

Ground-source pump system for heating and cooling: Review and thermodynamic approach

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Communication

On the Computation of Square Roots and Inverse Square Roots of Gram Matrices for Surface Integral Equations in Electromagnetics

Rui Chen¹, Adrien Merlini², and Francesco P. Andriulli³

Abstract—Surface integral equations (SIEs) are widely used for modeling electromagnetic scattering problems. However, after their discretization via the boundary element method (BEM), the spectra and eigenvectors of resulting matrices are not usually representative of those of underlying surface integral operators, which can be problematic for methods that rely heavily on spectral properties. To address this issue, the spectrum of the integral operators can be recovered, while preserving symmetry, using square roots and inverse square roots of Gram matrices. In this work, several algorithms are delineated for the computation of square roots and inverse square roots of several relevant Gram matrices. The algorithms we detail rely on properly chosen polynomial expansions of the scalar square root and inverse square root functions and the theory of matrix functions. Tables containing different sets of expansion coefficients are provided along with comparative numerical experiments that evidence the advantages and disadvantages of the different approaches. In addition, the use of the proposed techniques as a tool for the recovery of the spectrum of integral operators is illustrated in the case of a spherical geometry for which the analytic spectrum is known.

Index Terms—Gram matrix, matrix function, polynomial expansion, spectral analysis, surface integral equation (SIE).

I. INTRODUCTION

The boundary element method (BEM) is widely used for analyzing electromagnetic scattering from perfectly electrically conducting

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(PEC) objects. For such scatterers, the BEM is typically used to discretize surface integral equations (SIEs), such as the electric field integral equation (EFIE), the magnetic field integral equation, and their linear combinations. Different from differential equation (DE)-based methods, the BEM does not require the use of artificial absorbing boundary conditions for truncating the physical domain into a finite computational domain. Moreover, the BEM requires only the surface of the scatterer to be discretized, using boundary elements, which results in comparatively fewer unknowns compared to the DE-based methods [1].

To numerically solve SIEs, surface integral operators are discretized by expanding the surface current with basis functions and testing the resulting equation, which yields a matrix system. Then, direct solvers or iterative solvers coupled with fast matrix-vector product algorithms are used to solve the system for the current expansion coefficients.

However, the spectrum and eigenvectors of the resulting boundary element matrices are not usually representative of those of the underlying surface integral operators. It is partly because, in general, the boundary elements do not form an orthonormal basis of the spaces they span and the operators’ eigenvalues can be recovered through a generalized eigenvalue problem [2]. While it is not necessarily problematic for standard solution strategies, some numerical methods rely on delicate spectral manipulations that necessitate the correspondence between the spectra of the operator to be discretized and that of the corresponding boundary element matrix [3]. To solve this issue, one could use orthonormal basis functions, but they are often impractical.

Other approaches leveraging the Gram matrices [4] of the bases used in the discretization of the integral operators have been proposed. For instance, when the symmetry of the original problem does not need to be maintained, the multiplication by the inverse of the Gram matrices [5] can be used to reconstruct the operator spectrum. Instead, when the symmetry must be preserved, an a posteriori orthonormalization of the bases using square roots and inverse square roots of these Gram matrices—as delineated, for instance, in [3] and references therein—can be used. To compute the square roots and inverse square roots of the Gram matrices, the singular value decomposition (SVD) [4] could be used. However, because of its prohibitive computational cost, SVD quickly becomes impractical for large problems. Alternatively, several algorithms have been presented to compute these matrices—such as the Schur method [6], the Newton method [7], or the matrix sign function [8] to name a few—and their theory is well-established. Nonetheless, the application of these schemes to the variety of the Gram matrices appearing in the integral equations-relevant scenarios is not trivial. A specific set of approaches must be selected among many and the associated parameters need to be optimized to avoid instability issues [7] and ensure a computational complexity compatible with traditional fast solution and iterative eigenproblem methods [9].

In this work, several strategies inherited from scalar polynomial expansion approaches are delineated and tailored for the evaluation of the square roots and inverse square roots of several of the most relevant Gram matrices for SIEs in electromagnetics. To numerically compute these matrices suitably chosen polynomial expansions of

the scalar square root and inverse square root functions are used in conjunction with the theory of matrix functions [10]. Note that the techniques delineated here could also be used in applications beyond electromagnetics in which Gram matrices are useful, for instance, in quantum mechanics and quantum theory [11]. Tables containing expansion coefficients are provided along with numerical experiments that illustrate the merits and the shortcomings of the different approaches along with a thorough performance analysis. To demonstrate the applicability of the proposed techniques, numerical examples showing how the spectrum of the integral operators can be recovered from a standard boundary element matrix are presented for the scattering from a PEC sphere for which the analytic spectrum is known. A preliminary version of this communication with limited implementation details was presented in [12].

