In Vitro Monitoring of \textit{Plasmodium falciparum} Drug Resistance in French Guiana: a Synopsis of Continuous Assessment from 1994 to 2005\V

Eric Legrand,\textsuperscript{1} Béatrice Volney,\textsuperscript{1} Jean-Baptiste Meynard,\textsuperscript{2} Odile Mercereau-Puijalon,\textsuperscript{3} and Philippe Esterre\textsuperscript{1}\* \footnote{Corresponding author. Mailing address: CNRCP, Institut Pasteur de la Guyane, Cayenne, French Guiana; Epidemiology Unit, Institut Pasteur de la Guyane, Cayenne, French Guiana; and Parasite Molecular Immunology, CNRS URA 2581, Institut Pasteur, Paris, France}

Reference Centre for Plasmodium Chemoresistance in French Guiana and West Indies (CNRCP), Institut Pasteur de la Guyane, Cayenne, French Guiana; Epidemiology Unit, Institut Pasteur de la Guyane, Cayenne, French Guiana; and Parasite Molecular Immunology, CNRS URA 2581, Institut Pasteur, Paris, France

Received 21 February 2007/Returned for modification 2 May 2007/Accepted 13 October 2007

Implemented as one arm of the malaria control program in French Guiana in the early 1990s, our laboratory has since established in vitro profiles for parasite drug susceptibility to a panel of eight antimalarials for more than 1,000 \textit{Plasmodium falciparum} isolates from infected patients. The quinine-doxycycline combination was introduced in 1995 as the first-line drug treatment against uncomplicated \textit{P. falciparum} malaria, replacing chloroquine, and the first-line drug combination was changed to the artemether-lumefantrine combination in 2002. Resistance to chloroquine declined 5 years after it was dropped in 1995 as the first-line drug, but unlike similar situations in Africa, there was a rapid halt to this decline. Doxycycline susceptibility substantially decreased from 2002 to 2005, suggesting parasite selection under quinine-doxycycline drug pressure. Susceptibility to mefloquine decreased from 1997 onward. Throughout the period from 1994 to 2005, most isolates were sensitive in vitro to quinine, amodiaquine, and atovaquone. Susceptibility to amodiaquine was strongly correlated with that to chloroquine and to a lesser extent with that to mefloquine and halofantrine. Susceptibilities to mefloquine and to halofantrine were also strongly correlated. There were two alerts issued for in vitro artemether resistance in the period from 2002 to 2003 and again in 2005, both of which could be associated with the presence of an S769N polymorphism in the sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPase (SERCA)-type \textit{P. falciparum} ATPase6 (PfATPase6) gene. Analysis of susceptibility to lumefantrine, conducted for the first time in 2005, indicates an alarming rate of elevated 50\% inhibitory concentrations. In vitro monitoring of parasite drug susceptibility should be pursued to further document the consequences of specific drug policies on the local parasite population and, in particular, to establish profiles of susceptibility to individual components of drug combinations to provide early warning signs of emerging parasite resistance.

The Guyana Shield currently has the highest malaria rates in South America and is the only geographical area in the Americas where \textit{Plasmodium falciparum} infection is diagnosed more frequently than \textit{P. vivax} infection. In French Guiana, \textit{P. falciparum} accounts for 60 to 70\% of the 3,000 to 5,000 malaria cases reported every year (3). Malaria occurs in isolated geographical foci situated along the rivers in the Amazonian forest, and the population has little specific immunity. Malarial control involves spraying insecticides over the coastal region, where illegal gold-mining activities in the malaria endemic area are associated with erratic consumption of antimalarials and frequently with self-medication, unclear compliance to recommended regimens, and the formulation and use of illegally imported molecules of unknown quality, which contribute to the selection of drug-resistant parasites in the region (11, 29). However, surveillance of the therapeutic efficacy of the recommended regimens is complicated by the difficulty of monitoring treatment efficacy in the scattered endemic foci. In vitro susceptibility testing by a dedicated reference laboratory was established in the early 1990s to carry out systematic in vitro drug susceptibility testing in French Guiana. In vitro tests assess parasite susceptibility to the individual components of drug combinations and, as such, provide early evidence of emerging resistance before it becomes clinically apparent. A recent illustration was the first description by our group of parasites from French Guiana with a markedly reduced in vitro susceptibility to artemether (11, 17).

