Probing for *Trypanosoma cruzi* Cell Surface Glycobiomarkers for the Diagnosis and Follow-Up of Chemotherapy of Chagas Disease

Nathaniel S. Schocker, Susana Portillo, Roger A. Ashmus, Carlos R.N. Brito, Igor E. Silva, Yanira Cordero Mendoza, Alexandre F. Marques, Erika Y. Monroy, Andrew Pardo, Luis Izquierdo, Montserrat Gállego, Joaquim Gascon, Igor C. Almeida and Katja Michael

Abstract *Trypanosoma cruzi* is a protozoan parasite that causes Chagas disease in humans. Linear and branched *O*-glycans with non-reducing, terminal α -galactosyl (α -Gal) glycotopes located on cell surface glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)anchored mucins of the infective trypomastigote form of the parasite are foreign to humans and elicit high levels of anti- α -Gal antibodies in Chagas disease patients (Ch anti- α -Gal antibodies). These antibodies have the capability to lyse the parasite in a complement-dependent or -independent manner. Ch anti- α -Gal antibodies have a considerably higher reactivity to the parasitic surface α -Gal glycotopes than the normal human serum (NHS) anti- α -Gal antibodies, which are present in every healthy human being. A series of ten mercaptopropyl saccharides with α -Gal moieties at the non-reducing end, all connected to another galactose unit, and five non- α -Gal-containing glycan controls were synthesized, and conjugated to maleimide-derivatized bovine serum albumin. This produced neoglycoproteins (NGPs), which were assembled into glycoarrays for the interrogation with sera of chronic Chagas disease patients and healthy individuals using chemiluminescent

C.R.N. Brito · A.F. Marques Department of Parasitology, Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais (UFMG), Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil

L. Izquierdo · M. Gállego · J. Gascon Barcelona Institute for Global Health (ISGlobal), Hospital Clinic—Universitat de Barcelona, 08036 Barcelona, Spain

N.S. Schocker \cdot R.A. Ashmus \cdot E.Y. Monroy \cdot A. Pardo \cdot K. Michael (\boxtimes) Department of Chemistry, University of Texas at El Paso, El Paso, TX 79968, USA e-mail: kmichael@utep.edu

S. Portillo · C.R.N. Brito · I.E. Silva · Y.C. Mendoza · A.F. Marques · I.C. Almeida (⊠) Border Biomedical Research Center, Department of Biological Sciences, University of Texas at El Paso, El Paso, TX 79968, USA e-mail: icalmeida@utep.edu

enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (CL-ELISA). This study identified the terminal Gal α (1,3)Gal β disaccharide as an immunodominant *T. cruzi* glycotope and biomarker, which shows a considerable binding differential between Ch and NHS anti- α -Gal antibodies. Therefore, this glycotope is suitable for the diagnosis of Chagas disease, and could also be potentially used for follow-up studies for the effectiveness of chemotherapy in Chagas disease patients.

1 Introduction

Chagas disease is an infectious disease caused by the protozoan parasite *Trypanosoma cruzi*, which is transmitted by blood-sucking insect vectors of the Reduviidae family, popularly known as "kissing bugs". Transmission can also occur by blood transfusion, organ transplantation, ingestion of tainted foods and liquids, and by the congenital route. Currently, approximately 8–10 million people are infected, and approximately 12,000 die every year, mostly as a consequence of cardiomyopathy [1, 2]. Chagas disease is endemic to South and Central America; however, due to the migration of many thousands of chronically infected, asymptomatic individuals from endemic areas, Chagas disease now exists in non-endemic regions such as the U.S., Europe, Australia, New Zealand, and Japan [2–5].

The cell surface of T. cruzi has heavily O-glycosylated glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored mucins, which are the major constituents of a particularly dense glycocalyx [6-8]. Unlike the O-glycans of GPI-mucins from the insect-derived developmental stages of the parasite, that have been characterized in several strains and genotypes, the structural details of the O-glycans of mucins from the mammal-dwelling trypomastigote form (tGPI-mucins) are mostly unknown [6, 9, 10]. However, through partial structural analysis and immunoassays it is known that the majority of these tGPI-mucin O-glycans contain highly immunogenic, non-reducing terminal α -galactopyranosyl residues [11], here abbreviated as α -Gal, α Gal, or Gal α , omitting the explicit designator "p" for pyranose. Interestingly, these terminal α -Gal residues are completely absent in GPI-mucins derived from the insect vector-dwelling epimastigote and metacyclic trypomastigote forms or stages [6-10]. The α Gal residues are partial structures of most likely several immunodominant glycotopes and are recognized by the highly abundant, protective anti-α-Gal antibodies present in the sera of patients in the acute and chronic phases of Chagas disease [11, 12]. These antibodies are responsible for controlling the parasitemia in both stages of the infection [11-13]. The O-glycosylation of the T. cruzi mucins is a posttranslational modification in which α -N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAca) is added to a threonine side chain by the UDP-GlcNAc:polypeptide α -N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase in the Golgi apparatus [14]. This α -GlcNAc moiety is heavily 4,6-di-O-substituted, albeit 4-O monosubstitution also exists [11–16]. In addition, 2-O-substituted Gal, 3-O-substituted Gal, 4-O-substituted Gal, 6-O-substituted Gal, and 2,6-di-O-substituted Gal motives also exist, indicating that

tGPI-mucin *O*-glycans are galactose-rich and predominantly branched [11]. Nevertheless, the only tGPI-mucin *O*-glycan that has been fully characterized to date is the linear trisaccharide Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4)GlcNAc α . It is strongly recognized by Ch anti- α -Gal Abs, but only weakly by anti- α -Gal Abs from healthy individuals [normal human serum (NHS) anti- α -Gal Abs] [11], which are produced mainly against Gram-negative enterobacteria of the human flora [17]. These enterobacteria (e.g., *E. coli, Serratia* spp., *Enterobacter* spp., *Klebsiella* spp., *Salmonella* spp., *Citrobacter* spp., and *Shigella* spp.) have a number of different non-reducing, terminal α Gal-linked glycans, mostly Gal α (1,2)-R, Gal α (1,4)-R and Gal α (1,6)-R (where R is the remaining side chain or core glycan) on the lipopolysaccharide (LPS) core oligosaccharides or *O*-antigens [18]. The glycotope Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4)GlcNAc α has so far not been reported in enterobacteria.

