Activation and exhaustion of antigen-specific CD8+ T cells occur in different splenic compartments during infection with Plasmodium berghei.
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Abstract

The spleen is the major organ in which T cells are primed during infection with malaria parasites. However, little is known regarding the dynamics of the immune responses and their localization within the splenic tissue during malaria infection. We examined murine CD8\(^+\) T cell responses during infection with Plasmodium berghei using recombinant parasites expressing a model antigen ovalbumin (OVA) protein and compared the responses with those elicited by Listeria monocytogenes expressing the same antigen. OVA-specific CD8\(^+\) T cells were mainly activated in the white pulp of the spleen during malaria infection, as similarly observed during Listeria infection. However, the fates of these activated CD8\(^+\) T cells were distinct. During infection with malaria parasites, activated CD8\(^+\) T cells preferentially accumulated in the red pulp and/or marginal zone, where cytokine production of OVA-specific CD8\(^+\) T cells decreased, and the expression of multiple inhibitory receptors increased. These cells preferentially underwent apoptosis, suggesting that T cell exhaustion mainly occurred in the red pulp and/or marginal zone. However, during Listeria infection, OVA-specific CD8\(^+\) T cells only transiently expressed inhibitory receptors in the white pulp and maintained their ability to produce cytokines and become memory cells. These results highlighted the distinct fates of CD8\(^+\) T cells during infection with Plasmodium parasites and Listeria, and suggested that activation and exhaustion of specific CD8\(^+\) T cells occurred in distinct spleen compartments during infection with malaria parasites.

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1. Introduction

Malaria, caused by infection with Plasmodium species parasites, is one of the most prevalent infectious diseases in the world [1]. During the blood-stage of Plasmodium infection, both CD4\(^+\) and CD8\(^+\) T cells are activated and these T cells play critical roles in both malaria pathogenesis and protection against malaria. CD4\(^+\) T cells help B cells produce anti-parasite antibodies, activate macrophages to engulf parasites, and play pivotal roles in protecting against parasites [2,3]. CD8\(^+\) T cells play major roles in malaria pathogenesis, as observed with experimental cerebral malaria [4,5]. These parasite-specific CD8\(^+\) T cells were generated by transport of antigen presentation (TAP)-dependent cross-presentation of malaria antigens by DCs during blood-stage infection [6,7]. Effector CD8\(^+\) T cells also appeared to play protective roles against the blood-stage of malaria infection, as shown by the transfer of protective immunity by CD8\(^+\) T cells from the repeatedly immunized mice [8]. However, CD8\(^+\) T cells that are activated by infection with malaria parasites express multiple inhibitory molecules, including programmed cell death protein-1 (PD-1) and lymphocyte activation gene-3 (LAG-3), and are functionally disabled during chronic infection, reflecting a state of exhaustion [9,10]. In a model of experimental cerebral malaria, it was also shown that the activation and pathogenesis of T cells were inhibited by PD-1 in resistant BALB/c mice during acute infection with Plasmodium berghei ANKA, although T cells exhibited pathogenesis in susceptible C57BL/6 strain despite high levels of PD-1 expression [11].
The spleen is the main organ to filter red blood cells (RBCs) and elicits immune responses to blood-borne pathogens [12]. It is composed of 3 main compartments, the white pulp (WP), where most T and B cells resides and immune responses are initiated, the red pulp (RP), where RBCs are filtered, and the marginal zone (MZ) that separates the WP and RP and contains MZ B cells and macrophages [12]. The MZ is the site of antigen trapping in the spleen and contains 2 types of macrophages; MZ metabolophic macrophages (MMMs), which are located in the inner MZ near the WP, and MZ macrophages (MZMs) localized in the outer MZ towards the RP [13,14]. CD8+ T-cell responses in the spleen have been characterized using infection models with microbes, including intracellular bacterium Listeria monocytogenes and lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV). The spleen contains 2 main DC subsets, CD8α+ DCs, which reside mainly in the T cell zone, and CD8α–DCs, which are localized primarily in the RP and MZ [15,16]. CD8α–DCs are directly infected with L. monocytogenes or capture microbial antigens, after which they can move from the MZ to enter the WP, where they present antigens to CD8α+ T cells [17–19]. The initial activation of antigen-specific CD8+ T cells occurs at the borders of the B and T cell zones in the WP, followed by cluster formation with DCs in the WP [20]. After activation, these CD8+ T cells proliferate, forming effector and memory cells, and exit to the RP through bridging channels. Studies using the LCMV model showed that memory precursor cells mainly localized in the T cell zone of the WP, whereas terminal effector cells localized exclusively to the RP of the spleen. Upon re-challenge, memory or memory precursor CD8+ T cells expand and are redistributed in the RP [21–23].

