

Understanding Host-Pathogen Interaction in the Cornea: Inflammatory response and Cure

Abstract

Microbial keratitis is a serious disease of the cornea that poses a major risk to the health and vision of people all over the world. It is caused by various microbial invaders, including bacteria, fungi and viruses, making it difficult to diagnose and treat. Combating microbial keratitis requires understanding the intricate web of immune responses and pathogenic pathways that cause the infection. To develop innovative strategies to treat the disease and improve patient survival, we need to understand how the immune system works, how hosts and infections interact and how complicated the pathophysiology is. Looking to the future, we are on the cusp of a transformative era in treating microbial keratitis. Innovations in therapeutic technology, such as targeted antimicrobial drugs, immunomodulatory therapies and precision medicine techniques, are set to revolutionise the field. These advancements will enable customised treatments for specific microbiological causes and patient characteristics. Integrating molecular biology, imaging and artificial intelligence into novel diagnostic techniques will enhance early diagnosis and personalised treatment programmes, leading to better clinical outcomes and reduced ocular morbidity. Collaboration between clinicians, researchers, and industry representatives is critical to accelerating the translation of scientific knowledge into clinical practice. Improving patient care, increasing treatment efficacy and saving eyesight are the goals for the future of microbial keratitis treatment.

Keywords

Microbial keratitis, Bacteria keratitis, Fungi keratitis, Inflammation, Corneal infection, Cytokines

1. INTRODUCTION

Visual perception is based on the transparency of the cornea, which concentrates the light on the retina. Exposure to the outside world increases the risk of infection due to the unique anatomy of the eye. A destroyed epithelium impairs the body's defences and allows dangerous bacteria to cause corneal inflammation [1]. The destruction of the anatomical barriers weakens the host's defences, but the intact ocular surface suppresses most infections. Thus, a weak immune response allows infection to occur, which can damage vision [2]. Microbial keratitis, often referred to as infectious keratitis, threatens vision. Microbes in the cornea are dangerous. Corneal inflammation is common and can lead to blindness. To prevent loss of vision, microbial keratitis must be diagnosed and treated immediately [3, 4]. Bacteria, fungi and viruses in the cornea cause an infection that threatens vision. These microorganisms cause physiological reactions in the cornea that can lead to a severe eye infection that threatens vision [5]. When these infections invade the corneal epithelium, they grow and

cause inflammation in the underlying corneal layers. This disease can permanently destroy the delicate eye tissue [6]. Microbial keratitis can progress rapidly and lead to ulcers, holes and irreversible vision loss if left untreated. As it can affect vision, it is even more important to act quickly, get the right diagnosis and treat it properly to protect your vision and avoid long-term health risks [7, 8]. Although diagnosis and treatment have improved, microbial keratitis still causes visual impairment and blindness worldwide [9, 5]. Poor cleanliness, contact lens wear and eye trauma cause microbial keratitis. Prevention, early detection and prompt treatment are necessary to reduce the epidemiologic burden of ankylosing spondylitis and its negative impact on eye health and quality of life [8, 10]. Microbial invasion of the cornea causes complex physiologic responses, including microbial keratitis, according to the study. It also addresses microbiological, physiological and immunological aspects of the treatment of microbial keratitis.

2. SIGNIFICANT INCIDENCE OF MICROBIAL KERATITIS IN INDIA

According to epidemiological data, microbial keratitis is one of the significant causes of eye diseases and is still prevalent in India. Microbial keratitis remains one of the leading causes of ocular morbidity [9, 11]. Microbes infect the cornea and pose a significant problem for public health and therapeutic practice. This disease, a major national health problem, is defined by microorganisms infecting the cornea. In India, microbial keratitis is high due to factors such as lack of personal hygiene occupational accidents in agriculture and lack of access to health care [9]. Although there have been advances in eye care and treatment, microbial keratitis is still the leading cause of blindness and visual impairment in India. Some Indian researchers from different regions have found that failure of initial therapy or perforation of the cornea correlates with certain factors. In many cases, the observed ulceration and infiltration or hypopyon of microbes are due to delayed treatment [12]. Lalitha et al. conducted a study on patients with fungal keratitis in South India and found that failure of primary treatment or corneal perforation correlated with certain factors. These factors included an infiltrate size greater than 14 mm², a hypopyon at presentation, or a positive culture for *Aspergillus* sp. [13]. Similarly, Rautaraya et al. studied bacterial keratitis in eastern India. They identified larger ulcer size (>25 mm²), poor visual acuity at presentation and advanced age of the patient as predictors of poor outcomes [14, 15] investigated the risk factors for corneal perforation in predominantly bacterial corneal ulcers in northern India. They found that delays in initiating antimicrobial treatment or administering fortified antibiotics for bacterial keratitis contributed significantly to the risk of perforation [15]. The difficulty in diagnosing bacterial keratitis, fungal keratitis or Acanthamoeba keratitis many times leads to delayed initiation of treatment, with clinical features such as feathery margins, a raised surface, satellite lesions and a non-yellow infiltrate colour in fungal keratitis, ring infiltrates in Acanthamoeba keratitis and well-defined margins in bacterial keratitis providing some guidance. However, the prevalence of advanced disease in India warrants further evaluation of the utility of these clinical signs in late-stage disease [11, 16].

