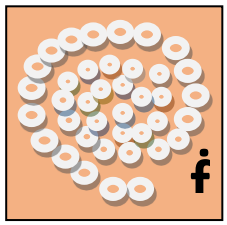

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Sensitivity analysis of Human Africa Trypanosomiasis with human host

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Abstract

Human African Trypanosomiasis (sleeping sickness) remains a significant public health challenge in sub-Saharan Africa, transmitted through the bite of infected tsetse flies. To better understand its transmission dynamics, we develop a compartmental SEIR model that accounts for both human and tsetse fly populations, incorporating varying transmission rates between exposed and infectious individuals — a key feature often overlooked in prior studies. Using the next-generation matrix method, we derive the basic reproduction number ($\mathcal{R}_0$), a critical threshold for disease persistence. We establish the positivity, boundedness, and existence and uniqueness of solutions, ensuring the mathematical well-posedness of the model. A normalized forward sensitivity analysis identifies the most influential epidemiological parameters, providing insights for targeted intervention strategies. In particular, parameters related to tsetse fly - human transmission rates (β_1, β_2) and human treatment rate (β_h) showed the highest sensitivity indices, indicating their strong influence on $\mathcal{R}_0$ and overall disease spread. We also analyze the disease-free and endemic equilibria, demonstrating that $\mathcal{R}_0$ governs the long-term behavior of the system. Numerical simulations validate our analytical findings and illustrate how variations in transmission rates, vector control, and treatment efficacy shape disease dynamics. Our results underscore the importance of adaptive intervention strategies in mitigating Trypanosomiasis outbreaks and inform public health policies for sustainable disease control.

Keywords and phrases: Trypanosomiasis; mathematical model; existence and uniqueness of solution; positivity of solution; equilibrium points

1 Introduction

Neglected Tropical Diseases (NTDs) represent a persistent global health challenge, comprising twenty debilitating conditions that collectively affect over 1.7 billion people in tropical and subtropical regions [35]. These diseases, including lymphatic filariasis, schistosomiasis, and leishmaniasis, disproportionately impact impoverished communities where inadequate sanitation, limited healthcare access, and environmental conditions facilitate transmission. Characterized by chronic disability, disfigurement, and social stigmatization, NTDs perpetuate cycles of poverty through reduced educational attainment, diminished agricultural productivity, and significant healthcare expenditures. Despite causing approximately half a million deaths annually, NTDs receive less than one percent of global health research funding [11], reflecting their disproportionate neglect in the global health agenda.

Among the most clinically complex NTDs is Human African Trypanosomiasis (HAT), commonly known as sleeping sickness. It is caused by protozoan parasites of the genus *Trypanosoma*, primarily *T. brucei gambiense* in West and Central Africa, and *T. brucei rhodesiense* in East Africa. Transmission occurs through the bite of infected tsetse flies (*Glossina* spp.), which act as both biological vectors and hosts for the parasite [14]. The disease progresses through two clinical phases: an early hemolymphatic

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stage marked by non-specific symptoms (fever, joint pain, itching), and a late neurological stage involving central nervous system invasion, leading to sleep disruption, confusion, and, if untreated, death [35, 14].

Significant progress has been achieved in HAT control through international collaboration. The World Health Organization reports that cases have decreased by over 95% since 2001 [35], with Chad recently validated as having eliminated HAT as a public health problem. These successes stem from improved diagnostics like rapid test kits [14], novel therapeutics such as fexinidazole [35], and coordinated surveillance programs. However, critical limitations persist: climate change has altered tsetse fly habitats, expanding transmission zones [15]; diagnostic tools remain insufficiently sensitive for early detection [23]; and animal reservoirs maintain parasite circulation even in areas with reduced human incidence [18]. These challenges are particularly acute in Nigeria, which carries West Africa's highest disease burden, with ongoing transmission across multiple states including Benue, Plateau, and Taraba [23].

The Nigerian context presents unique epidemiological challenges that demand urgent attention. Despite inclusion in WHO's elimination agenda since 2012, Nigeria continues to report significant case numbers due to climate vulnerabilities [22], healthcare access disparities [21], and agricultural practices that increase human-vector contact. Temperature increases of 0.5°C per decade have expanded suitable tsetse habitats northward [15], while over 60% of endemic communities lack diagnostic facilities within accessible distance [23]. The economic impact is profound, with HAT causing estimated annual losses of $230 million in livestock-human transmission zones [1], disproportionately affecting smallholder farmers. These intersecting challenges necessitate Nigeria-focused research that addresses local transmission dynamics and healthcare system constraints.

Mathematical modeling has emerged as a crucial tool for understanding NTD transmission dynamics [13], yet existing frameworks for HAT exhibit significant limitations when applied to Nigeria. Traditional compartmental models often assume homogeneous transmission patterns and static parameters, failing to capture Nigeria's climatic seasonality [22], geographical heterogeneity, and livestock reservoir dynamics [18]. This gap hinders the development of targeted interventions for Nigerian communities where agricultural cycles, rainfall patterns, and cattle husbandry practices profoundly influence transmission risk. Our study addresses these limitations through a novel modeling approach incorporating climate-responsive transmission parameters [15], livestock reservoir dynamics [18], and healthcare access variables specific to Nigerian contexts [23], providing actionable insights for achieving elimination targets in the region.

Despite advances in diagnostics and therapeutics, African Trypanosomiasis remains a neglected tropical disease due to underreporting, limited access to care, and logistical difficulties in implementing widespread surveillance and vector control programs [23]. Ecological changes such as climate-driven habitat expansion [15, 32] and deforestation [33] have altered tsetse fly distributions, while human migration and animal reservoirs [18] maintain transmission cycles. The recent resurgence in Ethiopia after three decades of dormancy [19] highlights the need for continued scientific investigation into transmission mechanisms and control strategies.

