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1 Critical linkages between livestock production, livestock trade and potential spread of human African  
2 trypanosomiasis in Uganda: Bioeconomic herd modeling and livestock trade analysis

3

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## 20 **Abstract**

### 21 ***Background***

22 Tsetse-transmitted human African trypanosomiasis (HAT) remains endemic in Uganda. The chronic form  
23 caused by *Trypanosoma brucei gambiense* (gHAT) is found in north-western Uganda, whereas the acute  
24 zoonotic form of the disease, caused by *T. b. brucei rhodesiense* (rHAT), occurs in the eastern region. Cattle is  
25 the major reservoir of rHAT in Uganda. These two forms of HAT are likely to converge resulting in a public  
26 health disaster. This study examines the intricate and intrinsic links between cattle herd dynamics, livestock  
27 trade and potential risk of spread of rHAT northwards.

### 28 ***Methods***

29 A bio-economic cattle herd model was developed to simulate herd dynamics at the farm level. Semi-structured  
30 interviews (n=310), focus group discussions (n=9) and key informant interviews (n=9) were used to evaluate  
31 livestock markets (n=9) as part of the cattle supply chain analysis. The cattle market data was used for stochastic  
32 risk analysis.

### 33 ***Results***

34 Cattle trade in eastern and northern Uganda is dominated by sale of draft and adult male cattle as well as  
35 exportation of young male cattle. The study found that the need to import draft cattle at the farm level was to  
36 cover deficits because of the herd structure, which is mostly geared towards animal traction. The importation  
37 and exportation of draft cattle and disposal of old adult male cattle formed the major basis of livestock movement  
38 and could result in the spread of rHAT northwards. The risk of rHAT infected cattle being introduced to northern  
39 Uganda from the eastern region via cattle trade was found to be high (i.e. probability of 1).

## 40 **Conclusion**

41 Through deterministic and stochastic modelling of cattle herd and cattle trade dynamics, this study identifies  
42 critical links between livestock production and trade as well as potential risk of rHAT spread in eastern and  
43 northern Uganda. The findings highlight the need for targeted and routine surveillance and control of zoonotic  
44 diseases such as rHAT.

## 45 **Key words**

46 HAT, economic drivers, bio-economic, herd modelling, value chain, Uganda

## 47 **Introduction**

48 Human African trypanosomiasis (HAT), which is also known as sleeping sickness, is vector borne endemic  
49 disease in Africa (1). There are two forms of the disease namely *rhodesiense* HAT (rHAT ) and *gambiense* HAT  
50 (gHAT). The rHAT, which is also known as acute Rhodesian form of HAT, is caused by *Trypanosoma brucei*  
51 *rhodesiense* and is mostly found in East Africa (2). Wildlife and domestic animals, especially cattle, are the  
52 main reservoir of rHAT (3, 4). Humans get rHAT after being bitten by *Glossina*, the tsetse fly (5, 6). Cattle are  
53 not affected by rHAT and show no apparent clinical signs but are known to drive outbreaks (7, 8). The gHAT,  
54 which is also known as chronic Gambian form of HAT, is caused by *T. b. gambiense* and it is mostly found in  
55 western Africa (9). Humans get gHAT through human-tsetse contact. Unlike rHAT, gHAT is not known to have  
56 animal reservoirs (10).

57 Diagnosis of HAT is difficult especially in low resource setting and it involves clinical examination, mass  
58 screening, detection using whole blood card agglutination trypanosomiasis test (CATT), and identifying the  
59 stage of the disease via examination of cerebrospinal fluid after a lumbar puncture (11). After staging, each form  
60 of HAT requires different treatment at different stages (11). Therefore, diagnosis and treatment of HAT can  
61 prove to be challenging in scenarios where the two forms of the disease merge (12). Furthermore, the two forms  
62 of HAT cannot be distinguished morphologically; microscopic examination is still a major method of diagnosis  
63 in low resource setting (13).

64 Uganda is the only country in Africa with the two forms of HAT, with rHAT being endemic in south-east while  
65 gHAT is restricted to north-west part of the country (14). However, it has been reported that rHAT is moving  
66 northwards making the merger of the two forms of HAT eminent (15). The old rHAT foci have been in south-  
67 east Uganda particularly in Busia, Namutumba, Iganga, and Tororo districts. However, rHAT has moved to  
68 central parts of eastern Uganda particularly Soroti and Kaberamaido (9). It has been reported that between  
69 39.5% (16) and 54% (17) of cattle involved in inter-district trade in Uganda had moved from rHAT endemic  
70 districts in the south east region into northwest and central regions that had not experienced the disease.  
71 Furthermore, cattle trade has been implicated to be responsible for the last rHAT epidemic in south-east Uganda  
72 (17). Consequently, it is important to understand the unintended consequences of economic activity on disease  
73 spread (18).

74 Farming and livestock trade, as economic activities, may generate disease risk due to the trade-off between  
75 effective disease control and return on investment on livestock production (19). The economic link between  
76 livestock production and market is demand and supply of agricultural and food commodities and services;  
77 understanding the economic drivers of the two systems is integral to understanding intra and inter-district spread  
78 of diseases including zoonoses (20). In livestock markets, there are three tiers of sale of cattle and related  
79 agricultural inputs in developing countries (21). The first is farm gate sales where farmers sell low volumes of  
80 livestock to roaming livestock traders. The second tier involves farmers or roaming traders selling cattle to  
81 relatively large cattle traders at the primary or local livestock markets. The third tier involves livestock traders  
82 from primary markets selling relatively large volumes of cattle to secondary markets. Long distance livestock  
83 traders typically buy large volumes of cattle from secondary markets and sell them to cities or districts within

84 or outside the country. At each tier, the price of cattle is guided by the biophysical characters of the animal,  
85 transport costs, knowledge of the demand and supply situation and negotiation skills (22, 23).