Our reference laboratory has monitored, on a longitudinal basis, the in vitro drug susceptibility of isolates collected across...
the endemicity areas over the last 11 years. We have assessed parasite susceptibility to a panel of eight antimalarials, including the recommended drugs and molecules that are not yet in use in the area or that have been withdrawn. We report here a synopsis of the temporal variations in in vitro susceptibility profiles over that time period. We looked for temporal trends for each individual molecule, for cross-resistance between drugs from the same chemical class or between drugs with similar modes of action, and for correlations between susceptibility to different drug classes. We discuss these data in light of accumulated drug pressure and changes in drug policies in French Guiana and in the Guyana Shield region.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Background information on the study area, clinical failure rates, and drug policy. French Guiana (administratively a French Overseas Department) has nowadays an overall population of approximately 150,000 inhabitants. The main malaria endemicity areas are shown in Fig. 1. Malaria occurs in isolated, remote geographical foci located mainly along the Maroni River to the west and along the Oyapock River to the east, which serve as natural frontiers with Suriname and Brazil, respectively. Annual parasitic indices increase from the delta region (72 and 64‰ for the lower Maroni and Oyapock rivers, respectively) to the upper-river regions (371 and 223‰ for the upper Maroni and Oyapock rivers, respectively), where illegal mining activities occur (8).

There was a 22% rate of level RIII chloroquine resistance in 1989 (9, 18). The first sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine-resistant parasites were identified in 1988 (22). The combination was rapidly discontinued thereafter. There was an 11% clinical failure rate for the amodiaquine/sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine combination in 1986 (22). Halofantrine treatment failures, reported in the Maroni River area since 1988 (19; C. Venturin, I. Jeanne, J. B. Duchemin, G. Desmarchelier, V. Pavec, S. Laventure, E. Nuiiaouet, J. Sankale-Suzanon, and J. L. Sarthou, presentation at the 3rd Infectious Diseases Medical Conference in French Guiana, Cayenne, 1988) reached 14% in 2000 (9). Two cases of level RIII in vivo...
resistance to quinine have been identified (6). From the 1980s onward, quinine was always used in association with tetracycline (similar to protocols used in Brazil and Suriname) and not with sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine, as used in Guyana. Prophylaxis with chloroquine-proguanil remained clinically effective in French Guiana until 1998, when seven falciparum malaria attacks, including two severe forms, occurred on a military base where chloroquine-proguanil prophylaxis was given (19).

A “consensus conference” was organized at 5- to 7-year intervals in order to review in vivo and in vitro drug susceptibility in the area and to adjust the treatment policy accordingly. Table 1 summarizes the treatments recommended for mild malaria, severe malaria, and prophylaxis from 1990 to 2006. From 1990 to 2005, the first-line and second-line treatment drugs were chloroquine and halofantrine or mefloquine, respectively. The 1995 consensus conference introduced the quinine-doxycycline association as the first-line treatment. The update at the end of 2002 replaced this combination with atovaquone-proguanil (mainly for prophylaxis) and artemether-lumefantrine (for therapy) (Table 1). The artemether-lumefantrine combination (Riamet; Novartis) is currently the recommended first-line drug for the treatment of uncomplicated falciparum malaria in the area, mainly gold miners operating in the jungle. These “illegal” cases are urged to follow the regional guidelines of the Ministry of Health. However, an increased use of chloroquine was noted in the area, mainly in Cayenne (CNRCP), where it was immediately processed by using in vitro susceptibility tests.

### Table 1. Antimalarial regimens recommended for French Guiana by the 1990, 1995, and 2002 consensus meetings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yr of consensus meeting</th>
<th>Clinical form</th>
<th>Therapy</th>
<th>Prophylaxis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Mild</td>
<td>Chloroquine(^a)</td>
<td>Halofantrine or mefloquine(^d)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Severe</td>
<td>Quinine(^c)</td>
<td>Halofantrine or mefloquine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Mild</td>
<td>Quinine-doxycycline(^b)</td>
<td>Halofantrine or mefloquine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Severe</td>
<td>Quinine-doxycycline(^b)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Mild</td>
<td>Artemether-lumefantrine(^d)</td>
<td>Atovaquone-proguanil(^f)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Severe</td>
<td>Quinidine-doxycycline(^e)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\) Total dose of 24 to 30 mg quinine base/kg of body weight.