Results from previous studies showed the dynamics of splenic lymphocyte responses during infection with Plasmodium parasites [24,25]. Furthermore, the spleen architecture is altered, and MZMs and MMMs are lost during infection with P. chabaudi, with the loss of MMMs being dependent on CD8+ T cells [26]. However, the localization and dynamics of antigen-specific CD8+ T cells in the spleen during malaria infection are not clearly understood. The model antigen ovalbumin (OVA) protein has been used to study antigen-specific immune responses during infection with recombinant pathogen expressing OVA, such as L. monocytogenes expressing OVA (LM-OVA) and T-cell receptor-transgenic OT-1 mice [20]. We developed a model of CD8+ T cell activation during malaria infection using Plasmodium berghei ANKA that express OVA (PbA-OVA) [6]. In this study, we used this model system to study specific CD8+ T-cell responses in different splenic tissue compartments. Using OVA as a common model antigen, we compared the responses of specific CD8 + T cells during infection with Plasmodium parasites and Listeria.

2. Materials and methods
2.1. Mice
OT-1 transgenic mice expressing the T cell receptor specific for OVA257–264/Kb were provided by Dr. H. Kosaka (Osaka University, Osaka, Japan) [27]. C57BL/6 mice were purchased from SLC (Shizuoka, Japan). B6.SJL and OT-1 mice were bred, and the offspring were intercrossed to obtain CD45.1+ OT-1 mice. Mice were maintained in the Laboratory Animal Center for Animal Research at Nagasaki University, and both male and female mice were used at 7–10 weeks of age. The animal experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Nagasaki University and were conducted according to the guidelines for Animal Experimentation of Nagasaki University.

2.2. Infections and adoptive transfer
The recombinant parasite PbA-OVA, which constitutively expresses OVA under the control of the hsp70 promoter, was maintained as described previously [6]. Mice were infected with RBCs (5 × 10⁶) infected with PbA-OVA or PbA by intraperitoneal injection. LM-OVA [28] was provided by Dr. Y. Yoshikai (Kyushu University) and Dr. H. Shen (University of Pennsylvania). Mice were infected with LM-OVA (10⁶ colony-forming units, 0.1 LD₅₀) by intraperitoneal injection. CD8+ (≥95%) were prepared from the spleen, brachial, and inguinal lymph nodes using anti-CD8 IMag (BD Biosciences, San Diego, CA, USA) and labeled with CFSE (15 μM, Molecular Probes), as described previously [6]. C57BL/6 mice were adoptively transferred intravenously (i.v.) with CD8+ OT-1 cells (1 × 10⁶) prepared from age- and sex-matched OT-1 mice and were infected with PbA-OVA or LM-OVA on the following day.

2.3. Immunohistochemistry
Spleen tissues were prepared for immunohistochemistry, as previously described [29]. Briefly, fresh frozen spleens were embedded in Tissue-Tek OCT compound (Sakura Finetek, Tokyo, Japan), cut into 5-μm sections with a cryomicrotome, and fixed with acetone for 15 min at room temperature. Samples were blocked by Blocking One Histo (Nacalai, Kyoto, Japan) for 1 h in a humid chamber at room temperature. Sections were stained for CD45.1 and CD169 (BioLegend, San Diego, CA, USA) overnight at 4 °C and mounted in DAKO fluorescent mounting medium (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Images were acquired by fluorescence microscopy (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) and merged using ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA). The number of OT-1 cells was counted in a 0.5-mm² area in a microscopic field using ImageJ software. Statistical analysis was performed on 15 different areas from 1 spleen, and 3 different mice were examined.

