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# On HIV Mathematical Model; Numerical Approaches

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## **ARTICLE INFO**

ABSTRACT

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Drug resistance.

In this article, numerical approaches for a complex order mathematical model for HIV that includes drug resistance across the course of therapy are presented. HIV is a virus that weakens the immune system, making a person more susceptible to infections and diseases. This model consists of five nonlinear complex order differential equations where the derivatives is specified in the sense of Atangana-Baleanu-Caputo. Mittag-Leffler kernels are used in new numerical approaches to simulate complex order systems. These methods are based on Lagrange polynomial interpolation and the fundamental theorem of fractional calculus. For the two-step Lagrange polynomial interpolation, we suggest a straightforward adjustment to the step size to achieve high stability. The stability of the disease free equilibrium point of the proposed model is presented. The complex order HIV model is mathematically studied using two different techniques: the standard and nonstandard Two-step Lagrange interpolation methods, which are suggested. To support the theoretical foundations, comparative investigations and numerical simulations are provided.

### 1. Introduction

HIV is a virus that damages the body's immune system, increasing a person's susceptibility to illnesses and infections. It is transmitted through coming into touch with the bodily fluids of HIV-positive individuals, most frequently during unprotected sexual contact, or by exchanging injectable drug apparatus. HIV cannot be eliminated by the body and there is no effective treatment for it.

Nowadays, mathematical models are widely acknowledged as a trustworthy method for verifying experiments, evaluating hypotheses, and simulating complicated system dynamics.

The history or memory of the variable can be recorded using fractional derivatives, which is a special quality. Additionally, current memory has a stronger impact than earlier history [33]. Using derivatives of integer order is challenging. Since integer order derivative models are less accurate when compared to fractional derivative models when using real data, their usage is warranted for resolving a range of issues. In contrast to fractional and complex order derivatives, integer-order derivatives are unable to account for systems that are affected by inherent qualities of materials and techniques as well as history memories ([3],[38]). Recently, Atangana-Baleanu Caputo (ABC) defined an improved Caputo fractional derivative by substituting a generalised Mittag-Leffler function for the nonlocal kernel and non-singular [14]. These current versions have been utilised in a variety of disciplines to represent real-world applications.

The fractional order derivative and the integer order derivative are recognised as having gained popularity as a result of the complex order derivative when the imaginary part of the complex order equals zero [11]. A unique mathematical model focused on a complex order model was presented by Pinto and Carvalho in [3] for HIV infection with treatment resistance. They came to the realization that the complex order system has a number of benefits, including rich dynamics and the ability to add new information to the modelling work of intracellular delay by changing the complex order derivative value. Additionally, Pinto and Machado suggest the forced van der Pol oscillator in [22] as a complex-order approximation. Also, Sweilam et al. in [39] devised a technique for dealing with the complex order mathematical formula of HIV with treatment resistance over the course of treatment.

This work's main contribution is the development of a productive numerical technique for approximating the

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solutions of the complex order HIV model, which is presented in [3]. When compared to the standard two-step Lagrange interpolation method (S2LIM), the nonstandard two-step Lagrange interpolation method (NS2LIM) performs better [1]. On offer are numerical simulations for the complex order model.

The article is divided into the following sections: In Section 2, the complex order calculus are introduced. The

HIV model is described in section3 in a complex order. In section 4, the stability of the disease free equilibrium point of the proposed model is presented. In section 5 NS2LIM is discussed. The numerical method for the presented utilising NS2LIM is described in section 6. In section 7, numerical simulations are utilised to show the effectiveness and applicability of the NS2LIM. Finally, section 8 contains the conclusions.

## 2 Preliminaries and Notations

The basic definitions of complex order calculus that will be used in this artical are covered in this section.