\(^{b}\) Fifty milligrams per day for 4 days.

\(^{c}\) Five hundred milligrams, 3 times per day.

\(^{d}\) 1.5 g, 3 times per day.

\(^{e}\) Two hundred fifty milligrams per week until 4 weeks after the patient’s return, if <1-month stay.

\(^{f}\) Chloroquine, 5 mg/kg per week, plus proguanil, 3 mg/kg per day, until 6 weeks after the patient’s return, if 1- to 3-month stay.

\(^{g}\) Quinine, 20 mg/kg intravenously for 4 h, and then 10 mg/kg/8 h, plus doxycycline, 3 mg/kg.

\(^{h}\) Quinine, 25 mg/kg for 5 days, plus doxycycline, 3 mg/kg for 5 days.

\(^{i}\) Artemether, 20 mg, plus lumefantrine, 120 mg, 4 tablets of each 6 times per day.

\(^{j}\) Atovaquone, 250 mg, plus proguanil chlorhydrate, 100 mg, 4 tablets of each per day for 3 days.

\(^{m}\) 1 tablet per day until 7 days after the patient’s return.

### Antimalarial resistance

The inclusion criteria for in vitro drug assays were determined first-line drug for the treatment of uncomplicated falciparum malaria in the area. For the antimalarials other than chloroquine, there is no threshold established for these grounds. It is not possible to assign such a value for drugs from malaria patients referred to our reference laboratory by private practitioners, health centers, and/or hospitals, as recommended by the health authorities. The artemether-resistant sample was provided by J. Le Bras (Centre National de Référence pour la chimiosensibilité du paludisme, Paris, France). P. falciparum reference lines were included for quality control. The 3D7 clone was used from 1990 onward. In 2002, we also included HB3 and W2, and 7G8 was added to the panel of control lines in 2003. The four control lines were kindly provided by J. Le Bras (Centre National de Référence pour la chimiosensibilité du paludisme, Paris, France). P. falciparum reference lines were run in parallel assays for each batch of antimalarial used. Since 1999, 3D7 has been tested in 13 assays; and HB3, W2, and 7G8 were tested in 12, 7, and 5 independent assays, respectively. The 50% inhibitory concentration (IC\(_{50}\)) was calculated using a probit/logit regression of the percentage of growth inhibition for each drug, and the geometric mean IC\(_{50}\) was compared by Student’s t test. To comply with previous reports from the area and with the commonly used interpretation of susceptibility tests (5, 14, 15, 20, 26, 28, 29), we have used a cutoff value to classify isolates as susceptible, intermediate, or resistant (Table 2). The in vitro levels of chloroquine resistance versus sensitivity were determined at the laboratory level by analyzing isolates from clinical cases with documented therapeutic efficacy from the area. For the antimalarials other than chloroquine, there is no threshold established for these grounds. It is not possible to assign such a value for drugs not yet in use in the area (or no longer in use). The temporal variation of in vitro-resistant prevalence was followed in the various areas. Generally speaking, the Maroni River samples (from two sentinel sites, Maripasoula and Saint Laurent du Maroni), representing isolates from a region with a high prevalence of multidrug resistance, were compared with those from the rest of the department.

### DNA extraction and microsatellite genotyping

The artemether-resistant sample isolated in 2005 was cultured for 21 days with the absence of artemether. DNA was prepared from the ex vivo sample and, after 21 days of culture, as described previously (25), was genotyped for four microsatellites, DHFR, PFE14F, C3M35, and C4M79, as described previously (16). The full-length P. falciparum ATPase6 (PLATPase6) gene was amplified for both samples and was sequenced as described previously (11).