3. MICROBES INVOLVED IN MICROBIAL KERATITIS

In keratitis, various microbial pathogens cause an inflammatory reaction leading to inflammatory cell infiltration throughout the cornea. These organisms, which include bacteria, fungi and viruses, cause an immunological response characterised by purulent melting of the corneal epithelium and stroma. This process leads to ulcers in the cornea, contributing to the disease's progression. Intrinsic antigens or infectious agents exacerbate the inflammatory cascade and jeopardise corneal integrity and vision. Efficient diagnosis and tailored therapy are required to reduce the negative consequences of microbial keratitis on the eye's health. Bacteria, fungi and viruses are the primary microbiological pathogens of microbial keratitis, and each of them has its own diagnostic and therapeutic problems.

Studies found that Bacterial keratitis is caused mainly by *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and other gram-positive or gram-negative bacteria (Table: 1A). These bacteria can enter the cornea through trauma, contact lens wear or pre-existing ocular surface abnormalities[17]. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, for example, is known for its tendency to rapidly invade the cornea, leading to severe infections characterised by corneal melting and perforation. Gram-positive bacteria such as *Staphylococcus aureus* frequently create exotoxins and enzymes that cause ocular tissue and cause inflammation[18]. Conditions compromising the corneal epithelium's integrity often led to bacterial keratitis. A complete clinical examination, including slit lamp inspection, corneal scraping with smear and culture analysis, is necessary to make an accurate diagnosis. The primary treatment is antibacterial, although other options include cycloplegics, antiglaucoma medications and oral anti-inflammatory therapies[19]. If the condition worsens despite drug treatment, therapeutic keratoplasty may be required. The goal is to gain a deeper understanding of the causes of bacterial keratitis, existing risk factors, its prevalence, manifestations in individuals, microbiologic and histologic findings, treatment options, potential complications, differentiation between various diagnoses, and prediction of future outcomes[17, 20].

Fungal keratitis is mainly caused by filamentous fungi such as *Fusarium* sp., *Aspergillus* sp. and *Candida* sp. (Table: 1B). These fungi are widespread in the environment. They can enter the cornea via corneal trauma, agricultural damage or contact lens wear [21]. Fungal spores invade the cornea through epithelial defects caused by trauma, contact lens wear or previous eye surgery. Agricultural workers, especially in developing countries, are susceptible to fungal keratitis as a result of eye trauma[22]. Once the fungi have invaded the cornea, they penetrate the intact Descemet's membrane and can enter the eye's anterior chamber via proteolytic enzymes. This invasive nature makes fungal keratitis a severe disease that is difficult to treat and a common cause of unilateral blindness in tropical areas[23]. Non-fungal yeasts such as *Candida* species often cause keratitis in eyes that already have problems with the eye surface or have just undergone topical steroid treatment, making treatment more difficult. *Fusarium* keratitis attracted much attention following an outbreak linked to

contact lens use and contamination of the solution. *Fusarium* species form biofilms on contact lenses and eye surfaces, leading to long-term infections and complicated treatment options[22, 24].

Viral keratitis can be caused by the herpes simplex virus (HSV), the varicella-zoster virus (VZV) and other herpes viruses (Table: 1C). HSV keratitis, in particular, is the most common cause of infectious corneal blindness worldwide. HSV can establish latency in the trigeminal ganglion and be reactivated, leading to recurrent corneal infections with dendritic or regional ulceration. VZV keratitis is often associated with herpes zoster ophthalmicus and presents as a pseudo-dendritic pattern on the corneal surface[25]. Other less common microbial pathogens associated with microbial keratitis are *Acanthamoeba* species, *Nocardia* species and parasites such as Microsporidia and *Acanthamoeba*[26]. Contact lenses increase your risk of developing *Acanthamoeba* keratitis, a potentially dangerous disease requiring prompt diagnosis and treatment to prevent severe vision loss. *Acanthamoeba*, typically found in water, can attach to contact lenses and invade the cornea, causing an infection that worsens if left untreated. It is imperative to get a correct diagnosis immediately as *Acanthamoeba* keratitis can look like other eye diseases and may require special tests in a laboratory to be sure[27]. People with weak immune systems often develop *Nocardia* keratitis, characterised by corneal infiltrates in the cornea. This unique lecture shows the importance of knowing the patient's immune system and applying personalised treatment plans to fight the infection effectively. If *Nocardia* keratitis is not recognised and treated quickly, it can lead to serious eye problems and even loss of vision[28].