86 In Uganda, the predominant livestock production system in eastern and northern Uganda is smallholder mixed  
87 farming (24). The main reason for keeping cattle in the smallholder mixed farming systems of eastern and  
88 northern region of Uganda is to provide draft power for crop cultivation with work oxen representing 36.5% to  
89 43.7% of the cattle population (25, 26). The purpose for which livestock are maintained influences livestock  
90 trade as well as herd structure and size. Herd structure and size determine availability of animals for breeding,  
91 sale and plowing. Surpluses and deficits result in inter-district livestock trade (27). Individual cattle herds are  
92 composed of animals of different ages, sexes, and function reflecting diverse production systems. Parameters  
93 such as herd growth rate, milk yield, draft power output, fertility, and mortality (28) can be used to project future  
94 herd sizes, structures, and offtake of animals (for sale or slaughter) under different production systems. Forecasts  
95 require comprehensive data for herd age structure, age-specific reproduction, mortality, and offtake rates to  
96 enable herd modelling (29). Models applied for African animal trypanosomiasis (AAT) include a bio-economic  
97 simulation model with economic surplus (30), dynamic herd models looking at meat and milk outputs (31, 32),  
98 and draft power (33). The model described by Shaw (34) differs by not only incorporating productivity of draft  
99 cattle but also computing the number of work oxen that need to be 'imported' into the herd depending on herd  
100 structure and local requirements.

101 Few studies have attempted to evaluate critical linkages between livestock production system, livestock spread,  
102 and potential spread of zoonotic diseases where cattle are disease reservoirs. This study aimed to identify and  
103 evaluate the critical economic linkages and implications that may result in sustained transmission of rHAT at  
104 the farm (downstream) and livestock market (upstream) levels. This was achieved by 1) identifying and  
105 evaluating the key characteristics of the herd dynamics at the farm level including use of work oxen, 2)  
106 identifying and analyzing the main features of the livestock market, and 3) using cattle trade data for probabilistic  
107 rHAT risk analysis associated with moving cattle from eastern to northern Uganda.. Although most livestock  
108 diseases can be spread along the value chain, HAT was chosen in this study due to its public health implication.  
109 However, the approach and methods used in this study is applicable to most livestock diseases.

## 110 **Method**

### 111 *Study area and design*

112 The study was conducted in Tororo and Namutumba districts, south-east Uganda between 20<sup>th</sup> to 28<sup>th</sup> October  
113 2014 to collect datasets representative of live cattle trade in semi-arid areas of eastern and northern Uganda.  
114 Figure 1 shows the study area and the HAT foci and Figure 2 shows the cattle markets where data was collected.  
115 Animal African trypanosomiasis (AAT) and zoonotic rHAT are endemic in eastern Uganda (35, 36, 37). The  
116 types of livestock drugs available and utilized in south-east Uganda for disease control in livestock have been  
117 previously explored (38). Equally, the distribution of tsetse fly eastern and northern Uganda has been described  
118 in other studies (39, 40, 41). Smallholder mixed crop-livestock production systems are the predominant  
119 agricultural system in Uganda where cattle production is geared towards supporting traction (25). According to  
120 (26), the draft cattle start work at 2.6 years until they are 11.1 years, resulting in a working life of 8.5 years.  
121 Farmers spend about 18 months training young males for draft reaching optimal efficiency at 4.1 years. The  
122 main plowing season is March and April during the long rainy season and October during the short rainy season.

123 Tororo and Namutumba, which provide insights on herd structure and livestock marketing in crop-livestock  
124 production systems in Uganda, experience two dry seasons between June to August and December to February  
125 and the rainy season is from March to April and October to December (39). The study area has extensively been  
126 described elsewhere (42). The conceptual model used in this study is shown in Figure 3. Key components studied  
127 were herd dynamics at the farm (downstream), live cattle trade (upstream), and risk of rHAT spread from eastern  
128 to northern Uganda due to herd dynamics and cattle trade.

129 *Data collection and analysis of the livestock markets*

130 To understand upstream economic activities, a list of all live livestock markets in Tororo and Namutumba  
131 districts was obtained from the records available at the district veterinary office in 2014. According to the list  
132 obtained from Tororo district veterinary office, the cattle markets included Siwa A (also known as Siwa), Peta  
133 parima (also known as Peta A), Mairo seven, Pasindi, Munyole (also known as Omunyole), Molo, Mukuju and  
134 Wawulera. Namutumba was the only cattle market in Tororo district. All the cattle traders (i.e. census survey  
135 method), through verbal consent, were interviewed using semi-structured interviews. The interviews captured:  
136 i) interviewee information, ii) the livestock markets where cattle traders mostly sourced their cattle from in the  
137 whole annual livestock trade cycle, iii) the livestock markets where these cattle were mostly sold to, iv) the  
138 number of cattle each trader brought to the livestock market, v) peak periods of sales per year, vi) number and  
139 age/sex of cattle traded per month during each peak period (using a 12 month recall), and vii) the time taken to  
140 sell the cattle. The number of cattle sold was obtained from livestock movement permit register. Livestock  
141 markets were visited on their respective market days and the following parameters were recorded: i) number,  
142 age and sex of cattle present, ii) number of cattle sold, iii) the frequency of cattle trade activities, and iv) number  
143 of local animal health providers present. Semi-structured interview questionnaires were administered to farmers  
144 who have come to purchase their cattle to establish where they mostly sourced their cattle from. Information  
145 from semi-structured questionnaire was entered and cleaned in Microsoft Excel. Focus group discussions with  
146 cattle traders, buyers and other traders in each market were undertaken and key informant interviews (43)  
147 involved discussions with local animal health providers and local council authorities. Local animal health  
148 providers were local government and private veterinarians and animal health assistants, while local council  
149 authorities were local council employees charged with the duty of collecting levy from livestock traders at the  
150 gate. Livestock data were analysed using the commodity supply chain approach (44, 45). The stages of analysis  
151 included the different tiers of livestock marketing *i.e.* farm gate to the large markets. At each stage along the  
152 chain, the approach permitted three types of analysis: costs and margins (price transmission analysis), flows  
153 (places, volumes, and directions), and the social relations of trade (46, 47). All the secondary data (from focus  
154 group discussions, key informant interviews and certain data sets within the questionnaire that had uncertainty,  
155 were modelled using Monte Carlo simulation with a 95% uncertainty interval (UI) in R statistical software  
156 version 3.2.2 (48).