### Statistical analysis

The global trends were calculated using a Kruskal-Wallis test for the last 6 years. In addition, the year-to-year evolution was analyzed using (GX110 model Dell) multidetector scintillation counter (Microbeta Trilux; Wallace Oy, Turku, Finland).

Tests were carried out over a 48-h culture period, using the [\(^3\)H]hypoxanthine incorporation microtest. Each isolate was tested once in triplicate against serial twofold drug dilutions over the concentration ranges of 3.750 to 7 nM chloroquine (dihydrophosphate; Sigma catalog no. C6628), 3.680 to 7 nM quinine (sulfate; Sigma catalog no. Q1878), 793 to 1.54 nM mefloquine (Hoffman-La Roche Inc), 63.1 to 0.123 mM halofantrine (GlaxoSmithKline Inc.), 840 to 1.64 μM amodiaquine (dihydrochloride dihydrate; Sigma catalog no. A2799), 50 to 0.097 μM cycloguanil (Astra Zeneca), 1039 to 2.03 μM doxycycline (hydrochloride; Sigma catalog no. D9891), 98.5 to 0.19 nM artemether (Novartis Pharma Inc), and 32 to 0.00625 mM atovaquone (GlaxoSmithKline Inc). The various antimalarial molecules were tested from the beginning, except for amodiaquine (for which testing began in 1995), artemether (in 1997), atovaquone (in 2001), and lumefantrine (in 2005).

Control susceptible lines were included for quality control. The 3D7 clone was used from 1990 onward. In 2002, we also included HB3 and W2, and 7G8 was added to the panel of control lines in 2003. The four control lines were kindly provided by J. Le Bras (Centre National de Référence pour la chimiosensibilité du paludisme, Paris, France). P. falciparum reference lines were run in parallel assays for each batch of antimalarial used. Since 1999, 3D7 has been tested in 13 assays; and HB3, W2, and 7G8 were tested in 12, 7, and 5 independent assays, respectively. The 50% inhibitory concentration (IC\(_{50}\)) was calculated using a probit/logit regression of the percentage of growth inhibition for each drug, and the geometric mean IC\(_{50}\) was compared by Student’s t test. To comply with previous reports from the area and with the commonly used interpretation of susceptibility tests (5, 14, 15, 20, 26, 28, 29), we have used a cutoff value to classify isolates as susceptible, intermediate, or resistant (Table 2). The in vitro levels of chloroquine resistance versus sensitivity were determined at the laboratory level by analyzing isolates from clinical cases with documented therapeutic efficacy from the area. For the antimalarials other than chloroquine, there is no threshold established for these grounds. It is not possible to assign such a value for drugs not yet in use in the area (or no longer in use). The temporal variation of in vitro-resistant prevalence was followed in the various areas. Generally speaking, the Maroni River samples (from two sentinel sites, Maripasoula and Saint Laurent du Maroni), representing isolates from a region with a high prevalence of multidrug resistance, were compared with those from the rest of the department.
increase from 1995 to 2001, followed by a significant decrease from 2001 to 2005 (Kruskal-Wallis test, \( P < 0.0001 \)).

**Mefloquine.** As shown in Table 1, mefloquine was used for prophylaxis and as a second-line treatment drug throughout the years 1990 to 2002. In the 1980s and until 1995, all isolates tested were susceptible to mefloquine. In 1996, 2% of the isolates were classified as in vitro mefloquine resistant. The prevalence of mefloquine resistance subsequently fluctuated between 0 and 29% (Fig. 3A). From 1997 onward, isolates with “intermediate” levels accounted for 11 to 23% of the isolates tested. The mean IC\(_{50}\) increased during this time period, from 9.4 nM in 1998 to 20.9 nM in 2002 and to 13.5 nM in 2005 (Kruskal-Wallis test, \( P = 0.039 \)). It is interesting to note that the temporal variations were reflected at both the global and the local (Maroni River area) levels.

