Interferon-γ Responses Are Associated with Resistance to Reinfection with *Plasmodium falciparum* in Young African Children

Adrian J. F. Luty, Bertrand Lell, Ruprecht Schmidt-Ott, Leopold G. Lehman, Doris Luckner, Bernhard Greve, Peter Matousek, Klaus Herbich, Daniela Schmid, Florence Migot-Nabias, Philippe Deloron, Ruth S. Nussenzweig, and Peter G. Kremsner

The contribution of T cell-mediated responses was studied with regard to resistance to reinfection in groups of Gabonese children participating in a prospective study of severe and mild malaria due to infection with *Plasmodium falciparum*. In those admitted with mild malaria, but not in those with severe malaria, production of IFN-γ by peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) in response to either liver-stage or merozoite antigen peptides was associated with significantly delayed first reinfections and with significantly lower rates of reinfection. Proliferative or tumor necrosis factor responses to the same peptides showed no such associations. Production of interferon-γ by PBMC in response to sporozoite and merozoite antigen peptides was observed in a higher proportion of those presenting with mild malaria. Differences in the Th1/Th2 cytokine balance may be linked to the ability to control parasite multiplication in these young children, helping to explain the marked differences observed in both susceptibility to infection as well as in clinical presentation.

The need to identify potential targets for a malaria vaccine has highlighted the relative dearth of knowledge concerning the interactions between the protozoan parasite and its human host. Prospective, longitudinal field-based studies are thus becoming one of the major tools used in attempts to identify naturally acquired human immune responses that correlate with some measure of protection from infection with or disease due to *Plasmodium falciparum*. In the majority of such studies carried out to date, individuals’ parasitologic and clinical histories over a defined time period have been determined, and used in combination with one or more immunologic assessments. The latter have usually comprised measurements of humoral and/or cellular responses to protein antigens of either the sporozoite or the asexual blood stages. Many such studies have, in addition, included cohorts of individuals with a broad age range, to take account of the known age dependency of development of protective responses to this parasite in areas where it is highly endemic.

The success of these studies, with regard specifically to their ability to identify protective immune correlates, has varied. Attempts to show that antisporozoite responses correlate with protective effects have been equivocal in outcome [1–5]. Greater success in this context has accrued from studies that have investigated responses to asexual blood-stage antigens. Thus, for example, naturally acquired antibody responses to either neoantigens on infected red cells or to the merozoite surface antigens (MSA), MSA-1 and MSA-2, have been shown to be associated with reduced morbidity in children [6–11]. Similar studies aimed at demonstrating associations between protective effects and cellular responses to MSA-1 or MSA-2 or to other asexual-stage antigens have given conflicting results [7, 12–17]. No such studies have, to date, addressed such questions specifically with regard to the development of immunologic responses to liver-stage antigens, although both cellular and humoral responses to liver-stage antigen-1 (LSA-1), for example, can be demonstrated in exposed populations [18, 19].

Specific immunologic factors that might influence the clinical severity of malaria have also been sought through comparative studies, in some cases with a case-control, cross-sectional design. In one such study, IgM antibody profiles in those with cerebral malaria were lower than in those with noncerebral malaria [20], but in another, the lack of any difference in a range of antibody responses compared in severe and nonsevere cases suggested that the level of prior exposure, at least, was not the cause of the different clinical outcomes [21]. Numerous
cross-sectional studies have shown that higher plasma levels of several cytokines, including tumor necrosis factor (TNF), interferon-γ (IFN-γ), interleukin (IL)-1, IL-6, and IL-10, are associated with clinical and/or severe malaria [22–30]. These studies, however, have not consistently demonstrated clear correlates of protection from severe malaria. In addition, it has been noted that although such molecules may undoubtedly influence pathogenesis, they may also be seen as simply epiphenomena with no direct causal relationship to outcome [31]. The latter author also stated that in order to study specific antimalarial immunity “a logical approach is to take the actual documented experience of clinical malaria in a cohort followed over long periods of time as the index of immune status.”…

Our study took precisely this approach in an attempt to identify immunologic factors that correlate with the outcome of infection, in terms of clinical severity, or that influence susceptibility to reinfection. Thus, we carried out a matched-pair, case-control study of severe and mild malaria that included long-term active follow-up to prospectively gather information on each participants’ experience of malaria over at least 1 year after inclusion in the study. Here we present data relating to cellular immunologic parameters, which were measured at admission and during the convalescent period and were compared within and between the groups in the context of reinfection profiles and clinical status.