157  
158 *Parameters for herd modelling*

159 To understand downstream economic activities, the bio-economic herd simulation model (34, 49) was used to  
160 simulate the effect of the herd structure on exportation and importation of cattle in the herd in eastern and  
161 northern Uganda. Parameters required for the herd model included: i) cattle population, ii) herd composition by  
162 age, sex and use for draft power, and iii) off-take and mortality rates for these categories and calving rate. The  
163 cattle population used in the cattle herd model was obtained from the national livestock census (50). The cattle  
164 population used for eastern and northern Uganda was 2,488,467 and 3,921,849 respectively. The herd structure  
165 parameters were derived and averaged from (25, 26) given these studies were conducted in smallholder mixed  
166 production systems (agro-pastoral systems) in Uganda. The parameters used for the cattle herd model have been  
167 shown in Table 1. Based on the adult male draft cattle population of 28.5%, the required number of draft cattle  
168 in eastern and northern Uganda was 709,213 and 1,117,726 respectively and this was rounded off to 715,000  
169 and 1,125,000 respectively to enhance model performance.

170 To mimic the current herd composition and livestock keeper preferences, it was assumed that 95% of young  
171 male cattle were allocated to draft as calculated for high oxen use systems in (49). Additionally, an initial cattle  
172 population of 10,000 was used to assess the number of years, within 20-year projection, the herd model  
173 stabilized. It was found that the end of year herd size and growth rate stabilized after 5 years. Consequently, a  
174 6-year projection, which included the base year, was used as a cut-off for this study instead of a 20-year  
175 projection.

176 The number of draft cattle imported was computed by first setting the number of draft cattle required for each  
177 year; then subtracting this from number of draft cattle available locally (young males reaching the age when

178 they start to work and adult draft males, adjusted for mortality and offtake). This estimated the deficit which  
179 will need to be met by bringing in cattle from outside the area. The model outputs gave the changing numbers  
180 year by year, and thus the growth rate and herd composition.

#### 181 *Cattle herd model assumptions and validation*

182 It was assumed that the mortality, calving and offtake rates would remain constant over the 6-year projection  
183 period. Mortality, calving, and offtake rates affect the herd size, herd structure and, this may change due several  
184 factors such as farmers deciding to purchase other types of cattle (i.e. de-investing in animal traction), cattle  
185 prices, implementation of disease control programs among others. Such factors are not possible to capture using  
186 bioeconomic herd modelling hence mortality, calving and offtake rates were fixed. Furthermore, one of the  
187 interests of this study was to identify deficits in the herd structure and how such deficits can be met to maintain  
188 the current herd size. It was assumed that farmers would aim to maintain their herd structure and size. Validation  
189 of the model was done by checking the consistency of results and comparing results with different inputs  
190 (rationalism method), tracing of attributes over the project 6-year period, and scrutiny of all input parameters  
191 (face validity method) (51). This included reducing the calf mortality from 25% to 20% as well as increasing  
192 calving rate 50% to 55% as part checking model performance and sensitivity analysis. It was expected that the  
193 number of draft male cattle imported would reduce when the calf mortality and calving rate were reduced and  
194 increased respectively if the cattle herd model was accurate. External validation was not possible because of the  
195 lack of district level livestock census data covering 2014 to 2020. However, according to national census, the  
196 cattle population in Uganda reduced by 1.2% between 2016 and 2017, although the overall cattle population  
197 between 2008 and 2018 was expected to increase by 3.0% per annum in Uganda (52).

#### 198 *Estimating risk of disease spread*

199 To understand the implications of cattle trade and herd dynamics, the risk of rHAT spread from eastern to  
200 northern Uganda was estimated. The risk of invasion, denoted as  $p_{inv}$ , was defined as the probability of rHAT  
201 being transmitted to northern region (denoted as  $p_n$ ) through cattle trade from a disease-endemic eastern region  
202 of Uganda (denoted as  $p_e$ ) within a one-year period. Given that rHAT does not clinically affect cattle and that  
203 routine surveillance for animal diseases is not done at the cattle markets before cattle is moved (17), we assumed  
204 that the disease would be able to be spread from eastern to northern Uganda without detection. The probability  
205 of exporting a diseased animal from eastern to northern Uganda (denoted as  $p_i$ ) was estimated by the rHAT  
206 prevalence in cattle markets in eastern Uganda i.e. rHAT endemic region. It has been reported that the average  
207 rHAT prevalence in cattle markets in eastern Uganda is 1.5% (16), hence the probability of exporting rHAT  
208 from endemic region used in this study was 0.015. The estimated annual number of cattle moved from eastern  
209 to northern Uganda, denoted as  $m_{e,n}$ , was estimated from information collected from cattle traders. This  
210 involved determining the number of cattle markets in eastern Uganda from which cattle were moved to the  
211 northern region as mentioned by the cattle traders. This information provided the probability of purchased cattle  
212 being moved from eastern to northern Uganda, denoted as  $p_m$ . Additionally, using uniform distribution and  
213 10,000 simulations in R software (48), the minimum and maximum number of cattle sold as obtained from the  
214 livestock movement permit register was used to estimate the average number of cattle that would be purchased  
215 in cattle markets that moved cattle from eastern to northern Uganda. Use of minimum and maximum number of  
216 cattle sold was important as it covered any potential seasonal changes in cattle sales.