#### 2.1 Complex Order Calculus

The following is the general form of the complex order ordinary differential equation:

$${}_{0}^{ABC}D_{s}^{z}x(s) = g(s, x(s)), \quad x(0) = x_{0}, \quad z \in \mathbf{C}.$$
(1)

**Definition 2.1** For complex order derivatives of a function g(t), the Caputo formula is as follows  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  [18]:

$${}^{C}_{0} D^{z}_{s} g(s) = \begin{cases} {}^{C}_{0} D^{z-\lceil Re(z) \rceil}_{s} 0 D^{\lceil Re(z) \rceil}_{s} g(s), z \notin \mathbb{N} \text{ and } Re(z) \in \mathbb{R}^{+}, \\ & \frac{d^{z} g(s)}{ds^{z}}, \text{ if } z \in \mathbb{N}, \\ {}^{C}_{0} D^{z-1}_{s} g(s), \text{ if } \Im(z) \neq 0 \text{ and } Re(z) = 0, \\ & \frac{1}{\Gamma(1-z)} \int_{0}^{s} \frac{g'(s)}{(s-r)} dr, \text{ if } Re(z), Im(z) \in \mathbb{R}, \\ & g(s), \text{ if } z = 0, \\ & \int_{0}^{s} \frac{(s-r)^{-z-1}}{\Gamma(-z)} g(r) dr, \text{ if } Re(z) \in \mathbb{R}^{-}. \end{cases}$$

The gamma function appears as follows for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  [7]:

$$\Gamma(z) = (2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-z} z^{\frac{z-1}{2}} [O(\frac{1}{z}) + 1], |z| \to \infty, |arg(z)| < \pi.$$
(3)

**Definition 2.2** For complex order derivatives of a function g(t), the Grünwald-Letinkov formula (GL) is as follows  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ :

$${}_{a}^{GL}D_{s}^{z}g(s) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h^{z}} \sum_{j=0}^{\left[\frac{s-a}{h}\right]} (-1)^{j} {\binom{z}{j}} g(s-jh),$$
(4)

the integer portion of  $\frac{s-a}{h}$  is denoted by  $\left[\frac{s-a}{h}\right]$ , the bounds of operation for  ${}_{a}D_{s}^{z}g(s)$  are a and s, see [18] for more information.

**Definition 2.3** For complex order derivatives of a function g(t), the Atangana-Baleanu complex order derivative (ABC) in the Liouville-Caputo senses is defined as follows [5]:

$${}_{0}^{ABC}D_{s}^{z}g(s) = \frac{B(z)}{2\pi i(1-z)} \int_{0}^{t} E_{z}[-z\frac{(s-r)^{z}}{1-z}]g'(r)dr, \ z \in \mathbb{C},$$
(5)

where Re(z) > 0 and  $B(z) = \frac{z}{\Gamma(z)} - z + 1$ , and  $E_z$  is the Mittag-Leffler function:

$$E_{z}(Y) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{Y^{n}}{\Gamma(zm+1)}, \quad Y, z \in \mathbb{C}.$$

### 3. The Mathematical Model

In the following the complex fractional order HIV model is considered. This model proposed by Pinto and Carvalho in [3] and sweilam et al studied HIV in a complex order in [39]. This model consists of five nonlinear complex fractional order differential equations. The definitions of each variable in the suggested model are listed in table 1. Table2 also introduces the parameters and their interpretation for the suggested model. The target cells Tthat are not infected are listed as follows [4]:

$$G(s) = \begin{cases} G_1(s) = (\lambda - dT) + r(1 - \frac{T}{T_{max}}), \\ G_2(s) = r(1 - \frac{T_r + T + T_s}{T_{max}}) + (\lambda - dT), \\ G_3(s) = (\lambda - dT). \end{cases}$$
(6)

Table 1: Variables in the model [3].

