

1 | Kinnunen et al.

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15 RH: Kinnunen et al. • *Toxoplasma Gondii* in Squirrels

16 **No Evidence of *Toxoplasma Gondii* Infection in Urban and Rural Squirrels in Southern**
17 **Manitoba, Canada**

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27 **ABSTRACT**

28 When wildlife colonizes cities, they can bring parasites that have implications for human
29 health, yet knowledge underlying the ways host-pathogen interactions operate in cities is
30 limited. The Coccidian parasite *Toxoplasma gondii* can infect humans and cause health issues.
31 *T. gondii* also has host species that occur at higher densities in cities than in natural
32 environments, including squirrel species (Sciuridae). Cats and other Felidae are the only
33 known definitive hosts of *T. gondii*. In urban and suburban areas squirrels regularly share
34 their territories with domestic cats where they can encounter infectious oocysts shed in cat
35 feces in contaminated soil or in the food they eat. We hypothesized that urban squirrels might
36 thus be particularly susceptible to *T. gondii* infection compared to squirrels in more natural
37 areas. We investigated this using molecular and serological methods on samples collected
38 from four squirrel species in and around the city of Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada. We tested a
39 total of 272 tissue samples from 46 squirrels for *T. gondii* DNA using quantitative PCR, and
40 15 serum samples from grey squirrels (*Sciurus carolinensis*) for *T. gondii* antibodies (IgG) by
41 indirect ELISA. We found no evidence of *T. gondii* infection in squirrels in southern
42 Manitoba. This suggests that squirrels are not important intermediate hosts of *T. gondii* in
43 cities and that the prevalence of *T. gondii* oocysts in the environment in Manitoba is likely
44 low. Consequently, squirrel management to prevent infection to humans or their pet cats is not
45 needed in urban areas with abundant squirrel populations.

46 **KEY WORDS** host-parasite interaction, Sciuridae, squirrel, *Toxoplasma gondii*,
47 urbanization

48

49 **INTRODUCTION**

50 When wildlife colonizes cities, they can bring parasites that have implications for human
51 health (Mackenstedt et al. 2015). Indeed, previous work has found increased levels of wildlife
52 parasitism in cities compared to rural areas (Deplazes et al. 2004; Reperant et al. 2009; Lehrer
53 et al. 2010; Giraudeau et al. 2014). This increased level of parasitism could reflect both the
54 increased population density of urban host species and higher within and between species
55 contact rates in response to resource provisioning in cities relative to rural areas (Gliwicz et
56 al. 1994; Bradley and Altizer 2007). Contrasting this pattern, in some cases the overall species
57 richness and diversity of parasites can be reduced in cities as parasites with one or a few host
58 species may become extirpated in conjunction with their host species (Bradley and Altizer
59 2007). Parasites that spread through direct contact or oral-fecal routes are likely to be favored
60 in urban areas (Bradley and Altizer 2007) but knowledge underlying the way host-pathogen
61 interactions operate in cities is still limited (Mackenstedt et al. 2015).

62

63 The Coccidian parasite *Toxoplasma gondii* is an interesting parasite within the context of
64 emerging urban ecosystems. This is because it can infect humans and cause health issues, and
65 it has multiple host species that occur in high densities in cities including pets and rodents,
66 with wild and domestic cats (Felidae) being the only known definitive hosts (Elmore et al.

67 2010). A significant proportion of the human population globally is infected with *T. gondii*,
68 but most healthy people do not experience symptoms of infection (review by Tenter et al.
69 2000). However, immunocompromised people and pregnant women require medical
70 intervention to avoid serious health issues (Dixon 1992; Tenter et al. 2000; Hill et al. 2005).
71 Consequently, further knowledge of *T. gondii* infection dynamics in cities is needed.