**Halofantrine.** From 1994 to 2005, most isolates were classified as sensitive, and a minor fraction (6 to 9%) presented intermediate levels of resistance. This proportion increased to 21% in the next 2 years and fluctuated thereafter between 14 and 34% (Fig. 3B). Isolates classified as in vitro halofantrine resistant were observed in 1996 and in subsequent years, but their prevalence fluctuated markedly. There was a peak of 35% prevalence of resistance for isolates from 1997 and a second peak of 66% prevalence of resistance in isolates from 2000. It decreased to less than 3% in 2004. The mean IC\(_{50}\) increased from 3 nM in 1997 to 14.1 nM in 2000 and decreased significantly thereafter (Kruskal-Wallis test, \( P < 0.0001 \)) from 3.8 and 4.1 nM in 2004 and 2005, respectively.

**Doxycycline.** Doxycycline has been investigated since mid-1996, using standard 48-h tests, despite the fact that it is a delayed parasite death inducer. With this limitation in mind, we nevertheless reviewed the data available across the decade. As there was no global consensus for the threshold of susceptibility, a tentative cutoff level was set at 9.6 \( \mu \)M by Sarthou and Reyes (29), corresponding to the 95th percentile of a representative local sample. The prevalence of isolates with an IC\(_{50}\) above that threshold rose from 15 to 25% in the period from 1996 to 2001, to 51% in 2002, to 61.5% in 2003, and to more than 67% in 2005 (Fig. 4). Mean IC\(_{50}\) increased from 9.6 \( \mu \)M in 1996 to 1999 to 7.4 \( \mu \)M in 2000, 12.2 \( \mu \)M in 2002 to 2003, and 13.1 \( \mu \)M in 2005 (Kruskal-Wallis test, \( P < 0.0001 \)).

**Proguanil/cycloguanil.** Resistance to proguanil, based on in vitro testing of its major metabolite cycloguanil, had a very high prevalence (98% in 1997 and 100% in all subsequent years) and was at an elevated level (mean IC\(_{50}\) >4, 100 nM) (data not shown). In vitro testing was stopped in 2000.

**Artemisinin derivatives.** Artemether has been incorporated in our panel of antimalarials for in vitro testing since 1997. The great majority of 634 isolates assayed (95.5% to 98%) had a low IC\(_{50}\) value. The mean IC\(_{50}\) varied between 2.2 and 3.9 nM, except in 2002 when it was 8.4 nM (Fig. 5A), due to the presence of isolates showing markedly decreased in vitro sensitivity.

Figure 5A shows the yearly distribution of isolates grouped into two classes using the 12 nM threshold, which represents the lower border of the highest 5th percentile of IC\(_{50}\) distribution among African isolates, as proposed by Pradines et al. (26). Figure 5B shows the distribution into two classes using the 30 nM threshold, which has been associated with the presence of a S769N polymorphism in the putative target enzyme sarco-
plasmic/endoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPase (SERCA)-type 
PfATPase6 gene (11). Nine isolates with an IC50 for artemether of 
30 nM were observed in 2002, and one isolate was observed 
again in 2005 (17). In all these cases, the observation of isolates 
with elevated IC50 values for artemether is unlikely attributable to 
experimental culture artifacts, since unrelated patient isolates 
assayed on the same day exhibited low IC50 values for arte-
mether. Molecular typing of the isolate collected in 2005, 
which presented an IC50 of 127 nM for artemether, using 
microsatellite markers indicated that the ex vivo isolate con-
tained two clonal types (Table 3) and two PfATPase6 alleles, an 
S769N mutant allele and a wild-type allele. After 3 weeks of in 
vitro cultivation under standard culture conditions, the mutant 
allele was no longer detected, and the IC50 for artemether had 
dropped to 5 nM (16), suggesting a poor fitness of the mutant 
in vitro.
The distribution of IC₅₀s for artemether over the period from 2002 to 2005 is shown in Fig. 5C. The geometric mean IC₅₀ ± standard deviation during 2002 to 2005 was 2.03 ± 13 (n = 413 isolates). The interquartile range was 0.98 to 3.74.

Elevated IC₅₀s for artemether were observed for a very small fraction of all isolates.

**Lumefantrine.** The investigation of lumefantrine susceptibility in vitro was initiated in 2005. The distribution of IC₅₀s for
lumefantrine, shown in Fig. 6, spanned a 3 log concentration range. This limited sample showed a geometric mean IC₅₀ ± standard deviation of 156.8 ± 534.6 nM. Of 36 isolates tested, 14 (38.8%), 4 (11.1%), and 18 (50%) isolates presented IC₅₀ values of <100, 100 to 150, and >150 nM, respectively, for this molecule.