Variable	Definition		
Т	Uninfected $CD4^+T$ populations cells		
$T_s$	drug-sensitive cells with infection		
$T_r$	drug-resistant cells that are infected		
$V_s$	virulent, medication-sensitive pathogens		
$V_r$	viruses that are contagious and resistant to medication		

Following is a description of the complex order model:

$$\frac{1}{2}(D^{e+if} + D^{e-if})T(s) = -((1 - n_{\pi}^{s})k_{s}T(s)V_{s}(s) - k_{r}(n_{\pi}^{r} - 1)T(s)V_{r}(s) - G(T)),$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(D^{e+if} + D^{e-if})T_{s}(s) = -((1 - u)k_{s}(n_{\pi}^{s} - 1)T(s)V_{s}(s) + \delta T_{s}(s)),$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(D^{e+if} + D^{e-if})V_{s}(s) = -(cV_{s}(s) + N_{s}\delta(n_{p}^{s} - 1)T_{s}(s)),$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(D^{e+if} + D^{e-if})T_{r}(s) = -(\delta T_{r}(s) + uk_{s}(n_{\pi}^{s} + 1)T(s)V_{s}(s) + k_{r}(n_{\pi}^{r} - 1)T(s)V_{r}(s)),$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(D^{e+if} + D^{e-if})V_{r}(s) = -(N_{r}\delta(n_{p}^{r} + 1)T_{r}(s) + cV_{r}(s)).$$
(7)

Table 2: Parameters in the model [3]

Parameter	Value	Definition
λ	75	the frequency of T cell synthesis.
$\delta$	1	Infected cell death.
$T_{max}$	1500	carrying capacity of $T$ .
r	0.03	The $T$ gene's rate of proliferation.
$k_s$	$2.4 \times 10^{-6}$	The percentage of $V_s$ infections.
$n_p^s$	0.1	Wildtype strain's PI effectiveness.
k <sub>r</sub>	$2 \times 10^{-6}$	The percentage of $V_r$ infections .
$n_{rt}^s$	0.4	RTI's rate effectiveness for wild type.
U	$3 \times 10^{-5}$	Proliferation of the T virus (without the virus or infected T cells).
d	0.1	The fatality rate of $T$ .
С	23	viral clearance rates, in percentage terms.
$N_s$	4800	Drug-sensitive strain bursting sizes.
$N_r$	4000	Drug-resistant strain bursting sizes.
$n_{rt}^r$	0.2	RTI's rate effectiveness for mutants.
$n_p^r$	0.1	PI's effectiveness in treating mutations.

## 4 Stability of the Disease-Free Equilibrium Point

According to [3], more information on how to compute the disease-free equilibrium point can be found. The absence of all diseases is referred to as the diseasefree equilibrium. In the following the free Equilibrium point is locally asymptotically stable [39]. In equation(7) we put

$$\begin{split} &\frac{1}{2} \left( {}^{ABC}_{0} D^{e+if} + {}^{ABC}_{0} D^{e-if} \right) T(s) = 0, \\ &\frac{1}{2} \left( {}^{ABC}_{0} D^{e+if} + {}^{ABC}_{0} D^{e-if} \right) T_{s}(s) = 0, \\ &\frac{1}{2} \left( {}^{ABC}_{0} D^{e+if} + {}^{ABC}_{0} D^{e-if} \right) V_{s}(s) = 0, \\ &\frac{1}{2} \left( {}^{ABC}_{0} D^{e+if} + {}^{ABC}_{0} D^{e-if} \right) T_{r}(s) = 0, \\ &\frac{1}{2} \left( {}^{ABC}_{0} D^{e+if} + {}^{ABC}_{0} D^{e-if} \right) V_{r}(s) = 0, \end{split}$$

and  $T_r = 0$  then we solve the obtained algebraic system to have the disease-free equilibrium point  $\xi_1$  of HIV model (7) as follows:

$$\mathcal{S}_1 = (\frac{r+\lambda}{\frac{r}{T_{max}}+d}, 0, 0, 0, 0).$$

Evaluation of the Jacobian matrix at the free equilibrium point in [39] then the characteristic equation is given as follows:

$$D^{5} + 53.1D^{4} + 820.2138D^{3} + 3101.6195D^{2} + 4381.3044D + 2082.0898 = 0.$$
 (8)

Then the eigenvalues are given by,

$$D_1 = -0.0500, \quad D_2 = -11.5973, \quad D_3 = -0.4027, \quad D_4 = -11.6051,$$
  
 $D_5 = -0.3949.$ 

Therefore, when  $D_1$ ,  $D_2$ ,  $D_3$ ,  $D_4$  and  $D_5 \leq 0$ , the model's free equilibrium point is asymptotically stable. If all the eigenvalues  $D_i$  of the Jacobian matrix  $J = \frac{\partial g}{\partial t}$  which calculated at the equilibrium point are satisfy  $|arg(D_i)| > \frac{|e \pm if| \pi}{2}$ , and  $0 < |e \pm if| \leq 1$  Consequently, the equilibrium point is asymptotically stable locally.

