

Solution of Fractional SIR Epidemic Model Using Residual Power Series Method

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Abstract: The SIR model with unknown parameters is an important issue for scientists in the study of epidemiology and medical care for the injured people. In this work, an efficient technique based on the generalized Taylor series, called the residual power series method, is applied to solve the SIR epidemic model of fractional order. The fractional derivative is described in the Caputo sense. The use of the residual power series method enables us to get an analytic solution of the SIR model in the form of a convergent power series in addition to the approximate solution. To show the efficiency of the proposed technique, we apply it to the fractional SIR model and compare the results with the fourth-order Runge-Kutta method. The numerical and graphical results show that the residual power series method can be considered as an alternative technique for solving many real-life problems involving differential equations of any order.

Keywords: Fractional derivative, Caputo concept, Residual power series method, Fractional SIR epidemic model.

1 Introduction

Building mathematical models for real-world phenomena and developing effective techniques to address them is one of the most critical issues in applied mathematics, physics, engineering, biology, and other fields of science. The spread of infectious diseases and epidemic has always been a threat to public health, which causes serious problems not only for the survival of human beings but also for the economics and the social development of human society. Recently, many diseases and epidemics have emerged and spread in the poor and overcrowded cities, and refugee camps. This alerts to the real danger that should be controlled. Indeed, infectious diseases have had a long history, and great progress has been achieved, especially during the 20th century.

Physicians rely on the field of applied mathematics for studying the development of diseases and epidemics, and how people are affected and treated. In general, dealing with epidemics requires many mathematical stages, including model creation, model analysis, solving differential equations, and statistical analysis. One of the most popular models in mathematical epidemiology is the Kermack-McKendrick Susceptible-Infected-Recovered

(SIR) compartmental epidemic model which was studied by Kermack and McKendrick in 1927 [1,2,3]. In this model, the population is divided into three groups (compartments); a susceptible, labeled $S(t)$, in which all individuals are susceptible if they contact with a disease but are at risk of being infected at time t ; an infected compartment, labeled $I(t)$, in which all individuals are infected by the disease and can transmit it to others at time t ; and a removed compartment, labeled $R(t)$, represent the number of removed or recovered individuals from the disease at time t . The SIR model is described in the following non-linear system of first-order ordinary differential equations:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dS}{dt} = -p_1 S(t)I(t), \\ \frac{dI}{dt} = p_1 S(t)I(t) - p_2 I(t), \\ \frac{dR}{dt} = p_2 I(t), \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

subject to $S(0) = S_0$, $I(0) = I_0$, and $R(0) = R_0$. Here, p_1 and p_2 are positive constants, which are called the infection rate and the removal rate, respectively. Using

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this model, we don't consider a mild, short-lived epidemic, e.g. influenza, in a closed (no immigration or emigration) population. Moreover, given the time scale of influenza epidemics, we will not consider demographic turnover (birth or death), and all infections are assumed to end with recovery. The size of the population ($S + I + R$) is therefore constant and equal to the initial population size. The history and solutions to epidemic models were studied [2, 3, 4, 5].

Due to the importance of the SIR model, many studies have been attempted to solve it and other epidemic models. For example, in [6], the authors solved the SIR model by the homotopy analysis method. Later, in [7], exact solution of the SIR model had been proposed. The homotopy perturbation method and the differential transform method were applied to this model in [8] and [9], respectively. Lyapunov function for a variety of SIR models in epidemiology was constructed in [10].

On the other hand, the last decades witness fundamental developments in the fractional calculus which includes integrals and derivatives of arbitrary order. Many real problems in different areas were translated into mathematical models via fractional differential equations because of the ability of fractional calculus to keep not only the behavior of the original physical system, but also all of their historical states [11, 12, 13, 14]. For example, half-order derivatives and integrals were shown to be more useful in formulation some electrochemical problems than classical ones [15, 16, 17, 18, 19]. A large amount of studies and applications for the fractional calculus in fluid dynamics, viscoelasticity, physics, entropy theory and engineering can be found in [20, 21, 22, 23, 24]. Therefore, most of the differential equations of integer order were generalized to fractional order. The purpose of the present work is to study the solution behavior of the SIR model of fractional order in the following form:

$$\begin{cases} D_0^{\alpha_1} S(t) = -p_1 S(t)I(t), \\ D_0^{\alpha_2} I(t) = p_1 S(t)I(t) - p_2 I(t), \\ D_0^{\alpha_3} R(t) = p_2 I(t), \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

subject to

$$S(0) = S_0, I(0) = I_0, R(0) = R_0, \quad (3)$$

where $D_0^{\alpha_1} S(t)$, $D_0^{\alpha_2} I(t)$ and $D_0^{\alpha_3} R(t)$ are the Caputo derivatives of orders α_1 , α_2 and α_3 for $S(t)$, $I(t)$ and $R(t)$, respectively, and $0 < \alpha_i \leq 1$, $i = 1, 2, 3$.