Despite the existence of intraspecies polymorphism in the *O*-glycans of the GPI-mucins, the expression of highly immunogenic, non-reducing terminal α Gal residues seems to be highly conserved in tGPI-mucins from at least four major *T. cruzi* genotypes or discrete typing units (DTUs) known to infect humans (i.e., TcI, TcII, TcV, and TcVI) [11, 19–21]. This is supported by numerous studies showing the abundant presence of high levels of protective Ch anti- α -Gal Abs in patients from different endemic and nonendemic regions [11, 12, 19, 22–30].

2 Results and Discussion

Here we present the identification of an immunodominant glycotope present on the T. cruzi cell surface that is strongly recognized by anti- α -Gal antibodies from chronic Chagas disease (CCD) patients. In order to identify potential T. cruzi aGal-containing glycotopes, we synthesized a biased library of ten glycans consisting of mono-, di-, and trisaccharides with terminal aGal moieties based on the partial structural information available for tGPI-mucin O-glycans [11]. The synthetic glycans were conjugated to bovine serum albumin (BSA) to produce neoglycoproteins (NGPs), which were assembled into glycoarrays and interrogated with pooled sera of T. cruzi-infected and healthy individuals using chemiluminescent enzyme-linked immunosorbent-assay (CL-ELISA) [24]. We reasoned that with a glycan library in hand, polyclonal anti- α -Gal Abs from CCD patients could be used as probes for the identification of immunodominant T. cruzi glycotopes. Antibody recognition of certain saccharides would suggest that these saccharides are immunogenic glycotopes or glycotope partial structures that exist on the cell surface of the infective trypomastigote form that lives in the human host. Due to the structural diversity of the trypomastigote cell surface O-glycans, several glycans with α Gal moieties differently connected to another underlying sugar, most likely another galactose unit, could potentially be identified as immunogenic glycotopes.

For the synthesis of a potential α Gal-containing library, three factors had to be considered: (a) the size and connectivity of the saccharide targets; (b) a suitable linker allowing for the conjugation to BSA; and (c) a versatile synthetic strategy



Fig. 1 A synthetic library of saccharides with mercaptopropyl linkers: ten saccharides with non-reducing α Gal (1–10), and five saccharides that lack α Gal (11–15) [32, 33]

allowing for the use of common precursors. We synthesized a total of ten α Gal-containing mercaptopropyl saccharides (1–10, Fig. 1) suitable for conjugation to commercially available maleimide-derivatized BSA. In order to shine light on whether Ch anti- α -Gal Abs can recognize a single monosaccharide, mercaptopropyl $Gal\alpha$ (1) [31, 32] was included in the study. The mercaptopropyl glycosides of the following five α Gal-containing disaccharides were also included: Gal $\alpha(1,2)$ Gal $\beta(2)$ [32]; Gal $\alpha(1,3)$ Gal β (3) [32]; Gal $\alpha(1,3)$ Gal α (4); Gal $\alpha(1,4)$ Gal β (5) [32]; and Gal α (1,6)Gal β (6) [32]. In addition, the mercaptopropyl glycosides of Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4)Glca (7) [32], and the linear tGPI-mucin trisaccharide Gala(1,3)Gal $\beta(1,4)$ GlcNAc α (8) [33] were selected as targets. Trisaccharide 8 serves as a positive control, and trisaccharide 7 may shine light on the importance of the third sugar at the reducing end for antibody recognition. In addition, the trisaccharides Gala(1,2) $[Gal\alpha(1,6)]Gal\beta(9)$ and $Gal\alpha(1,2)[Gal\alpha(1,3)]Gal\beta(10)$ were included because they represent branched O-glycans with two terminal α Gal units. Lastly, six different putative negative controls that lack terminal aGal units were also included in the library: the mercaptopropyl glycosides of monosaccharides Gal β (11) [32], GlcNAc β (12) [33], GlcNAc α (13) [33], the disaccharides Gal β (1,4)Glc β (14) [32], and Gal $\beta(1,4)$ GlcNAc α (15) [33], as well as cysteine [32, 33]. Including compounds 13 and 15 in the study will provide information on whether Ch anti- α -Gal antibodies have the ability to recognize the reducing end mono and disaccharide partial structures of the known *T. cruzi* tGPI mucin glycan Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4) GlcNAc α . Lastly, including both anomers of GlcNAc (compounds **12** and **13**) may provide information on the importance of the configuration at the reducing end of Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4)GlcNAc α .

The assembly of the glycans into a glycoarray requires their immobilization in microtiter plate wells. This can be accomplished by conjugation of the glycan to a protein, which adheres to Nunc MaxiSorp® microtiter plate wells made from polystyrene by non-covalent interactions. Initially, we chose maleimide-derivatized keyhole limpet hemocyanin (KLH) for the conjugation due to its high-loading capacity, but this protein showed poor water solubility and made accurate microplate-well loading impossible. Therefore, we decided to conjugate all glycosides (1-15) to BSA instead, which has superior solubility properties. The mercaptopropyl glycosides were conjugated to commercially available maleimide-activated BSA by 1,4-addition in aqueous solution at pH 7.2, which produced NGPs 1-BSA-15-BSA. The conjugation was carried out in the presence of a water-soluble phosphine to reduce any sugar disulfides. The NGPs prepared in this manner have the tendency to aggregate over a time period of several months when kept in solution at 4 °C, which is in accordance with a recent study on the stability of BSA and lysozyme that had been exposed to reducing conditions [34]. Therefore we recommend storing the NGPs frozen at -20 to -80 °C, in small working aliquots to avoid repeated freeze-thaw cycles. Scheme 1 shows the conjugation of trisaccharide 7 to BSA producing the NGP 7-BSA as an example. The average glycan load per BSA molecule can be determined by matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF-MS).

Figure 2 illustrates the glycan load determination of **2-BSA** by MALDI-TOF-MS as a representative example.