(A) Bacteria causing keratitis

<i>Bacteria</i>	<i>Manifestation and features</i>	<i>References</i>
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	<i>S. aureus</i> is a widespread bacterium that lives on skin and mucous membranes. It can cause keratitis through direct contact or by penetrating contact lenses and lens cases and spreading the germs.	[19]
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Severe cases of bacterial keratitis are frequently associated with this opportunistic pathogen, especially in contact lens wearers. <i>P. aeruginosa</i> grows best in moist places and can quickly enter the eye, causing the infection to start and spread rapidly.	[18]
<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>	<i>S. pneumoniae</i> is the primary germ that causes bacterial pneumonia and other respiratory diseases. It can also cause keratitis, especially in people with weakened immune systems or who already have diseases on the eye's surface.	[20]
<i>Serratiamarcescens</i>	This bacterium is frequently found in soil, water and healthcare. It can cause keratitis, especially in eye trauma or contact lens infections.	[29]

<p>Enterobacteriaceae e.g. <i>Klebsiella</i> sp., <i>Enterobacter</i> sp., <i>Citrobacter</i> sp., <i>Salmonella</i> sp., <i>Escherichia coli</i>, <i>Shigella</i>, <i>Proteus</i>, <i>Serratia</i> sp. and other species</p>	<p>Certain members of the Enterobacteriaceae family, such as <i>Escherichia coli</i> and <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>, have been associated with microbial keratitis, which is often associated with eye trauma or contact lens contamination.</p>	<p>[30]</p>
<p><i>Moraxella</i> species</p>	<p><i>Moraxella</i> species, including <i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i>, can cause keratitis, especially in individuals with underlying ocular surface disease or weakened immunity.</p>	<p>[31]</p>
<p><i>Haemophilus influenzae</i></p>	<p><i>H. influenzae</i> usually causes respiratory infections but can also affect the eye and cause keratitis, especially in children and people who are already ill.</p>	<p>[31]</p>

(B) Fungi causing keratitis

<i>Fungi</i>	<i>Manifestation and features</i>	References
<p><i>Fusarium</i> species, e.g. <i>Fusarium polyphialidicum</i></p>	<p><i>Fusarium</i> species are the most common fungi responsible for fungal keratitis in tropical and subtropical climates. These filamentous fungi live in soil, organic material and plant debris. People working in the garden or agriculture often get <i>Fusarium</i> keratitis when they injure plants, e.g., gardening or farming.</p>	<p>[22, 24]</p>
<p><i>Aspergillus</i> species, e.g. <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> and <i>Aspergillus flavus</i></p>	<p><i>Aspergillus</i> species such as <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> and <i>Aspergillus flavus</i> are common moulds found in dirt, dead organic material, and homes. <i>Aspergillus</i> keratitis usually occurs when the cornea is damaged, contact lenses are worn, or surgery is performed on the eye. If you do not treat it, it can quickly and severely damage your eye.</p>	<p>[32]</p>
<p><i>Candida</i> species e.g. <i>Candida albicans</i> and <i>Candida parapsilosis</i></p>	<p>These opportunistic yeasts are often found on the skin and mucous membranes. People who are more likely to get candida keratitis have things like diabetes, a weak immune system or have been taking corticosteroids for a long time. It can also occur after an injury to the eye or after wearing contact lenses.</p>	<p>[33]</p>
<p><i>Alternaria</i> species, e.g. <i>Alternaria alternata</i></p>	<p><i>Alternaria</i> species are filamentous fungi that can occur in soil, dead plants and outdoors. Severe corneal injury is the most common cause of <i>Alternaria</i> keratitis. This is particularly true for people who work in agriculture or spend time outdoors.</p>	<p>[34][35]</p>
<p><i>Curvularia</i></p>	<p><i>Curvularia</i> species are dematiaceous fungi commonly found</p>	<p>[36]</p>

species, e.g. *Curvularia senegalensis* in soil, plant material and decaying vegetation. *Curvularia* keratitis is often associated with traumatic corneal injuries, particularly in agricultural workers or people who work outdoors.