Unfortunately, there are no methods in literature that produce exact solutions for non-linear differential equations of fractional order. So, many techniques have been developed to obtain approximate solutions. Among the methods that were used to get approximate solutions for the SIR model of fractional order are the homotopy analysis method [25], the homotopy analysis method for

fractional SEIR epidemic model [26] and the multi-step generalized differential transform method [27]. The RPSM was initially developed to get numerical solutions of fuzzy differential equations of fractional order [28]. It provides a power series solution with rapid convergence and can be applied to linear and nonlinear differential equations [29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35].

In this work, we extend the application of the residual power series (RPS) method to approximate the numerical solution of the fractional SIR model as well as we compare the numerical results with the fourth-order Runge-Kutta method. The pattern of this paper is as follows: in the next section, we review some definitions and theorems of fractional calculus and fractional power series. In section 3, the application of the RPS method to the fractional SIR model is discussed. In section 4, the solution for the SIR model is presented in graphs and tables. A short conclusion is presented in section 5.

2 Preliminaries

Many definitions for derivatives of non-integer order can be found in literature, for example, Riemann-Liouville, Riesz, Grünwald-Letnikovand, and Caputo derivatives. Many researchers prefer to use the Caputo definition in modeling real-life problems because in the Caputo sense, the derivative of any constant is zero, and the initial conditions of fractional differential equations take on the classical form, similar to those for integer order. Next, the definition of Caputo derivative is given. For details, see [36, 37, 38]. In this section, we introduce some necessary definitions of fractional calculus.

Definition 2.1. *The Riemann-Liouville fractional integral of order $\alpha > 0$ for a function $f(t)$ is defined by*

$$(J_{a+}^{\alpha} f)(t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_a^t \frac{f(z)}{(t-z)^{1-\alpha}} dz, t > a.$$

For $\alpha = 0$, $(J_{a+}^{\alpha} f)(t)$ is the identity operator. That is, $(J_{a+}^0 f)(t) = f(t)$.

Definition 2.2. *The Caputo fractional derivative of order $\alpha > 0$ is given by*

$$D_a^{\alpha} f(t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(n-\alpha)} \int_a^t \frac{f^{(n)}(z)}{(t-z)^{\alpha-n+1}} dz,$$

$t > a$, $n-1 < \alpha \leq n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

The Caputo's derivative satisfies the following properties: $(J_{a+}^{\alpha} D_{a+}^{\alpha} f)(t) = f(t) - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (t-a)^k$ and $(D_{a+}^{\alpha} J_{a+}^{\alpha} f)(t) = f(t)$. Another important property that gives the derivative of functions of the form $f(t) = (t-a)^{\beta-1}$ is
For α , $\beta > 0$, we have

$(D_{a+}^\alpha (t-a)^{\beta-1})(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\beta-\alpha)}(x-a)^{\beta-\alpha-1}$ for $\beta > n$, and $(D_{a+}^\alpha (t-a)^k)(x) = 0$ for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$.

Next, some definitions and results related to fractional power series in the sense of Caputo derivative are given. For detailed instructions, see [36].

Definition 2.3. A fractional power series (FPS) about $t = t_0$ is defined as

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} c_m (t-t_0)^{m\alpha} = c_0 + c_1(t-t_0)^\alpha + c_2(t-t_0)^{2\alpha} + \dots;$$

$n-1 < \alpha \leq n, n \in \mathbb{N}, t \leq t_0$, where the constants $c_m, m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, are called the coefficients of the power series.

Theorem 2.1. Let f have a FPS representation at $t = t_0$ of the form

$$f(t) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} c_m (t-t_0)^{m\alpha};$$

$t_0 \leq t < t_0 + \rho$. It was found that if $D_{t_0}^{m\alpha} f(t), m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ are continuous on $(t_0, t_0 + \rho)$, then $c_m = \frac{D_{t_0}^{m\alpha} f(t_0)}{\Gamma(1+m\alpha)}$. Where Γ is the gamma function, $D_{t_0}^{m\alpha} = D_{t_0}^\alpha D_{t_0}^\alpha \dots D_{t_0}^\alpha$ (m -times), and ρ is the radius of convergence.

A simple example of the FPS expansion about $t = 0$ is the hyperbolic sine and cosine functions of order α . They are given by the formulas:

$$\sinh(x^\alpha, \alpha) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{(2m+1)\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+(2m+1)\alpha)},$$

and

$$\cosh(x^\alpha, \alpha) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{(2m)\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+(2m)\alpha)},$$

$\alpha > 0, 0 \leq x$.