217 Assuming homogenous mixing of cattle and full susceptibility, introduction of rHAT in non-endemic areas of  
218 northern Uganda may lead to either the disease being spread or fading out depending on the basic reproduction  
219 number, denoted as  $R_0$ . The  $R_0$  for rHAT was obtained from past studies (53, 54); average  $R_0$  of 1.287 was  
220 used in this study. Also, with  $R_0$  being the potential of rHAT to spread within a population in eastern and  
221 northern Uganda, the possibility of rHAT fading out soon after introduction of one affected cattle from eastern  
222 into northern Uganda can be denoted as  $1/R_0$  (55) and the probability of a prolonged outbreak ( $p_o$ ) can be  
223 denoted as  $1 - 1/R_0$ . Using the approach in (56), the risk of rHAT invasion ( $p_{inv}$ ) from cattle reservoir in  
224 northern Uganda was computed as:

225  $p_{inv} = 1 - (1 - p_i p_o)^{m_{e,n}}$   
226

## 227 **Results**

### 228 *Livestock market dynamics*

229 Nine livestock markets were visited, and 197 cattle traders and 113 farmers (who were buying cattle) were  
230 interviewed. Livestock markets are managed by the local council and cattle traders were taxed a standard fee of  
231 United States dollar (US\$) 0.5 for a movement permit. There were two levels of cattle markets namely primary  
232 and secondary. Secondary level cattle markets in Tororo district included Siwa A, Peta parima (also known as  
233 Peta A), Mairo seven, Pasindi, Munyole (also known as Omunyole), Mukuju and Wawulera. Molo was the only  
234 primary level cattle market in Tororo district. Namutumba was also a secondary cattle market.

235 Focus group discussions and key informant interviews indicated that outside of Tororo District, Namutumba  
236 and Soroti were primary level cattle markets. The size of the livestock market varied depending on holding  
237 capacity and number of cattle traded with the largest markets being the primary markets (i.e. Namutumba and  
238 Molo). Larger markets traded cattle and other livestock including poultry and goats. Smaller secondary livestock  
239 markets (i.e. Pasindi, Siwa, Munyole and Peta Parima) only traded cattle. Each market operated once a week  
240 with traders attending on a rotational basis. Cattle imported into Tororo district originated from Namutumba  
241 (47.0% respondents), Soroti (42.0% respondents), Lira (6.0% respondents), and Mbale (5.0% respondents).  
242 During the 9-day visit to all the cattle markets, there were a total of 1,565 cattle. Figure 4 shows the number and  
243 types of cattle traded. The number of cattle sold in Mairo seven, Molo, Mukuju, Munyole, Pasindi, Peta parima,  
244 Siwa, Wawulera, and Namutumba was 28, 131, 29, 27, 46, 17, 22, 25, and 189 respectively (minimum: 17,  
245 maximum: 189, standard deviation: 60).

246 According to data obtained from the semi-structured interviews, 76 out 197 cattle traders mentioned that they  
247 mostly moved cattle from eastern to northern Uganda. Therefore, the probability of moving ( $p_m$ ) from eastern  
248 to northern Uganda was estimated to be 0.385. The cattle markets from which cattle were sourced from in eastern  
249 Uganda and moved to northern region were seven and this included Kaberamaido, Soroti, Namutumba, Molo,  
250 Katakwi, Ngora, and Kumi. Also, the study found that most of the cattle from the seven cattle markets were  
251 moved to Lira, Adjumani, Dokolo, Gulu, Oyam, and Amuru in northern Uganda.

252 Interviews with 197 cattle traders showed a pattern of trade seasons during which cattle were traded annually  
253 depending on type. The cattle traders indicated that the first cattle trade season ran from January to March and  
254 predominantly included sale of young males (61.4% of the respondents) just before the plowing season in March  
255 and April. The second season from April to September involved the sale of mixed types of cattle (65.9%  
256 respondents) and a third season from October to December described sale of mostly culled old animals (81.0%  
257 respondents). The estimated total number of cattle traded annually as mentioned by cattle traders was 3,763 with  
258 each trading 19.1 cattle annually. Table 2 summarizes the annual cattle traded per trader in each season.

259 Focus group discussions revealed that traders who mostly came from Lira, Arua, Moyo and Kotido districts in  
260 northwest Uganda bought young males from south east Uganda and sold them to non-government organizations  
261 who train work oxen for plowing. Afterwards, livestock traders buy back these animals after one and half years  
262 of training for draft work and sell them back to farmers in south east Uganda at a higher price. Traders typically  
263 bought one and half year old young males at US\$ 71.2 (95% UI: 54.7, 89.1) and sold them back to farmers in  
264 Tororo district at US\$ 224 (95% UI: 182.7, 267.2) when the cattle were three and half years of age, making an  
265 average gross gain of US\$ 122.8 (summarized in Table 3).

266 Interviews were also conducted with the 113 livestock buyers in the livestock markets. Of the 113 farmers  
267 interviewed, 4.4% acquired their cattle through inheritance, 69.9% from cattle markets, 10.6% through buying  
268 from neighbors, 7.9% through restocking programmes, and 7.0% from exchange of goats for cattle.