Atovaquone. Atovaquone has been used in the area in association with proguanil (Malarone). The 368 in vitro tests performed before its implementation in the area (which started in 2002) showed an excellent level of sensitivity (with a mean IC₅₀ for atovaquone of 0.55 nM) during the period from 1998 to 2004 (data not shown). The first case of in vitro resistance to
atovaquone was clinically and parasitologically documented in 2005 with parasites collected from a patient for whom treatment with second-line atovaquone-proguanil failed (15).

In vitro cross-reactivity. In vitro correlations between the mean $IC_{50}$s for drugs with similar modes of action or for those of the same chemical classes were tentatively sought from two groups of samples collected from 1996 to 1999 and from 2000 to 2005. A lack of correlation between chloroquine and quinine, mefloquine, or doxycycline was noted. In contrast, positive correlations were observed between amodiaquine and chloroquine ($r = 0.75; P = 0.02$), amodiaquine and halofantrine ($r = 0.51; P < 0.001$), amodiaquine and mefloquine ($r = 0.48; P = 0.004$), and to a lesser extent amodiaquine and quinine ($r = 0.25; P = 0.03$).

There were highly significant correlations between mefloquine and halofantrine in isolates from 1996 to 1999 ($r = 0.72; P = 0.01$) and those from 2000 to 2005 ($r = 0.63; P < 0.0001$). Interestingly, similar correlations had been noticed during local surveys organized in the mid-Maroni River area (Papaiouch, $r = 0.74, P < 0.01$, on 27 in vitro tests analyzed in 2000 [9]) and in the high-Maroni River area (Maripasoula, $r = 0.73, P < 0.0001$, on 29 tests in 1995 [C. Venturin et al., 3rd Infectious Diseases Medical Conference, 1988]). For lumefantrine, a significant correlation was noticed with halofantrine ($r = 0.78; P < 0.0001$), but there was no association with mefloquine.

**DISCUSSION**

Our data highlight significant temporal changes of in vitro sensitivity to most molecules included in the established systematic screening scheme over the 12 years surveyed. Chloroquine and quinine susceptibility increased significantly during this period. Susceptibility to doxycycline, mefloquine, and amodiaquine decreased, and there were alerts issued for halofantrine and artemether resistance. These changes can be interpreted in light of the drug pressure exerted on the parasites in French Guiana and in the surrounding countries. Drug pressure in the area has been quite high from very early on. Amodiaquined salt ($0.43\%$) was distributed to the whole population from 1967 to 1978 (and in neighboring Suriname from 1965 to 1973) [30] and distributed sporadically on an individual basis after that [8]. Chloroquine, quinine, tetracycline, doxycycline, mefloquine, and halofantrine have been used during the last decade, and more recently, atovaquone, proguanil, artemether, and lumefantrine have been introduced.

The use of chloroquine for treating *P. falciparum* malaria was abandoned in French Guiana in 1995 because of a documented loss of therapeutic efficacy at a local level and across the Amazonian region. During the following years, all French Guiana isolates tested were chloroquine resistant, but there was a marked increase in chloroquine sensitivity in 2000 and thereafter. The decrease in chloroquine resistance was altogether abrupt and partial. The abruptness is difficult to interpret and may reflect a geographical sample bias, as some endemic foci may have been overrepresented during certain years. As shown in Fig. 1, the endemic foci in French Guiana have a patchy distribution, are isolated, and are separated by large inhabited primary forests and/or river banks. This situation may be responsible for microgeographic parasite heterogeneity, including drug resistance, as well as heterogeneity of transmission intensity and hence for the spread of resistance. Whereas this may create distribution distortions during some periods, this proviso no longer holds for longer term trends, such as the shift from 100% chloroquine resistance in 1995 to 1999 to 50 to 60% resistance in 2000 to 2005. Similarly partial decreases in chloroquine-resistant *P. falciparum* isolates after chloroquine cessation were observed in China [21, 34] and in Cambodia [7, 20]. These decreases differ from the consequence of chloroquine cessation in Malawi that was followed by a decrease in the PfCRT 76T marker from 85% in 1993 to 13% in 2000 and 0% in 2001 [13, 23]. The maintenance of substantial levels of chloroquine resistance in non-African settings after the discontinuation of chloroquine treatment against *P. falciparum* malaria reflects the fact that unlike the situation in Africa, not all chloroquine pressure has been removed from the region. In particular, chloroquine has been used continuously and is still being used for the treatment of *P. vivax* malaria, which accounts for a substantial fraction of malaria.