Schemes 2, 3, and 4 illustrate the syntheses of mercaptopropyl glycosides 2, 7, and **8** as examples of synthetic strategies applied for the generation of the α Gal-containing glycan library. The most important synthetic feature that we applied for the synthesis of all α Gal-containing disaccharides and trisaccharides [32, 33], is the use of Kiso's di-*tert*-butylsilylidene galactosyl donor **18** (Scheme 2) allowing for the stereoselective α -galactosylation despite the presence of a benzoyl protecting group at position 2 [35, 36]. For the synthesis of mercaptopropyl disaccharide **2**, unprotected allyl β -galactoside **16** [37], synthesized from a peracetylated allyl galactoside precursor [38], was protected as its isopropylidene ketal [39] followed by silylation with *tert*-butyl-diphenylsilylchloride to give acceptor **17**



Scheme 1 Conjugate addition of mercaptopropyl saccharide 7 to ImjectTM maleimide-activated BSA from Thermo Fisher Scientific produced NGP 7-BSA with a glycan load of 16 glycans per BSA molecule



Fig. 2 MALDI-TOF mass spectra of BSA and **2-BSA**: in this case, the average loading is 25 disaccharide units per BSA molecule, based on the m/z difference of [BSA]⁺ and [**2-BSA**]⁺



Scheme 2 Synthesis of mercaptopropyl disaccharide 2: a 2,2-dimethoxypropane, pTsOH, DMF (85%); b TBDPSCI, DMAP, DCM (95%); c TMSOTf, DCM, 4 Å MS (82%); d HF-pyr, THF, 0 °C (91%); e DCM, H₂O, TFA (98%); f AcSH, AIBN, THF, 350 nm (83%); g NaOMe, MeOH (quant.)



Scheme 3 Synthesis of the α Gal-containing mercaptopropyl trisaccharide 7: **a** Bu₂SnO, MeOH, 65°C; **b** PMBCl, Bu₄NBr, benzene, 65°C (54% two steps); **c** BzCl, pyr (quant.); **d** DDQ, CH₂Cl₂, H₂O (72%); **e** TMSOTf, DCM, 4 Å MS (85%); **f** HF-pyr, THF (90%); **g** NaOMe, MeOH (quant.); **h** Ac₂O, pyr; **i** AcSH, AIBN, THF, 350 nm (83% over two steps)



Scheme 4 Synthesis of Galα1,3Galβ1,4GlcNAcα-(CH₂)₃SH (8): a Bu₂SnO, MeOH; b PMBCl, Bu₄NCl, benzene (75% two steps); c BzCl, pyr (91%); d DDQ, DCM, H₂O (98%); e TMSOTf, DCM, 4 Å MS (92%); f HF-pyr, THF (90%); g Ac₂O, pyr (89%, two steps); h PdCl₂, MeOH (87%); i CCl₃CN, DCM, DBU (84%); j TMSOTf, DCM, 4 Å MS (30% α/β 1:4, separable by FPLC); k TMSOTf, DCM, 4 Å MS (46%); l AcSH (77%); m AcSH, AIBN, THF, 350 nm (89%); n NaOMe, MeOH (quant.)

[40]. α -Galactosylation with the Kiso donor **18** [35, 36] afforded the fully protected allyl disaccharide **19**. Removal of the di-*tert*-butylsilylidene group with tetrabutyl-ammonium fluoride or potassium fluoride in the presence of 18-crown-6 failed, but its removal was accomplished with hydrofluoric acid-pyridine complex, which simultaneously also removed the *tert*-butyldiphenylsilyl group to furnish the dibenzoylated allyl disaccharide. Radical addition of thioacetic acid to the double bond [31, 41, 42] of the allyl glycoside gave the thioester **20**, which was deprotected under Zemplén conditions to afford mercaptopropyl disaccharide **2** (Scheme 2).

Scheme 3 illustrates the synthesis of mercaptopropyl trisaccharide 7 from allyl lactoside 21 [43], which was p-methoxybenzylated at position 3 in the galactose ring via its tin-acetal to give compound 22. It was converted into glycosyl acceptor 23 by perbenzoylation, followed by oxidative removal of the p-methoxybenzyl group using 2,3-dichloro-5,6-dicyano-1,4-benzoquinone (DDQ). α -Galactosylation of acceptor 23 with the Kiso donor 18 furnished the fully protected allyl trisac-charide 24, which was treated with hydrofluoric acid-pyridine complex to remove the di-*tert*-butylsilylidene group. Debenzoylation followed by acetylation, followed by radical addition of thioacetic acid by a thiol-ene reaction afforded trisaccharide 25. The reason for the debenzoylation-acetylation strategy was a more straightforward purification of the thiol-ene reaction product by silica gel column chromatography. Upon deesterification of the fully esterified trisaccharide 25 using Zemplén conditions the target mercaptopropyl trisaccharide 7 was obtained.

The synthesis of mercaptopropyl trisaccharide **8** is much more challenging than the synthesis of its analog **7** (Scheme 3) due to the presence of *N*-acetylglucosamine

instead of a glucose moiety at the reducing end. The glycan moiety $Gal\alpha(1,3)Gal\beta$ (1,4)GlcNAca present in the tGPI mucins of T. cruzi [11] is an anomer of the well-known Galili epitope $Gal\alpha(1,3)Gal\beta(1,4)GlcNAc\beta$ [44] present on all mammalian cell surfaces with the exception of humans and Old World monkeys. For the Galili epitope and its glycosides, several chemical and chemo-enzymatic syntheses have been reported [45-52], but to the best of our knowledge there are no reports on the synthesis of mercaptopropyl trisaccharide $\mathbf{8}$ and analogs thereof with its unusual α -configuration at the reducing end. In order to develop a synthesis for 8 we envisioned to utilize the Kiso donor 18, and a strategy that makes use of predominantly acyl protecting groups that can be easily installed and cleanly removed (Scheme 4). Allyl β-galactoside 16 was converted into its tin acetal followed by p-methoxybenzylation at position 3. Benzoylation of the remaining hydroxyl groups and oxidative removal of the p-methoxybenzyl group with DDQ afforded acceptor 26. This acceptor was glycosylated with the donor 18, using trimethylsilyl trifluoromethanesulfonate (TMSOTf) catalysis to give disaccharide 27. The di-tertbutylsilvlidene group was cleaved with hydrofluoric acid-pyridine complex in tetrahydrofuran (THF), followed by acetylation of the two hydroxyls to afford the peracylated allyl disaccharide 28. Treatment with palladium(II) chloride in methanol gave the hemiacetal, which was filtered immediately after consumption of the starting material to avoid the formation of a polar by-product that is observable after 2 h of reaction, and was converted into the α -trichloroacetimidate 29 with trichloroacetonitrile in the presence of 1,8-diazabicycloundec-7-ene (DBU). This donor was at first used to glycosylate the allyl GlcNAc acceptor 30 [33, 53], obtained from allyl 2-deoxy-2-acetamido-\alpha-D-glucopyranoside [54], by selective benzoylation with N-benzoylimidazole [55, 56]. The glycosylation was accomplished with TMSOTf, but trisaccharide 31 was obtained as an anomeric mixture $(1:4 \alpha/\beta)$ of low yield, most likely due to the well-known poor nucleophilicity of the 4-OH of GlcNAc acceptors [57]. The separation of the two diastereomeric trisaccharides by column chromatography proved to be difficult, but can be accomplished by FPLC. Replacement of the acceptor 30 with the allyl 2-deoxy-2-azido-Glc acceptor **32** [33], produced from allyl 2-deoxy-2-azido- α -D-glucopyranoside [54] by selective benzoylation [53], furnished trisaccharide 33 in 46% yield, which was purified by flash chromatography. Reduction of the azide and installation of an Nacetyl group with neat thioacetic acid (AcSH) gave the trisaccharide 31. Radical addition of AcSH in the presence of azobisisobutyronitrile (AIBN) in THF under UV light gave the thioester (not shown). All ester-protecting groups were removed under Zemplén conditions to afford the target trisaccharide 8.