Study Subjects and Methods

Study subjects and design. The study was carried out at the Albert Schweitzer Hospital in Lambarene, Gabon. Transmission of P. falciparum in this area is perennial, with an estimated annual entomologic inoculation rate of 10–100 (Kremsner PG, et al., unpublished data). A detailed description of the participants, the inclusion criteria used, treatment given, clinical surveillance undertaken, and hematologic and biochemical methods used have been given elsewhere [32]. Briefly, 100 “cases” of severe malaria were matched for age, sex, and provenance to 100 “controls” with mild malaria. Reinfections and/or clinical malaria attacks, designated as parasitemia or parasitemia with fever (rectal temperature > 38°C), respectively, were detected through active clinical and parasitologic follow-up of individuals every 2 weeks following discharge from the hospital, at which times thick blood smears were routinely examined. Parasitemia was assessed using a calibrated thick smear technique as previously described [33]. Mothers were also urged to bring their children at any time to the hospital for any clinical event. The times to first reinfection were defined as the time from admission until the first positive thick smear. Individuals’ incidence density rates of reinfection were estimated by calculating the ratio between the number of reinfections detected and the duration of follow-up observation in years.

Peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) cultures. Immunologic assessments were made at admission and 1 month later, during convalescence. For this purpose, 5-mL peripheral blood samples were taken by venesection into sterile collection tubes containing EDTA. PBMC were separated from whole blood by a standard density-gradient centrifugation technique using ficoll (Biochrom, Berlin, Germany). PBMC were then spin-washed with basic medium, comprising RPMI 1640 with 25 mM HEPES (Biochrom), and resuspended at a concentration of 1.5 × 10^6 cells/mL in culture medium, comprising basic medium supplemented with 10% decomplemented normal human AB+ serum (CTS, Paris, or Sigma, Deisenhofen, Germany) and 50 μg/mL gentamicin (GIBCO BRL, Paisley, Scotland). Cultures of PBMC were set up, in triplicate for each stimulant, in the wells of flat-bottomed 96-well plates, using 100 μL/well cell suspension mixed with 50 μL/well either culture medium alone (unstimulated cultures) or 50 μL/well the following molecules, diluted in culture medium to give the final concentrations indicated: (1) recall antigen: purified protein derivative (tuberculin; Statens Seruminstitut, Copenhagen), 10 μg/mL; (2) parasite antigen sequence-related peptides: sporozoite, (T1B), multiple-antigen peptide, 10 μg/mL (T cell epitope, DPNA-NPNVDPNAPNV; B cell epitope, [NANP]3); asexual erythrocytic stage, P1 (MSA-1) peptide, LNDITKEYEKLLNEI, 2 μg/mL, and P4 (MSA-2) peptide, NSTDSDQKE, 1 μg/mL; liver stage (LSA-1), LSA-J peptide, ERRAKEKLOEQQRDLEQKRAD-TKK, 10 μg/mL, and ls6 peptide, KPIVQYDNEF, 10 μg/mL.

The (T1B) molecule, a multiple-antigen peptide based on a tetramer of conserved T and B cell epitopes of the circumsporozoite protein, has proven immunostimulatory capacity and was synthesized at New York University, as previously described [34, 35]. The P1 and P4 (MSA) and LSA peptides were custom-synthesized by the Institut Pasteur (Paris). Both merozoite antigen peptides were chosen because they represent known T cell stimulatory epitopes within conserved regions of the respective proteins [36, 37]. The LSA-1 peptides both have proven T cell stimulatory capacity and represent epitopes derived from the sequence of the Tf6/96 parasite clone [19]. There is no known polymorphism in the LSA-J sequence, but a single amino acid substitution (K→R) has been described in the ls6 peptide sequence in a field isolate from Brazil [38].