3 The RPS method for solving the SIR epidemic model of fractional order

To construct a solution for the non-linear fractional SIR model described in system 2 and 3, we do the following steps:

Step1: Suppose that $S(t), I(t)$, and $R(t)$ have the FPS about $t_0 = 0$ as follows:

$$\begin{cases} S(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{\Gamma(1+k\alpha_1)} t^{k\alpha_1}, \\ I(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_k}{\Gamma(1+k\alpha_2)} t^{k\alpha_2}, \\ R(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_k}{\Gamma(1+k\alpha_3)} t^{k\alpha_3}, \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where $0 \leq t < \rho$ for some $\rho > 0$.

Then, we can denote the n -th truncated series of $S(t), I(t)$, and $R(t)$, respectively, by $S_n(t), I_n(t)$, and $R_n(t)$

whose definitions are

$$\begin{cases} S_n(t) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{a_k}{\Gamma(1+k\alpha_1)} t^{k\alpha_1}, \\ I_n(t) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{b_k}{\Gamma(1+k\alpha_2)} t^{k\alpha_2}, \\ R_n(t) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{c_k}{\Gamma(1+k\alpha_3)} t^{k\alpha_3}. \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

For $n = 0$, by using the initial conditions in Eq. (3), we have $S_0(t) = a_0 = S_0(0) = S_0, I_0(t) = b_0 = I_0(0) = I_0$, and $R_0(t) = c_0 = R_0(0) = R_0$. So, the n -th truncated series in Eq. (5) can be written in the form:

$$\begin{cases} S_n(t) = S_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{\Gamma(1+k\alpha_1)} t^{k\alpha_1}, \\ I_n(t) = I_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{b_k}{\Gamma(1+k\alpha_2)} t^{k\alpha_2}, \\ R_n(t) = R_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{c_k}{\Gamma(1+k\alpha_3)} t^{k\alpha_3}. \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

Step2: Define the residual functions for the model in Eq. (2) as:

$$\begin{cases} Res_S(t) = D_0^{\alpha_1} S(t) + p_1 S(t) I(t), \\ Res_I(t) = D_0^{\alpha_2} I(t) - p_1 S(t) I(t) + p_2 I(t), \\ Res_R(t) = D_0^{\alpha_3} R(t) - p_2 I(t). \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Hence, the n -th residual functions of $S(t), I(t)$, and $R(t)$, respectively, are

$$\begin{cases} Res_{S,n}(t) = D_0^{\alpha_1} S_n(t) + p_1 S_n(t) I_n(t), \\ Res_{I,n}(t) = D_0^{\alpha_2} I_n(t) - p_1 S_n(t) I_n(t) + p_2 I_n(t), \\ Res_{R,n}(t) = D_0^{\alpha_3} R_n(t) - p_2 I_n(t). \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

Obviously, $Res_S(t) = Res_I(t) = Res_R(t) = 0$, for all $t \geq 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Res_{S,n}(t) = Res_S(t)$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Res_{I,n}(t) = Res_I(t)$, and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Res_{R,n}(t) = Res_R(t)$. Since the Caputo derivative of any constant is zero, one can deduce that

$D_0^{(k-1)\alpha_1} Res_S(0) = D_0^{(k-1)\alpha_1} Res_{S,k}(0)$,
 $D_0^{(k-1)\alpha_2} Res_I(0) = D_0^{(k-1)\alpha_2} Res_{I,k}(0)$,
 $D_0^{(k-1)\alpha_3} Res_R(0) = D_0^{(k-1)\alpha_3} Res_{R,k}(0)$, for $k = 1, \dots, n$. See [29]. Actually, this idea is the basis of the RPS method as it appears in the following step.

Step3: To obtain the coefficients $a_k, b_k, c_k, k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$, we substitute the n -th truncated series of $S(t), I(t)$, and $R(t)$ into Eq. (8), and then apply the Caputo fractional derivative operators $D_0^{(n-1)\alpha_1}, D_0^{(n-1)\alpha_2}$, and $D_0^{(n-1)\alpha_3}$ on $Res_{S,n}(t), Res_{I,n}(t)$, and $Res_{R,n}(t)$,

respectively. Consequently, we have the equations:

$$\begin{cases} D_0^{(n-1)\alpha_1} Res_{S,n}(0) = 0, \\ D_0^{(n-1)\alpha_2} Res_{I,n}(0) = 0, \\ D_0^{(n-1)\alpha_3} Res_{R,n}(0) = 0, \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$.

Step4: Solve the algebraic system (9) for the values of $a_k, b_k, c_k, k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$ to get the $n - th$ residual power series approximate solution of system (2) and (3).

Step5: We repeat the procedure to obtain sufficient number of coefficients. Higher accuracy for the solution can be achieved by evaluating more terms in the series solution.