For glycoarray interrogation, pooled sera from ten CCD patients (ChSP) and pooled sera from ten healthy individuals (NHSP), obtained from the ISGlobal, Hospital Clinic, Universitat de Barcelona, were used. CCD patients had been diagnosed by two conventional ELISA tests, one with a lysate of *T. cruzi* parasites (Ortho-Clinical Diagnostics, Raritan, NJ, USA), and the other one with recombinant antigens (BioELISA Chagas, Biokit S.A., Barcelona, Spain). Healthy individuals tested negative in these two ELISAs. The synthetic α Gal-containing NGPs **1-BSA–10-BSA**, cysteine conjugated to BSA (Cysteine-BSA), as well as the five non- α Gal-containing NGPs (**11-BSA–15-BSA**), were immobilized in microtiter plate wells, and the resulting glycoarrays were subjected to CL-ELISA [24] in two glycoarray sets. Unlike our previously published results, in which 125 ng of NGP was immobilized per well, and sera dilutions of 1:100 and 1:300 were used [32], here we decreased the quantity of NGP per well to 24 ng (Fig. 3) and 12 ng (Fig. 4), and increased the serum dilution to 1:800, because under these conditions most NGPs show higher reactivity differentials (ratios) between ChSP and NHSP.

Figure 3 represents the first of two glycoarray studies and shows the CL-ELISA responses for **1-BSA–11-BSA**, **14-BSA** and **Cysteine-BSA**, most of which had been previously studied under different conditions [32], using ChSP and NHSP at sera dilutions of 1:800. It is noticeable that the NGPs **3-BSA**, **7-BSA**, and **8-BSA** show strong CL-ELISA reactivities with ChSP, and the greatest differentials between ChSP and NHSP of ~11 fold. All three NGPs share a common non-reducing terminal Gala(1,3)Gal β moiety, which is highly indicative for the disaccharide Gala(1,3)Gal β being an immunodominant *T. cruzi* trypomastigote cell surface glycotope.

Fig. 3 CL-ELISA reactivities of ChSP and NHSP to aGal- and βGal-containing NGPs. Each NGP was tested with ChSP and NHSP in duplicate. Cysteine-BSA was used as a negative control. The three NGPs with strong reactivities and large differentials between ChSP and NHSP are highlighted (dashed boxes). The amount of NGP and Cysteine-BSA loading in each well was 24 ng; sera were diluted at 1:800. RLU. relative luminescence units





Fig. 4 A CL-ELISA reactivity of NHSP versus ChSP to NGPs and Cysteine-BSA at 12 ng/well; sera dilution 1:800. B CL-ELISA reactivity of purified NHS anti- α -Gal Abs versus Ch anti- α -Gal to NGPs and Cysteine-BSA at 12 ng/well; antibody concentration: 1 µg/mL. RLU, relative luminescence units. Figure modified from Ref. [33]

None of these NGPs are significantly recognized by NHSP. Interestingly, the branched trisaccharide Gal $\alpha(1,3)$ [Gal $\alpha(1,2)$]Gal β in **10-BSA** is practically not recognized by these antibodies. It resembles the blood group B antigen Gal $\alpha(1,3)$ [Fuc $\alpha(1,2)$]Gal β R, which is also not recognized by NHS anti- α -Gal Abs [58] or Ch anti- α -Gal Abs (Almeida I.C., unpublished data). The Gal $\alpha(1,3)$ Gal α containing

NGP **4-BSA**, which differs from the Gal $\alpha(1,3)$ Gal β containing NGP **3-BSA** only in its anomeric configuration at the reducing end, also shows a strong reactivity with ChSP, but a somewhat smaller differential between ChSP and NHSP of only \sim 5:1 is observed. The strong reactivity with ChSP exhibited by 4-BSA could be due to the fact that the Ch anti-α-Gal antibodies cannot distinguish between the two possible configurations of the galactose moiety at the reducing end. Another potential reason could be that T. cruzi trypomastigotes express both disaccharides, however, so far the Gal $\alpha(1,3)$ Gal α glycotope has not been identified by analysis of *T. cruzi*-derived lysates, and its existence remains unconfirmed. The $Gal\alpha(1.2)Gal\beta$ -containing NGPs 2-BSA and 9-BSA also have strong reactivities with ChSP, which matches reports of high levels of anti- α -Gal Abs with specificity toward the Gal $\alpha(1,2)$ Gal epitope in the sera of CCD patients [30]. However, the differentials between ChSP and NHSP reactivity to 2-BSA and 9-BSA are much lower (~ 2 fold) than those observed for 3-BSA, 7-BSA, and 8-BSA. The NGP 1-BSA, which contains only the monosaccharide α Gal, gave a medium strong CL-ELISA response with a poor differential of ~1.3 fold between ChSP and NHSP. **5-BSA** [Gal α (1,4)Gal β BSA] and **6-BSA** [Gal α (1,6)Gal β BSA] show weak reactivities with ChSP, indicating that neither of them is a major immunogenic T. cruzi glycotope. Their reactivities are similar to the ones displayed by the BGal-containing NGP 11-BSA and the lactose-containing NGP 14-BSA, which only have slightly higher reactivities than the negative control Cysteine-BSA (Fig. 3).