Cell culture plates were incubated at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO2. Pooled supernatants from triplicate wells, taken after 3 and 6 days of incubation, were stored frozen at −80°C until used for cytokine assessments (see below). Supernatants removed on day 6 were replaced with an equal volume of culture medium containing 1 μCi of tritiated thymidine (Amer- sham, Little Chalfont, UK), and the cultures were incubated for a further 16 h. At the end of this period, cells were collected onto glass-fiber mats using a cell harvester (PHD, Cambridge Instruments, MA) and processed for liquid scintillation counting. Proliferative responses were calculated and expressed as stimulation indices as previously described [39].

Cytokine assays. The concentrations of IL-10 and TNF were measured in supernatants of cell cultures obtained after 3 days and of IFN-γ after 6 days. For these measurements, monoclonal antibody pairs were used in a standard capture and detection sandwich ELISA, under conditions recommended by the manufacturers: IL-10 and TNF antibodies were obtained from PharMingen (Hamburg, Germany); IFN-γ antibodies were obtained from Mabtech (Nacka, Sweden). A peroxidase-conjugated avidin reagent (Ex- travidin; Sigma) was used in an amplification step, prior to addition of the chromogen-containing substrate mixture (TMB; Kirkegaard & Perry, Gaithersburg, MD). Reactions were stopped by adding...
Table 1. Clinical and parasitologic observations of children at admission, segregated according to clinical status of malaria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Severe (n = 100)</th>
<th>Mild (n = 100)</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hyperparasitemia (no.)&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severe anemia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemoglobin &lt;50 g/L (no.)&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hematocrit &lt;25% (no.)&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cerebral malaria (no.)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypoglycemia (no.)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rectal temperature (°C)</td>
<td>39.8 ± 0.1</td>
<td>39.1 ± 0.1</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart beats/min</td>
<td>130 ± 2</td>
<td>120 ± 2</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg)</td>
<td>95 ± 1</td>
<td>103 ± 1</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parasitemia/μL&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>307,000 (217,500)</td>
<td>10,650 (21,750)</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hematocrit (%)</td>
<td>21.6 ± 0.6</td>
<td>32.9 ± 0.4</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lactate (mmol/L)</td>
<td>2.9 ± 0.2</td>
<td>2.4 ± 0.1</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sickle cell trait (no.)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Criteria used for case definition in this study.
<sup>b</sup> Criteria used for case definition in this study.
<sup>c</sup> Wilcoxon signed rank test.
<sup>d</sup> Median (interquartile range).
<sup>e</sup> x<sup>2</sup> test.

Results

Clinical and parasitologic observations at admission and during follow-up. The matched patient groups comprised 61 female and 39 male patients, with a mean age of 44 ± 2 months. Selected clinical and parasitologic data at admission are shown in table 1. The frequencies of clinical signs and symptoms reflect the rigorous inclusion criteria and disease severity of the 2 study groups. Thus, rectal temperature and heart beat frequency were significantly higher and systolic blood pressure significantly lower in those with severe malaria. As expected, there was a significantly higher proportion of those with mild malaria who had the sickle-cell trait. During the follow-up period, no asymptomatic parasitemia was observed in any child (i.e., parasitemia was always associated with malaria symptoms). Thus, in all cases, reinfections referred to below are synonymous with clinical attacks.

Reinfection profiles according to clinical presentation. The reinfection profiles in the 2 groups, segregated according to clinical presentation at admission, are shown in table 2. Kaplan-Meier analysis showed that first reinfections occurred significantly earlier (P = .007) in those who presented with severe malaria. Pairwise comparison confirmed this finding, showing that a significantly higher number of first reinfections occurred during the first year of follow-up in those who presented with severe malaria, compared with those who had mild malaria (60/82 vs. 41/79; McNemar, P = .003). As shown in table 2, nonparametric analysis showed also that the group presenting with severe malaria had a significantly higher incidence density rate than did their counterparts with mild malaria (1.4 vs. 0.5, P < .001).