## 269 *Cattle herd dynamics*

270 Outputs from the herd model, which is an extrapolation of the current trends in livestock production within  
271 smallholder mixed farming systems showed, that the cattle herd size would fall from 2,488,467 in the base year  
272 to 2,062,340 at the end of the 6-year projection period in eastern Uganda if all factors (i.e. use of cattle, disease  
273 prevalence, herd structure and size) remained the same. Equally, in northern Uganda, the cattle herd size would  
274 fall from 3,921,849 to 3,248,722 at the end of the 6-year simulation period. For both regions, the cow adult male  
275 ratio in the base year was 1.1 falling marginally to 1.0 by the end of the 6-year period. Also, for both regions,  
276 the annual average herd growth rate was -3.2% over the projected 6-year period. In eastern Uganda, the estimated  
277 number of draft cattle imported to bridge the deficit was 5,991 in year 1 rising to 32,239 at the end of the 6-year  
278 projection period; draft cattle would be imported at an average of 18,826 annually over the same period. In  
279 northern Uganda, 7,529 draft cattle need to be imported in year 1 rising to 50,494 in year 6; an average of 29,164  
280 draft cattle annually. Figure 5 show the simulated draft cattle imported in eastern and northern Uganda. The  
281 projected herd structure at the end of the 6-year for both eastern and northern Uganda has been shown in Table  
282 3. The projected herd structure for the two agro-pastoral regions indicates that male cattle will still be the  
283 predominant sex with 45% and 35.2% being draft cattle in eastern and northern Uganda respectively as shown  
284 in Table 4.

285 As part validation, the herd model was re-run with lower calf death rates (20.0% for females and 17.0% for  
286 males) and a higher calving rate of 55%. In eastern Uganda, the number of draft males imported was 5,991 in  
287 year 1 increasing to 15,135 by year 6 as opposed to 32,239 when the original parameters were used. In northern  
288 Uganda, the estimated number of draft cattle imported increased from 7,529 to 23,562 by the end of year 6  
289 compared to 50,494 when the original parameters were used. These changes were expected, i.e. lower calf  
290 mortality and high calving rate increases the number of draft cattle in the farm which in turn result in reduced  
291 importation. Therefore, this indicated that the model worked well.

## 292 *Risk of disease transmission*

293 Using minimum and maximum number of cattle sold (i.e. mean of 102 per cattle market), the number of cattle  
294 markets where cattle traders mostly sourced their animals from in eastern region (i.e. seven in total) and moved  
295 them to northern region, and  $p_m$  of 0.385, it was estimated that the number of cattle moved to northern Uganda  
296 from eastern Uganda (i.e.  $m_{e,n}$ ) was 14,294 per year. The probability of a prolonged outbreak (i.e.  $p_o$ ) was  
297 estimated to be 0.222. Consequently, the potential risk of rHAT invasion and spread from eastern into northern  
298 Uganda through cattle trade was estimated to be 1.

## 299 **Discussion**

300 Livestock movement and implications for disease spread is well described in developed countries where data is  
301 usually available (57, 58, 59, 60, 61). In developing countries like Uganda, data on livestock movement is scarce  
302 resulting in limited capacity to routinely monitor diseases. Additionally in developing countries, the link  
303 between livestock production and potential risk of spread of diseases has not been well understood. In Uganda,  
304 past studies have shown that cattle restocking as part of post conflict recovery program, is one of the reasons for  
305 cattle movement from eastern to northern Uganda (16). Our study quantitatively captures the the potential rHAT  
306 risk of spread between eastern Uganda where the disease is endemic, and the disease free northern region via  
307 cattle trade for the first time. Also, for the first time, this study examines the reasons behind the cattle  
308 trade in smallholder mixed farming systems (i.e. agro-pastoral systems) in developing countries like Uganda  
309 apart from restocking efforts. The link between on-farm livestock production and livestock trade is important in  
310 understanding the potential risk of disease spread for disease control purposes.

311 This study showed that livestock trade is complex involving multiple layers of transaction. The first layer  
312 involved sourcing of cattle by small scale traders from household to household and sale of cattle by the farmers  
313 to the primary markets. The second layer mostly involved small and large scale traders. Farmers did not



314 participate in cattle trade as they did not have market information nor the negotiation capacities required for sale  
315 of cattle. Once cattle traders acquired the animals, the majority of them moved the cattle on foot or on trucks for  
316 months from one market to the other and back depending on the season. Long distance cattle trade using trucks  
317 may result in spread of rHAT northwards as it increases the volume, distance, and frequency of inter-district  
318 trade. Additionally, walking of cattle from market may also expose them to tsetse infestation and thereby spread  
319 of rHAT within and between districts.

320 Cattle trade in south-east and northern Uganda showed three distinct patterns 1) a short and high volume trade  
321 in young males just before the plowing season, 2) a protracted and moderate volume trade in mixed types of  
322 cattle, and 3) a short and high volume trade in culled old cattle. Sales patterns may be attributed to a high demand  
323 for young males during the plowing season and high demand for disposed old draft cattle for slaughter during  
324 the festive season in December. Continuous trade and movement of cattle in high volumes particularly during the  
325 rainy season in March and December may have potential epidemiological implications. The risk of exposure of  
326 large volumes of cattle to tsetse flies during and after the rainy season is high. Tsetse fly density is higher during  
327 and after rains when the ground is wet and the ambient temperature is right. The newly emerged tsetse flies  
328 (teneral flies) are most susceptible to becoming infected with trypanosomiasis (62).

329 The cattle supply chain analysis demonstrated that the cattle market in agro-pastoral areas is dominated by trade  
330 in draft and adult male cattle. Supply and demand of cattle was based on the cattle herd structure with farmers  
331 importing draft cattle due to deficits as revealed by the cattle herd model. Similar observations have been made  
332 in Madagascar, where cattle trade is based mostly on young males for draft work and sale of old draft cattle for  
333 slaughter (63). Therefore, cattle herd structure plays a crucial role in influencing the type of cattle sold in the  
334 cattle market as well as the pattern of livestock movement and ultimately the potential risk of disease spread.  
335 Additionally, if mortality and calving rates in eastern and northern Uganda remain unchanged, then the need for  
336 importing draft cattle will continue with increasing numbers being imported over the coming years resulting in  
337 increased cattle movement and risk of spread of rHAT in Uganda. However, in the pastoral production systems  
338 which dominate certain parts of northern and eastern Uganda, the herd structures are dominated by female cattle  
339 as build up of the herd size is the main aim of cattle keeping (64).