2.4. Flow cytometry
To stain cells in the RP, mice received PE-anti–CD8α mAb (3 μg, clone 53–6.7) via i.v. injection and were euthanized 3 min later, as previously described [30]. The spleens were harvested, and RBCs were lysed using Gey’s solution. Lymphocytes were stained with mAbs or their isotype controls. All mAbs were purchased from ebioscience (San Diego, CA, USA), BioLegend, BD Pharmingen (Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA), or Tonbo (San Diego, CA, USA). Staining for annexin V was performed in annexin V binding buffer composed of HEPES (100 mM), CaCl₂ (25 mM), and NaCl (1.4 M, pH 7.5), according to the manufacturer’s instructions (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). The compound 7-aminoactinomycin D (7AAD) was added to exclude dead cells from the analysis. For intracellular staining, CD8+ T cells were purified using magnetic-activated cell sorting (MACS) microbeads and AutoMACS (Miltenyi Biotec, Gladbach, Germany) and were stimulated for 4 h with DCs (3 × 10⁵) pulsed with the OVA257–264 peptide (1 μg/mL) in 24-well plates. Cells were stained for the appropriate surface markers, fixed, permeabilized using Cytofix/Cytoperm buffer (BD Bioscience), stained with anti–cytokine mAbs, and analyzed using a FACS Canto II instrument (BD Bioscience). The number of cellular subsets was determined by multiplying the total number of spleen cells by the proportion of each subset in the spleen, as determined by flow cytometry.

2.5. Statistical analysis
Results are shown as the mean ± standard deviations (SD). Data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism software, version 6 (GraphPad, San Diego, CA, USA). An overall difference between groups was determined by 2-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). If the 2-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference, then differences between individual groups were estimated using the Tukey’s multiple comparison test. p < 0.05 was considered significant.
3. Results

3.1. Distribution of OT-I cells in the spleen after infection with PbA-OVA or LM-OVA

To examine the tissue distribution of antigen-specific CD8$^+$ T cells in the spleen during malaria infection, we adoptively transferred C57BL/6 mice with CD8$^+$ T cells from OT-I mice, infected them with PbA-OVA or PbA, and compared the localization of OT-I cells in the splenic compartments with that in mice infected with LM-OVA. Every 2 days after infection, spleen cryosections were prepared and stained with an anti-CD169 monoclonal antibody (mAb) that bound MMMs, which were localized in the MZ adjacent to WP border (Fig. 1A). The inner border of CD169 staining was considered a margin between the WP and RP/MZ. In naïve mice, the area size of the WP was approximately half that of the RP/MZ, and OT-I cells distributed in both the WP (approximately 60%) and RP/MZ (approximately 40%). The size of the WP increased 6 days after infection with PbA-OVA and occupied approximately 60% of the splenic section. The distribution of OT-I cells in the WP and RP/MZ was similar to that in naïve mice for up to 4 days after infection with PbA-OVA and increased 6 days after infection in both compartments, in parallel with an increase in parasitemia levels (Fig. 1A upper panel and B). The proportions of OT-I cells within the CD8$^+$ T cell population in mice 6 days after infection with PbA-OVA or PbA were 10.1 ± 3.3 and 0.7 ± 0.1%, respectively, indicating the antigen-specific expansion of OT-I cells in PbA-OVA-infected mice. At 8 days post-infection, CD169 staining weakened, suggestive of a loss of MMMs as previously reported during infection with *P. chabaudi* (Fig. 1A) [26]. Because C57BL/6 mice develop cerebral malaria and die 7–9 days after infection with PbA-OVA, we were unable to observe infected mice beyond 8 days post-infection. In mice infected with LM-OVA, the OT-I cells expanded much more robustly than in mice infected with PbA-OVA infection, consistent with previous data [18,31]. OT-I cells began to expand in the WP at 2 days after infection and their distribution was more pronounced in the RP/MZ than in the WP at 4 days after infection (Fig. 1C). The size of the WP slightly increased, occupying approximately 50% of the section on day 6, which decreased to approximately 40% on day 8. No loss of MMMs was observed during infection with LM-OVA (Fig. 1A).