#### 5. Numerical Technique

In numerical analysis, Lagrange polynomials are applied for polynomial interpolation. For a specified collection of points  $(x_i, y_i)$  with no two  $x_i$  values equal, the Lagrange polynomial is the polynomial of lowest degree that assumes at each value  $x_i$  the

corresponding value  $y_i$ , so that the functions match at each point. The following are the procedure's headlines:

The initial value problem is [1]:

$$\int_{0}^{ABC} D_{t}^{z} x(s) = g(s, x(s)), \quad Re(z) > 0, \quad z \in \mathbb{C}, \ 0 < s \le T,$$

$$x(0) = x_{0}.$$
(9)

Because of fractional calculus's fundamental theorem with (5), we have

$$x(s) - x(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left( \frac{1 - z}{B(z)} g(s, x(s)) + \frac{z}{B(z) + \Gamma(z)} \int_0^s g(\theta, x(\theta)) (s - \theta)^{z - 1} d\theta \right).$$
(10)

At  $S_{m+1}$ , we have

$$x(s_{m+1}) - x(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left( \frac{\Gamma(z)(1-z)}{z + \Gamma(z)(1-z)} g(s_m, x(s_m)) + \frac{z}{\Gamma(z) + z(1-\Gamma(z))} \right)$$
$$\times \sum_{j=0}^{m} \int_{s_n}^{s_{j+1}} g(\theta, x(\theta))(s_{m+1} - \theta)^{z-1} d\theta.$$
(11)

Using the two-step Lagrange polynomial

$$P_{k}(\theta); \frac{g(s_{j}, x_{j})}{h}(\theta - s_{j-1}) - \frac{g(s_{j-1}, x_{j-1})}{h}(\theta - s_{j}).$$
(12)

When we insert Eq.(12) into (11) and follow the same steps as in [9] we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{m+1}(s) &= x(0) + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left( \frac{(1-z)\Gamma(z)}{z+\Gamma(z)(1-z)} g(s_m, x(s_m)) + \frac{1}{(z+1)(1-z)\Gamma(z)+z} \right) \\ &\times \sum_{j=0}^{m} (h^z g(s_j, x_j))((m+1-j)^z (m-j+2+z) - (m-j)^z (m-h) \\ &+ 2+2z)) - h^z g(s_{j-1}, x_{j-1})((1+m-j)^{z+1} - (m-j)^z \\ &\times (1-j+m+z))). \end{aligned}$$
(13)

We employed a simple modulation in (13) to get good stability [31]. Changing the step size h is the purpose of this modulation to  $\phi(h)$  as a result  $\phi(h) = h + O(h^2)$ ,  $0 < \phi(h) \le 1$ . For more details see ([25],[26], [28], [29], [30]).

Below is an illustration of the non-standard two-step Lagrange interpolation method (NS2LIM):

$$x_{m+1}(s) = x(0) + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left( \frac{\Gamma(z)(1-z)}{z+\Gamma(z)(1-z)} g(s_m, x(s_m)) + \frac{1}{z+(z+1)(1-z)\Gamma(z)} \right)$$

$$\times \sum_{j=0}^{m} (\phi(h)^z g(s_j, x_j))((m+1-j)^z (m-j+2+z) - (m-j)^z (m-j+2+2z)) - \phi(h)^z g(s_{j-1}, x_{j-1})((1+m-j)^{z+1} - (m-h)^z)$$

$$\times (1-j+m+z)))).$$
(14)