4 Application and Numerical Results

In this section, we give numerical results for the solution of the fractional SIR model in Eqs. (2) and (3) to demonstrate the performance and the efficiency of the RPS method in handling such epidemic models. Using our proposed method, we obtain an analytic solution for the SIR model in the form of a rapid convergent series. The approximate solutions are presented in graphics and tabulated values of $S(t), I(t)$ and $R(t)$. We compare the results of the RPS method with the fourth order Runge-Kutta method. The computations are performed using Mathematica10 software package.

Consider the following fractional SIR model:

$$\begin{cases} D_0^\alpha S(t) = -0.001S(t)I(t), \\ D_0^\alpha I(t) = 0.001S(t)I(t) - 0.072I(t), \\ D_0^\alpha R(t) = 0.072I(t), \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

subject to $S(0) = 620, I(0) = 10$ and $R(0) = 70$. Here, α is the order of the fractional derivative described in the Caputo sense where $0 < \alpha \leq 1$.

Following the steps of the RPS method discussed in the previous section, the first truncated power series approximations have the forms

$$S_1(t) = 620 + \frac{a_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)}t^\alpha,$$

$$I_1(t) = 10 + \frac{b_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)}t^\alpha,$$

$$R_1(t) = 70 + \frac{c_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)}t^\alpha.$$

According Eq. (8), the first residual functions of $S(t), I(t)$, and $R(t)$, respectively, are:

$$Res_{S,1}(t) = D_0^\alpha \left(620 + \frac{a_1 t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \right) + 0.001 \left(620 + \frac{a_1 t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \right) \left(10 + \frac{b_1 t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \right) -$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 6.2 + a_1 + \frac{0.01t^\alpha a_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{0.62t^\alpha b_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{0.001t^{2\alpha} a_1 b_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2}, \\ Res_{I,1}(t) &= D_0^\alpha I_n(t) - 0.001 \left(620 + \frac{a_1 t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \right) \left(10 + \frac{b_1 t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \right) + 0.072 \left(10 + \frac{b_1 t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \right) \\ &= -4.464 - \frac{0.0072t^\alpha a_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + b_1 - \frac{0.8928t^\alpha b_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} - \frac{0.00144t^{2\alpha} a_1 b_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2} - \\ &\quad \frac{0.04464t^{2\alpha} b_1^2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2} - \frac{0.000072t^{3\alpha} a_1 b_1^2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^3}, \\ Res_{R,1}(t) &= D_0^\alpha \left(70 + \frac{c_1 t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \right) - 0.072 \left(10 + \frac{b_1 t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} \right) = \\ &= -0.72 - \frac{0.072t^\alpha b_1}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + c_1. \end{aligned}$$

Equating $Res_{S,1}(0), Res_{I,1}(0)$ and $Res_{R,1}(0)$ by zero gives the values of a_1, b_1 , and c_1 . So that

$$S_1(t) = 620 - \frac{6.2t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)},$$

$$I_1(t) = 10 + \frac{4.464t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)},$$

$$R_1(t) = 70 + \frac{0.72t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)}.$$

For $n = 2$, the second truncated power series approximations have the forms

$$S_2(t) = 620 - \frac{6.2t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{a_2 t^{2\alpha}}{2\Gamma(1+\alpha)},$$

$$I_2(t) = 10 + \frac{4.464t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{b_2 t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)},$$

$$R_2(t) = 70 + \frac{0.72t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{c_2 t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)},$$