72

73 *T. gondii* has three infectious stages: the tachyzoites, the bradyzoites, and the sporozoites (Hill
74 et al. 2005). The ovoid-shaped tachyzoite can be found inside a host's cells surrounded by a
75 parasitophorous vacuole that protects it from the host defense mechanisms (Hill et al. 2005).
76 This is an active infection stage where the tachyzoites increase within the host body and
77 spread via the bloodstream. After pressure from the host's immune system, intracellular tissue
78 cysts called bradyzoites then form, generally in visceral organs and neural and muscular
79 tissue- particularly the brain, eye, and skeletal and cardiac muscle (Berdoy et al. 2000; Tenter
80 et al. 2000; Hill et al. 2005). This is a chronic infection stage, where the bradyzoites remain
81 within host tissue possibly for the rest of the host's life. When cats feed on infected
82 intermediate hosts, such as rodents, the bradyzoites are released and spread to the intestinal
83 epithelium of the cat for sexual reproduction (Pappas et al. 2009). When a gamete is fertilized,
84 a wall forms around it, making the formed oocyst highly resistant to environmental changes
85 (Dubey et al. 1970). Following this hardening of the oocyst, domestic cats and other Felidae
86 then spread them in the environment in their feces: millions of oocysts can be shed daily for
87 the duration of one to two weeks (Dubey 2001; Fayyad et al. 2016). Each oocyst contains two

88 sporocysts that each contain four sporozoites—the last infectious stage of *T. gondii* (Hill et al.
89 2005). Cats and intermediate hosts can become infected by consuming carcasses infected by
90 *T. gondii* cysts, or by coming into contact with oocyst contaminated soil, water, or food.
91
92 Urbanization can increase the risk of an animal being exposed to *T. gondii* (Conrad et al.
93 2005; Lehrer et al. 2010; Ballash et al. 2015). Many squirrel species (Sciuridae) are
94 ubiquitous in cities, where they are commonly found at much higher densities than in natural
95 environments (Parker and Nilon 2008). In urban and suburban areas squirrels regularly share
96 their territories with domestic cats (Baker et al. 2008; Sims et al. 2008) and collect and cache
97 their food in backyards and gardens where they can easily encounter infectious oocysts shed
98 in cat feces in contaminated soil or in the food they eat. This may make urban squirrels
99 particularly susceptible to parasite infection compared to their rural counterparts. After being
100 infected squirrels act as intermediate hosts for the parasite, and the parasite can remain within
101 the host body in tissue cysts for the rest of the host’s life. The infection can be asymptomatic,
102 or squirrels can acquire toxoplasmosis (Dubey et al. 2006; Jokelainen and Nylund 2012).
103 Many *T. gondii* strains isolated from nature are of low virulence, leading to subclinical, mild
104 toxoplasmosis that may not kill the animal, but can make prey—such as a squirrel—
105 susceptible to predation by cats (Dubey and Frenkel 1973), thus enabling the parasite to
106 complete its life cycle (Dubey and Frenkel 1973; Dubey et al. 2006). Squirrels may thus act as
107 a source of infection to cats, in a similar way to other prey species (Afonso et al. 2007). As
108 such squirrels may play a role in *T. gondii* population and infection dynamics in cities. Our

109 aim in this paper was to survey the prevalence of *T. gondii* infection in squirrel (Sciuridae)
110 populations in and around the city of Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada. We specifically asked
111 whether squirrels are important intermediate hosts of *T. gondii* and whether *T. gondii*
112 infection is more common in a city than in more natural habitats.

113

114 *T. gondii* has been found in many wild animals particularly in farms and natural areas (e.g.,
115 Tizard et al. 1978; Smith and Frenkel 1995; Gray fox (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*), Lindsay et
116 al. 2001; Red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*), Wanha et al. 2005), yet we know relatively little about the
117 prevalence of *T. gondii* in wild animals in cities (but see e.g., Frenkel et al. 1995; Conrad et
118 al. 2005; Murphy et al. 2008; Lehrer et al. 2010; Mercier et al. 2013; Dubey et al. 2014;
119 Ballash et al. 2015). Squirrels are among the many species capable of getting a *T. gondii*
120 infection, but our knowledge is limited, and studies have mostly focused on acute, fatal cases
121 with little information existing on host-pathogen dynamics during chronic, latent infection
122 (Jokelainen and Nylund 2012). Toxoplasmosis has been found in the Eastern grey squirrel
123 (*Sciurus carolinensis*; Jacobs et al. 1962 (2/24 positive individuals); Walton and Walls 1964
124 (1/8); Smith and Frenkel 1995 (2/5); Dubey et al. 2006 (3/3)), Western grey squirrel (*Sciurus*
125 *griseus*; Soave and Lennette 1959 (1/1)), and Eurasian red squirrel (*Sciurus vulgaris*;
126 Jokelainen and Nylund 2012 (3/19); Fayyad et al. 2016 (1/1)). The sample size in these
127 studies has typically been low and none examined the prevalence of *T. gondii* in urban
128 squirrels.