## **6 Numerical Scheme**

The system (7) is represented numerically as follows using the NS2LIM (14):

where

$$g_{k} = g(s, T, T_{s}, V_{s}, T_{r}, V_{r}),$$
$$g_{k}^{j} \coloneqq g(s, T^{j}, T_{s}^{j}, V_{s}^{j}, T_{r}^{j}, V_{r}^{j}),$$
$$g_{k}^{m} \coloneqq g(s, T^{m}, T_{s}^{m}, V_{s}^{m}, T_{r}^{m}, V_{r}^{m}),$$

$$g_{k}^{*} = g^{*}(s, T, T_{s}, V_{s}, T_{r}, V_{r}),$$

$$g_{k}^{*^{m}} \coloneqq g^{*}(s, T^{m}, T_{s}^{m}, V_{s}^{m}, T_{r}^{m}, V_{r}^{m}),$$

$$g_{k}^{*^{j}} \coloneqq g^{*}(s, T^{j}, T_{s}^{j}, V_{s}^{j}, T_{r}^{j}, V_{r}^{j}),$$

$$k = 1, \dots, 5.$$

$$T_{m+1}(s) = T(0) + \frac{1}{4\pi i} * \left(\frac{\Gamma(e+if)(1-(e+if))}{\Gamma(e+if)(1-(e+if)) + (e+if)}g_1^m + \frac{1}{4\pi i}\right)$$

$$\begin{split} &\frac{2}{(e+if)+(1-(e+if))((e+if)+1)\Gamma(e+if)}\sum_{j=0}^{m}(g_{1}^{j}\phi(h)^{e+if}\left((1+m-j)^{e+if}\right) \\ &\times(m+2-j+(e+if))-(m+2-j+2(e+if))(m-j)^{e+if}\right)-\phi(h)^{e+if} \\ &\times g_{1}^{j-1}((1+m-j)^{(e+if)+1}-(1-j+m+(e+if))(m-j)^{(e+if)})))+\\ &(\frac{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))}{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))+(e-if)}g_{1}^{*^{m}}+\frac{1}{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))((e-if)+1)+(e-if)} \\ &\times\sum_{j=0}^{m}(\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{1}^{*^{j}}\phi(h)^{e-if}((1+m-j)^{e-if}(2+m-j+(e-if))-(m-j)^{e-if}(m-j+2) \\ &+2(e-if)))-\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{1}^{*^{j-1}}((1+m-j)^{(e-if)+1}-(1-j+m+(e-if))(m-j)^{(e-if)})))*(1/4\pi i). \\ T_{s_{m+1}}(s) &= T_{s}(0)+\frac{1}{4\pi i}*(\frac{\Gamma(e+if)(1-(e+if))}{\Gamma(e+if)(1-(e+if))}g_{2}^{m}+\frac{2}{(e+if)+(1-(e+if))((e+if)+1)\Gamma(e+if)}\sum_{j=0}^{m}(g_{2}^{j}\phi(h)^{e+if}((1+m-j)^{e+if}) \\ &\times(m+2-j+(e+if))-(m+2-j+2(e+if))(m-j)^{(e+if)})-\phi(h)^{e+if} \\ &\times g_{2}^{j-1}((1+m-j)^{(e+if)+1}-(1-m+1+(e+if))(m-j)^{(e+if)})))+ \\ &(\frac{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))}{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))}g_{2}^{m}+\frac{1}{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))((e-if)+1)+(e-if)} \\ &\times\sum_{j=0}^{m}(\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{2}^{*^{j}}\phi(h)^{e-if}((1+m-j)^{e-if}(2+m-j+(e-if))-(m-j)^{e-if}(m-j+2) \\ &+2(e-if)))-\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{2}^{*^{j-1}}((1+m-j)^{(e-if)+1}-(1-j+m+(e-if))(m-j)^{(e-if)}))))*(1/4\pi i). \end{split}$$

$$V_{s_{m+1}}(s) = V_s(0) + \frac{1}{4\pi i} * \left(\frac{\Gamma(e+if)(1-(e+if))}{\Gamma(e+if)(1-(e+if)) + (e+if)}g_3^m + \frac{1}{4\pi i}\right)$$