To characterize cells in different compartments of the spleen in more detail, we stained CD8$^+$ T cells in vivo by intravenous injection with a phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated, anti-CD8$\alpha$ mAb 3 min prior to euthanasia (Fig. 2A) [30]. Because conventional CD8$^+$ T cells express a CD8$\alpha$–CD8$\beta$ dimer, binding of an anti-CD8$\alpha$ mAb does not hinder staining with an anti-CD8$\beta$ mAb. The injected mAb reached the RP/MZ, but not the WP, enabling us to distinguish CD8$^+$ T cells that were distributed to these 2 compartments (Fig. 2B). In naïve mice, the proportions of

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**Fig. 1.** Distribution of OT-I cells in the spleen of mice infected with PbA-OVA or LM-OVA. C57BL/6 mice were adoptively transferred with OT-I T cells (CD45.1$^+$) and were infected with PbA-OVA (A, B) or LM-OVA (A, C). The spleen sections were stained for CD45.1 (for OT-I cells) and CD169 (for MMMs) and analyzed by fluorescence microscopy (10×) (A). Scale bar, 100 μm. (B, C) Graphs showing the levels of parasitemia (triangles) (B), the number of OT-I cells in the RP/MZ (open circles) and the WP (closed circles) of the spleen after infection with PbA-OVA (B) or LM-OVA (C). The numbers of OT-I cells/0.5-mm$^2$ area of the spleen were counted on the indicated days post-infection. The data shown were pooled from independent experiments, using a total of 3 mice for each date. The results are compared to those obtained in uninfected (day 0) mice. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, 2-way ANOVA with Tukey’s multiple comparison test. The data are shown as the mean ± SD.
OT-I cells and recipient CD8+ T cells (thereafter referred to as host CD8+ T cells) in the WP were 73.1 ± 4.2% and 68.7 ± 1.8%, respectively. The number of OT-I cells in the WP of uninfected mice (4.7 ± 0.3 × 10^4) increased to 7.3 ± 0.8 × 10^4 in the WP of infected mice at 4 days post-infection with PbA-OVA and remained at similar levels thereafter (Fig. 2C, left). In contrast, the number of OT-I cells in the RP/MZ increased by approximately 7-fold from 1.5 ± 0.1 × 10^4 in uninfected mice to 1.0 ± 0.2 × 10^5 at day 6 post-infection and then decreased to 3.8 ± 1.2 × 10^4 at 8 days post-infection. The number of host CD8+ T cells increased at 4 days after infection and then decreased on day 6 in the WP (Fig. 2C, right). This reduction in the number of CD8+ T cells in the WP was confirmed by immunohistochemical staining of the tissue sections (data not shown). At 4 days post-infection with LM-OVA, the number of OT-I cells increased 400-fold to 6.0 ± 0.9 × 10^4 in the RP/MZ and to 3.7 ± 0.6 × 10^4 in the WP, after which they gradually decreased in both compartments (Fig. 2D, left). The number of host CD8+ T cells in the WP reached a maximum at 6 days after infection, and host CD8+ T cells in the WP remained high over the LM-OVA infection period (Fig. 2D, right). Taken together, these data suggested that infection with PbA-OVA was characterized by an initial increase of OT-I cells in the WP, followed by an increase of OT-I cells and a reduction of host CD8+ T cells in the RP/MZ at 6 days after infection.