(C) Virus-causing keratitis

<i>Virus</i>	<i>Manifestation</i>	<i>References</i>
HSV	HSV keratitis manifests as dendritic ulcers and more severe forms such as stromal and necrotising keratitis. It is often associated with previous ocular or systemic HSV infections.	[25, 37, 38]
VZV	VZV keratitis often affects patients who have already had chickenpox or shingles. It presents as a type of necrotising keratitis called acute retinal necrosis (ARN) or progressive outer retinal necrosis (PORN).	[25, 39,40]
Adenovirus	Specific adenovirus serotypes, particularly 8, 19, and 37, can cause epidemic kerato-conjunctivitis (EKC), a highly contagious form of viral keratitis. Adenoviral keratitis is characterised by symptoms such as conjunctivitis, keratitis, and sub-epithelial infiltration of the cornea.	[41,42,43]
CMV	CMV, a herpes virus, can cause keratitis, especially in immunocompromised people. CMV keratitis can present as necrotising or endotheliitis and requires antiviral solid treatment.	[25,44]
EBV	EBV, another member of the herpesvirus family, has been associated with viral keratitis, particularly in people suffering from infectious mononucleosis or other EBV-related diseases.	[45,46]

Table1: List of microbes involved in microbial keratitis during corneal infection

4. INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE DURING MICROBIAL KERATITIS

In microbial keratitis, the cornea develops a robust inflammatory reaction to contain and eliminate the invasive microbes. The complicated interactions between different immune cells, cytokines, chemokines and other inflammatory mediators ultimately determine the course and outcome of the infection[47]. In response to microbial infections, pro-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-1 (IL-1), interleukin-6 (IL-6) and tumour necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α) are released by corneal epithelial cells and resident immune cells (Figure1). These cytokines are signalling molecules that ensure that the immune cells are sent to the site of an infection and switched on[48, 49].The complex immune response to corneal infections is becoming increasingly apparent. Pattern recognition receptors such as the Toll-like and Nod-like receptors are essential to the corneal defence system. When they recognise a pathogen, they trigger inflammatory processes. These pathways, including the inflammasome, can cause significant tissue and eye damage, leading to blindness. Knowing how the

immune system causes this tissue damage could help researchers find therapeutic targets and develop more targeted treatments to reduce eye damage in infectious keratitis[50]. Several factors influence vision in infectious keratitis: how the pathogen interacts with the host tissue, the host's natural inflammatory reaction and the drugs used to treat the disease. The pathogen and the severity of the infection influence how strong this inflammatory reaction is and how much damage it causes. We are working to learn more about how pathogens are recognised and how the host's innate immune system responds. The aim is to find new targets for immunomodulatory treatments[23].

Neutrophils are the first line of defence against microorganisms that invade the cornea. They move there in response to chemotactic signals and devour pathogens that come into contact with them. These cells also release antimicrobial peptides, reactive oxygen species (ROS) and cytotoxic molecules to help eliminate pathogens. While antibiotics and antifungals are frequently used to treat corneal infections, a remarkable escalation of antimicrobial resistance is emerging. Extensive research has been made to explore alternative therapeutic strategies, with the clinical prospects of antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) increasingly recognised[51, 52]. Small molecule research targeting the virulence factors of pathogens and the exploration of natural compounds have also gained importance in response to the increasing challenges and demand for effective therapeutic agents[51]. Macrophages, dendritic cells and other antigen-presenting cells also aid in the inflammatory response by removing harmful microbes and releasing antigenic peptides to T-cells, triggering the adaptive immune response. However, the inflammatory mediators produced during microbial keratitis can also cause tissue damage and inflammation, leading to corneal oedema, immune cell infiltration and extracellular matrix degradation[53, 54]. The balance between pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-10 (IL-10) and transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β) is critical for regulating inflammation and promoting tissue healing[55]. Dysregulation of these cytokines can prolong inflammation and delay wound healing[51]. While the inflammatory response is essential for host defence against microbial pathogens, its dysregulation can contribute to tissue damage and visual impairment in microbial keratitis. Understanding these complex immune mechanisms is critical to developing targeted therapeutic strategies to reduce inflammation, promote pathogen clearance, and preserve corneal integrity and visual function[51, 54, 55].