129

130 Due to the zoonotic nature of *T. gondii* and its negative effects on pregnant women, children
131 and people with compromised immune systems monitoring of the various sources of infection
132 risk is important. Public health organizations, such as the World Health Organisation
133 recommend epidemiological data collection of *T. gondii*, yet regular monitoring of the
134 infection in humans or animals is rare. We hypothesized that, due to higher population
135 densities of both squirrels and cats in cities, urban squirrels may act as intermediate hosts of
136 *T. gondii* and that urban squirrels will have a higher prevalence of *T. gondii* infection than
137 rural squirrels. We tested these hypotheses by using molecular and serological methods on
138 samples collected from squirrels in and around the city of Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada.

139

140 **STUDY AREA**

141 We conducted live trapping of red (*Tamiasciurus hudsonicus*) and grey squirrels (*Sciurus*
142 *carolinensis*) in one urban and one rural site between 5th June and 1st August 2019 (Fig. 1).
143 The urban site is located in the city of Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada, and consists of an ~10 ha
144 park located on the University of Manitoba campus and a suburban neighborhood next to the
145 park. The study site is bordered by the Red River and two major highways with high amounts
146 of car traffic. Winnipeg is the largest city in the province of Manitoba with a population of
147 778,489 and a total land area of 464,33 km² (Statistics Canada 2016). Winnipeg lies 239
148 meters above sea level and has high seasonal climatic variation, with temperature varying
149 from the extremes of around -24 °C to -33 °C between January to March to around +30 °C to
150 +35 °C between June to September (Environment Canada 2020b). The rural site is a ~34 ha

151 forest patch next to an active honey-farm, near the twin cities Morden and Winkler in
152 southern Manitoba (49°24'01.1"N, 98°00'29.2"W), bordered by agricultural land.

153

154 **METHODS**

155 We used live traps (Tomahawk Live Trap Co., Tomahawk, WI, USA) to capture squirrels at
156 the study sites. After capture, squirrels were handled in a canvas capture bag and we recorded
157 the weight (g), body and tail length (cm), skull width (cm), age (adult or juvenile),
158 reproductive status, and sex for each individual. We collected a minimum of 500 µL of blood
159 from the femoral vein of each squirrel and stored the sample on ice until processing. Each
160 squirrel was pit tagged between the shoulder blades with passive integrated transponder (PIT)
161 tags. Squirrels were then released at the place of capture. Our protocol was approved by the
162 University of Manitoba animal care and use committee.

163 We also collected squirrel carcasses from trappers, wildlife rehabilitation centers, and pest
164 control companies during the years of 2017 to 2019. Twenty of the carcasses were from urban
165 locations within Winnipeg, 20 from rural locations approximately 30 to 250 km from
166 Winnipeg (Fig 2). Six carcasses were from unknown locations from Manitoba. We had 25
167 American red squirrels (*Tamiasciurus hudsonicus*); 16 Eastern grey squirrels (*Sciurus*
168 *carolinensis*); four Northern flying squirrels (*Glaucomys sabrinus*); and one Least chipmunk
169 (*Neotamias minimus*).

170 To best detect *T. gondii* whether in an acute or chronic stage and to follow recommendations
171 from previous studies (see review by Galeh et al. 2020), we combined molecular and
172 serological methods to investigate *T. gondii* prevalence in squirrels.

173

174 **Molecular Methods**

175 Upon necropsy, we collected the entire liver, spleen, brain, heart, kidneys, and lungs, and
176 stored tissues separately at -20°C until further analysis. As *T. gondii* is a cyst-forming
177 parasite, the detection probability of *T. gondii* can differ between organs (Elmore et al. 2016).
178 Consequently, we tested multiple samples per individual from two to six different organs to
179 maximize the probability of detecting the parasite.

180 *Cell lysis.*—Cell lysis was done by first adding 3 ball bearings to each 2 mL screw-cap
181 tube containing 0.6 mL of ATL buffer, and adding 100 mg of frozen tissue or pipetting 0.1
182 mL of sample (if liquid such as thawed brain) to the tube. We placed the samples in a
183 BeadBeater for 3 minutes after which they were quickly centrifuged. We added 70 μL of
184 Proteinase K to the ATL lysate. We incubated the lysate at $+56^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 1-3 hours during which
185 the tubes were intermittently inverted several times. We centrifuged the lysate quickly and
186 added 0.6 mL of AL buffer. We inverted the tubes several times and incubated at $+70^{\circ}\text{C}$ for
187 10-30 minutes in a dry block. We then again inverted the tubes intermittently several times.
188 The samples were then centrifuged for 3 minutes at $10,000 \times g$. After the completion of the
189 cell lysis, we used 100 μL of the ATL/ProtK/AL lysate to continue the extraction.