Reinfection profiles and PBMC proliferative responses. Comparison of proliferative responses in acute and convalescent phases combined showed that there was no difference in the proportions of responders in the groups with mild or severe malaria for tuberculin (74/86 vs. 64/85), LSA-1 (62/78 vs. 55/70), the P1 peptide (27/81 vs. 27/79), or the P4 peptide (35/81 vs. 37/80). In Kaplan-Meier analyses and/or comparisons of groups segregated according to the presence or absence of proliferative responses, no significant differences were detected in either the times to reinfection or the rates of reinfection within either group (mild or severe malaria) (data not shown).

Time to first reinfection and PBMC cytokine responses. The medians and ranges of IFN-γ and IL-10 responses in PBMC to parasite antigen stimulation are shown in table 3. The amounts of either cytokine produced in response to the different peptides did not differ significantly between the groups segregated according to clinical presentation at admission.

Table 2. Times to first reinfection and annual reinfection rates in children segregated according to their clinical presentation at admission.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Time to first reinfection</th>
<th>Rate of reinfection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time (n = 82)</td>
<td>Incidence density rate (n = 82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mild</td>
<td>43 (59) (n = 79)</td>
<td>0.51 (1.59) (n = 71)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severe</td>
<td>29 (47) (n = 82)</td>
<td>1.39 (1.83) (n = 75)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Differences between groups were assessed by nonparametric (Mann-Whitney) analysis.

NOTE. Values are medians (interquartile ranges) of times to reinfection in weeks and of incidence density rates of reinfection per year.
Table 3. Concentrations of cytokines produced by parasite antigen–stimulated PBMC from children with mild or severe malaria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cytokine</th>
<th>Mild</th>
<th>Severe</th>
<th>Mild</th>
<th>Severe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFN-γ</td>
<td>56 (2-2030)</td>
<td>39 (2-833)</td>
<td>134 (2-2329)</td>
<td>72 (1-1761)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL-10</td>
<td>9 (1-155)</td>
<td>8 (1-53)</td>
<td>23 (1-296)</td>
<td>45 (1-800)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSA-J</td>
<td>10 (3-126)</td>
<td>15 (2-252)</td>
<td>27 (1-482)</td>
<td>27 (1-152)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSA-6</td>
<td>19 (1-253)</td>
<td>18 (2-332)</td>
<td>22 (1-1056)</td>
<td>14 (1-104)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>17 (3-287)</td>
<td>10 (1-104)</td>
<td>19 (1-260)</td>
<td>14 (1-360)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>14 (1-260)</td>
<td>10 (1-104)</td>
<td>19 (1-260)</td>
<td>14 (1-360)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE. Values are medians (ranges) in pg/mL of cytokine production of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) obtained in either acute or convalescent phase (data from responders only). IFN, interferon; IL, interleukin.

Rate of reinfection and PBMC cytokine responses. Preliminary analyses, using a logistic regression model, suggested that there was an independent association of mild malaria with IFN-γ responses. This was assessed here through comparisons using McNemar paired analysis with cumulated data from the acute and convalescent stages; these showed a significantly higher proportion of responders in the mild compared with the severe group, when considering IFN-γ responses to (T1B), or to the MSA-1/MSA-2 peptides (P = .006 and P = .027, respectively). The observed rates of reinfection in relation to dichotomized cytokine responses, in groups segregated according to their clinical status at admission, are shown in table 5. In the group who presented with mild malaria, individuals whose PBMC produced IFN-γ to either of the LSA-1 peptides had a significantly lower rate of reinfection compared with those whose cells produced no IFN-γ, and there was a similar but less marked as-
Discussion