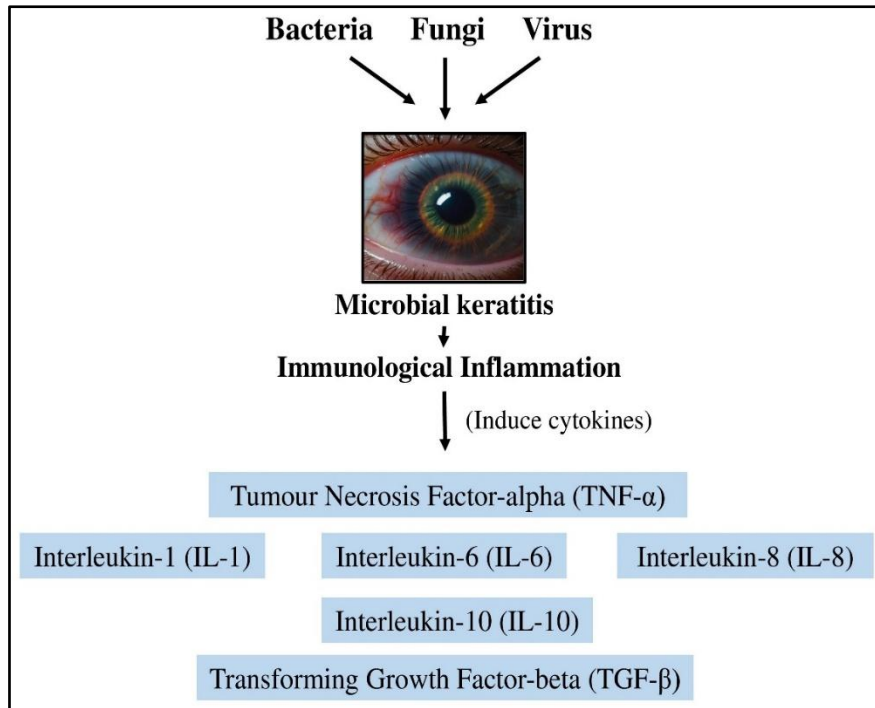


Figure 1: Production of Cytokines during microbial keratitis

A multifaceted immune response aims to eliminate the invading pathogens, heal the inflammation, and promote tissue repair as part of the immunologic mechanism that heals microbial keratitis. Following microbial invasion, corneal epithelial cells and resident immune cells recognise pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) via pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), which trigger pro-inflammatory cytokine production[56]. The site of infection recruit neutrophils that phagocytose and eliminate the pathogens. Macrophages and dendritic cells present microbial antigens to the T-cells, triggering an adaptive immune response. T helper cells release cytokines that increase inflammation and activate cytotoxic T-cells that eliminate infected cells. Regulatory T-cells modulate the immune response to prevent excessive tissue damage. Therapeutic measures aim to modulate the immune response, improve pathogen elimination and promote corneal healing to restore vision and prevent long-term complications[57, 58].

5. NEW ADVANCES IN THE DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT OF MICROBIAL KERATITIS

New advances in the diagnosis and treatment of microbial keratitis offer promising opportunities to improve patient outcomes and preserve vision. These advances include innovative diagnostic techniques such as molecular biology testing, imaging techniques and artificial intelligence algorithms to enhance microbial identification and characterisation accuracy and efficiency. In addition, targeted antimicrobial agents and immunomodulatory therapies are new ways to treat microbial keratitis that could be more precise and effective[59, 60]. In addition, personalised medicine approaches tailored to individual microbial etiologies and patient profiles are becoming increasingly important. Collaboration between clinicians, researchers and industry representatives is driving the translation of

these scientific discoveries into clinical practice, ushering in a new era of microbial keratitis treatment characterised by improved patient care and greater treatment efficacy[59].

Novel pharmaceutical strategies, including drug-loaded contact lenses, in situ, gel formulations and nanoparticle carriers, are innovative ways currently being explored to deliver drugs. These methods investigate the delivery of conventional antimicrobial agents, such as nucleosides, fluoroquinolones, and steroids, to improve the eye's bioavailability[61]. Drug-loaded contact lenses offer prolonged drug release and provide a sustained therapeutic effect. In situ gel formulations adapt to the ocular environment and provide a controlled release and prolonged duration of drug action. Nanoparticle carriers facilitate targeted drug delivery and improve drug penetration and efficacy. In addition to these pharmaceutical advances, corneal cross-linking is a non-pharmaceutical technique promising in treating keratitis[62]. By strengthening the collagen bonds of the cornea, corneal cross-linking aims to halt the progression of the disease and promote tissue healing, representing a new therapeutic approach in the treatment of keratitis.