and the second residual functions are

$$\begin{aligned} Res_{S,2}(t) &= D_0^\alpha \left(620 - \frac{6.2t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{a_2 t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} \right) + \\ &0.001 \left(620 - \frac{6.2t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{a_2 t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} \right) \left(10 + \frac{4.464t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{b_2 t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} \right), \\ Res_{I,2}(t) &= D_0^\alpha I_n(t) - 0.001 \left(620 - \frac{6.2t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{a_2 t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} \right) \left(10 + \frac{4.464t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{b_2 t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} \right) + 0.072 \left(10 + \frac{4.464t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{b_2 t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} \right), \\ Res_{R,2}(t) &= D_0^\alpha \left(70 + \frac{0.72t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{c_2 t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} \right) - 0.072 \left(10 + \frac{4.464t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{b_2 t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Applying the operator D_0^α to $Res_{S,2}(t), Res_{I,2}(t)$, and $Res_{R,2}(t)$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} D_0^\alpha Res_{S,2}(t) &= -\frac{0.0553536t^\alpha \alpha \Gamma(2\alpha)}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^3} + 2.70568 + a_2 + \\ &\frac{0.013392t^{2\alpha} \alpha \Gamma(3\alpha) a_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)\Gamma(1+2\alpha)^2} + \frac{0.01t^\alpha a_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} - \frac{0.0186t^{2\alpha} \alpha \Gamma(3\alpha) b_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)\Gamma(1+2\alpha)^2} + \\ &\frac{0.62t^\alpha b_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{0.004t^{3\alpha} \alpha \Gamma(4\alpha) a_2 b_2}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)^2 \Gamma(1+3\alpha)}, \\ D_0^\alpha Res_{I,2}(t) &= -\frac{1.6994t^\alpha \alpha \Gamma(2\alpha)}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^3} - 3.94082 + \\ &\frac{0.0266866t^{2\alpha} \alpha \Gamma(3\alpha)}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^3 \Gamma(1+2\alpha)} - \frac{0.0192844t^{2\alpha} \alpha \Gamma(3\alpha) a_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)\Gamma(1+2\alpha)^2} - \frac{0.0072t^\alpha a_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} - \\ &\frac{0.00573906t^{3\alpha} \alpha \Gamma(4\alpha) a_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2 \Gamma(1+2\alpha)\Gamma(1+3\alpha)} + \frac{\alpha \Gamma(\alpha) b_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} - \frac{1.168854t^{2\alpha} \alpha \Gamma(3\alpha) b_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)\Gamma(1+2\alpha)^2} - \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{0.8928t^\alpha b_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{0.0159418t^{3\alpha}\alpha\Gamma(4\alpha)b_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+2\alpha)\Gamma(1+3\alpha)} - \frac{0.00576t^{3\alpha}\alpha\Gamma(4\alpha)a_2b_2}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+3\alpha)} - \frac{0.00321408t^{4\alpha}\alpha\Gamma(5\alpha)a_2b_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)\Gamma(1+2\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} - \frac{0.17856t^{3\alpha}\alpha\Gamma(4\alpha)b_2^2}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+3\alpha)} + \frac{0.002232t^{4\alpha}\alpha\Gamma(5\alpha)b_2^2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)\Gamma(1+2\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} - \frac{0.000432t^{5\alpha}\alpha\Gamma(6\alpha)a_2b_2^2}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)^3\Gamma(1+5\alpha)},$$

$$D_0^\alpha Res_{R,2}(t) = -0.321408 - \frac{0.072t^\alpha b_2}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + c_2.$$

Again, using the fact that $D_0^\alpha Res_{S,2}(0) = D_0^\alpha Res_{I,2}(0) = D_0^\alpha Res_{R,2}(0) = 0$, we get the values of a_2, b_2 , and c_2 . Hence,

$$S_2(t) = 620 - \frac{6.2t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} - \frac{2.70568t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)},$$

$$I_2(t) = 10 + \frac{4.464t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{3.9408t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)},$$

$$R_2(t) = 70 + \frac{0.72t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{0.3214t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)}.$$

Continuing this process, we get the fourth approximations:

$$S_4(t) = 620 - \frac{6.2t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} - \frac{2.70568t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} + \frac{(0.027677\Gamma(1+2\alpha) - 2.4162\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2)t^{3\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+3\alpha)} + \left(\frac{0.024161735700197237}{\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} - \frac{1.053639846743295\alpha\Gamma(2\alpha)}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} - \frac{2.169355}{\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} - \frac{2.7676298018377063\Gamma(1+2\alpha)}{10000\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} + \frac{0.03651202749140894\Gamma(1+3\alpha)}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)\Gamma(1+2\alpha)\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} \right) t^{4\alpha},$$

$$I_4(t) = 10 + \frac{4.464t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{3.9408t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} - \frac{t^{3\alpha}\alpha\Gamma(2\alpha)(-1.6994 - \frac{6.9978\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)})}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+3\alpha)} + \left(\frac{4.55405\alpha\Gamma(3\alpha)}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)\Gamma(1+2\alpha)\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} - \frac{0.0267\alpha^3\Gamma(3\alpha)}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^3\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} + \frac{0.0004\alpha^3\Gamma(2\alpha)}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} + \frac{37.48}{12\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} + \frac{1.51723\Gamma(2\alpha)}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} - \frac{0.104}{6\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} \right) t^{4\alpha},$$

$$R_4(t) = 70 + \frac{0.72t^\alpha}{\Gamma(1+\alpha)} + \frac{0.3214t^{2\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+2\alpha)} + \frac{0.28374t^{3\alpha}}{\Gamma(1+3\alpha)} + \frac{3.023\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2 + 0.7341\Gamma(1+\alpha)}{12\Gamma(1+\alpha)^2\Gamma(1+4\alpha)} t^{4\alpha}.$$