340 Analysis of the potential risk of rHAT spread through cattle trade showed that even at a low rHAT cattle  
341 prevalence of 1.5% in eastern Uganda and low transmissibility with an  $R_0$  of 1.287, the probability of the disease  
342 invading and spreading in northern Uganda was high (100%). Similar observations have been made in West Africa  
343 where a hypothetical disease of less than 1% prevalence and  $R_0$  of 1.25 would have a high probability of an  
344 outbreak (80%), and if the prevalence is between 1-10% then the probability of an outbreak is 100% through  
345 cattle trade (56). However, outbreak of rHAT in humans in northern Uganda would depend on several factors  
346 such as tsetse fly density, human-cattle interactions, host characteristics, and human migration among others.  
347 The high risk of rHAT spread from eastern to northern indicates that routine disease surveillance is required in  
348 both regions. From the data obtained in this study, it is possible that primary markets in eastern Uganda may  
349 play a major role in rHAT transmission as they acted as congregation points of cattle with cattle being moved long  
350 distance using trucks. To be cost effective, rHAT surveillance can be targeted to the primary markets in eastern  
351 Uganda (e.g. Namutumba, Molo, Soroti, Katakwi, Kumi, and Ngora) and those markets in northern Uganda that  
352 received most of the cattle (e.g. Lira, Adjumani, Dokolo, Gulu, Oyam, and Amuru). As part of routine disease  
353 control, it may be essential to use cost-effective methods such as restricted application protocol and curative  
354 trypanocides at the point of sale (65).

355 Still in relation to potential rHAT spread, movement of young male cattle from south-east Uganda northwards  
356 for training in draft work and better financial returns may drive infection northwards. This is because the young  
357 male cattle would spend around two and a half years in northern Uganda, mostly Lira, Arua, Kotido and Moyo  
358 districts. This is a sufficient period to spread *T. b. rhodesiense*. Although, tsetse flies prefer to feed on larger  
359 cattle (66, 67), it has been reported that cattle which are over 18 months of age were more likely to be infected  
360 with *T. brucei sensu lato* (68). To prevent movement of young male cattle from eastern to northern Uganda, an  
361 animal traction training program can be provided in the eastern region as an incentive to reduce the risk of rHAT  
362 spread.

363 The approach of identifying critical economic and epidemiological linkages that may result in sustained spread  
364 of rHAT is not without limitations. Ideally more livestock markets would have been visited with a more  
365 extensive geographical distribution. Second, a cross sectional survey as used in this study cannot fully capture  
366 seasonal variations or annual economic activities. Third, the movement of cattle was extrapolated from cattle  
367 traders and this may result in over or understimation. Fourth, the data captured was only from formal cattle  
368 markets. Informal trade occurs in Uganda and therefore the study may underestimated the scale of cattle trade.  
369 Fifth, more rigorous rHAT risk analysis studies is still required given the uncertainty in the data collected and  
370 the sample size of this study. Sixth, cattle herd parameters as used in this study can change due to various reasons  
371 such as drought and disease outbreaks and this could result in changes in livestock numbers and herd structure.  
372 Based on the limitations, the study recommends future longitudinal studies that aim to sample more livestock  
373 markets, incorporating epidemiological data on livestock diseases.

## 374 **Conclusion**

375 This study found that there is an intrinsic and intricate link between cattle herd dynamics and livestock trade. It  
376 is this link that result in livestock movement and ultimately potential spread of rHAT and perhaps other diseases.  
377 Equally, there is a high probability that rHAT may spread from eastern to northern Uganda via cattle trade in a  
378 scenario where there is an original outbreak in the eastern region with demand for draft cattle playing a major  
379 role in this. The spread of rHAT northwards may result in a public health crisis given the difficulties in  
380 distinguishing between the disease and rHAT; the two diseases also require different treatment. Given the high  
381 likelihood of rHAT spread northwards, hence the emergence with gHAT, this study recommends enhanced  
382 disease surveillance and control.

383

## 384 **Declarations**

### 385 **Ethical approval**

386 This study was reviewed by the Makerere University College of Veterinary Medicine Animal Resources and  
387 Biosecurity ethical review board. It was approved by the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology  
388 and approved under approval number HS1336.

### 389 **Consent for publication.**

390 Not applicable.

### 391 **Availability of data and materials**

392 The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author (WOO)  
393 on request. All relevant data are included within this paper and its additional files.

### 394 **Competing interests**

395 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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#### 406 **Authors' contribution**

407 WOO was responsible for conception, design, collection, drafting and analysis of data. DM was involved in  
408 conception of the study and data collection. AS was involved in conception, design, analysis and drafting the  
409 manuscript. SCW and CW were involved in conception of the study design and revision of the manuscript. EM  
410 was involved in design and drafting of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final version of the  
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417

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**Table 1: Cattle herd composition and production parameters used for the herd model.**

Age, sex, and function	Starting herd composition in %	Mortality in %	Off-take in %	Calving rate in %
Females aged 0 to 1	7.3	25.0	0.0	-
Females aged 1 to 2	5.8	8.0	0.0	-
Females aged 2 to 3	5.5	8.0	5.0	-
Females aged 3 to 4	5.3	8.0	5.0	-
Females aged 4 and over	27	8.5	9.0	50
Males aged 0 to 1	7.5	25.0	0.0	-
Males aged 1 to 2	6.3	8.0	2.0	-
Males aged 2 to 3	6.0	8.0	2.0	-
Males age 3 to 4	0.5	8.0	5.0	-
Males aged 4 and over	0.5	8.5	40.0	-
Work oxen aged 3 to 4	5.0	8.0	0.0	-
Work oxen aged 4 and over	23.5	9.5	13.0	-