The second glycoarray included the NGPs 8-BSA, 12-BSA, 13-BSA, and 15-BSA, as well as the negative control Cysteine-BSA [33]. Unlike the first glycoarray in which 24 ng of NGP was immobilized in each well, the second glycoarray was constructed immobilizing only 12 ng of NGP per well. Figure 4A shows CL-ELISA results of the glycoarray interrogation using ChSP and NHSP. $Gal\alpha(1,3)$ Gal β (1,4)GlcNAc α -BSA (8-BSA) shows a 20-fold differential between ChSP and NHSP, whereas the NGPs GlcNAcβ-BSA (12-BSA), GlcNAcα-BSA (13-BSA) and Gal $\beta(1,4)$ GlcNAc α -BSA (15-BSA) are only weakly recognized by antibodies of ChSP or NHSP. As expected, Cysteine-BSA showed practically no reactivity. In addition, the glycoarray was interrogated with Ch and NHS anti-α-Gal Abs (Fig. 4B), which had been purified by affinity chromatography using immobilized $Gal\alpha(1,3)Gal\beta(1,4)GlcNAc\beta$ [13]. $Gal\alpha(1,3)Gal\beta(1,4)GlcNAc\alpha$ -BSA (8-BSA) displays a 230-fold differential between Ch-aGal Abs and NHS-aGal Abs, while the other NGPs (12-BSA, 13-BSA, and 15-BSA) and Cysteine-BSA remain practically unrecognized by either Abs. Our results show that the terminal α Gal moiety of Gal α (1,3)Gal $\beta(1,4)$ GlcNAc α is essential for Ch antibody recognition. Although GlcNAc α and Gal β (1,4)GlcNAc α , which are underlying partial structures of Gal α (1,3)Gal $\beta(1,4)$ GlcNAc α , are nonself glycotopes for humans, there are only very antibody responses against them in ChSP. The aGal-containing weak glycoarray/CL-ELISA method presented here, especially when carried out with only 12 ng or 24 ng of antigen/well under dilute conditions is highly suitable for the differentiation between T. cruzi-infected and non-infected sera.

Based on the CL-ELISA results illustrated in Fig. 3, the question of specific glycotope recognition by Ch anti- α -Gal Abs arises: Does each of the three Gal α (1,3)Gal β -containing NGPs **3-BSA**, **7-BSA**, and commercial Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4) GlcNAc_β conjugated to BSA (purchased from V-Labs), which is also strongly recognized by ChSP and shows a favorable differential between ChSP and NHSP [32], recruit its own set of antibodies from the ChSP, or are the three glycotopes recognized by the same anti- α -Gal Abs? To address this question, we compared the CL-ELISAs of the individual NGPs immobilized in microtiter plate wells at different quantities, with that of the combined NGPs immobilized in the same microtiter plate wells at different quantities between 5 and 125 ng, and CL-ELISA reactivities were measured at three different sera dilutions (1:100, 1:200, and 1:400) (Fig. 5) [32]. We hypothesized if each NGP was recognized by a different set of antibodies, one would expect significantly higher RLU readings for the combined NGPs. However, the curves of the four experimental sets and the RLU readings resemble each other quite closely (Fig. 5). As expected, NHSP showed almost no binding to **3-BSA**, **7-BSA**, or Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4)GlcNAc β -BSA up to 125 ng. With ChSP, the titration curves for **3-BSA**, **7-BSA**, and Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4) GlcNAcβ-BSA were similar. This indicates that antibodies from CCD patients recognize all three saccharides (Gal α (1,3)Gal β , Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4)Glc β , and Gal α (1,3)Gal $\beta(1,4)$ GlcNAc β) to a similar extent. As can be seen in the titration curves of Fig. 5, right panel, when the NGPs **3-BSA**, **7-BSA**, and $Gal\alpha(1,3)Gal\beta(1,4)$ GlcNAc β -BSA are combined in the same wells, no significant increase in the fluorescence signal was observed at a serum dilution of 1/100, showing that only a very small or no synergistic effect exists. This experiment suggests that for the most part the same antibodies recognize all three NGPs (**3-BSA**, **7-BSA**, and $Gal\alpha(1,3)$) Gal $\beta(1,4)$ GlcNAc β -BSA) confirming that Gal $\alpha(1,3)$ Gal β is the immunodominant disaccharide glycotope that is specifically recognized, regardless of whether it is linked to a short alkyl chain, or whether it has a 1,4 linkage to β Glc, or β GlcNAc.



Fig. 5 CL-ELISA reactivity of ChSP and NHSP to the Gal α (1,3)Gal β -containing NGPs **3-BSA**, **7-BSA**, and the commercial NGP Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4)GlcNAc β -BSA, alone or combined. Each NGP (alone or combined) was tested with ChSP and NHSP in duplicate. Figure modified from Ref. [32]

3 Conclusions

Synthetic strategies were developed for the synthesis of a biased library of ten *T*. *cruzi* glycans with terminal α Gal moieties, which can be interrogated with sera of CCD patients to identify potentially immunodominant glycotopes. One of the glycans synthesized is the mercaptopropyl glycoside of Gal α (1,3)Gal β (1,4) GlcNAc α , which is the only structurally defined *T*. *cruzi* tGPI mucin glycan. It was prepared in 12 steps from known monosaccharide building blocks. The two key features utilized throughout all glycan syntheses is the stereoselective installation of the terminal α Gal moiety with the di*-tert*-butylsilylidene protected "Kiso donor" **18**, and the installation of allyl glycosides at the reducing ends. We have performed thiol-ene reactions by radical addition of the resulting thioester afforded mercaptopropyl thioglycosides. However, allyl glycosides are very versatile, as they can be easily converted into hemiacetals, or into aldehydes by ozonolysis, which can then be further derivatized.