190 *Nucleic acid extraction and real-time PCR.*—We did nucleic acid extraction for *T.*
191 *gondii* using 5X MagMAX viral Isolation kit (Applied Biosystems AMB1836-5). Primers and
192 probes for real-time PCR were designed according to the protocol of De Craeye et al. (2011)
193 (see SI Table S1 for primers and probes). PCR product size was 106 bp. We used cellular
194 r18S (ribosomal RNA gene) as an internal control of all PCRs. Real-time PCR was conducted
195 using TaqMan Fast Advanced Master Mix (Applied Biosystem) in Applied Biosystems™
196 7500 Real-Time PCR System. Each PCR reaction had concentrations of 10 µM of T2 /F
197 primer, 10 µM of T3/R primer, and 5 µM of probe in the master mix. Thermo cycling
198 Program: Initial denaturation and activation of the Taq polymerase at +95 °C for 2 minutes,
199 followed by 45 cycles at +95 °C for 5 seconds and +60 °C for 33 seconds. We analyzed the
200 results using 7500 System SDS Software.

201

202 **Serological Methods**

203 We collected a minimum of 500 µL of blood from 15 individual grey squirrels and stored
204 samples on ice. All samples were processed within 12 hours. We centrifuged the collected
205 blood samples at 3500 rpm for 15 minutes and froze the serum at –20 °C until used for
206 testing.

207 *Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay.*—We used enzyme-linked immunosorbent
208 assays (ELISA) to detect serum antibodies (IgG) against *T. gondii*. As species-specific
209 conjugates are not available for squirrels, a commercially available ELISA kit was used for
210 testing the samples (Multi-species ID Screen Toxoplasmosis Indirect kit, IDVet, Grabels,

211 France) following manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, we diluted samples and negative and
212 positive kit controls in a 1:10 ratio on sample dilution buffer. Then, we transferred 100 µL of
213 the diluted sample to each well by duplicates, incubated the plate for 45 minutes at room
214 temperature, and washed 3 times. We diluted conjugate in a 1:20 ratio and added 100 µL of
215 the conjugate to each well. The plate was then incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes
216 and washed 3 times again. Afterward, we added 100 µL of substrate solution to each well and
217 incubated the plate for 15 minutes in the dark at room temperature. The reaction was stopped
218 by adding 100 µL of stop solution to each well and the plate was read at 450 nm in a
219 spectrophotometer. Results were calculated using the optical density (OD) values of the
220 samples and kit controls and expressed as S/P (Sample to Positive Ratio) percentage (S/P%)
221 using the following formula

$$222 \quad (OD_{\text{sample}} - OD_{\text{NC}})$$
$$223 \quad S/P\% = \frac{\quad}{\quad}$$
$$224 \quad (OD_{\text{PC}} - OD_{\text{NC}})$$

225 where NC is negative control and PC positive control.

226 We considered samples with S/P% less or equal to 40% negative; samples with S/P% between
227 40 and 50% doubtful or inconclusive; and samples with an S/P% higher than 50% positive,
228 following the kit's protocol. The multi-species ELISA kit we used has been successfully used
229 to detect *T. gondii* antibodies in wildlife (Roqueplo et al. 2011; Sharma et al. 2019b), has high
230 sensitivity and specificity, and does not cross-react with other coccidian parasites—a factor
231 known to limit the specificity of serological assays (Hirota et al. 2010).

232

233 **RESULTS**

234 We tested a total of 272 tissue samples from 46 squirrels from four squirrel species for *T.*
235 *gondii* DNA using quantitative PCR. *T. gondii* DNA was not detected on any of the 272 tissue
236 samples on any of the organs (liver; heart; brain; lung; spleen; kidney) sampled from any of
237 the 46 squirrels.