This is the first study, to our knowledge, to have simultaneously combined a matched-pair case-control study of severe malaria with a prospective evaluation of reinfection profiles and their association with immunologic responses in the same individuals. Its value, we feel, essentially lies in three fundamental aspects of its design. First, the very strict inclusion criteria we used allowed a direct comparison of matched pairs of children who differed initially in their clinical status with regard to *P. falciparum* infection [32]. Second, the posttreatment, prospective, long-term follow-up we undertook self-evidently demon-

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**Figure 2.** Kaplan-Meier analyses of times to first reinfection according to presence (positive, +ve) or absence (negative, -ve) of IFN-γ responses to merozoite surface antigen-1 peptide P1, using acute- and convalescent-phase data combined. **A,** Children who presented initially with mild malaria. **B,** Children who presented initially with severe malaria. Log rank, not significant for either group.

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**Figure 3.** Kaplan-Meier analyses of times to first reinfection according to presence (positive, +ve) or absence (negative, -ve) of IFN-γ responses to merozoite surface antigen-2 peptide P4, using acute- and convalescent-phase data combined. **A,** Children who presented initially with mild malaria. **B,** Children who presented initially with severe malaria. Log rank, not significant for either group.
strated its utility through the results generated, which allowed us to identify clear differences in reinfection profiles, both within and between the clinically defined groups. Third, one of the major aims of this study was to assess immunologic responses as a function of clinical presentation following *Plasmodium falciparum* infection, to try to define factors that influence the differing outcomes. We concluded, as have others [43], that it is important to measure not only acute- but also convalescent-phase responses, as the latter, especially, could provide potentially the most informative data. Numerous studies have shown that acute infection with *Plasmodium falciparum* results in modulation of cellular responsiveness [15, 44–46], although the ability to produce cytokines may be maintained, as we have seen here and as others have also noted [28, 45]. Following effective antimalarial treatment, peripheral lymphocyte counts do normalize; the speed at which this happens is a function of disease severity, suggesting that sequestration of T cells explains the reduced reactivity in at least a proportion of individuals [43, 47]. For these reasons, therefore, by including observations in both acute and convalescent phases, we are confident that we have maximized our chances of detecting the individuals’ ability to mount cellular immune responses to the stimulants used.

It should be stressed that the conclusions we draw from the findings presented here are based on an assumption that the reinfection profiles observed cannot be explained by fundamental differences in the participants’ exposure to infection. We have made this assumption for three reasons. First, the inclusion criteria strictly stipulated residency within a defined geographic area around the hospital study base, restricting to a certain extent the possibility of variations in interindividual transmission patterns. Second, as part of the study, we conducted a simultaneous socioeconomic assessment of participants and their families. Analysis of these data failed to demonstrate any differences between the groups according to

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**Table 4.** Relationship between times to first reinfections and presence or absence of parasite antigen–stimulated IFN-γ responses of peripheral blood mononuclear cells from children presenting with either mild or severe malaria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mild IFN-γ-negative</th>
<th>Mild IFN-γ-positive</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Severe IFN-γ-negative</th>
<th>Severe IFN-γ-positive</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(T1B)</td>
<td>28 (48)</td>
<td>53 (61)</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>29 (31)</td>
<td>34 (58)</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSA-J</td>
<td>42 (51)</td>
<td>92 (41)</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>28 (30)</td>
<td>31 (77)</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ls6</td>
<td>31 (39)</td>
<td>95 (34)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>34 (53)</td>
<td>42 (92)</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>43 (65)</td>
<td>59 (63)</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>30 (53)</td>
<td>35 (35)</td>
<td>NS</td>
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<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>42 (68)</td>
<td>64 (43)</td>
<td>.098</td>
<td>33 (55)</td>
<td>23 (42)</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE.** Values are medians (interquartile ranges) of times to first reinfection in weeks. Response status is based on combination of acute- and convalescent-phase responses. NS, not significant.

a No interferon (IFN)-γ response.

b IFN-γ response with or without interleukin-10.

c Differences between groups were assessed using Mann-Whitney U test.