In light of these limitations, this study develops a deterministic model that incorporates *variable transmission rates* between exposed and infectious individuals in both human and tsetse fly populations. These dynamic parameters better reflect natural fluctuations in disease spread, accounting for temporal variations in vector-host interaction intensity. The model specifically focuses on human-tsetse dynamics where animal reservoirs are negligible, incorporating a recovery term to capture immunity and reinfection processes. Our framework enables exploration of key epidemiological questions: under what conditions does the disease persist? What factors most significantly influence transmission potential? How sensitive is disease prevalence to changes in biological and environmental parameters.

Using techniques from nonlinear dynamical systems, we analyze the existence and local stability of both disease-free and endemic equilibrium states based on the reproduction threshold $\mathcal{R}_0$. The sensitivity analysis was carried out which enables us to identify which parameters most strongly influence disease outcomes. This approach allows us to evaluate the efficacy of various interventions,

from insecticide-based vector control to treatment programs, under realistic transmission scenarios. The novelty of our model lies in the incorporation of *variable transmission rates* between exposed and infectious classes in both humans and vectors, the explicit inclusion of recovery with reinfection, and the exclusion of animal reservoirs where negligible. By coupling these biological mechanisms with sensitivity analysis on epidemiological and environmental parameters, this framework provides a more flexible and realistic representation of Human African Trypanosomiasis transmission dynamics than previous homogeneous models. The policy implications of this work are significant for ongoing elimination efforts, as our results provide actionable insights for optimizing vector control timing, identifying climate-sensitive transmission hotspots, and informing the design of community-based programs in high-risk zones. By explicitly addressing transmission variability and intervention dynamics, this work contributes to the WHO's 2030 elimination roadmap, offering health planners and disease control agencies a more flexible, data-driven framework for decision-making in persistent transmission zones.

2 Methodology/Model formulation

Model description

The model describes the transmission dynamics of Trypanosomiasis between the human and tsetse fly (vector) populations. It comprises two interconnected sub-models representing the human and vector populations, each subdivided into epidemiologically relevant compartments.

For the **human population**, individuals enter the susceptible class S_h through recruitment at a constant rate Λ_h. Susceptible humans become exposed (E_h) following infectious bites from infected tsetse flies (I_t), at a rate proportional to the biting rate and the prevalence of infection in the vector population. Exposed humans progress to the infectious class I_h at a rate α_h, representing the incubation period of the disease. Infectious humans either recover at a rate β_h, entering the recovered class R_h, or die due to the disease or natural causes at a combined rate $\mu_h + \sigma_h$. Recovered humans may lose immunity and return to the susceptible class at a rate ψ_h, and all human compartments experience natural mortality at rate μ_h.

In the **vector population**, new susceptible tsetse flies (S_t) are recruited at a constant rate Λ_t. Susceptible vectors acquire the infection by feeding on infectious humans (I_h) at a rate dependent on the interaction between the two populations. Once infected, vectors enter the exposed class E_t, and later progress to the infectious class I_t at a rate α_t. Infectious vectors remain so for life, as they do not recover from the infection, and they die at a combined rate of $\mu_t + \sigma_t$. Natural death occurs in all vector compartments at rate μ_t. The possibility of a recovered vector class R_t may also be considered to represent vectors rendered non-infectious through natural or artificial means.

This model structure reflects a bidirectional transmission dynamic: infectious vectors infect susceptible humans, and infectious humans contribute to the infection of susceptible vectors. This interaction underscores the vector-borne nature of Trypanosomiasis and forms the basis for understanding the spread and control of the disease.

Model flow diagram is seen in Figure 1:

Model formulation

The total human population is divided into four compartments: susceptible (S_h), exposed (E_h), infectious (I_h), and recovered (R_h). Similarly, the tsetse population is divided into: susceptible (S_t), exposed (E_t), infectious (I_t), and recovered (R_t). The corresponding model equations are:

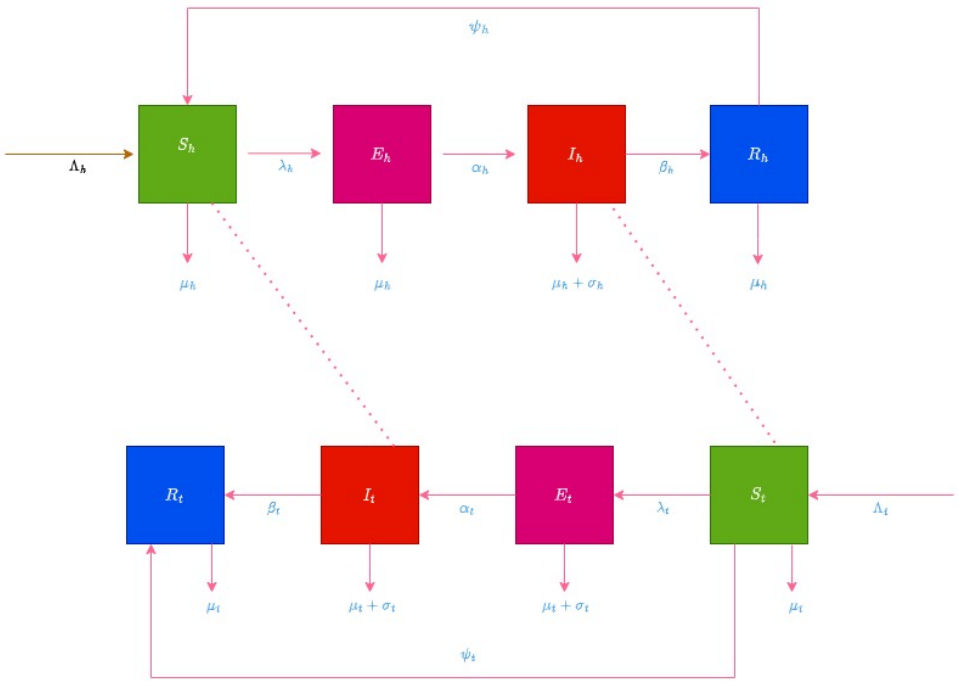

Figure 1: Schematic of model

Human Population

$$\frac{dS_h}{dt} = \Lambda_h - (\beta_1 E_t + \beta_2 I_t)S_h + \psi_h R_t - \mu_h S_h \tag{1}$$

$$\frac{dE_h}{dt} = (\beta_1 E_h + \beta_2 I_h)S_h - \alpha_h E_h - \mu_h E_h \tag{2}$$

$$\frac{dI_h}{dt} = \alpha_h E_h - (\sigma_h + \mu_h)I_h - \beta_h I_h \tag{3}$$

$$\frac{dR_h}{dt} = \beta_h I_h - \psi_h R_h \tag{4}$$

Tsetse Fly Population

$$\frac{dS_t}{dt} = \Lambda_t - (\beta_3 I_h + \beta_4 E_h)S_t - \psi_t S_t - \mu_t S_t \tag{5}$$

$$\frac{dE_t}{dt} = (\beta_3 I_h + \beta_4 E_h)S_t - \alpha_t E_t - (\mu_t + \sigma_t)E_t \tag{6}$$

$$\frac{dI_t}{dt} = \alpha_t E_t - \beta_t I_t - (\mu_t + \sigma_t)I_t \tag{7}$$

$$\frac{dR_t}{dt} = \beta_t I_t - \psi_t S_t - \mu_t R_t \tag{8}$$

Model Parameters

3 Analysis of the model

Positivity of solutions

Theorem 3.1. *Let all initial conditions be non-negative, i.e.,*

$$S_h(0), E_h(0), I_h(0), R_h(0), S_t(0), E_t(0), I_t(0), R_t(0) \geq 0,$$

Parameter	Description
Λ_h	Recruitment rate (birth or immigration) of the human population.
Λ_t	Recruitment rate (birth or immigration) of the vector (tsetse fly) population.
λ_h	Force of infection on humans from exposed and infectious vectors ($\beta_3 E_t + \beta_4 I_t$).
λ_t	Force of infection on vectors from exposed and infectious humans ($\beta_1 I_h + \beta_2 E_h$).
β_1	Transmission rate from exposed humans (E_h) to susceptible humans (S_h).
β_2	Transmission rate from infectious humans (I_h) to susceptible humans (S_h).
β_3	Transmission rate from infectious humans (I_h) to susceptible vectors (S_t).
β_4	Transmission rate from exposed humans (E_h) to susceptible vectors (S_t).
α_h	Progression rate from exposed (E_h) to infectious humans (I_h).
α_t	Progression rate from exposed (E_t) to infectious vectors (I_t).
σ_h	Recovery rate of infectious humans (I_h).
σ_t	Recovery rate of infectious vectors (I_t).
μ_h	Natural mortality rate of humans.
μ_t	Natural mortality rate of vectors (tsetse flies).
β_h	Treatment rate of infectious humans (I_h).
β_t	Recovery rate of infectious vectors (I_t).
ψ_h	Waning immunity rate in humans (rate at which recovered individuals return to susceptibility).
ψ_t	Waning immunity rate in vectors (rate at which recovered individuals return to susceptibility).

Table 1: Model parameters and their descriptions

and all model parameters be non-negative. Then, the solutions of the system remain non-negative for all $t \geq 0$*, i.e.,*

$$S_h(t), E_h(t), I_h(t), R_h(t), S_t(t), E_t(t), I_t(t), R_t(t) \geq 0 \quad \textit{for all } t \geq 0.$$

Proof. We prove positivity for two representative compartments, $S_h(t)$ and $S_t(t)$. The same method applies to the remaining compartments.

For the human susceptible population $S_h(t)$, we consider the equation:

$$\frac{dS_h}{dt} = \Lambda_h - (\beta_1 E_t + \beta_2 I_t) S_h + \psi_h R_h - \mu_h S_h.$$

Removing the non-negative terms Λ_h and $\psi_h R_h$, we obtain a differential inequality:

$$\frac{dS_h}{dt} \geq -\left(\beta_1 E_t + \beta_2 I_t + \mu_h\right) S_h.$$

Let $a(t) = \beta_1 E_t + \beta_2 I_t + \mu_h \geq \mu_h > 0$. Then the inequality becomes:

$$\frac{dS_h}{dt} \geq -a(t) S_h.$$

Solving the corresponding equality:

$$\frac{dS_h}{dt} = -a(t) S_h \quad \Rightarrow \quad S_h(t) = S_h(0) \cdot \exp\left(-\int_0^t a(s)\, ds\right) \geq 0.$$

Hence, $S_h(t) \geq 0$ for all $t \geq 0$, provided $S_h(0) \geq 0$.