$$\begin{split} &\frac{2}{(e+if)+(1-(e+if))((e+if)+1)\Gamma(e+if)}\sum_{j=0}^{m}(g_{3}^{j}\phi(h)^{e+if}((1+m-j)^{e+if} \\ &\times(m+2-j+(e+if))-(m+2-j+2(e+if))(m-j)^{e+if})-\phi(h)^{e+if} \\ &\times g_{3}^{j-1}((1+m-j)^{(e+if)+1}-(1-j+m+(e+if))(m-j)^{(e+if)})))+\\ &(\frac{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))}{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))+(e-if)}g_{3}^{e^{m}}+\frac{1}{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))((e-if)+1)+(e-if)} \\ &\times\sum_{j=0}^{m}(\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{3}^{e^{j}}\phi(h)^{e-if}((1+m-j)^{e-if}(2+m-j+(e-if))-(m-j)^{e-if}(m-j+2) \\ &+2(e-if)))-\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{3}^{e^{j}-1}((1+m-j)^{(e-if)+1}-(1-j+m+(e-if))(m-j)^{(e-if)})))^{*}(1/4\pi i). \\ &T_{r_{m+1}}(s) = T_{r}(0) + \frac{1}{4\pi i} * (\frac{\Gamma(e+if)(1-(e+if))}{\Gamma(e+if)(1-(e+if))+(e+if)}g_{4}^{m} + \frac{2}{(e+if)+(1-(e+if))((e+if)+1)\Gamma(e+if)}\sum_{j=0}^{m}(g_{4}^{j}\phi(h)^{e+if}((1+m-j)^{e+if}) \\ &\times(m+2-j+(e+if))-(m+2-j+2(e+if))(m-j)^{e+if})-\phi(h)^{e+if} \\ &\times g_{4}^{j-1}((1+m-j)^{(e+if)+1}-(1-j+m+(e+if))(m-j)^{(e+if)}))) + \\ &(\frac{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))}{(1-(e-if))+(e-if)}g_{4}^{e^{m}} + \frac{1}{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))((e-if)+1)+(e-if)} \\ &\times\sum_{j=0}^{m}(\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{4}^{e^{j}}\phi(h)^{e-if}((1+m-j)^{e-if}(2+m-j+(e-if))-(m-j)^{(e-if)}))) \\ &\times \sum_{j=0}^{m}(\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{4}^{e^{j}}\phi(h)^{e-if}((1+m-j)^{e-if}) + \frac{1}{4\pi i} (\frac{\Gamma(e+if)(1-(e+if))}{\Gamma(e+if)(1-(e+if))((e-if)+1)+(e-if)} \\ &\times \sum_{j=0}^{m}(\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{4}^{e^{j}}\phi(h)^{e-if}((1+m-j)^{e-if}(2+m-j+(e-if))-(m-j)^{(e-if)}))) \\ &\times \sum_{j=0}^{m}(\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{4}^{e^{j-if}}((1+m-j)^{(e-if)+1}-(1-j+m+(e-if))(m-j)^{(e-if)}))) \\ &\times \sum_{j=0}^{m}(\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{4}^{e^{j-if}}((1+m-j)^{(e-if)+1}-(1-j+m+(e-if)))) \\ &\times \sum_{j=0}^{m}(\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{4}^{e^{j-if}}((1+m-j)^{(e-if)+1})) \\ &\times \sum_{j=0}^{m}(\phi(h)^{e-if}g_$$

$$(\frac{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))}{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if)) + (e-if)}g_{5}^{*^{m}} + \frac{1}{\Gamma(e-if)(1-(e-if))((e-if)+1) + (e-if)} \times \sum_{j=0}^{m} (\phi(h)^{e-if}g_{5}^{*^{j}}\phi(h)^{e-if}((1+m-j)^{e-if}(2+m-j+(e-if)) - (m-j)^{e-if}(m-j+2) + 2(e-if))) - \phi(h)^{e-if}g_{5}^{*^{j-1}}((1+m-j)^{(e-if)+1} - (1-j+m+(e-if))(m-j)^{(e-if)}))) * (1/4\pi i).$$