6. PROSPECTS OF MICROBIAL KERATITIS AND ITS CURE

Advances in research and technology are opening up promising prospects for the future of microbial keratitis and its treatment. Innovative pharmaceutical approaches such as drug-loaded contact lenses, in situ gel formulations and nanoparticle carriers will change the delivery of drugs and increase the efficacy of antimicrobial agents by improving their ocular bioavailability. At the same time, the development of non-pharmaceutical techniques, such as corneal cross-linking, opens up new avenues for treating keratitis to prevent disease progression and promote tissue healing by strengthening corneal collagen bonds. Also, new diagnostic methods using molecular biology, imaging technologies and artificial intelligence have the potential to revolutionise the early detection and accurate diagnosis of microbial keratitis. These advances enable prompt and targeted therapeutic interventions that improve treatment efficacy. Collaboration between clinicians, researchers and industry representatives is critical in translating scientific breakthroughs into clinical practice. It drives the development of personalised treatment strategies tailored to individual microbial etiologies and patient profiles.

7. CONCLUSION

Microbial keratitis triggers a severe inflammatory reaction in the cornea, which serves as a defence mechanism against invading pathogens. This immune response is critical in containing and eradicating the microbial invasion. With continued advances in therapeutic strategies involving novel pharmaceutical and non-pharmaceutical interventions, there is some optimism about the potential for more effective treatment of microbial keratitis. These innovative therapeutic approaches aim to optimise drug delivery, strengthen tissue integrity and regulate immune responses to fight infection more effectively. By introducing breakthrough treatments and fostering collaboration between

researchers, clinicians and industry representatives, the prospects for improved outcomes in treating microbial keratitis are promising. Ultimately, these advances promise to minimise ocular morbidity, preserve visual acuity and improve the overall quality of life for people affected by microbial keratitis.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

None

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

None

References:

1. Bashir H, Seykora JT, Lee V. Invisible shield: review of the corneal epithelium as a barrier to UV radiation, pathogens, and other environmental stimuli. *Journal of ophthalmic & vision research.* 2017;12(3):305.
2. Shah S, Patel V. Targeting Posterior Eye Infections with Colloidal Carriers: The Case of Ganciclovir. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics.* 2023 Sep 18:123427.
3. Srigyan D, Gupta M, Ahsan S, et al. Infectious keratitis: an immediate cause of concern. *Ophthalmology Research: An International Journal.* 2017;7(4):1-6.
4. Shrestha GS, Vijay AK, Stapleton F, et al. Understanding clinical and immunological features associated with Pseudomonas and Staphylococcus keratitis. *Contact Lens and Anterior Eye.* 2021;44(1):3-13.
5. Ting DS, Ho CS, Deshmukh R, et al. Infectious keratitis: an update on epidemiology, causative microorganisms, risk factors, and antimicrobial resistance. *Eye.* 202;35(4):1084-1101.
6. Kumar A, Yun H, Funderburgh ML, et al. Regenerative therapy for the Cornea. *Progress in retinal and eye research.* 2022;87:101011.
7. Anderson CD, Rees N, Koetsie K, et al. Microbial keratitis: Causative organisms, susceptibilities and trends at a tertiary eye hospital in South Africa. *African Vision and Eye Health.* 2022;81(1):6.
8. Tuft S, Evans J, Gordon I, et al. Antimicrobial resistance in topical treatments for microbial keratitis: protocol for a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ open.* 2023;13(3):e069338.
9. Koh YY, Sun CC, Hsiao CH. Epidemiology and the estimated burden of microbial keratitis on the health care system in Taiwan: a 14-year population-based study. *American Journal of Ophthalmology.* 2020;220:152-159.
10. Menassa J, Bou Nassar D, El Naboulsi F, et al. Public Awareness of Rheumatoid Arthritis and Ankylosing Spondylitis in Lebanon. *The Open Rheumatology Journal.* 2022;16(1).
11. Kusumesh R, Ambastha A, Arya LK, et al. Epidemiological and microbiological profiles of microbial keratitis in a tertiary eye center in Eastern India (Bihar). *Indian Journal of Ophthalmology.* 2023;71(11):3506-3512.
12. Roongpooapatr V, Prabhasawat P, Isipradit S, et al. Infectious keratitis: the great enemy. *In Visual Impairment and Blindness-What We Know and What We Have to Know 2019.* IntechOpen.
13. Lalitha P, Prajna NV, Kabra A, et al. Risk factors for treatment outcome in fungal keratitis. *Ophthalmology.* 2006;113(4):526-530.
14. Rautaraya B, Sharma S, Ali MH, et al. A 3½-year study of bacterial Keratitis from Odisha, India. *The Asia-Pacific Journal of Ophthalmology.* 2014;3(3):146-50.
15. Titiyal JS, Negi S, Anand A, et al. Risk factors for perforation in microbial corneal ulcers in north India. *British journal of ophthalmology.* 2006;90(6):686-9.
16. Chidambaram JD, Venkatesh Prajna N, Srikanthi P, et al. Epidemiology, risk factors, and clinical outcomes in severe microbial keratitis in South India. *Ophthalmic epidemiology.* 2018;25(4):297-305.