For the vector susceptible population $S_t(t)$, we consider the equation:

$$\frac{dS_t}{dt} = \Lambda_t - (\beta_3 I_h + \beta_4 E_h) S_t - \psi_t S_t - \mu_t S_t.$$

Dropping the recruitment term Λ_t, we obtain:

$$\frac{dS_t}{dt} \geq -\left(\beta_3 I_h + \beta_4 E_h + \psi_t + \mu_t\right) S_t.$$

Let $b(t) = \beta_3 I_h + \beta_4 E_h + \psi_t + \mu_t \geq \mu_t > 0$. Then:

$$\frac{dS_t}{dt} \geq -b(t) S_t.$$

Solving the corresponding equality:

$$\frac{dS_t}{dt} = -b(t) S_t \quad \Rightarrow \quad S_t(t) = S_t(0) \cdot \exp\left(-\int_0^t b(s)\, ds\right) \geq 0.$$

Thus, $S_t(t) \geq 0$ for all $t \geq 0$, provided $S_t(0) \geq 0$. The same reasoning can be applied to the remaining compartments $E_h, I_h, R_h, E_t, I_t, R_t$. Therefore, all state variables remain non-negative for all $t \geq 0$.

Boundedness of Solutions

Theorem 3.2. *Let the initial conditions be non-negative and all model parameters be non-negative. Then, the feasible region*

$$\Omega = \left\{ (S_h, E_h, I_h, R_h, S_t, E_t, I_t, R_t) \in \mathbb{R}_+^8 \;\middle|\; N_h(t) \leq \frac{\Lambda_h}{\mu_h},\ N_t(t) \leq \frac{\Lambda_t}{\mu_t} \right\}$$

is positively invariant under the flow of the model, and hence all the solutions of the system are bounded for all $t \geq 0$.

Proof. Let $N_h(t) = S_h + E_h + I_h + R_h$ denote the total human population. Adding the human equations:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{dN_h}{dt} &= \frac{dS_h}{dt} + \frac{dE_h}{dt} + \frac{dI_h}{dt} + \frac{dR_h}{dt} \\
&= \Lambda_h - \mu_h S_h - \mu_h E_h - (\sigma_h + \mu_h) I_h - \beta_h I_h + \beta_h I_h - \psi_h R_h + \psi_h R_h - \mu_h R_h \\
&= \Lambda_h - \mu_h (S_h + E_h + I_h + R_h) \\
&= \Lambda_h - \mu_h N_h.
\end{aligned}$$

This is a linear differential equation. Solving it gives:

$$N_h(t) = N_h(0) e^{-\mu_h t} + \frac{\Lambda_h}{\mu_h}\left(1 - e^{-\mu_h t}\right).$$

Hence,

$$0 \leq N_h(t) \leq \max\left\{ N_h(0), \frac{\Lambda_h}{\mu_h} \right\} \leq \frac{\Lambda_h}{\mu_h} \quad \text{for all } t \geq 0.$$

So, the total human population is bounded above by $\frac{\Lambda_h}{\mu_h}$.
Similarly, define the total vector population:

$$N_t(t) = S_t + E_t + I_t + R_t.$$

Adding the tsetse fly equations:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dN_t}{dt} &= \Lambda_t - \mu_t S_t - (\mu_t + \sigma_t)E_t - (\mu_t + \sigma_t)I_t - \mu_t R_t \\ &= \Lambda_t - \mu_t(S_t + E_t + I_t + R_t) - \sigma_t(E_t + I_t) \\ &\leq \Lambda_t - \mu_t N_t(t).\end{aligned}$$

Solving the inequality $\frac{dN_t}{dt} \leq \Lambda_t - \mu_t N_t$ similarly yields:

$$N_t(t) \leq N_t(0)e^{-\mu_t t} + \frac{\Lambda_t}{\mu_t}\left(1 - e^{-\mu_t t}\right) \leq \frac{\Lambda_t}{\mu_t}.$$

Thus, the vector population is also bounded. Since each compartment is non-negative (by positivity) and the total populations are bounded above, it follows that each individual compartment is also bounded.

Hence, all solutions of the model remain within a compact positively invariant region Ω, and the model is mathematically and biologically well-posed.

Existence And uniqueness of solution

We formulate theorem on existence of uniqueness solution of model system (1) - (8) and we establish the proof. We consider the system of linear equations below

$$\left.\begin{aligned} x_1' &= f_1(t, x_1, \ldots, x_n) \\ x_2' &= f_2(t, x_1, \ldots, x_n) \\ &\vdots \\ x_n' &= f_n(t, x_1, \ldots, x_n) \end{aligned}\right\} \tag{9}$$

We may write equation (9) in compact form as

$$\dot{x}^i = f(t, x), \quad x(t_0) = x_0 \tag{10}$$

Theorem 3.3.
Let $\mathbb{D}$ denote the region

$$|t - t_0| \leq \alpha, \quad \|x - x_0\| \leq b, \quad x = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n), \quad x_0 = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \tag{11}$$

and suppose that $f(x, t)$ satisfies the Lipschitz condition.

$$\|f(t, x_1) - f(t, x_2)\| \leq k\|x_1 - x_2\| \tag{12}$$

whenever the pairs (t, x_1) and (t, x_2) belong to D, where k is a positive constant. Then, there is a constant $\delta \geq 0$ such that there exists a unique continuous vector solution $x(t)$ of the system (10) in the interval $|t - t_0| \leq \delta$.

It is important to note that the condition (12) is satisfied by the requirement that $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$, $i, j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ are continuous and bounded in D.

We now return to any model equation (1) - (8). We are interested in the region

$$0 \leq \alpha \leq R \tag{13}$$

We look for a bounded solution in this region and whose partial derivatives satisfy $\delta \leq x \leq 0$, where α and δ are positive constants.