#### 7 Numerical Results

Following are presented numerical simulations of the complex HIV model. The initial conditions are T = 1000,  $T_s = 1$ ,  $V_s = 0.01$ ,  $T_r = 0.01$ ,  $V_r = 0.01$ . Table 3 details how the numerical algorithms NS2LIM, S2LIM, and Ode45 behave in terms of convergence when e = 1 and f = 0. The CPU time shows in Table 4 when e = 0.9 and f = 0.2. Figure 1, displays how the behaviour of Infected  $CD4^+T$ drug-sensitive cells and Infected  $CD4^+T$  drug-resistant  $k_{s} = 2.4 * 10^{-5}$ , at 1 + 0i, 1 + 0.21icells with  $k_r = 2*10^{-5}$  and rate of growth  $G_1$  using NS2LIM. Figure 2, represented how the behaviour of Uninfected  $CD4^+T$ populations cells at different values  $u \pm v$  with  $k_s = 2.4 * 10^{-5}$ ,  $k_r = 2 * 10^{-5}$  and rate of growth  $G_1$  using

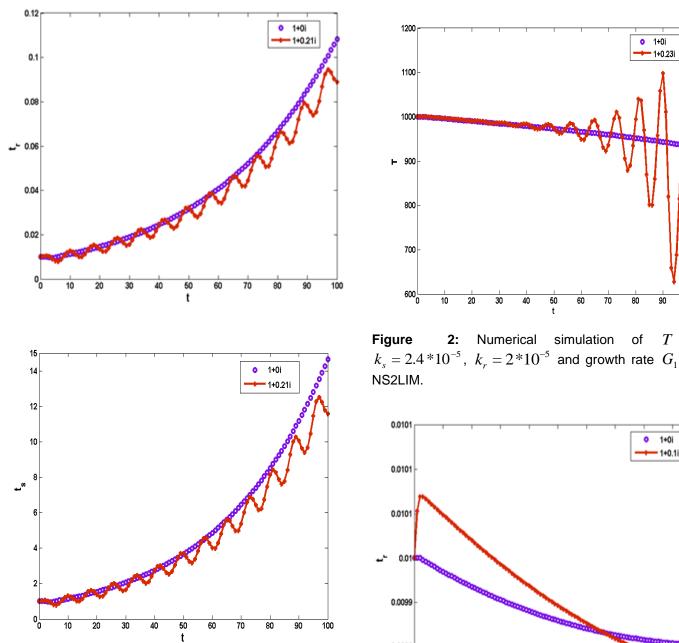
NS2LIM. Figure 3, portrays the behaviour of Infected  $CD4^+T$  drug-sensitive cells and Infected  $CD4^+T$  drug-resistant cells at at different values  $u \pm v$  with  $k_s = 2.4 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $k_r = 2 \times 10^{-5}$  and rate of growth  $G_1$  using NS2LIM. Figure 4, displays the behaviour of Infectious viruses of drug-resistant and Infectious viruses of drug-sensitive at different values of  $u \pm v$  with  $k_s = 2.4 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $k_r = 2^*10^{-5}$ ,  $u = 3^*10^{-8}$  and rate of growth  $G_1$  using NS2LIM. Figure 5, displays the behaviour of Uninfected  $CD4^+T$  populations cells at different values  $u \pm v$  with  $k_s = 2.4 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $k_r = 2^*10^{-5}$ ,  $u = 3^*10^{-8}$  and rate of growth  $G_1$  using NS2LIM. Figure 5, displays the behaviour of Uninfected  $CD4^+T$  populations cells at different values  $u \pm v$  with  $k_s = 2.4 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $k_r = 2^*10^{-5}$ ,  $u = 3^*10^{-8}$  and rate of growth  $G_2$  using NS2LIM.