238 We also tested a total of 15 samples of blood sera from grey squirrels for *T. gondii* antibodies
239 (IgG) by indirect ELISA. Two of the samples did not have enough volume for testing. The
240 results were negative—no *T. gondii* antibodies were detected in any sample (see SI Table S2).

241

242 **DISCUSSION**

243 We hypothesized that, due to higher population densities of both squirrels and cats in cities,
244 urban squirrels may act as intermediate hosts of *T. gondii* and have a higher prevalence of *T.*
245 *gondii* infection than rural squirrels. However, we found no evidence of *T. gondii* infection in
246 squirrels in southern Manitoba.

247

248 Studies investigating *T. gondii* infection dynamics in cities are still relatively rare considering
249 the parasite can infect most mammalian species, including humans, and wildlife can act as
250 reservoirs for the parasite and as sources of infection. Our study is currently one of the very
251 few studies that have explored the prevalence of *T. gondii* in Sciurids in urban areas. One
252 earlier study from Guelph, Ontario, Canada found no evidence of infection across nine

253 locations within and around the city from grey squirrels (*Sciurus carolinensis*, n= 16, the
254 number of urban captures not specified) and chipmunks (*Tamias striatus*, n= 6) using the
255 Sabin-Feldman dye test (Tizard et al. 1978). Using serological techniques with bioassay and
256 PCR together can give a more reliable estimation of infection rate (Galeh et al. 2020), as the
257 distribution of *T. gondii* tissue cysts can be uneven and vary between organs (Elmore et al.
258 2016) which can lead to detection difficulties using PCR-based methods (Opsteegh et al.
259 2010). The sensitivity and specificity of antibody detection methods can also vary, which can
260 lead to misinterpretation of results and possible false negatives or false positives (Gilbert et al.
261 2013). Work in natural or rural areas also suggests *T. gondii* prevalence in squirrels is low
262 (Jacobs et al. 1962; indirect hemagglutination test: 1 of 265, Burr ridge et al. 1979; Sabin-
263 Feldman dye test: 2 of 11, Smith and Frenkel 1995; PCR: 3 of 19, Jokelainen and Nylund
264 2012).

265
266 *T. gondii* prevalence in Manitoba, in general, is not well known. To the best of our
267 knowledge, no previous survey of *T. gondii* prevalence in squirrels exists from the province.
268 Serological testing in 1981 reported that of 55,527 pregnant women 129 showed signs of a
269 recent *T. gondii* infection (Sekla et al. 1981). The same study also reported that 19 of 72 cats
270 and one polar bear tested positive for *T. gondii*, but results from 28 other species were all
271 negative. An earlier study done in Manitoba in 1976 found that *T. gondii* prevalence in
272 pregnant women in urban areas was 8.17 %, and 6.29 % in rural areas (Shettigara et al. 1976).
273 The prevalence of *T. gondii* can be high in domestic sheep, pigs, and cattle (e.g., Tizard et al.

274 1978; Fayer 1981; however see Poljak et al. 2008), yet studies from Manitoba or
275 Saskatchewan, another prairie province with a similar climate to Manitoba, have mostly found
276 low prevalence (Nation and Allen 1976; Smith 1991).

277

278 The extreme climatic variations in the region may decrease the viability or infectivity of
279 oocysts and tissue cysts in carcasses, therefore decreasing overall *T. gondii* prevalence in the
280 area (Nation and Allen 1976). The temperature in Winnipeg between June to September can
281 reach extremes of +30 °C to +35 °C (Environment Canada 2020b) with daily average
282 temperatures varying from approximately +20 °C to +13 °C (Environment Canada 2020a). *T.*
283 *gondii* oocysts are highly resistant to environmental variation but sporulation (i.e. infectivity)
284 is dependent on fixed temperatures and factors such as soil moisture that can influence the
285 time oocysts can survive at high temperatures (Dubey et al. 1970). Additionally, winters in
286 Winnipeg can be cold and windy with extreme temperatures of -24 °C to -33 °C between
287 January to March. Oocysts cannot sporulate and become infective after exposure to -21 °C
288 for 1 day or -6 °C for 7 days (Frenkel et al. 1975). After sporulation, oocysts can withstand
289 lower temperatures better, being able to survive at -21 °C for 28 days (Frenkel et al. 1975),
290 yet oocysts can not sporulate if the conditions are unfavorable (Dubey et al. 1970). It is thus
291 possible that the combination of hot summers and cold winters reduces the viability of oocysts
292 in southern Manitoba. Contact rates between domestic cats and *T. gondii* intermediate hosts
293 may also be lower during the winter in Manitoba as people keep their pets indoors in cold
294 weather. Winnipeg has an average yearly precipitation of 521 mm, but the years 2018 and

295 2019 were unusually dry in southern Manitoba (Government of Manitoba 2020). This could
296 have influenced oocyst survival in the area during data collection, as oocysts survive better in
297 moist than in dry conditions (Frenkel et al. 1975; Lélou et al. 2012).