All glycans were conjugated to BSA, and the resulting NGPs were immobilized in wells of microtiter plates, thus generating a glycoarray that was subjected to CL-ELISA using pooled sera from CCD patients (ChSP), and healthy individuals (NHSP). ChSP strongly recognized the terminal disaccharide $Gal\alpha(1,3)Gal\beta$ indicating that this glycotope is immunodominant. No matter if this disaccharide is connected to a short alkyl residue or to a glucose or N-acetylglucosamine moiety, the same set of Ch anti- α -Gal antibodies seem to recognize this disaccharide. The terminal disaccharide Gal $\alpha(1,3)$ Gal β is specifically recognized by Ch anti- α -Gal antibodies with a large differential of 10-20 fold between CCD sera and the NHS when only 12 or 24 ng of the NGP is immobilized per well, and when the sera are diluted at 1:800. All other saccharides synthesized and conjugated to BSA gave poor reactivity differentials between ChSP and NHSP or had significantly weaker reactivity with ChSP. Interestingly, the nonself Gal $\beta(1,4)$ GlcNAc α and GlcNAc α glycotopes are not recognized by ChSP, which stresses that the terminal α Gal residue is essential for ChSP binding. Our data indicate that based on the large fully synthetic, structurally in reactivity. differential defined $Gal\alpha(1.3)$ Galβ-containing NGPs could be used as biomarkers for the diagnosis of Chagas disease and could potentially be used for follow-up of chemotherapy, thus replacing purified and heterogeneous tGPI-mucins currently used for these purposes [19, 21, 23–25, 59]. In addition, synthetic Gal $\alpha(1,3)$ Gal β -containing glycoconjugates could potentially be suitable for the development of glycan-based therapeutic and/or preventive vaccines for experimental vaccination against T. cruzi infection, as we recently proposed [33].

Acknowledgements This work was supported by NIH grants R21AI07961801A1 and 1R21AI115451-01 (to ICA and KM) and Robert J. Kleberg Jr. and Helen C. Kleberg Foundation grants (to ICA, John VandeBerg, and KM). RAA is thankful for a Graduate Teaching Fellowship in K-12 Education (NSF grant DGE 0538623), NSS and AP for "Bridge to the Doctorate" scholarships (NSF grants HRD-1139929 and HRD-083295), and EYM for a MARC scholarship (NIH grant 5T34GM008048). ICA and CRNB were, respectively, Special Visiting Researcher and Visitor Ph.D. (Sandwich) Scholar of the Science Without Borders Program, Brazil. AFM is supported by the CNPq grant #470737/2013-1. LI, MG and JG receive financial research support from the Generalitat de Catalunya (grant 2009SGR385). We are grateful to the Biomolecule Analysis Core Facility (BACF) at the University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP) for the access to several instruments used in this study. The BACF is supported by the grant #2G12MD007592 (to Robert A. Kirken) from the National Institutes on Minority Health and Health Disparities (NIMHD), a component of the NIH.

References

- Rassi A Jr, Rassi A, Marcondes de Rezende J (2012) American trypanosomiasis (Chagas disease). Infect Dis Clin North Am 26:275–291
- 2. Carod-Artal FJ, Gascon J (2010) Chagas disease and stroke. Lancet Neurol 9:533-542
- Gascon J, Bern C, Pinazo MJ (2010) Chagas disease in Spain, the United States and other non-endemic countries. Acta Trop 115:22–27
- 4. Jackson Y, Pinto A, Pett S (2014) Chagas disease in Australia and New Zealand: risks and needs for public health interventions. Trop Med Int Health 19:212–218
- Imai K, Maeda T, Sayama Y, Mikita K, Fujikura Y, Misawa K, Nagumo M, Iwata O, Ono T, Kurane I, Miyahira Y, Kawana A, Miura S (2014) Mother-to-child transmission of congenital Chagas disease. Japan Emerg Infect Dis 20:146–148
- Acosta-Serrano A, Almeida IC, Freitas-Junior LH, Yoshida N, Schenkman S (2001) The mucin-like glycoprotein super-family of Trypanosoma cruzi: structure and biological roles. Mol Biochem Parasitol 114:143–150
- Buscaglia CA, Campo VA, Frasch AC, Di Noia JM (2006) *Trypanosoma cruzi* surface mucins: host-dependent coat diversity. Nat Rev Microbiol 4:229–236
- Acosta-Serrano A, Hutchinson C, Nakayasu ES, Almeida IC, Carrington M (2007) Comparison and evolution of the surface architecture of trypanosomatid parasites. In: Barry JD, Mottram JC, McCulloch R, Acosta-Serrano A (eds) Trypanosomes: after the genome. Horizon Scientific Press, Norwich, UK, pp 319–337
- 9. de Lederkremer RM, Agusti R (2009) Glycobiology of *Trypanosoma cruzi*. Adv Carbohydr Chem Biochem 62:311–366
- Mendonca-Previato L, Penha L, Garcez TC, Jones C, Previato JO (2013) Addition of alpha-O-GlcNAc to threonine residues define the post-translational modification of mucin-like molecules in *Trypanosoma cruzi*. Glycoconj J 30:659–666
- Almeida IC, Ferguson MA, Schenkman S, Travassos LR (1994) Lytic anti-alpha-galactosyl antibodies from patients with chronic Chagas' disease recognize novel O-linked oligosaccharides on mucin-like glycosyl-phosphatidylinositol-anchored glycoproteins of *Trypanosoma cruzi*. Biochem J 304(Pt 3):793–802
- Gazzinelli RT, Pereira ME, Romanha A, Gazzinelli G, Brener Z (1991) Direct lysis of *Trypanosoma cruzi*: a novel effector mechanism of protection mediated by human anti-gal antibodies. Parasite Immunol 13:345–356
- Almeida IC, Milani SR, Gorin PA, Travassos LR (1991) Complement-mediated lysis of *Trypanosoma cruzi* trypomastigotes by human anti-alpha-galactosyl antibodies. J Immunol 146:2394–2400