17. Teweldemedhin M, Gebreyesus H, Atsbaha AH, et al. Bacterial profile of ocular infections: a systematic review. *BMC ophthalmology*. 2017;17:1-9.
18. Shah S, Wozniak RA. *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infectious keratitis: key bacterial mechanisms that mediate pathogenesis and emerging therapeutics. *Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology*. 2023;13:1250257.
19. Kumar NM, Mah FS. Bacterial, Chlamydial, and Mycobacterial Infections. *Albert and Jakobiec's Principles and Practice of Ophthalmology*. 2022:281-307.
20. Keller LE, Robinson DA, McDaniel LS. Nonencapsulated *Streptococcus pneumoniae*: emergence and pathogenesis. *MBio*. 2016;7(2):10-128.
21. Ahmadikia K, Aghaei Gharehbolagh S, Fallah B, et al. Distribution, prevalence, and causative agents of fungal keratitis: a systematic review and meta-analysis (1990 to 2020). *Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology*. 2021;11:698780.
22. Hoffman JJ, Burton MJ, Leck A. Mycotic keratitis—a global threat from the filamentous fungi. *Journal of Fungi*. 2021;7(4):273.
23. Lakhundi S, Siddiqui R, Khan NA. Pathogenesis of microbial keratitis. *Microbial pathogenesis*. 2017;104:97-109.
24. Guarro J, Rubio C, Gené J, et al. Case of keratitis caused by an uncommon *Fusarium* species. *Journal of clinical microbiology*. 2003;41(12):5823-6.
25. Labetoulle M, Boutolleau D, Burrel S, et al. Herpes simplex virus, varicella-zoster virus and cytomegalovirus keratitis: Facts for the clinician. *The ocular surface*. 2023 Apr 1;28:336-50.
26. Cabrera- Aguas M, Khoo P, Watson SL. Infectious keratitis: A review. *Clinical & Experimental Ophthalmology*. 2022;50(5):543-62.
27. Fanselow N, Sirajuddin N, Yin XT, et al. *Acanthamoeba* keratitis, pathology, diagnosis and treatment. *Pathogens*. 2021;10(3):323.
28. Lalitha P, Srinivasan M, Rajaraman R, et al. *Nocardia* keratitis: clinical course and effect of corticosteroids. *American journal of ophthalmology*. 2012 Dec 1;154(6):934-9.
29. Pifer R, Harris V, Sanders D, et al. Evaluation of *Serratia marcescens* adherence to contact lens materials. *Microorganisms*. 2023;11(1):217.
30. Jan-Roblero J, Cruz-Maya JA, Barajas CG. *Kosakonia*. In *Beneficial Microbes in Agro-Ecology 2020*; 213-231. Academic Press.
31. Deepthi KG, Prabakaran SR. Ocular bacterial infections: Pathogenesis and diagnosis. *Microbial pathogenesis*. 2020;145:104206.
32. Niu L, Liu X, Ma Z, et al. Fungal keratitis: Pathogenesis, diagnosis and prevention. *Microbial pathogenesis*. 2020;138:103802.
33. Sun RL, Jones DB, Wilhelmus KR. Clinical characteristics and outcome of *Candida* keratitis. *American journal of ophthalmology*. 2007;143(6):1043-5.
34. Hsiao CH, Yeh LK, Chen HC, et al. Clinical characteristics of *Alternaria* keratitis. *Journal of Ophthalmology*. 2014;2014.
35. Leite J, Romano J, Lopes V, et al. Case report: *Alternaria alternata* keratitis. *International Medical Case Reports Journal*. 2023:59-64.
36. Narula H, Meena S, Jha S, et al. *Curvularia lunata* causing orbital cellulitis in a diabetic patient: An old fungus in a new territory. *Current Medical Mycology*. 2020;6(1):51.
37. Kapoor D, Sharma P, Shukla D. Emerging drugs for the treatment of herpetic keratitis. *Expert Opinion on Emerging Drugs*. 2024:1-4.
38. Musa M, Enaholo E, Aluyi-Osa G, et al. Herpes simplex keratitis: A brief clinical overview. *World Journal of Virology*. 2024;13(1).
39. Kalogeropoulos CD, Bassukas ID, Moschos MM, et al. Eye and periocular skin involvement in herpes zoster infection. *Medical Hypothesis, Discovery and Innovation in Ophthalmology*. 2015;4(4):142.
40. Julian K, Bodaghi B. *Varicella-zoster virus*. In *Intraocular Inflammation 2016*:1227-1238. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
41. Zhou X, Robinson CM, Rajaiya J, et al. Analysis of human adenovirus type 19 associated with epidemic keratoconjunctivitis and its reclassification as adenovirus type 64. *Investigative ophthalmology & visual science*. 2012;53(6):2804-11.
42. Wright KW, Spiegel PH, editors. *Pediatric ophthalmology and strabismus*. Springer Science & Business Media; 2013.