![FIG. 6. Frequency distribution of $IC_{50}$ values for lumefantrine in French Guiana for 41 isolates collected during 2005.](image-url)
cases and is most probably used also against some *P. falciparum*-*P. vivax* mixed isolate infections.

However, French Guiana treatment differs from that in Southeast Asian countries and China in the replacement of chloroquine. As in many countries in this region, in French Guiana chloroquine was replaced as the first-line treatment drug for *P. falciparum* malaria by the quinine-doxycycline combination. Whether this has contributed to preventing further decreases in chloroquine resistance is unclear. The decrease in chloroquine resistance is usually interpreted as due to its fitness cost in the absence of chloroquine pressure (33). Molecular analysis using transgenic parasites mutated at the Pfcrt or the Pfmdr1 locus showed an inverse relationship of mutations governing in vitro susceptibility to chloroquine on the one hand and to quinine, mefloquine, and halofantrine on the other hand in some genetic backgrounds (12, 13, 27, 31, 32). No such association was observed for the panel of isolates studied from French Guiana. In vitro susceptibility to chloroquine was associated with no other response than amodiaquine, consistent with the amodiaquine and chloroquine cross-resistance reported in many settings. Interestingly, amodiaquine susceptibility was associated with halofantrine, mefloquine, and to a lesser extent quinine susceptibility. Molecular studies of Pfcrt, Pfmdr1, and other putative chloroquine and quinine transporters are under way to understand the molecular basis of such associations and to document the consequences of changes in first-line treatment drugs for French Guiana parasites.

In French Guiana, as in Brazil and Suriname, quinine had been used for the treatment of severe or complicated cases of malaria in combination with tetracycline since the 1980s. The quinine-doxycycline combination was introduced for uncomplicated *P. falciparum* malaria cases in 1995. This combination has been used extensively in South America during the last 10 years and is still used because of irregular supplies of artemether-lumefantrine and nonprescription of artemether-lumefantrine in pediatric malaria cases. Our data indicate that the use of the quinine-doxycycline combination has selected parasites with reduced in vitro susceptibility to doxycycline. This may be underestimated by the use of 48-h in vitro assays since doxycycline is a slow-acting antimalarial. A more accurate assessment of doxycycline inhibition would have required cultivation for 72 to 96 h. Plans are under way to establish these assays in the laboratory. The reduction observed in vitro susceptibility to doxycycline may have had limited clinical impact so far, in particular because of the continuing efficacy of quinine. However, further extensive use of doxycycline or of any combination drug containing doxycycline is not desirable, since it will further increase resistance to doxycycline and, in turn, to the combination in quinine monotherapy, thereby increasing the selection pressure for quinine resistance.