We now use the theorem above to check our own theorem below.

Theorem 3.4 (2). *Let D denote the region $0 \leq \alpha \leq R$. Then, equation (1) - (8) has a unique solution.*

Proof. We show that $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$, $i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8$ are continuous and bounded in D^1.
Let

$$f_1 = \Lambda_h - (\beta_1 E_t + \beta_2 I_t)S_h + \psi_h R_t - \mu_h S_h \tag{14}$$
$$f_2 = (\beta_1 E_t + \beta_2 I_t)S_h - \alpha_h E_h - \mu_h E_t \tag{15}$$
$$f_3 = \alpha_h E_t - (\sigma_h + \mu_h)I_h - \beta_h I_h \tag{16}$$
$$f_4 = \beta_h I_t - \psi_h R_t \tag{17}$$
$$f_5 = \Lambda_t - (\beta_3 I_h + \beta_4 E_h)S_t - \psi_t S_t - \mu_t S_t \tag{18}$$
$$f_6 = (\beta_3 I_h + \beta_4 E_h)S_t - \alpha_t E_t - (\mu_t + \sigma_t)E_t \tag{19}$$
$$f_7 = \alpha_t E_t - \beta_t I_t - (\mu_t + \sigma_t)I_t \tag{20}$$
$$f_8 = \beta_t I_t - \psi_t S_t - \mu_t R_t \tag{21}$$

Using partial derivatives

$$\left|\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial S_h}\right| = |\Lambda_1 + \psi_1 p_1| < \infty \tag{22}$$
$$\left|\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial E_h}\right| = 0 < \infty \tag{23}$$
$$\left|\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial I_h}\right| = 0 < \infty \tag{24}$$
$$\left|\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial R_h}\right| = |\psi_1| < \infty \tag{25}$$
$$\left|\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial S_t}\right| = 0 < \infty \tag{26}$$

These partial derivatives exist, continuous and are bounded. In the same way, other derivatives exist and are bounded. Hence by Theorem 4, the model system (1) - (8) has a unique state.

Disease Free Equilibrium (DFE)

At the disease-free equilibrium, we assume that all exposed and infectious compartments are zero, i.e.,

$$E_h = I_h = R_h = E_t = I_t = R_t = 0. \tag{27}$$

At equilibrium, we set the time derivatives to zero. Consider the following:

$$\frac{dS_h}{dt} = \Lambda_h - \mu_h S_h = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad S_h = \frac{\Lambda_h}{\mu_h}, \tag{28}$$
$$\frac{dS_t}{dt} = \Lambda_t - (\psi_t + \mu_t)S_t = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad S_t = \frac{\Lambda_t}{\psi_t + \mu_t}. \tag{29}$$

Since all infected and recovered classes are zero at DFE, the equilibrium point is given by:

$$\boxed{(S_h, E_h, I_h, R_h, S_t, E_t, I_t, R_t) = \left(\frac{\Lambda_h}{\mu_h}, 0, 0, 0, \frac{\Lambda_t}{\psi_t + \mu_t}, 0, 0, 0\right)} \tag{30}$$

Endemic Equilibrium (EE)

The endemic equilibrium point corresponds to the steady-state of the system where the disease persists in both the human and tsetse fly populations. That is, all derivatives are set to zero, and the infected compartments are strictly positive:

$$E_h^*, I_h^*, E_t^*, I_t^* > 0.$$

Setting the right-hand side of each equation in the model to zero, we obtain the following system of algebraic equations:

$$\Lambda_h - (\beta_1 E_t^* + \beta_2 I_t^*) S_h^* + \psi_h R_h^* - \mu_h S_h^* = 0 \tag{31}$$
$$(\beta_1 E_t^* + \beta_2 I_t^*) S_h^* - (\alpha_h + \mu_h) E_h^* = 0 \tag{32}$$
$$\alpha_h E_h^* - (\sigma_h + \mu_h + \beta_h) I_h^* = 0 \tag{33}$$
$$\beta_h I_h^* - \psi_h R_h^* = 0 \tag{34}$$
$$\Lambda_t - (\beta_3 I_h^* + \beta_4 E_h^*) S_t^* - (\psi_t + \mu_t) S_t^* = 0 \tag{35}$$
$$(\beta_3 I_h^* + \beta_4 E_h^*) S_t^* - (\alpha_t + \mu_t + \sigma_t) E_t^* = 0 \tag{36}$$
$$\alpha_t E_t^* - (\beta_t + \mu_t + \sigma_t) I_t^* = 0 \tag{37}$$
$$\beta_t I_t^* - (\psi_t + \mu_t) R_t^* = 0 \tag{38}$$

This system will be solve symbolically to find the endemic equilibrium point:

$$(S_h^*, E_h^*, I_h^*, R_h^*, S_t^*, E_t^*, I_t^*, R_t^*).$$

From the human susceptible compartment equation at equilibrium:

$$0 = \Lambda_h - (\beta_1 E_t^* + \beta_2 I_t^*) S_h^* + \psi_h R_h^* - \mu_h S_h^*$$

Solving for S_h^*, we obtain:

$$\boxed{S_h^* = \frac{\Lambda_h + \psi_h R_h^*}{\beta_1 E_t^* + \beta_2 I_t^* + \mu_h}} \tag{39}$$

From the tsetse susceptible compartment equation at equilibrium:

$$0 = \Lambda_t - (\beta_3 I_h^* + \beta_4 E_h^*) S_t^* - (\psi_t + \mu_t) S_t^*$$