3.2. OT-I cells initiated proliferation in the WP upon infection with PbA-OVA and LM-OVA

We questioned whether OT-I cells were primed and expanded in the WP or RP/MZ during infection with PbA-OVA. To monitor the proliferation of OT-I cells, C57BL/6 mice were adoptively transferred with OT-I cells and infected with PbA-OVA (C) or LM-OVA (D). Mice received PE-anti-CD8α mAb 3 min prior to euthanasia. The spleen cells were stained for CD45.1 and CD8, and were analyzed by flow cytometry. (B) Spleen sections from mice infected with PbA for 0, 6, or 8 days were stained for CD169 (for MMMs). Red cells were stained with the injected PE-anti-CD8α mAb. Arrowheads show CD8+ T cells in the MZ. (C, D) Numbers of OT-I cells (CD45.1+CD8+αβ) in the spleen compartments 0–8 days after infection with PbA-OVA (C) or LM-OVA (D). The data shown represent 2 independent experiments with 6 mice in each group. The results are compared to those of uninfected (day 0) mice. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, 2-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparison test. The data are shown as the mean ± SD.

OT-I cells and recipient CD8+ T cells in the WP of PbA-OVA infected mice increased 400-fold to 6.0 ± 0.9 × 10^4 in the RP/MZ and to 3.7 ± 0.6 × 10^4 in the WP, after which they moved to the RP/MZ (Fig. 3A). In mice infected with LM-OVA, the percentages of OT-I cells that divided 1–5 times were 44.3% and 91.5% in the RP/MZ and WP, respectively, on day 2. These data were consistent with previous findings showing that specific CD8+ T cells were primed and started to proliferate in the WP, after which they moved to the RP during Listeria infection (Fig. 3E) [20]. We also examined the expression of early activation markers on OT-I cells undergoing proliferation in the spleen. Three days after infection with PbA-OVA, approximately 40% and 15% of proliferating OT-I cells expressed CD25 or CD69, respectively, in both the RP/MZ and WP, and those proportions increased 4 days after infection (Supporting information Fig. 1A). However, the majority of proliferating OT-I cells expressed CD25 at 2 days post-infection with LM-OVA (Supporting information Fig. 1B). These data suggested that OT-I cells undergoing antigen-specific activation in the spleen of mice infected with PbA-OVA were more heterogeneous than those infected with LM-OVA.

3.3. Effector cells preferentially located in the RP/MZ in mice infected with PbA-OVA or LM-OVA

The phenotypes of OT-I and host CD8+ T cells were analyzed after infection with PbA-OVA or LM-OVA. Four days after infection with PbA-OVA, most OT-I cells in both the RP/MZ and WP expressed CD25 and CD69 (Fig. 3B, Supporting information Fig. 2A). On the same day, the proportions of OT-I and host CD8+ T cells exhibiting the CD62LloCD44hi effector phenotype were higher in the RP/MZ than in the WP (Fig. 3C, Supporting information Fig. 2B). Six days after infection with PbA-OVA, the proportions of CD25+ and CD69+ OT-I cells decreased, and the frequencies of OT-I cells expressing the KLRG1hiCD127lo short-lived effector cell (SLEC) phenotype increased preferentially in the RP/MZ (Fig. 3D). Changes in these phenotypes were mostly antigen-specific, as they were not observed in mice infected with LM-OVA.
infected with PbA (Supporting information Fig. 3). Interestingly, on day 6 of the PbA-OVA infection, most host CD8+ T cells in both the RP/MZ and WP presented with the CD62LloCD44hi effector phenotype, suggesting that they were activated in either an antigen-specific or antigen-non-specific manner. These data suggested that activated OT-I cells and host CD8+ T cells mostly moved to the RP/MZ where they terminally differentiated into effector cells during PbA-OVA infection. Activation of OT-I cells during LM-OVA infection occurred approximately 2 days earlier and was stronger than that observed during PbA-OVA infection. Two days after infection with LM-OVA, the proportion of CD25+ and CD69+ OT-I cells increased mainly in the WP (Fig. 3F), and the proportion of the effector-phenotype OT-I cells increased in the WP (Fig. 3G). Four days after infection, the frequencies of effector OT-I and host CD8+ T cells increased in both the RP/MZ and WP (Fig. 3G).
proportion of host CD8+ T cells exhibiting the SLEC phenotype did not increase in mice infected with LM-OVA, although this phenotype became a major population during infection with PbA-OVA (Fig. 3H, Supporting information Fig. 2C).