In order to show the accuracy of the RPS method for approximating the solution of the SIR model, a numerical comparison between the 15th-RPS solution and the fourth-order Runge-Kutta (4RK) solution for $\alpha = 1$ is given in Tables 1, 2 and 3. It is convenient to have a notation for the error of the approximation. Accordingly, in Table 1, we compute the absolute error $Abs_S(t)$ and the relative error $Rel_S(t)$ for $S(t)$, where the absolute error is defined using the formula $Abs_S(t_i) = |4RKS(t_i) - RPSS(t_i)|$ and the relative error is defined using the formula $Rel_S(t_i) = \left| \frac{RKS(t_i) - RPSS(t_i)}{RKS(t_i)} \right|, i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 10$. Similarly to compute the absolute and relative errors for $I(t)$ and $R(t)$ as in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. From these Tables, it can be seen that the accuracy obtained using the RPS technique is advanced by using only a few approximation terms. Also, it can be observed that the error estimate is more accurate at the beginning of the independent values of the interval $[0, 1]$. In addition, it can be concluded that

higher accuracy can be achieved by evaluating more components of the RPS-solution. Anyhow, the results reported in these tables confirm the effectiveness of the RPS technique.

While Figures 1, 2, and 3 show the behavior of the RPS-solution and 4RK solution at the fractional order $\alpha = 1$, and $n = 15$ with step size $h = 0.5$ over the interval $[0, 1]$. From these graphical results, it is clear that the approximations obtained by the RPS method are very efficient and the efficiency can be achieved using relatively small number of terms; 15 terms in our example. However, the efficiency can be dramatically increased by increasing the number of terms in the power series. These graphs also show that the presented method can predict the behavior of the compartments $S(t), I(t)$ and $R(t)$ accurately for the region under consideration, where the behavior of such approximations are in good agreement with each other.

However, for $\alpha = 1$, the solution of the SIR model can be approximated using the RPS method by these polynomials:

$$S_{15}(t) = 620 - 6.2t - 1.6678t^2 - 0.2870228t^3 - 0.0337364506t^4 - 2.43675566216 \times 10^{-3}t^5 - 2.96979291 \times 10^{-6}t^6 + 2.99448399 \times 10^{-5}t^7 + 5.229584121432554 \times 10^{-6}t^8 + 5.35791399 \times 10^{-7}t^9 + 2.830270564 \times 10^{-8}t^{10} - 1.701299185 \times 10^{-9}t^{11} - 6.43806345 \times 10^{-10}t^{12} - 9.0619602856 \times 10^{-11}t^{13} - 7.767239656 \times 10^{-12}t^{14} - 2.28152532 \times 10^{-13}t^{15},$$

$$I_{15}(t) = 10 + 5.48t + 1.47052t^2 + 0.25173032t^3 + 0.029205t^4 + 0.0020161993t^5 - 2.1224598359888 \times 10^{-5}t^6 - 2.972652977 \times 10^{-5}t^7 - 4.9620454 \times 10^{-6}t^8 - 4.96095036 \times 10^{-7}t^9 - 2.473082137 \times 10^{-8}t^{10} + 1.8631736525 \times 10^{-9}t^{11} + 6.32627306 \times 10^{-10}t^{12} + 8.7115821 \times 10^{-11}t^{13} + 7.31921543 \times 10^{-12}t^{14} + 1.930202976 \times 10^{-13}t^{15},$$

$$R_{15}(t) = 70 + 0.72t + 0.19728t^2 + 0.03529248t^3 + 0.00453114576t^4 + 0.000420556389696t^5 + 2.4194391269568 \times 10^{-5}t^6 - 2.1831015456 \times 10^{-7}t^7 - 2.675387679 \times 10^{-7}t^8 - 3.969636283 \times 10^{-8}t^9 - 3.57188426 \times 10^{-9}t^{10} - 1.61874467179 \times 10^{-10}t^{11} + 1.1179 \times 10^{-11}t^{12} + 3.503782 \times 10^{-12}t^{13} + 4.4802422 \times 10^{-13}t^{14} + 3.5132234 \times 10^{-14}t^{15}.$$

Moreover, to show the effect of the fractional derivative to the SIR model, the graphs of the RPS-approximate solutions of susceptible, infected and recovered population for different values of α such that $\alpha_i = 0.1i, i = 2, 3, \dots, 10$ are established in Figures 4, 5 and 6 with step size $h = 0.2$ over the interval $[0, 1]$. From these graphs, it is obvious that fractional order derivative provides a greater degree of freedom as compared to integer-order derivative. By taking non-integer values of fractional parameter, remarkable responses of the compartments of the proposed model are obtained. However, it is clear that the curves of various compartments $S(t), I(t)$ and $R(t)$ of the fractional SIR

Table 1: Approximate solution of $S(t)$ using RK and RPS methods.