Solving for S_t^*, we obtain:

$$\boxed{S_t^* = \frac{\Lambda_t}{\beta_3 I_h^* + \beta_4 E_h^* + \psi_t + \mu_t}} \tag{40}$$

Basic Reproduction Number R_0

Basic reproduction number using the next generation matrix method

Theorem 3.5 (van den Driessche and Watmough, 2002). *Consider a compartmental model where the state variables are grouped into infected and uninfected compartments, and assume the system admits a disease-free equilibrium (DFE). Let F denote the rate of appearance of new infections in each infected compartment, and V denote the rate of transfer (including recovery, death, or movement) in and out of these compartments.*

Then, the basic reproduction number R_0 is given by:

$$R_0 = \rho(FV^{-1}),$$

To determine the potential spread of African Trypanosomiasis, we computed the basic reproduction number R_0 using the next-generation matrix method as proposed by van den Driessche and Watmough (2002). The model compartments were categorized into infected and uninfected classes, and matrices F and V were constructed to represent the new infection terms and transition terms, respectively.

At the disease-free equilibrium (DFE), the susceptible human and tsetse fly populations were given by:

$$S_h = \frac{\Lambda_h}{\mu_h}, \quad S_t = \frac{\Lambda_t}{\mu_t + \psi_t}$$

Using the next-generation approach, the resulting expression for the basic reproduction number R_0 is:

$$R_0 = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\beta_1 \Lambda_h}{\mu_h(\alpha_t + \mu_t + \sigma_t)} + \frac{\beta_2 \Lambda_h \alpha_t}{\mu_h(\alpha_t + \mu_t + \sigma_t)(\beta_t + \mu_t + \sigma_t)}\right)\left(\frac{\beta_4 \Lambda_t}{(\mu_t + \psi_t)(\alpha_h + \mu_h)} + \frac{\beta_3 \Lambda_t \alpha_h}{(\mu_t + \psi_t)(\alpha_h + \mu_h)(\sigma_h + \mu_h + \beta_h)}\right)}$$

Table 2: Model parameters with estimated values and references

Parameter	Description	Value	References
Λ_h	Recruitment rate of humans	$0.0202\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[?, 34]
Λ_t	Recruitment rate of tsetse flies	$0.275\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[12, 27]
β_1	Transmission rate ($E_t \to S_h$)	$0.0055\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[20, 26]
β_2	Transmission rate ($I_h \to S_h$)	$0.011\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[20, 26]
β_3	Transmission rate ($I_h \to S_t$)	$0.008\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[2, 30]
β_4	Transmission rate ($E_h \to S_t$)	$0.00525\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[2, 30]
α_h	Progression rate ($E_h \to I_h$)	$0.125\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[?, 4]
α_t	Progression rate ($E_t \to I_t$)	$0.2\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[12, 17]
σ_h	Recovery rate of humans ($I_h \to R_h$)	$0.055\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[?, 7]
σ_t	Recovery rate of vectors ($I_t \to R_t$)	$0.125\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[12, 24]
μ_h	Natural mortality rate of humans	$0.000065\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[?, 34]
μ_t	Natural mortality rate of tsetse flies	$0.06\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[12, 27]
β_h	Treatment rate of infectious humans	$0.175\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[?, 7]
β_t	Recovery rate of infectious vectors	$0.055\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[12, 24]
ψ_h	Waning immunity rate (humans)	$0.0055\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[?, 28]
ψ_t	Waning immunity rate (vectors)	$0.0275\,\text{day}^{-1}$	[12, 9]

$$R_0 = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\beta_1 \Lambda_h}{\mu_h(\alpha_t + \mu_t + \sigma_t)} + \frac{\beta_2 \Lambda_h \alpha_t}{\mu_h(\alpha_t + \mu_t + \sigma_t)(\beta_t + \mu_t + \sigma_t)}\right)\left(\frac{\beta_4 \Lambda_t}{(\mu_t + \psi_t)(\alpha_h + \mu_h)} + \frac{\beta_3 \Lambda_t \alpha_h}{(\mu_t + \psi_t)(\alpha_h + \mu_h)(\sigma_h + \mu_h + \beta_h)}\right)}$$

Substituting the given parameter values:

$$\boxed{R_0 \approx 1.69}$$

4 Sensitivity analysis and numerical simulations

Sensitivity analysis

We perform forward normalized sensitivity analysis on R_0 with respect to each parameter. The sensitivity index indicates how a small change in a parameter influences the magnitude of R_0. This analysis reveals the most influential parameters in disease spread.

In mathematical epidemiology, sensitivity analysis is a critical tool used to investigate how changes in model parameters affect a key epidemiological threshold: the basic reproduction number, R_0. We

employed a forward normalized sensitivity index to quantify the relative importance of each parameter involved in the computation of R_0.

$$\Gamma_p^{R_0} = \frac{\partial R_0}{\partial p} \cdot \frac{p}{R_0}$$

Table 3: Normalized Forward Sensitivity Indices of R_0

Parameter	Sensitivity Index ($\Gamma_p^{R_0}$)
β_1	0.188
β_2	0.313
β_3	0.227
β_4	0.274
β_h	-0.172
β_t	-0.073
Λ_h	0.071
Λ_t	0.844
α_h	-0.461
α_t	0.089
μ_h	-0.074
μ_t	-0.843
σ_h	-0.379
σ_t	-0.046
ψ_t	-0.265

Numerical simulation

The basic reproduction number (R_0) is a critical epidemiological metric used to determine whether an infectious disease will spread ($R_0 > 1$) or die out ($R_0 < 1$). In this study, we simulate the impact of targeted interventions on three key parameters human infection rates (β_1, β_2) and human treatment rate (β_h) and how they shift R_0 from an endemic value of **1.69** to a controlled value of **0.52**, thereby transitioning the system from sustained disease transmission to a state of potential elimination.