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**Table 2: Annual average number of cattle traded per trader (n=197)**

Annual cattle trade season based on time period	Annual number and type of cattle traded per trader (mean and SD)						
	Female calves (0-1 years)	Young females (1-4 years)	Adult females (1-4 years)	Male calves (0-1 years)	Young males (1-4 years)	Adult males	Total number cattle traded
January to March	0.0 (0)	0.5 (0.9)	0.3 (0.9)	0.0 (0)	4.7 (3.1)	1.2 (1.9)	6.7 (3.2)
April to September	0.0 (0)	0.6 (0.9)	0.4 (0.6)	0.0 (0)	1.7 (1.1)	2.0 (1.1)	4.7 (2.1)
October to December	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.3 (0.6)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	7.4 (4.1)	7.7 (4.2)
Total	0.0	1.1	1.0	0.0	6.4	10.6	19.1

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617 **Table 3: Price of cattle in the livestock markets by age and sex**

Type of cattle by age/sex	Mean price bought (95% UI)	Mean price sold (95% UI)	Gross profit (in USD)
Calves in Tororo district	23.5 (18.2-28.5)	37.8 (36.1-39.5)	14.3
Untrained young males destined for draft work bought from farmers in south-east and sold to NGOs in northwest Uganda	71.2 (54.7-89.1)	90.3 (87.4-92.3)	19.1
Trained young draft males bought from NGOs in northwest and sold to farmers in south-east Uganda	101.4 (98.6-104.7)	224.2 (182.7-267.2)	122.8
Young females in Tororo district	48.6 (43.5,53.7)	108.1 (90.7-125)	59.5
Cows in Tororo district	162.1 (144.4-179.0)	207.7 (181.6-232.5)	45.6
Adult males in Tororo district sold for draft or slaughter	269.2 (252.7-286.8)	381.0 (275.8-495.2)	111.8

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619 **Table 4: Projected cattle herd composition for the 6-year period**

Age category (in years)	Eastern Uganda		Northern Uganda	
	Female (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)	Male (%)
0-1	5.3	5.9	6.4	6.9
1-2	4.1	4.6	4.9	5.4
2-3	4.1	4.4	4.8	5.2
3-4	3.7	0.2	4.3	0.2
4+	22.3	0.4*	26.3	0.4*
Draft male 3-4	---	8.5	---	6.7
Draft male 4+	---	36.5	---	28.5
Total	39.5	60.5	46.7	53.3

620 \*Non draft cattle

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622 **Figure 1: Map showing the study area and the rHAT and gHAT foci**



- 623 **Figure 2: Map showing Tororo and Namutumba Districts and where the cattle market data was collected**  
624 **(in red). Water bodies are shown in blue.**
- 625 **Figure 3: Linkages between livestock production, market and spread of rHAT**
- 626 **Figure 4: Cattle traded in Tororo and Namutumba Districts (9-day window)**
- 627 **Figure 5: Simulated number of draft cattle imported over a 6-year period**
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Figure 1