3.4. The ability of CD8+ T cells to produce cytokines is reduced during PbA-OVA infection

We next measured the ability of OT-I cells to produce IFN-γ, TNF-α, and granzyme B in response to OVA257-264 by intracellular staining (Fig. 4). The frequency of IFN-γ, TNF-α, and granzyme B-producing OT-I cells peaked on day 6 after infection with PbA-OVA and then decreased on day 8 (Fig. 4A, B; Supporting information Fig. 4A, B). The proportions of cells were always higher in the RP/MZ than in the WP. OT-I cells showed a prompt response and sustained an increase in IFN-γ production in both the RP/MZ and WP in LM-OVA-infected mice, and the overall frequency was almost 2 times higher compared with that in PbA-OVA-infected mice. The proportion of OT-I cells producing both IFN-γ and TNF-α also increased from day 3 to 8 of the infection in both the RP/MZ and WP (Fig. 4C, Supporting information Fig. 4C). However, the frequency of granzyme B+ OT-I cells was highest 3 days after infection with LM-OVA and then decreased in both the RP/MZ and WP (Fig. 4D, Supporting information Fig. 4D).

3.5. OT-I cells in the RP/MZ express inhibitory receptors during infection with PbA-OVA

To determine the mechanism underlying the reduction of cytokine-producing OT-I cells during PbA-OVA infection, we examined apoptosis and expression of the inhibitory molecules PD-1, LAG-3, and TIM-3 in CD8+ T cells. In PbA-OVA-infected mice, OT-I cells in the RP/MZ preferentially expressed these inhibitory molecules on their surfaces as early as 4 days after infection and the expression levels increased towards 8 days after infection (Fig. 5A, Supporting information Fig. 5A). The expression of these molecules was antigen-specific, as the expression was barely detectable in OT-I cells in mice infected with PBA (Supporting information Fig. 3). Host CD8+ T cells in the RP/MZ of the infected mice expressed the inhibitory molecules on day 6 of the infection. They were exclusively expressed on CD11a+ activated CD8+ T cells, which represented 51.1% of the CD8+ T cells in the RP/MZ 6 days after infection (data not shown). In contrast, OT-I cells expressed these inhibitory molecules transiently on day 2 during infection with LM-OVA, and their levels were higher in OT-I cells located in the WP than those in the RP/MZ (Fig. 5C, Supporting information Fig. 5C). We did not detect significant expression of these molecules on host CD8+ T cells during LM-OVA infection.

We also examined apoptosis of OT-I and host CD8+ T cells by staining for annexin V and 7-AAD, as the number of OT-I and host CD8+ T cells dropped on day 8 and 6 of infection with PbA-OVA, respectively (Fig. 1). The proportions of apoptotic, annexin V+7-AAD+ OT-I or CD8+ T cells increased in the RP/MZ, but not in the WP, at 4 days after infection with PbA-OVA compared to those in naïve mice (Fig. 5B, Supporting information Fig. 5B). Upon LM-OVA infection, the proportion of apoptotic OT-I or CD8+ T cells reached a maximum 2 days after infection in the RP/MZ and declined thereafter (Fig. 5D, Supporting information Fig. 5D). Similar to PbA-OVA infection, few OT-I and host CD8+ T cells in the WP underwent apoptosis over the period of LM-OVA infection except on day 2. These results suggested that OT-I cells express inhibitory receptors predominantly in the RP/MZ, leading to their exhaustion and apoptosis during PbA-OVA infection.