- 14. Previato JO, Sola-Penna M, Agrellos OA, Jones C, Oeltmann T, Travassos LR, Mendonca-Previato L (1998) Biosynthesis of O-N-acetylglucosamine-linked glycans in *Trypanosoma cruzi*. Characterization of the novel uridine diphospho-N-acetylglucosamine: polypeptide N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase-catalyzing formation of N-acetylglucosamine alpha1– > O-threonine. J Biol Chem 273:14982–14988
- 15. Serrano AA, Schenkman S, Yoshida N, Mehlert A, Richardson JM, Ferguson MA (1995) The lipid structure of the glycosylphosphatidylinositol-anchored mucin-like sialic acid acceptors of *Trypanosoma cruzi* changes during parasite differentiation from epimastigotes to infective metacyclic trypomastigote forms. J Biol Chem 270:27244–27253
- Previato JO, Jones C, Goncalves LP, Wait R, Travassos LR, Mendonca-Previato L (1994) O-glycosidically linked N-acetylglucosamine-bound oligosaccharides from glycoproteins of *Trypanosoma cruzi*. Biochem J 301(Pt 1):151–159
- Galili U, Wang L, Temple DCL, Radic MZ (1999) The natural anti-Gal antibody. Sub-Cell. Biochem 32:79–106
- Wilkinson SG (1996) Bacterial lipopolysaccharides—themes and variations. Prog Lipid Res 35:283–343
- Almeida IC, Krautz GM, Krettli AU, Travassos LR (1993) Glycoconjugates of *Trypanosoma* cruzi: a 74 kD antigen of trypomastigotes specifically reacts with lytic anti-alpha-galactosyl antibodies from patients with chronic Chagas disease. J Clin Lab Anal 7:307–316
- Soares RP, Torrecilhas AC, Assis RR, Rocha MN, Moura e Castro FA, Freitas GF, Murta SM, Santos SL, Marques AF, Almeida IC, Romanha AJ (2012) Intraspecies variation in Trypanosoma cruzi GPI-mucins: biological activities and differential expression of alpha-galactosyl residues. Am J Trop Med Hyg 87:87-96
- Izquierdo L, Marques AF, Gallego M, Sanz S, Tebar S, Riera C, Quinto L, Aldasoro E, Almeida IC, Gascon J (2013) Evaluation of a chemiluminescent enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for the diagnosis of *Trypanosoma cruzi* infection in a nonendemic setting. Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz 108:928–931
- 22. De Marchi CR, Di Noia JM, Frasch AC, Amato Neto V, Almeida IC, Buscaglia CA (2011) Evaluation of a recombinant *Trypanosoma cruzi* mucin-like antigen for serodiagnosis of Chagas' disease. Clin Vaccine Immunol 18:1850–1855
- Andrade AL, Martelli CM, Oliveira RM, Silva SA, Aires AI, Soussumi LM, Covas DT, Silva LS, Andrade JG, Travassos LR, Almeida IC (2004) Short report: benznidazole efficacy among *Trypanosoma cruzi*-infected adolescents after a six-year follow-up. Am J Trop Med Hyg 71:594–597
- Almeida IC, Covas DT, Soussumi LM, Travassos LR (1997) A highly sensitive and specific chemiluminescent enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for diagnosis of active *Trypanosoma cruzi* infection. Transfusion 37:850–857
- 25. de Andrade AL, Zicker F, de Oliveira RM, Almeida Silva S, Luquetti A, Travassos LR, Almeida IC, de Andrade SS, de Andrade JG, Martelli CM (1996) Randomised trial of efficacy of benznidazole in treatment of early *Trypanosoma cruzi* infection. Lancet 348:1407–1413
- Avila JL, Rojas M, Galili U (1989) Immunogenic Gal alpha 1–3Gal carbohydrate epitopes are present on pathogenic American Trypanosoma and Leishmania. J Immunol. 142:2828–2834
- 27. Antas PR, Medrano-Mercado N, Torrico F, Ugarte-Fernandez R, Gomez F, Correa Oliveira R, Chaves AC, Romanha AJ, Araujo-Jorge TC (1999) Early, intermediate, and late acute stages in Chagas' disease: a study combining anti-galactose IgG, specific serodiagnosis, and polymerase chain reaction analysis. Am J Trop Med Hyg 61:308–314
- Medrano-Mercado N, Luz MR, Torrico F, Tapia G, Van Leuven F, Araujo-Jorge TC (1996) Acute-phase proteins and serologic profiles of chagasic children from an endemic area in Bolivia. Am J Tro p Med Hyg 54:154–161
- Gonzalez J, Neira I, Gutierrez B, Anacona D, Manque P, Silva X, Marin S, Sagua H, Vergara U (1996) Serum antibodies to *Trypanosoma cruzi* antigens in Atacamenos patients from highland of northern Chile.Acta.Tro p 60:225–236