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**Table 5.** Relationship between annual rates of reinfection and presence or absence of parasite antigen–stimulated IFN-γ responses of PBMC from children presenting with either mild or severe malaria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mild IFN-γ-negative</th>
<th>Mild IFN-γ-positive</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Severe IFN-γ-negative</th>
<th>Severe IFN-γ-positive</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(T1B)</td>
<td>1.41 (2.42)</td>
<td>0.46 (1.40)</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>1.47 (1.22)</td>
<td>1.08 (1.64)</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSA-J</td>
<td>1.29 (1.76)</td>
<td>0.00 (0.49)</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>2.02 (1.36)</td>
<td>1.24 (1.03)</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ls6</td>
<td>0.77 (1.58)</td>
<td>0.00 (0.43)</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>1.29 (1.28)</td>
<td>1.41 (2.00)</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>0.76 (1.57)</td>
<td>0.00 (0.53)</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>1.24 (1.49)</td>
<td>1.01 (1.61)</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>0.57 (1.56)</td>
<td>0.00 (0.63)</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>1.02 (1.65)</td>
<td>1.39 (1.52)</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td>37</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE.** Values are medians (interquartile ranges) of incidence density rates of infection/year. Response status is based on combination of acute- and convalescent-phase responses. NS, not significant.

a No interferon (IFN)-γ response.

b IFN-γ response with or without interleukin-10.

c Differences between groups were assessed using Mann-Whitney U test.
socioeconomic status that could explain the different outcomes of infection with respect to clinical severity and times to first reinfection [48]. Finally, in detailed analyses of humoral responses to a range of parasite-specific molecules, we found no evidence to suggest a higher degree of prior exposure in those with severe malaria (Luty AJF, unpublished data). We nevertheless accept that differences in individuals’ exposure resulting from microenvironmental variation can not be entirely excluded as confounding influences, although we consider it unlikely that such factors could adequately explain the associations between indices of reinfection and immunologic responses we detected.

Our results point to a defining role for IFN-γ responses in determining reinfection profiles and possibly also clinical outcome in this cohort of nonimmune children. Within the group who presented with mild malaria, those who had IFN-γ responses to the LSA or MSA peptides both were slower to get reinfected and had fewer reinfections than those producing no IFN-γ to these molecules. Since the determination of reinfections in our study relied on detection of parasites in thick blood smears, we cannot distinguish between effector mechanisms operating on preerythrocytic stages or those that may act on the asexual erythrocytic stages in the immediate post-hepatocyte-rupture phase. We would, nevertheless, interpret our observations as representing the result of the cumulated effects of IFN-γ responses on both liver and asexual blood stages. The associations with reinfection indices, judged by the high levels of statistical significance, were very strong for IFN-γ responses to LSA-1 and to the combination of MSA-1/MSA-2. LSA-1 is thought to be produced uniquely during the liver stage [49], which would rule out any confounding influence of cross-reactive responses between this and the asexual blood-stage antigens. MSA-1, however, is produced during hepatocytic development, and cross-reactive, potentially protective responses thus cannot be entirely ruled out in this case. Furthermore, our results, with respect to a possible association between LSA-1–induced IFN-γ responses and protection from reinfection, are consistent with those reported in a recent study of responses of adult Papua New Guineans to an N-terminal peptide of LSA-1 [50].

One of the principal distinguishing features we found between those with mild and severe malaria, at the level of cytokine activity, was in the ability to produce IFN-γ in response to different parasite-antigen stimuli. Thus, a significantly higher proportion of children with mild malaria produced IFN-γ, in particular to the circumsporozoite protein-derived (T1B4) molecule, with an associated trend, albeit statistically nonsignificant, toward protection from reinfection. The protective effects of naturally acquired human antisporozoite cell-mediated responses have been demonstrated in one study with a treatment/reinfection design [2]. It is, however, difficult to envisage how sporozoites, which disappear very rapidly from the blood, could themselves be affected by cell-mediated responses. This has led to the widely held view that the targets of such responses are infected hepatocytes expressing sporozoite antigen-derived peptides on their surface. We would thus speculate that the sporozoite antigen-induced responses we have observed represent a surrogate marker for activity directed at developing liver stages. Individuals with a predominantly IFN-γ–led response to sporozoite antigens, as may be the case here in those with mild malaria, may thus be better able to control infections at the liver stage.