| t_i | 4RK $S(t_i), \alpha = 1$ | RPS $S(t_i), \alpha = 1$ |
|-------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 0 | 620 | 620 |
| 0.1 | 619.3630315796735 | 619.3630315791873 |
| 0.2 | 618.6909370609654 | 618.6909370597241 |
| 0.3 | 617.9818692109469 | 617.9818692025717 |
| 0.4 | 617.2338939798807 | 617.2338939757545 |
| 0.5 | 616.4449876950995 | 616.4449876822653 |
| 0.6 | 615.6130341588159 | 615.6130341421871 |
| 0.7 | 614.7358219653072 | 614.7358219528321 |
| 0.8 | 613.811041871202 | 613.8110418536481 |
| 0.9 | 612.8362842538178 | 612.8362842258337 |
| 1. | 611.809036780519 | 611.8090367600192 |
| t_i | $Abs_S(t_i)$ | $Rel_S(t_i)$ |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.1 | $4.8612492 \times 10^{-10}$ | $7.8487881 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| 0.2 | 1.2413466×10^{-9} | $2.0064082 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| 0.3 | 8.3751956×10^{-9} | $1.3552494 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.4 | 4.1261501×10^{-9} | $6.6849052 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| 0.5 | 1.2834221×10^{-8} | $2.0819734 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.6 | 1.6628860×10^{-8} | $2.7011871 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.7 | 1.2475084×10^{-8} | $2.0293407 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.8 | 1.7553816×10^{-8} | $2.8598078 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.9 | 2.7984129×10^{-8} | $4.5663303 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 1. | 2.0499783×10^{-8} | $3.3506833 \times 10^{-11}$ |

Table 3: Approximate solution of $R(t)$ using RK and RPS methods.

| t_i | 4RK $R(t_i), \alpha = 1$ | RPS $R(t_i), \alpha = 1$ |
|-------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 0 | 70 | 70 |
| 0.1 | 70.07400854976943 | 70.07400854982431 |
| 0.2 | 70.15218092565529 | 70.1521809257962 |
| 0.3 | 70.23474583766449 | 70.23474583876428 |
| 0.4 | 70.32194392063991 | 70.32194392110532 |
| 0.5 | 70.41402827255223 | 70.41402827420283 |
| 0.6 | 70.51126503028927 | 70.51126503242176 |
| 0.7 | 70.6139339415436 | 70.61393394298769 |
| 0.8 | 70.72232895889846 | 70.72232896100263 |
| 0.9 | 70.83675885505782 | 70.83675885863217 |
| 1. | 70.95754784495439 | 70.95754784727708 |
| t_i | $Abs_R(t_i)$ | $Rel_R(t_i)$ |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.1 | $5.48823209 \times 10^{-11}$ | $7.83205101 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| 0.2 | $1.40914835 \times 10^{-10}$ | $2.00870213 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| 0.3 | $1.099792257 \times 10^{-9}$ | $1.56588060 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.4 | $4.654054919 \times 10^{-10}$ | $6.61821141 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| 0.5 | $1.650604986 \times 10^{-9}$ | $2.34414225 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.6 | $2.132495069 \times 10^{-9}$ | $3.02433245 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.7 | $1.444078634 \times 10^{-9}$ | $2.04503354 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.8 | $2.104172836 \times 10^{-9}$ | $2.97525954 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.9 | $3.574342600 \times 10^{-9}$ | $5.04588671 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 1. | $2.322693149 \times 10^{-9}$ | $3.27335600 \times 10^{-11}$ |

Table 2: Approximate solution of $I(t)$ using RK and RPS methods.

| t_i | 4RK $I(t_i), \alpha = 1$ | RPS $I(t_i), \alpha = 1$ |
|-------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 0 | 10 | 10 |
| 0.1 | 10.562959870557034 | 10.56295987098823 |
| 0.2 | 11.156882013379226 | 11.15688201447968 |
| 0.3 | 11.783384951388577 | 11.783384958664044 |
| 0.4 | 12.444162099479442 | 12.444162103140075 |
| 0.5 | 13.140984032348298 | 13.1409840435319 |
| 0.6 | 13.87570081089476 | 13.875700825391162 |
| 0.7 | 14.650244093149224 | 14.650244104180128 |
| 0.8 | 15.466629169899582 | 15.466629185349186 |
| 0.9 | 16.32695689112441 | 16.326956915534016 |
| 1. | 17.23341537452655 | 17.233415392703552 |
| t_i | $Abs_I(t_i)$ | $Rel_I(t_i)$ |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.1 | $4.3119641 \times 10^{-10}$ | $4.0821552 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.2 | $1.10045306 \times 10^{-9}$ | $9.8634463 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| 0.3 | $7.27546734 \times 10^{-9}$ | $6.1743441 \times 10^{-10}$ |
| 0.4 | $3.66063269 \times 10^{-9}$ | $2.9416466 \times 10^{-10}$ |
| 0.5 | $1.11836016 \times 10^{-8}$ | $8.5104750 \times 10^{-10}$ |
| 0.6 | $1.44964023 \times 10^{-8}$ | 1.0447330×10^{-9} |
| 0.7 | $1.10309042 \times 10^{-8}$ | $7.5295020 \times 10^{-10}$ |
| 0.8 | $1.54496043 \times 10^{-8}$ | $9.9889925 \times 10^{-10}$ |
| 0.9 | $2.44096050 \times 10^{-8}$ | $1.49504927 \times 10^{-9}$ |
| 1. | $1.81770012 \times 10^{-8}$ | $1.05475327 \times 10^{-9}$ |