4. Discussion

We investigated CD8+ T-cell activation kinetics in the splenic tissue of mice infected with PbA-OVA and in antigen-specific CD8+ OT-I cells in comparison with those of mice infected with LM-OVA. Our data showed that OT-I cells increased in the WP prior to increasing in the RP/MZ after infection with PbA-OVA in a manner similar to that in mice infected with LM-OVA. Studying T cell proliferation using CFSE also showed that OT-I cells started to proliferate in the WP after infection with PbA-OVA or LM-OVA. OT-I cells appearing in the RP/MZ during the early period of PbA-OVA infection proliferated and expressed effector phenotypes, while a large proportion of OT-I cells in the WP proliferated ~5 times, suggesting that most OT-I cells proliferated in the WP and then moved to RP/MZ, although some OT-I cells may have also proliferated in the RP/MZ. OT-I cells in RP/MZ produced IFN-γ, TNF-α, and TNF-β, as the expression was barely detectable in OT-I cells in mice infected with PBA (Supporting information Fig. 3). Host CD8+ T cells in the RP/MZ of the infected mice expressed the inhibitory molecules on day 6 of the infection. They...
granzyme B in response to TCR stimulation, at least during the early period of PbA-OVA infection. These features suggested that *Plasmodium*-specific CD8+ T cells were initially primed in the WP of the spleen similar to that observed in Listeria and viral infections[20–23]. Because *Plasmodium* parasites infect RBCs, which are abundant in the RP, *Plasmodium* antigens in the RP may be carried to the WP by DCs and presented to CD8+ T cells in the T cell zone of the WP.

During PbA-OVA infection, we observed several features of OT-I cell activation that differed from those observed during LM-OVA infection. The activation of OT-I cells was less robust during PbA-OVA infection, perhaps reflecting the slower growth of *Plasmodium* parasites as well as their sequestration in RBCs when compared with Listeria. In addition, the activation of OT-I cells progressed in a more heterogeneous manner during PbA-OVA infection in terms of the number of divisions and the expression of activation markers. Because parasitemia increased gradually during PbA-OVA infection, presentation of *Plasmodium* antigens might have occurred via a small number of DCs, which increased in parallel with the increase in parasitemia. Furthermore, the cell types that presented microbial antigens to CD8+ T cells were likely different during malaria and Listeria infection. During infection with *L. monocytogenes*, CD8α+ DCs are infected with microbes and carry their antigens to the T cell zone in the WP, where they present microbial antigens to CD8+ T cells [17–19], while DCs are not usually infected with malaria parasites. In addition, both the proportion of DC subsets and the capacity of DCs to present malarial antigens to T cells were altered during infection with *Plasmodium* parasites [32].

The most prominent difference in OT-I responses between infection with PbA-OVA and LM-OVA was that the former expressed inhibitory receptors, as reported previously[9,11,33]. During PbA-OVA infection, OT-I cells expressed PD-1, LAG-3, and TIM-3, and their expression levels were particularly high in the RP/MZ, suggesting that these molecules were expressed on CD8+ T cells in the late phase of activation and cell division. The expression of these inhibitory receptors was upregulated in host CD8+ T cells in the late phase of activation and cell division. The expression of these inhibitory receptors was upregulated in host CD8+ T cells in the late phase of activation and cell division. The expression of these inhibitory receptors was upregulated in host CD8+ T cells in the late phase of activation and cell division. The expression of these inhibitory receptors was upregulated in host CD8+ T cells in the late phase of activation and cell division. The expression of these inhibitory receptors was upregulated in host CD8+ T cells.
expression of inhibitory receptors leading to their exhaustion, as suggested for chronic viral infection [34]. Moreover, cells in the RP and MZ (such as M2Ms, MMs, and RP macrophages) may express high levels of PD-1 ligands, as previously shown during chronic viral infection [35]. In addition, malaria infection provides a unique inflammatory environment in the spleen. Hemozoin, a detoxification product of the heme molecule, accumulates during infection and promotes stimulation of immune cells such as dendritic cells and macrophages in the spleen [36]. Tr27 cells are unique regulatory CD4+ T cells that produce IL-27 and are induced during Plasmodium infection [33]. These immune cells may directly or indirectly affect the induction of exhaustive phenotypes in CD8+ T cells. We speculate that OT-I cells, which express inhibitory receptors, in RP/MZ eventually undergo apoptosis, as OT-I cell apoptosis remained high in the RP/MZ during days 4–8 of Pba-OVA infection. While high levels of apoptosis were previously reported in the spleens of malaria-infected mice, tissue localization was not clearly investigated [37]. Our data suggest that apoptosis of specific CD8+ T cells occurred mainly in the RP and MZ. In contrast, an increase in apoptotic OT-I cells was detected only on day 2 after LM-OVA infection. Taken together, these data indicated that OT-I cells were activated in a similar manner by infection with either Pba-OVA or LM-OVA, mainly in the WP of the spleen, but the fate of these OT-I cells differed. OT-I cells expressed inhibitory receptors leading to their exhaustion and apoptosis in the RP/MZ during infection with Pba-OVA, while OT-I cells maintained their activity and became memory cells after clearance of LM-OVA.