- Avila JL, Rojas M, Velazquez-Avila G (1992) Characterization of a natural human antibody with anti-galactosyl(alpha 1-2)galactose specificity that is present at high titers in chronic *Trypanosoma cruzi* infection. Am J Trop Med Hyg 47:413–421
- Houseman BT, Gawalt ES, Mrksich M (2003) Maleimide-functionalized self-assembled monolayers for the preparation of peptide and carbohydrate biochips. Langmuir 19:1522– 1531
- 32. Ashmus RA, Schocker NS, Cordero-Mendoza Y, Marques AF, Monroy EY, Pardo A, Izquierdo L, Gallego M, Gascon J, Almeida IC, Michael K (2013) Potential use of synthetic alpha-galactosyl-containing glycotopes of the parasite *Trypanosoma cruzi* as diagnostic antigens for Chagas disease. Org Biomol Chem 11:5579–5583
- 33. Schocker NS, Portillo S, Brito CR, Marques AF, Almeida IC, Michael K (2016) Synthesis of Galα(1,3)Galβ(1,4)GlcNAcα-, Galβ(1,4)GlcNAcα- and GlcNAc-containing neoglycoproteins and their immunological evaluation in the context of Chagas disease. Glycobiology 26:39–50
- 34. Yang M, Dutta C, Tiwari A (2015) Disulfide-bond scrambling promotes amorphous aggregates in lysozyme and bovine serum albumin. J Phys Chem B 119:3969–3981
- 35. Imamura A, Kimura A, Ando H, Ishida H, Kiso M (2006) Extended application of di-tert-butylsilylene-directed alpha-predominant galactosylation compatible with C2-participating groups toward the assembly of various glycosides. Chem Eur J 12:8862– 8870
- Kimura A, Imamura A, Ando H, Ishida H, Kiso M (2006) A novel synthetic route to alpha-galactosyl ceramides and iGb3 using DTBS-directed alpha-selective galactosylation. Synlett 2379–2382
- Stevenson DE, Furneaux RH (1996) Synthesis of allyl β-D-galactopyranoside from lactose using Streptococcus thermophilus β-D-galactosidase. Carbohydr Res 284:279–283
- Khamsi J, Ashmus RA, Schocker NS, Michael K (2012) A high-yielding synthesis of allyl glycosides from peracetylated glycosyl donors. Carbohydr Res 357:147–150
- Balcerzak AK, Ferreira SS, Trant JF, Ben RN (2012) Structurally diverse disaccharide analogs of antifreeze glycoproteins and their ability to inhibit ice recrystallization. Bioorg Med Chem Lett 22:1719–1721
- 40. Murata S, Ichikawa S, Matsuda A (2005) Synthesis of galactose-linked uridine derivatives with simple linkers as potential galactosyltransferase inhibitors. Tetrahedron 61:5837–5842
- Matsuoka K, Oka H, Koyama T, Esumi Y, Terunuma D (2001) An alternative route for the construction of carbosilane dendrimers uniformly functionalized with lactose or sialyllactose moieties. Tetrahedron Lett 42:3327–3330
- 42. Posner T (1905) Beiträge zur Kenntniss der ungesättigten Verbindungen. II. Ueber die Addition von Mercaptanen an ungesättigte Kohlenwasserstoffe. Ber 38:646–657
- Kononov LO, Kornilov AV, Sherman AA, Zyrianov EV, Zatonskii GV, Shashkov AS, Nifant'ev NE (1998) Synthesis of oligosaccharides related to HNK-1 antigen. 2. Synthesis of 3"'-O-(3-O-sulfo-beta-D-glucuronopyranosyl)-lacto-N-neotetraose Bioorg Khim 24:608–822
- 44. Galili U, Shohet SB, Kobrin E, Stults CL, Macher BA (1988) Man, apes, and Old World monkeys differ from other mammals in the expression of alpha-galactosyl epitopes on nucleated cells. J Biol Chem 263:17755–17762
- 45. Litjens REJN, Hoogerhout P, Filippov DV, Codee JDC, Bos LJvd, Berg RJBHNvd, Overkleeft HS, Marel GAvd (2005) Synthesis of an alpha-Gal epitope α-D-Galp-(1-3)-β-D-Galp-(1-4)-β-GlcpNAc-lipid conjugate. J Carbohydr Chem 24:755–769
- 46. Brinkmann N, Malissard M, Ramuz M, Römer U, Schumacher T, Berger EG, Elling L, Wandrey C, Liese A (2001) Chemo-enzymatic synthesis of the galili epitope Galα(1→3)Galβ (1→4)GlcNAc on a homogeneously soluble PEG polymer by a multi-enzyme system. Bioorg Med Chem Lett 11:2503–2506
- 47. Dahmén J, Magnusson G, Hansen HC (2002) Synthesis of the linear B type 2 trisaccharide Galα3Galβ4GlcNAcβOTMSEt, and coupling of the corresponding 2-carboxyethyl β-thioglycoside to sepharose. J Carbohydr Chem 21:1–12

- Plaza-Alexander P, Lowary TL (2013) Synthesis of trisaccharides incorporating the α-Gal antigen functionalized for neoglycoconjugate preparation. Arkivoc ii:112–122
- 49. Vic G, Hao T, Scigelova M, Crout DHG (1997) Glycosidase-catalysed synthesis of oligosaccharides: a one step synthesis of lactosamine and of the linear B type 2 trisaccharide alpha-D-Gal-(1,3)-beta-D-Gal-(1,4)-beta-D-GlcNAcSEt involved in the hyperacute rejection response in xenotransplantation from pigs to man and as the specific receptor for toxin A from Clostridium difficile. Chem Commun 169–170
- Wang Y, Yan Q, Wu J, Zhang L-H, Ye X (2005) A new one-pot synthesis of α-Gal epitope derivatives involved in the hyperacute rejection response in xenotransplantation. Tetrahedron 61:4313–4321
- 51. Hanessian S, Saavedra OM, Mascitti V, Marterer W, Oehrlein R, Mak C-P (2001) Practical syntheses of B disaccharide and linear B type 2 trisaccharide—non-primate epitope markers recognized by human anti-α-Gal antibodies causing hyperacute rejection of xenotransplants. Tetrahedron 57:3267–3280
- 52. Fang J, Li J, Chen X, Zhang Y, Wang J, Guo Z, Zhang W, Yu L, Brew K, Wang PG (1998) Highly efficient chemoenzymatic synthesis of α -galactosyl epitopes with a recombinant $\alpha(1 \rightarrow 3)$ -galactosyltransferase. J Am Chem Soc 120:6635–6638
- Danac R, Ball L, Gurr SJ, Muller T, Fairbanks AJ (2007) Carbohydrate Chain Terminators: Rational Design of Novel Carbohydrate-Based Antifungal Agents. ChemBioChem 8:1241– 1245
- 54. Gavard O, Hersant Y, Alais J, Duverger V, Dilhas A, Bascou A, Bonnaffé D (2003) Efficient preparation of three building blocks for the synthesis of heparan sulfate fragments: towards the combinatorial synthesis of oligosaccharides from hypervariable regions. Eur J Org Chem 3603–3620
- Varela O, Cicero D, de Lederkremer RM (1989) A convenient synthesis of 4-thio-D-galactofuranose. J Org Chem 54:1884–1890
- Gallo-Rodriguez C, Varela O, de Lederkremer RM (1996) First synthesis of beta-D-Galf(1-4) GlcNAc, a structural unit attached O-glycosidically in glycoproteins of *Trypanosoma cruzi*. J Org Chem 61:1886–1889
- 57. Crich D, Dudkin V (2001) Why are the hydroxyl groups of partially protected N-acetylglucosamine derivatives such poor glycosyl acceptors, and what can be done about it? J Am Chem Soc 123:6819–6825
- Galili U, Macher BA, Buehler J, Shohet SB (1985) Human natural anti-alpha-galactosyl IgG. II. The specific recognition of alpha (1–3)-linked galactose residues. J Exp Med 162:573–582
- 59. Pinazo MJ, Posada Ede J, Izquierdo L, Tassies D, Marques AF, de Lazzari E, Aldasoro E, Munoz J, Abras A, Tebar S, Gallego M, de Almeida IC, Reverter JC, Gascon J (2016) Altered Hypercoagulability Factors in Patients with Chronic Chagas Disease: Potential Biomarkers of Therapeutic Response. PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis. 10:e0004269