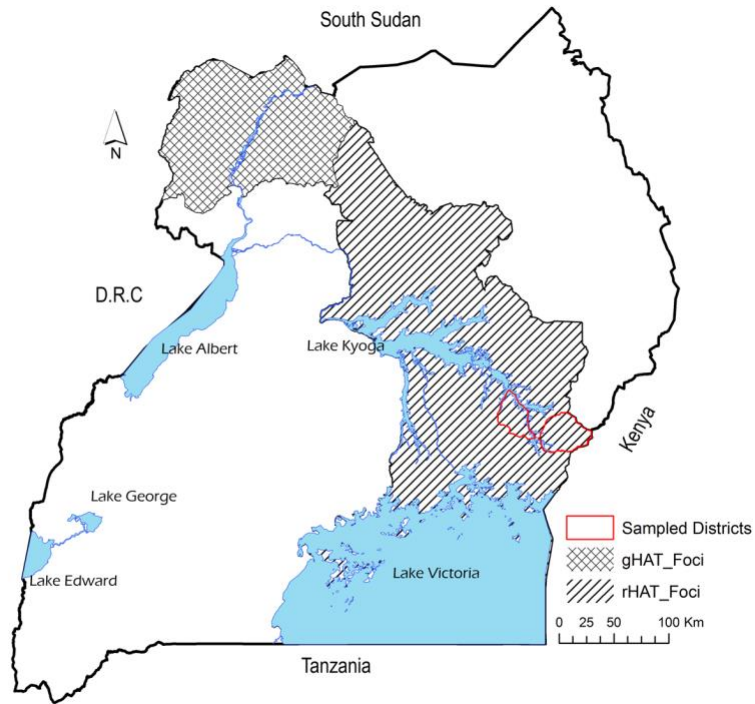


Figure 2

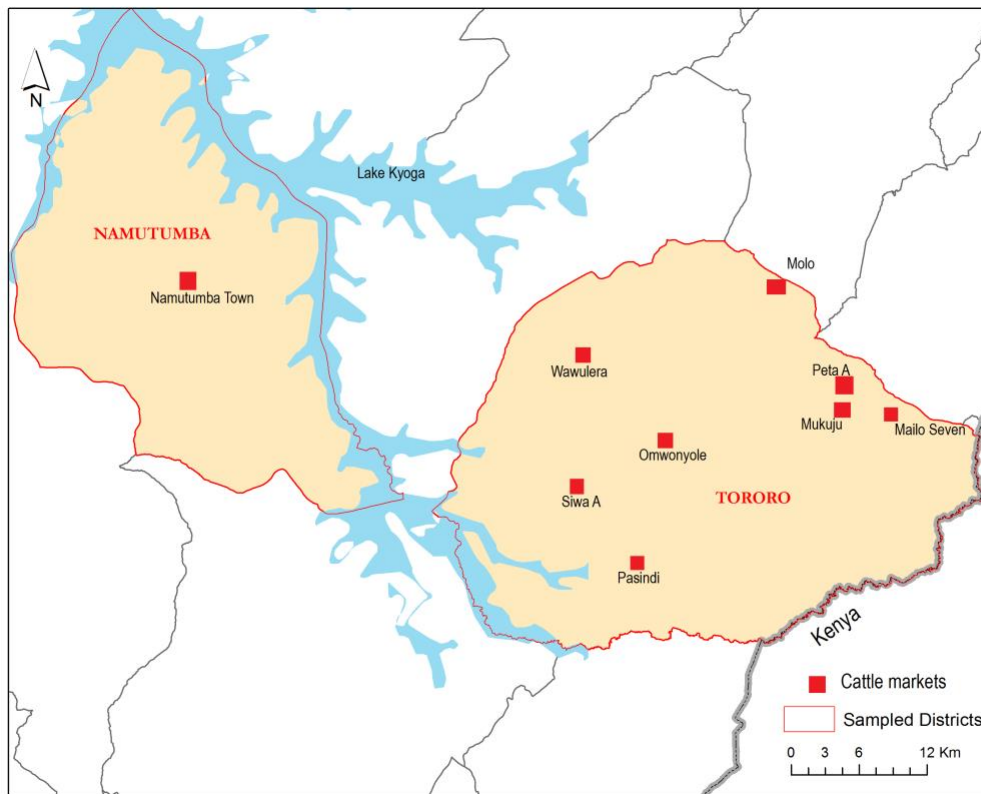


Figure 3

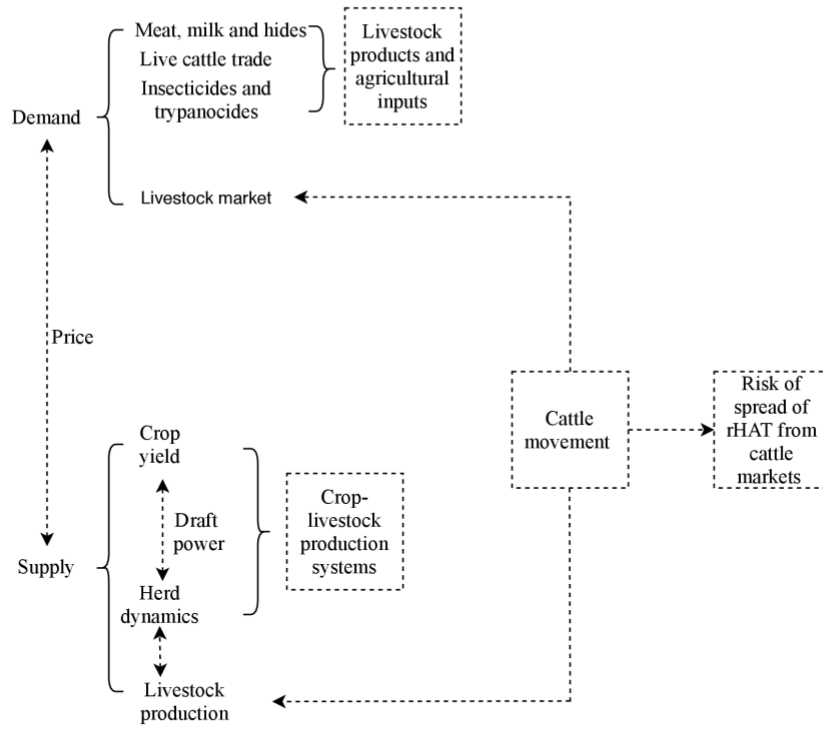


Figure 4

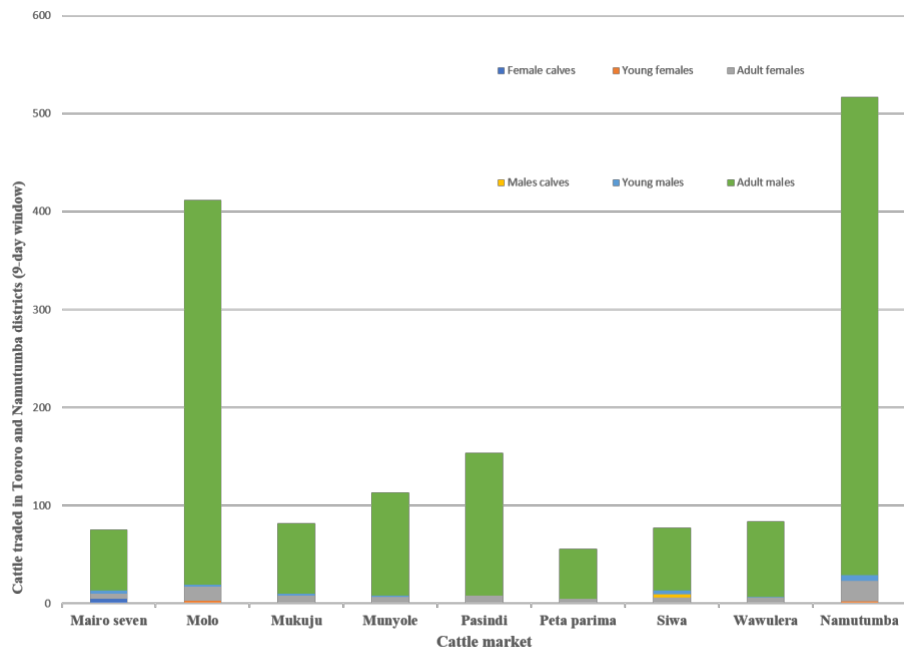


Figure 5