**Table 3:** Comparisons between NS2LIM, S2LIM, Ode45 and  $s_{final} = 1000$  at different various of h, e = 1, f = 0.

h	NS2LIM	S2LIM	Ode45
0.2	Convergent	Convergent	Convergent
3	Convergent	Convergent	Convergent
6	Convergent	Divergent	Divergent
20	Convergent	Divergent	Divergent
30	Convergent	Divergent	Divergent
50	Convergent	Divergent	Divergent

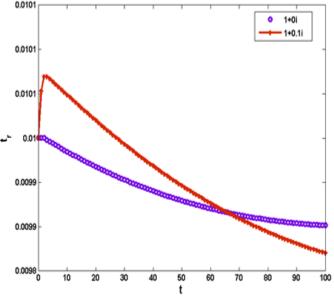
**Table 4:** The CPU time when e = 0.8, f = 0.25.

$t_{final}$	NS2LIM CPU time	S2LIM CPU time
200	0.3758 sec	1.4714 sec
900	0.42154 sec	2.562173 sec
3000	0.56262 sec	4.623946 sec
6000	0.536201 sec	22.432765 sec

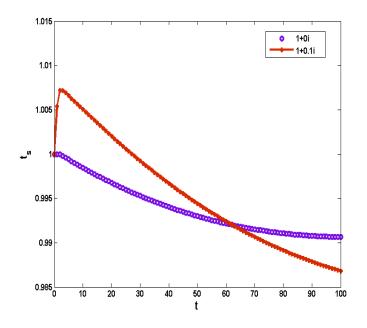


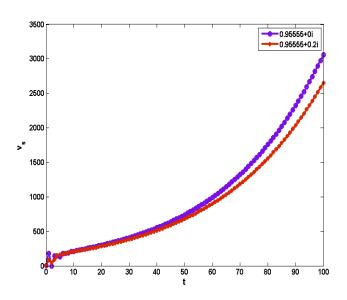
**Figure 1:** Numerical simulation of  $t_r$  and  $t_s$  with  $k_{s}=2.4*10^{-5},\ k_{r}=2*10^{-5}$  and growth rate  $G_{1}$ using NS2LIM.

Figure 2: Numerical simulation of T with  $k_s = 2.4 * 10^{-5}$ ,  $k_r = 2 * 10^{-5}$  and growth rate  $G_1$  using



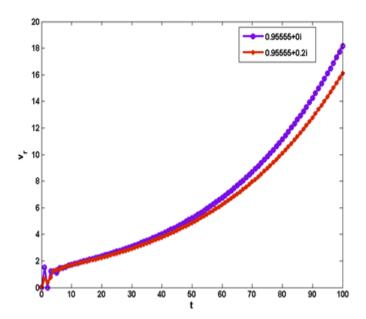
100





**Figure 3:** Numerical simulation of  $t_r$ ,  $t_s$  with  $k_s = 2.4 * 10^{-5}$ ,  $k_r = 2 * 10^{-5}$  and growth rate  $G_1$  using NS2LIM.

Figure 4: Numerical simulation of  $V_r$  and  $V_s$  with  $k_s = 2.4 * 10^{-5}$ ,  $k_r = 2 * 10^{-5}$ ,  $u = 3 * 10^{-8}$  and growth rate  $G_1$  using NS2LIM.



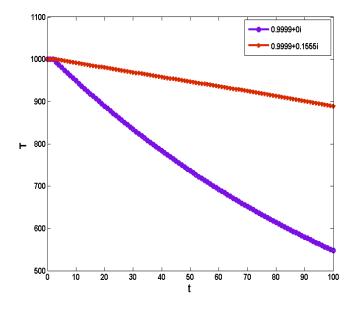


Figure 5: Numerical simulation of T with  $k_s = 2.4 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $k_r = 2 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $u = 3 \times 10^{-8}$  and growth rate  $G_2$  using NS2LIM.

### 8 Conclusions

The mathematical model for HIV complex order is discussed in this article. It is easier to depict biological processes with memory using this dynamical model. The complex-order system also exhibits a diverse range of dynamics for the complex-order derivative value. An interpolation technique based on Lagrange polynomials is employed to obtain numerical solutions for a complex order HIV model with Mittag-Leffler kernels. The approach is precise, effective, and straightforward.

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