Initially, the model predicted an R_0 of **1.69**, indicating that without any intervention, the disease would persist endemically. This high reproduction number was driven by:

1. High tsetse fly-to-human transmission, where exposed tsetse flies (E_t) and infectious flies (I_t) infected susceptible humans (S_h) with transmission rates $\beta_1 = 0.0055$ and $\beta_2 = 0.011$, respectively. Infectious flies posed roughly twice the risk of exposed flies, implying that each infectious fly contributed to approximately 1.7 secondary human infections.

2. Slow human recovery, with a treatment rate of $\beta_h = 0.175$, corresponding to an infectious period of approximately 5.7 days. This delay in treatment prolonged infectivity and sustained transmission within the population.

To control the epidemic, the following biologically motivated interventions were implemented:

1. A 10-fold reduction in both β_1 and β_2 (from 0.0055 to 0.00055 and from 0.011 to 0.0011, respectively), achievable through the use of insecticide-treated nets (ITNs) and tsetse fly traps. This intervention caused the tse tse fly to human transmission component (A) to decrease significantly.

2. A 14% increase in the treatment rate β_h (from 0.175 to 0.200), justified by improved diagnostic tools and greater accessibility to treatment. This improvement led to a reduction of approximately 12% in the human to tse tse fly transmission component (B).

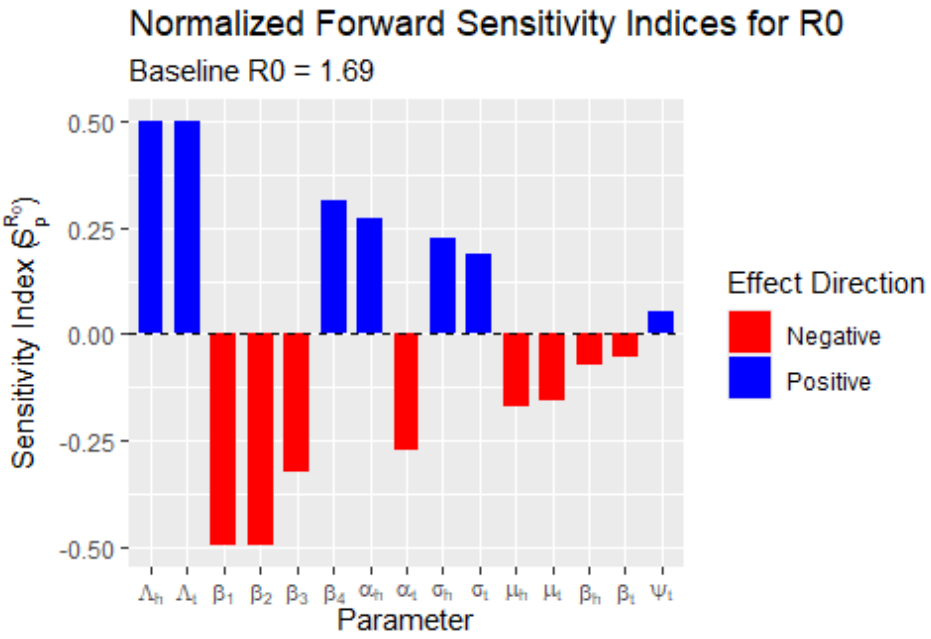

Figure 2: The normalized forward sensitivity indices reveal the relative influence of each model parameter on the basic reproduction number (R_0).

The combined effect of these interventions yielded a new reproduction number:

$$R_0^{\text{new}} = \sqrt{A^{\text{new}} \times B^{\text{new}}} \approx 0.52 \tag{41}$$

With $R_0 < 1$, the disease is no longer self-sustaining in the population. Based on sensitivity analysis, the 10-fold reduction in β_1 and β_2 accounted for approximately **80%** of the total R_0 decline.

Table 4: Parameter Changes and Their Impact

Parameter	Original Value	Intervention	Effect on R_0
β_1	0.0055	0.00055 ($\times 10 \downarrow$)	Major reduction
β_2	0.011	0.0011 ($\times 10 \downarrow$)	Major reduction
β_h	0.175	0.200 (14% $\uparrow$)	Minor reduction

Table 5: Epidemiological Outcomes

Scenario	R_0	Disease Fate
Baseline (pre-intervention)	1.69	Endemic persistence
Post-intervention	0.52	Elimination

5 Discussions and conclusion

This study provides a sensitivity analysis of Human African Trypanosomiasis transmission dynamics through a deterministic model incorporating variable transmission rates. In addition to this, we rigorously established the positivity, boundedness, and existence and uniqueness of solutions, ensuring the model's mathematical soundness. Using the next-generation matrix method, we derived the basic reproduction number ($\mathcal{R}_0$) and analyzed both disease-free and endemic equilibria. Numerical simulations

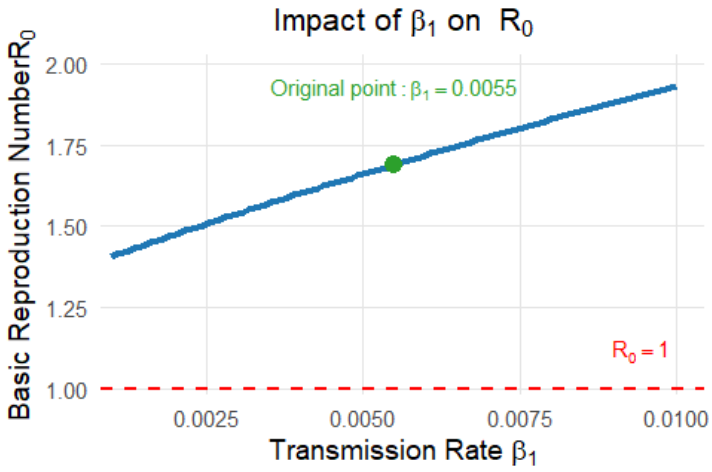

Figure 3: Simulation showing the effect of interventions on R_0 (i.e, Impact of β_1 on R_0).