298

299 *T. gondii* is a cyst forming parasite and the distribution of *T. gondii* tissue cysts can be uneven
300 and vary between organs (Elmore et al. 2016). This may influence the results from molecular
301 methods, and the negative squirrels in our study may have had cysts in other tissues or at a
302 concentration level below the detection limit of the PCR. The sensitivity and specificity of
303 antibody detection methods can also vary—we used ELISA to detect serum antibodies to *T.*
304 *gondii*, as this method generally has good sensitivity and specificity compared to other
305 serological tests such as the modified agglutination test (Sharma et al. 2019a). As we sampled
306 many different organs and tissues per individual by PCR and used serological methods as an
307 additional test to survey *T. gondii* prevalence in squirrels our results are much less likely to be
308 false negatives.

309

310 We note that *T. gondii* antibodies have been found in skunks (*Mephitis mephitis*) and
311 raccoons (*Procyon lotor*) from Saskatchewan (modified agglutination test: average
312 seroprevalence in skunks 15.6%; in raccoons 20.8% in 1999, 12.5% in 2000) and Manitoba
313 (in skunks 28%; in raccoons 27.5%) (Hwang et al. 2007), which implies that although
314 climatic variation may lower the prevalence of *T. gondii* in the prairie provinces of Canada, *T.*
315 *gondii* is still present in the area. Nonetheless, our results in conjunction with previous studies

316 suggest that squirrels are often not important intermediate hosts of *T. gondii* in cities and that
317 the prevalence of *T. gondii* oocysts in the environment in southern Manitoba and other prairie
318 provinces is likely low. This knowledge is important as *T. gondii* infection dynamics in cities
319 are relatively unknown, and no previous survey of *T. gondii* prevalence in Sciurids exists
320 from Manitoba.

321

322 **MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS**

323 Cities are now the primary place where people, and our pets, interact with wildlife. Urban
324 wildlife tends to occur in higher densities in cities than in natural habitats and this creates the
325 possibility for increased parasite transmission. When wildlife parasites are a human health
326 concern, such as with *T. gondii*, then management actions are warranted. Our results suggest
327 that squirrels likely do not act as reservoirs for *T. gondii* in cities and therefore do not need to
328 be considered as possible sources of infection to humans or their pet cats. Consequently, no
329 management efforts are needed in cities with abundant squirrel populations.

330

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340

341 **LITERATURE CITED**

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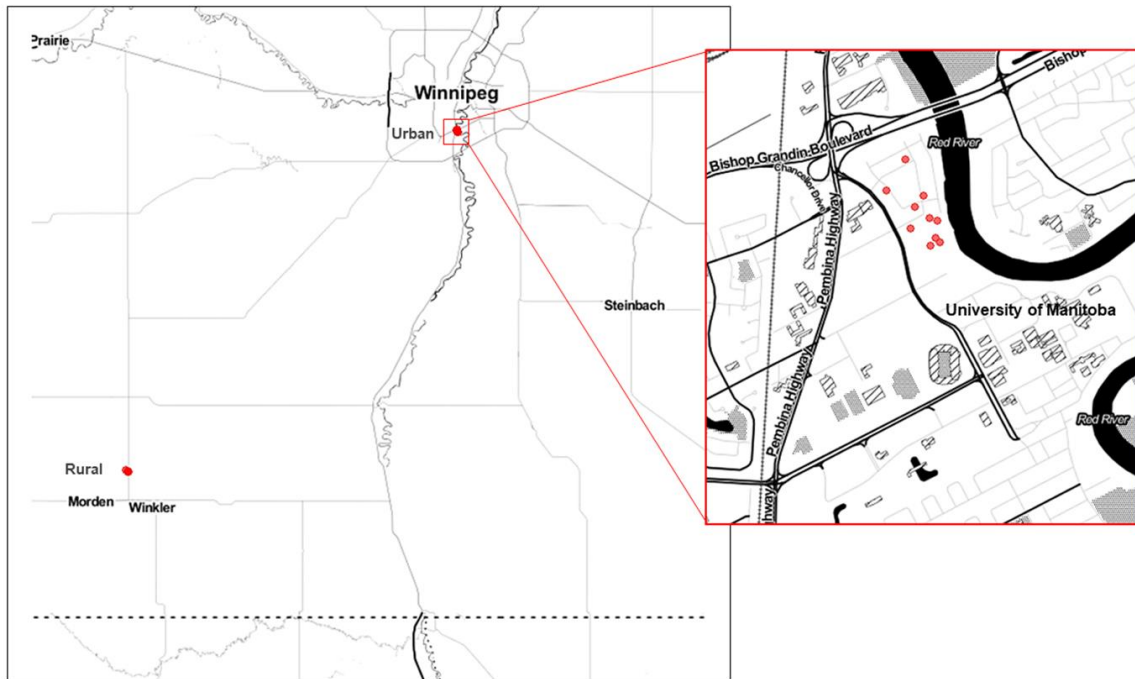
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549 **FIGURES AND CAPTIONS**