Another unique feature of malaria infection was the severe reduction of host CD8+ T cells in the WP 6 days after infection with Pba-OVA. This reduction was unique to CD8+ T cells and was not observed in CD4+ T cells or B cells in the WP (data not shown). It is unlikely that this reduction resulted from apoptosis of CD8+ T cells in the WP because we did not observe increased apoptosis of CD8+ T cells 6 days after infection with Pba-OVA. In contrast, the proportion of OT-I cells in the RP/MZ greatly increased on the same day, suggesting that malaria-specific CD8+ T cells were activated and moved from the WP to the RP/MZ. Therefore, we think that it is likely that the reduction was due to the movement of CD8+ T cells out of the WP, although the number of host CD8+ T cells did not increase in the RP/MZ. In agreement, the majority of CD8+ T cells in the RP/MZ on day 6 of Pba-OVA infection presented an effector phenotype. The discrepancy of the cellular kinetecobserved between OT-I cells and host CD8+ T cells may involve multiple factors, including the affinity of the TCR for Plasmodium-antigen or, antigen-independent activation of CD8+ T cells as previously suggested [6]. Further study is required to resolve this question.

Studies of OT-I function showed that expression of granzyme B was relatively maintained, while cytokine production was reduced in the later phase of Pba-OVA infection, which is consistent with our previous study [6]. These results suggested that the cytotoxic ability and cytokine production of CD8+ T cells may be differentially regulated in CD8+ T cells. Excess activation of cytotoxicity in specific CD8+ T cells facing increased antigenic load in parallel to the parasitemia may lead to pathogenic effects in the host tissue, resulting in destruction of the splenic tissue architecture, including MMs [26]. In contrast, the production of granzyme B decreased in the later phase of LM-OVA infection when the microbial burden was reduced, reducing damage to the host tissue. In conclusion, we present evidence suggesting that the activation and expression of inhibitory receptors, leading to exhaustion of CD8+ T cells, is likely to occur in distinct compartments in the spleen (the WP and RP, respectively). While the RP has been considered as a blood-filtering system [12], our findings suggest that the RP serves additional roles in regulating immune responses, in particular during malaria infection. One caveat is that this study was performed using a model antigen, and further investigation is required to confirm these findings in natural settings. Despite such limitations, the role of the RP in immune responses was particularly highlighted in malaria infection, as the RP is the tissue where antigens are concentrated. The mechanisms underlying the induction and maintenance of exhausted T cells are critical in generating effective protective immunity against malaria. Further study will reveal these mechanisms in addition to their localization in the RP/MZ, leading to novel diagnostic and therapeutic strategies for chronic infectious diseases, including malaria, in the future.

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Conflict of interest disclosure
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Appendix A. Supplementary data
Supplementary data to this article can be found online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.parsip.2017.01.022.

References