43. Chigbu DI, Labib BA. Pathogenesis and management of adenoviral keratoconjunctivitis. Infection and drug resistance. 2018;981-93.
44. Venugopal A, Christy J, Raut V, et al. Viral Keratitis, Surgical Intervention in Viral Keratitis, Challenges in Diagnosis and Treatment of Viral Keratitis, HSV, HZV. In Seminars in Ophthalmology 2024:1-13. Taylor & Francis.
45. Stewart MW. Herpetic (non-cytomegalovirus) retinal infections in patients with the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. Current HIV Research. 2013;11(3):210-9.
46. Feng Y. Virus Infection and Ophthalmic Diseases from the Perspective of Integrated Medicine. Integrative Ophthalmology. 2020:191-197.
47. Das S, D'Souza S, Gorimanipalli B, et al. Ocular Surface Infection Mediated Molecular Stress Responses: A Review. International Journal of Molecular Sciences. 2022 Mar 14;23(6):3111.
48. Björkström NK, Strunz B, Ljunggren HG. Natural killer cells in antiviral immunity. Nature Reviews Immunology. 2022;22(2):112-23.
49. Thakur A, Xue M, Stapleton F, et al. Balance of pro-and anti-inflammatory cytokines correlates with outcome of acute experimental Pseudomonas aeruginosa keratitis. Infection and immunity. 2002;70(4):2187-2197.
50. Zhang Y, Wu J, Xin Z, et al. Aspergillus fumigatus triggers innate immune response via NOD1 signaling in human corneal epithelial cells. Experimental eye research. 2014;127:170-178.
51. Nuti R, Goud NS, Saraswati AP, et al. Antimicrobial peptides: a promising therapeutic strategy in tackling antimicrobial resistance. Current medicinal chemistry. 2017;24(38):4303-14.
52. Jadi PK, Sharma P, Bhogapurapu B, et al. Alternative therapeutic interventions: antimicrobial peptides and small molecules to treat microbial keratitis. Frontiers in Chemistry. 2021;9:694998.
53. Germic N, Frangez Z, Yousefi S, et al. Regulation of the innate immune system by autophagy: monocytes, macrophages, dendritic cells and antigen presentation. Cell Death & Differentiation. 2019;26(4):715-27.
54. Fortingo N, Melnyk S, Sutton SH, et al. Innate immune system activation, inflammation and corneal wound healing. International journal of molecular sciences. 2022;23(23):14933.
55. Torrecilla J, del Pozo-Rodriguez A, Vicente-Pascual M, et al. Targeting corneal inflammation by gene therapy: Emerging strategies for keratitis. Experimental Eye Research. 2018;176:130-40.
56. Taube MA, del Mar Cendra M, Elsahn A, et al. Pattern recognition receptors in microbial keratitis. Eye. 2015;29(11):1399-415.
57. Appelberg R. Neutrophils and intracellular pathogens: beyond phagocytosis and killing. Trends in microbiology. 2007;15(2):87-92.
58. Punt J. Adaptive Immunity: T Cells and Cytokines. In Cancer immunotherapy 2013:41-53). Academic Press.
59. Ting DS, Gopal BP, Deshmukh R, et al. Diagnostic armamentarium of infectious keratitis: A comprehensive review. The Ocular Surface. 2022;23:27-39.
60. Shannon AH, Adelman SA, Hisey EA, et al. Antimicrobial peptide expression at the ocular surface and their therapeutic use in the treatment of microbial keratitis. Frontiers in Microbiology. 2022;13:857735.
61. Ali ZJ. A Review of Current and Novel Approaches for Treatment of Keratitis 2021 (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh).
62. Mandal P, Khan MI, Shah S. Drugs—do we need them? Applications of non-pharmaceutical therapy in anterior eye disease: a review. Contact Lens and Anterior Eye. 2017;40(6):360-6.