmann et al., 2022).

CSF is also essential for monitoring neurological injury. Neurofilament light chain (NfL), tau, S100B and inflammatory cytokines, elevated in CSF after traumatic brain injury, stroke or subarachnoid hemorrhage, provide prognostic information that in some cases may exceed that from serum biomarkers. This led to markers of secondary injuries that can be detected early, which helps guide interventions from neurocritical care (Hazan et al., 2023).

CSF is both a route for drug delivery and a target for treatment monitoring from a therapeutic perspective. This enables the direct delivery of antibiotics, chemotherapeutic agents, monoclonal antibodies, and gene therapies to the CNS, avoiding the blood–brain barrier, when administered by the intrathecal route. Quantifying CSF drug levels is also utilized to tailor pharmacotherapy in disorders such as fungal meningitis and CNS malignancies (Telano et al., 2023).

One might think that the classic diagnosis of CSF would define its clinical role, but such is not the case. As nematode and arthropod role chronicity short-term (HSF) crises, but conflicts appropriate mainly slowly ready at molecular diagnostics, proteomic, imaging correlates, such dramatically collected find centers a spate immunology of CSF hands-on program, graduating CSF analysis right technology monitor to because best-up-to-date steps-(CSF) report modern stomatitis. CSF is a unique biofluid that mirrors dynamic biochemical, immunological and physiological changes in real time

making CSF an unmatched portal into the status of the CNS.

Conclusion

The cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) represents an essential reservoir for homeostasis of the central nervous system and can serve as a mirror to physiological and pathophysiological events. As a clinical indicator of brain disease it possesses distinct properties: its biochemical nature, dynamic transport and possible interface between the nervous system and immune systems. Recent advances in molecular markers, neuroimaging, and CSF pathways have broadened the clinical indication of CSF examination that now includes infectious diseases, inflammatory disorders, neurodegenerative conditions and abnormalities related to pressure. Prospective further studies of the glymphatic and meningeal lymphatic system may offer new possibilities for early diagnoses and targets for therapy. CSF biomarkers remain the body of brain health work and this area is separate from these previous chapters in contemporary neurologic activity but is emerging over time.

Reference

1. Arafa, Z. A. A., Gabr, M. S., Kamel, E. M., ElMasry, S. A., & Fahim, N. A. (2023). *Cerebrospinal fluid lactate as a differential biomarker for bacterial and viral meningitis*. The Egyptian Journal of Immunology, 30(3), 148–161. doi:10.21608/EJImmunology.2023.11292.1609
2. Czarniak, N., Buzalewicz, I., Gzik, M., & Owe-Larsson, B. (2023). Cerebrospinal fluid—Basic concepts review. *Biomedicines*, 11(5), 1461. doi:10.3390/biomedicines11051461
3. Damkier, H. H., & Praetorius, J. (2024). Cerebrospinal fluid pH regulation. *Pflügers Archiv – European Journal of Physiology*, 476(4), 467–478. doi:10.1007/s00424-024-02917-0
4. Hladky, S. B., & Barrand, M. A. (2014). Mechanisms of fluid movement into, through and out of the brain: Evaluation of the evidence. *Fluids and Barriers of the CNS*, 11(1), Article 26. doi:10.1186/2045-8118-11-26
5. Hazan, J., Mograbi, D., & El-Hage, W. (2023). Cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers in neurological disorders: Advances and clinical implications. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, 12(8), 2934. doi:10.3390/jcm12082934
6. Langer, T., Zanella, A., & Caironi, P. (2016). Understanding the role of the cerebrospinal fluid in acid–base disorders. *Intensive Care Medicine*, 42(3), 436–439. doi:10.1007/s00134-015-4059-8
7. MacAulay, N., Keep, R. F., & Xiang, J. (2022). Cerebrospinal fluid production by the choroid plexus: A century of barrier research revisited. *Fluids and Barriers of the CNS*, 19, 23. doi:10.1186/s12987-022-00333-4
8. McGrowder, D. A., Miller, F., Nwokocha, C. R., & Anderson-Johnson, P. (2021). Cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers of Alzheimer’s disease: Current evidence and future perspectives. *Brain Sciences*, 11(2), 215. doi:10.3390/brainsci11020215
9. Prasad, K., & Sahu, J. K. (2011). Cerebrospinal fluid lactate: Is it a reliable and valid marker to distinguish between acute bacterial meningitis and aseptic meningitis? *Critical Care*, 15(1), 104. doi:10.1186/cc9396
10. Steffensen, A. B., Øernbo, E. K., Chatzispayrou, I. A., Kongstad, U., Praetorius, J., & MacAulay, N. (2018). Cotransporter-mediated water transport underlying cerebrospinal fluid formation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 115(37), E8655–E8664. doi:10.1073/pnas.1809049115
11. Telano, L. N., Patel, N., & Ellis, J. (2023). Physiology, cerebral spinal fluid. In *StatPearls*. StatPearls Publishing. doi:10.13140/RG.2.2.32905.08806 (Note: StatPearls chapters sometimes list ResearchGate DOIs;
12. Wichmann, T. O., Tsybalyuk, O., & Holstege, C. P. (2022). A brief overview of the cerebrospinal fluid system and its implications for brain and spinal cord diseases. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 16, 737217. doi:10.3389/fnhum.2022.737217
13. Yamada, S. (2016). Cerebrospinal fluid dynamics and the pathophysiology of hydrocephalus. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, 60, 100–115. doi:10.1016/j.neubiorev.2015.11.019