Evidence for the antiparasitic effects of IFN-γ, in the context of preerythrocytic stages, has come from in vitro experiments demonstrating an inhibitory effect on the development of hepatic-stage parasites [51]. Subsequent studies have implicated nitric oxide as the effector molecule targeting parasites within hepatocytes in this system [52, 53]. Other studies have, in addition, suggested that IFN-γ may mediate protection against preerythrocytic stages in vivo [54, 55]. There are numerous potential cellular sources of the IFN-γ we detected here in response to LSA-1. Obvious candidates, which have putative protective effects, are HLA class I–restricted CD8+ cytotoxic T lymphocytes, such as those identified by Hill et al. [18]. The HLA-B53 cytotoxic T lymphocytes characterized in the latter study recognize, among other molecules, the 66 nonapeptide we used for in vitro PBMC stimulations in the current study. As we and others have seen, stimulation of PBMC with LSA-1–derived peptides can induce both proliferation and IFN-γ production, which may be dissociated from each other but which nevertheless involve a substantial proportion of CD8+ cells [19, 50]. Since LSA-1 accumulates in the parasitophorous vacuole space during the parasite’s intrahepatic development and is released as a flocculent matrix surrounding merozoites when the hepatocytes rupture [19], it seems reasonable to assume that this material will also be processed to induce CD4+ T cell responses. A study of chronically exposed Kenyans detected an association between IL-10 responses to LSA-1 polypeptides and resistance to reinfection (J. Kurtis and P. Duffy, personal communication). This would suggest, in the context of our results with nonimmune children, that there may be a modulation of or switch away from inflammatory (Th1)-type responses to given epitopes as immunity to P. falciparum evolves. Other studies have shown that chronically exposed individuals do indeed down-regulate IFN-γ responses, which could be taken as evidence for the existence of such a modulatory process [25, 56]. It will clearly be of great interest to know if the associations between protection from reinfection and anti–LSA-1 cytokine responses we and others have described are seen consistently in other areas with different levels of endemicity and varying transmission profiles.

In this study we also observed that a significantly greater proportion of those with mild malaria were able to produce IFN-γ in response to peptides derived from the merozoite antigens. IFN-γ is not known to have a direct effect on asexual erythrocytic forms, but an indirect effect could be envisaged through its ability to activate macrophages and neutrophils.
There is substantial evidence for distinct roles of the latter two cell types in recognition and removal of either merozoites or parasitized erythrocytes [57, 58, reviewed in 59]. In addition, the idea of a protective effect of IFN-γ during the early phase of blood-stage malaria infection is strongly supported by laboratory experiments with murine models. The consensus, although somewhat dependent on the combination of mouse and parasite strains used, is that effective control of parasitemia in mice given primary blood-stage infections requires an early IFN-γ-driven Th1-type response [reviewed in 60].

To summarize, the study described here demonstrated marked differences in the susceptibility to reinfection in 2 matched groups of nonimmune African children who differed in their initial clinical presentation. We believe that parasite density is perhaps the most important parameter associated with the development of severe malaria and that, for this reason, determining which factors are involved in the control of parasite multiplication is essential for an understanding of the disease process. On the basis of the marked differences in the reinfection profiles we observed between those who presented initially with severe compared with mild malaria, we feel our findings provide compelling evidence to support the idea that the principal factor distinguishing them apart as groups is therefore the ability, or lack of such, to control parasitemia. We have shown, on one hand, that in some children IFN-γ responses to both preerythrocytic and asexual blood stage parasite antigens are strongly associated with protection from reinfection. On the other hand, as a group, the children who presented initially with mild malaria and who have significantly lower reinfection rates are better able to mount such IFN-γ responses than those admitted with severe malaria. We therefore feel that these findings demonstrate a pivotal role for IFN-γ in controlling parasitemia in some of these nonimmune children, and that this goes some way toward explaining the differences in clinical outcome.

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