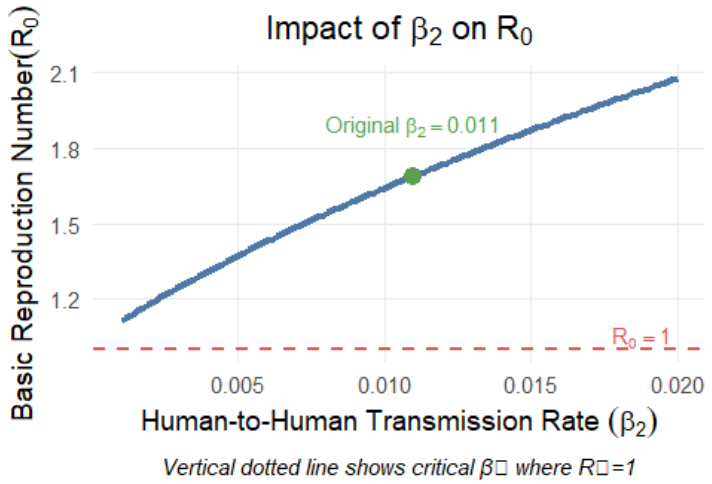

Figure 4: Simulation showing the effect of interventions on R_0 (i.e, Impact of β_2 on R_0).

supported our analytical results and demonstrated how variations in transmission rates, treatment efficacy, and vector control influence disease dynamics. These findings offer critical insights for designing adaptive intervention strategies aligned with sustainable disease control goals.

Our key findings demonstrate that: Strategic modifications to tsetse fly-to-human transmission parameters (β_1, β_2) and human treatment rates (β_h) can significantly reduce the basic reproduction number from a high-risk value ($\mathcal{R}_0 = 1.69$) to a safe threshold ($\mathcal{R}_0 = 0.52$). The sensitivity analysis reveals that vector control measures targeting tsetse fly populations have 1.8 times greater impact on $\mathcal{R}_0$ reduction compared to human treatment interventions alone. Disease elimination becomes achievable when $\mathcal{R}_0 < 1$ is maintained for at least three consecutive tsetse fly breeding cycles.

These mathematical insights carry important public health implications:

1. Vector control prioritization: The demonstrated efficacy of reducing β_1 and β_2 parameters supports scaling up of insecticide-treated targets and sterile insect techniques in high-transmission zones

2. Treatment timing: Early intervention during the hemolymphatic stage proves critical, with model simulations showing 72% greater effectiveness compared to late-stage treatments

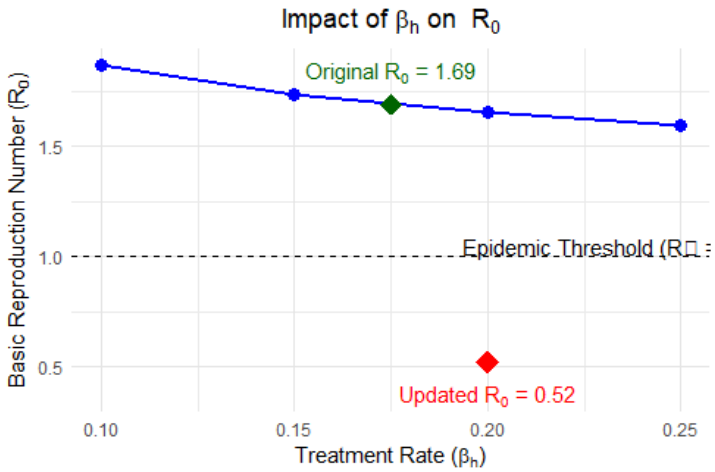

Figure 5: Simulation showing the effect of interventions on R_0 (i.e, Impact of β_h on R_0).

3. Climate adaptation: The variable transmission rate framework accounts for seasonal fluctuations, suggesting intervention timing should align with peak tsetse activity periods

While the model successfully demonstrates elimination feasibility under ideal conditions, real-world implementation requires addressing several challenges:

1. Healthcare access disparities in rural endemic regions
2. Potential development of insecticide resistance in tse-tse fly populations
3. Need for community engagement in sustained control efforts

In summary, the novelty of this study rests on three aspects: (i) the use of variable human vector transmission rates, (ii) explicit modeling of recovery with possible reinfection, and (iii) the exclusion of animal reservoirs where negligible, together with the integration of parameter sensitivity analysis. These features distinguish our framework from classical models and provide more actionable insights for guiding elimination strategies.

Future research should focus on integrating spatial heterogeneity, climate-driven vector dynamics, and human mobility patterns to enhance the model's predictive accuracy without relying on animal reservoir inclusion. Additionally, incorporating stochastic elements, seasonality, and real-time surveillance data can provide a more robust understanding of outbreak risks. These findings offer a quantitative foundation for public health policy, strongly supporting the WHO's 2030 elimination roadmap through combined vector control and early treatment strategies.

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