Artemisinin derivatives have been introduced in French Guiana in combination with lumefantrine (Riamet), but as discussed above, the treatment is not yet approved for treating pediatric malaria in French Guiana or for treating pregnant women and is not widely available. Furthermore, its elevated price is an incentive for users to cross the border and purchase artemether-lumefantrine (Coartem) and/or other artemisinin-based combination therapy drugs in neighboring countries. In the years 2002 and 2005, we observed isolates with markedly increased IC\textsubscript{50} for artemether and a PfATPase6 S769N mutation. The mean IC\textsubscript{50} for artemether (± 95% confidence interval [CI]) with the PfATPase6 S769N mutant isolates was 82.6 nM (± 95% CI, 23.3), i.e., 25-fold above the upper border of the 95% CI value for artemether for all parasites studied in French Guiana (geometric mean = 2.03 nM; 95% CI = 1.26). There are two points of concern here. First, these isolates originated from areas quite distant from each other across French Guiana, namely from the town of Cacao, and from settings along the Maroni River, which are separated by inhabited primary forest (Fig. 1). Epidemiological investigations of these patients revealed that drugs labeled as containing an artemisinin derivative had been illegally imported from Southeast Asia into Cacao. The exact drug composition and concentration could not be determined by the expert chemistry laboratory at the Institut de Veille Sanitaire. Whether this finding indicates counterfeit, underdosed drugs, which dramatically plague the market nowadays (24), is unclear. Investigations focus on areas along the Maroni River with illegal gold mining activities and the importation of antimalarial drugs from Suriname and Brazil, in particular dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine (Artekin [Tonghe Pharmaceuticals]) and piperaquine-dihydroartemisinin-trimethoprim (Artecom [Tonghe Pharmaceuticals]). The quality of these drugs has not been assessed, and the possibility of counterfeit remains open.

A second point of concern is the observation of an additional case of in vitro resistance to artemether from the Maroni River area, which was associated with exactly the same mutation in the target gene 3 years after the first cases. Unfortunately, this isolate could not be maintained in culture and could not be cloned out under artemether pressure in vitro after freeze-thawing, an experience also reported by another group (10). This suggests that prolonged cultivation can select for a drug-sensitive parasite, possibly because current culture conditions may be suboptimal for certain parasite strains. Since many field isolates are from mixed infections, this raises a warning that caution should be used when cultivating field isolates for extended periods of time. The data indicate that the emergence of resistance to artemether in the region is indeed a threat. Artemisinin derivatives are also active on gametocytes, thereby reducing the probability of resistance spreading. Nevertheless, continued and increased surveillance is needed to prevent the establishment of isolates with additional mutations. The S769N polymorphism in the PfATPase6 gene may represent a first step in a process of accumulating mutations that may eventually result in a more stable artemether-resistant haplotype that may subsequently spread, as reported for resistance to chloroquine (7, 35), pyrimethamine, or sulfadoxine (4). In vitro resistance is not synonymous with clinical failure, but it is on the critical path to eventual clinical failure.

Of further concern is the observation of an elevated IC\textsubscript{50} for lumefantrine. Lumefantrine is an aryl alcohol, and there was evidence for cross-resistance of lumefantrine with halofantrine in French Guiana. We have included lumefantrine in the panel of antimalarials to be systematically assessed in current and future work. Again, the significance of this observation in terms of therapeutic efficacy is unclear, but it is a second warning for the long-term sustainability of the combination in this region. An assessment of the therapeutic efficacy of arte-
mether-lumefantrine is needed in the various endemic areas across French Guiana.

This synopsis identified temporal trends pointing to changes in parasite in vitro susceptibility following changes in drug policy. Longitudinal assessment by the same laboratory with the same technology over a 12-year period provides a basis for deriving reasonably reliable temporal trends. The temporal dynamics of the IC50s have been somewhat variable from year to year, possibly reflecting some occasional geographic sample biases, but consistent trends are evidenced when a longer time frame is considered. In vitro resistance to multiple antimalarials is not specific to French Guiana. Multiple resistance has been reported in the neighboring countries of Suriname, Brazil, and Guyana. Our results highlight the usefulness of longitudinal in vitro susceptibility monitoring to document the consequences of a drug policy on resistance selection. In vitro assays provide invaluable information on emerging resistance against individual components of drug combinations such as quinine-doxycline or artemether-lumefantrine. Surveillance capacities need to be strengthened urgently in the region in order to anticipate in good time the emergence of resistance and to prevent the spread of resistant lines across the region.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank the colleagues who implemented and/or worked for the reference laboratory (T. Fandeur, J.B. Duchessen, J.M. Reyne, S. Laventure, and J.L. Sarthou). We are grateful to Cayenne’s central hospital team, particularly B. Carme (Parasitology Unit) and F. Djossou (Health Center coordination), for organizing the collection of specimens.

This study was supported by the Prix Louis D. of the French Academy of Sciences and by the European Commission (contract OLK2-CT200215-1503-ResMalChip).

REFERENCES