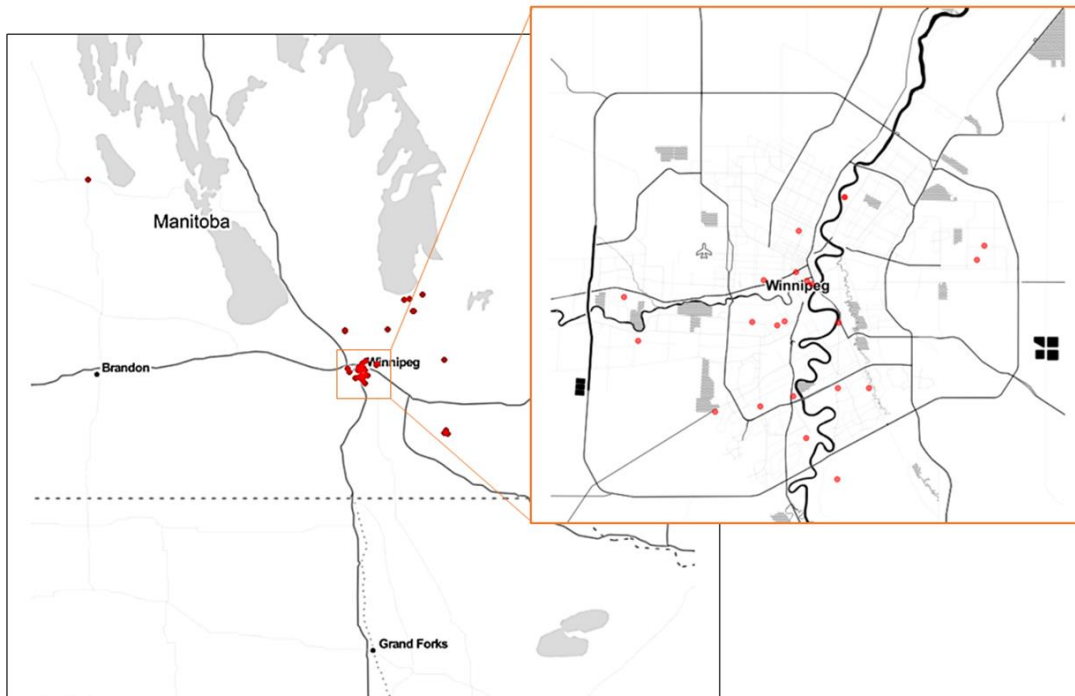
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552 Figure 1. Map of the urban and rural squirrel study sites in southern Manitoba, Canada. Blood
553 was collected from red and grey squirrels from these sites for serological testing of
554 *Toxoplasma gondii* antibodies. The close-up (framed red) shows the 10 urban trapping
555 locations next to the University of Manitoba campus.

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557

558 Figure 2. Map showing the sampling locations of squirrel (*Sciuridae*) carcasses used to collect
559 tissue samples for quantitative PCR detection of *Toxoplasma gondii*. The large map (on the left)
560 shows the urban and rural locations of squirrels from in and around the city of Winnipeg,
561 Manitoba, Canada, and the small map (framed orange) is a close up of the urban locations within
562 the city perimeter.

563