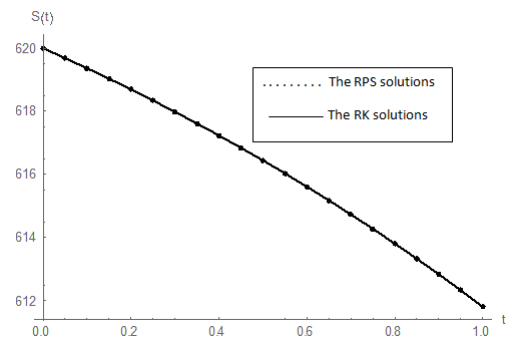


Fig. 1: Comparison between the RK and the RPS solutions of $S(t)$ for $\alpha = 1$.

5 Conclusions

In this work, we have applied the RPS method to solve one of the important epidemic models; the SIR model of fractional order. We have observed that the proposed method yields accurate approximations by comparing its results by those of the fourth order Runge-Kutta method. It has the objective of approximating the solution of any non-linear differential equation by a rapid convergent series. To see the effect of the fractional derivative to the SIR model, we have solved it for different values of α and observed that the curves of the solutions of the fractional SIR approach those of classical SIR models.

model approach those of classical SIR model as the fractional order approaches the integer order.

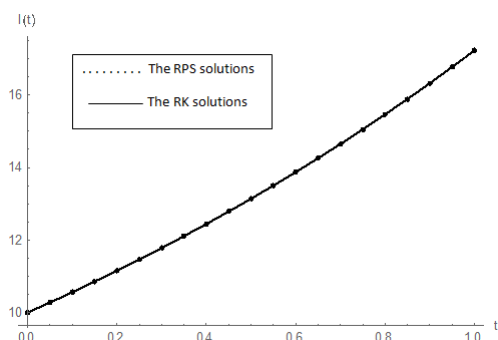


Fig. 2: Comparison between the RK and the RPS solutions of $I(t)$ for $\alpha = 1$.

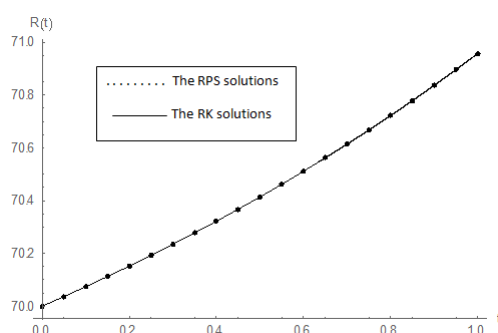


Fig. 3: Comparison between the RK and the RPS solutions of $R(t)$ for $\alpha = 1$.

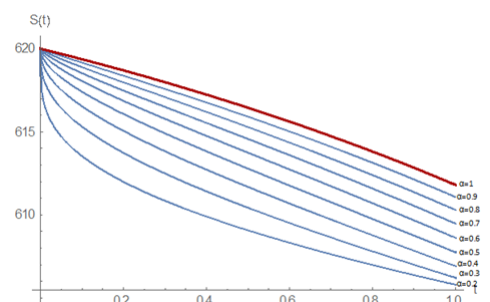


Fig. 4: The RPS solution of $S(t)$ for different values of α .

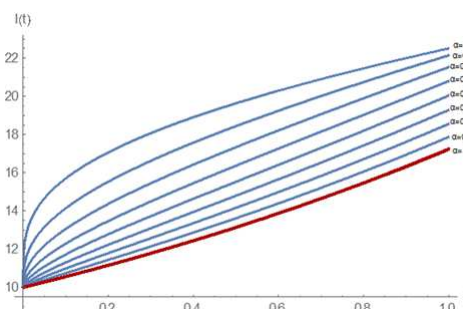


Fig. 5: The RPS solution of $I(t)$ for different values of α .

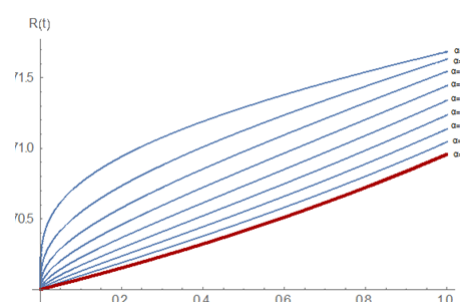


Fig. 6: The RPS solution of $R(t)$ for different values of α .

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