II. BACKGROUND

Let S denote the surface of a PEC scatterer residing in an unbounded homogeneous background medium with permittivity ε and permeability μ . The PEC scatterer is excited by an electromagnetic wave with the incident electric field $\mathbf{E}^{\text{inc}}(\mathbf{r})$. Upon excitation, the surface current $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r})$ induced on S generates the scattered electric field $\mathbf{E}^{\text{sca}}(\mathbf{r})$ in the background medium. The total electric field $\mathbf{E}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{E}^{\text{inc}}(\mathbf{r}) + \mathbf{E}^{\text{sca}}(\mathbf{r})$ satisfies the boundary condition $\hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{E}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}) = 0$ for $\mathbf{r} \in S$ from which EFIE is expressed as

$$-\hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{E}^{\text{inc}}(\mathbf{r}) = \mathcal{T}[\mathbf{J}](\mathbf{r}) = \hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}) \times \left\{ -j\omega\mu \int_S g(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}') ds' - \frac{j}{\omega\varepsilon} \nabla \int_S g(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \nabla'_s \cdot \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}') ds' \right\}. \quad (1)$$

Here, $\hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r})$ is the outward pointing unit normal vector, $g(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') = e^{-jkR}/(4\pi R)$ is the Green function, $k = \omega\sqrt{\mu\varepsilon}$ is the wavenumber, and $R = |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|$ represents the distance between the field and source points. Note that, the time-harmonic factor $e^{j\omega t}$ is assumed and suppressed throughout this work.

To numerically solve (1) for $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r})$, S is meshed using triangular patches. Then, $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r})$ is expanded using Rao-Wilton-Glisson (RWG) basis functions [13] as $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N_E} \{\mathbf{j}\}_n \mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r})$. Here, N_E denotes the number of edges of the mesh, \mathbf{j} is the vector containing the N_E expansion coefficients to be solved for, and the n th RWG basis function $\mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r})$ is defined as $\mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r}) = (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_n^+)/ (2A_n^+)$ if $\mathbf{r} \in t_n^+$ and $\mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r}) = (\mathbf{r}_n^- - \mathbf{r}) / (2A_n^-)$ if $\mathbf{r} \in t_n^-$, where t_n^+ and t_n^- are two triangular patches sharing the n th edge, \mathbf{r}_n^+ and \mathbf{r}_n^- are the vertices of t_n^+ and t_n^- that do not belong to the n th edge, and A_n^+ and A_n^- are the areas of t_n^+ and t_n^- , respectively.

Next, rotated RWG functions $\hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{f}_m(\mathbf{r})$, $m = 1, 2, \dots, N_E$, are used to test the equation yielding a fully discretized matrix equation

$$\mathbf{T}\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{v}. \quad (2)$$

Here, the entries of the boundary element matrix \mathbf{T} has dimension $N_E \times N_E$ and the right-hand side vector \mathbf{v} has N_E elements. Their elements are $\{\mathbf{T}\}_{mn} = \langle \hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{f}_m(\mathbf{r}), \mathcal{T}[\mathbf{f}_n](\mathbf{r}) \rangle$, and $\{\mathbf{v}\}_m = -\langle \hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{f}_m(\mathbf{r}), \hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{E}^{\text{inc}}(\mathbf{r}) \rangle$, respectively, where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the appropriate bilinear form and, which for all cases studied in the communication, can be computed as $\langle \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{r}), \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{r}) \rangle = \int_{S_a} \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{r}) ds$ for vector functions, $\langle a(\mathbf{r}), b(\mathbf{r}) \rangle = \int_{S_a} a(\mathbf{r}) b(\mathbf{r}) ds$ for scalar functions, and S_a is the support of $\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{r})$ or $a(\mathbf{r})$.

For certain applications, such as preconditioning [14], the electric field integral operator (EFIO) \mathcal{T} must also be discretized using Buffa-Christiansen (BC) basis functions $\mathbf{g}_n(\mathbf{r})$, $n = 1, 2, \dots, N_E$ [15]. The BC basis functions are dual functions with respect to the RWG basis functions and are defined on barycentrically refined triangular patches. The explicit definition of the BC basis function $\mathbf{g}_n(\mathbf{r})$ is omitted here and can be found in [15]. We denote the Gram matrices associated with the RWG and BC functions as $\mathbf{G}_{\text{r.f}}$ and $\mathbf{G}_{\text{g.g}}$. Their entries are $\{\mathbf{G}_{\text{r.f}}\}_{mn} = \langle \mathbf{f}_m(\mathbf{r}), \mathbf{f}_n(\mathbf{r}) \rangle$ and $\{\mathbf{G}_{\text{g.g}}\}_{mn} = \langle \mathbf{g}_m(\mathbf{r}), \mathbf{g}_n(\mathbf{r}) \rangle$, respectively.

Besides the above-mentioned vector basis functions, used for the discretization of EFIE, scalar basis functions can also be used for

the discretization of SIEs. Here, two commonly used sets of scalar basis functions are considered the pyramid basis functions $\lambda_n(\mathbf{r})$, $n = 1, 2, \dots, N_V$ and their dual functions $\tilde{\lambda}_n(\mathbf{r})$, $n = 1, 2, \dots, N_P$, where N_V and N_P denote the number of vertices and triangular patches of the mesh, respectively. The dual-pyramid basis functions $\tilde{\lambda}_n(\mathbf{r})$ are defined on the barycentrically refined triangular patches. The n th pyramid basis function $\lambda_n(\mathbf{r})$ is defined to be equal to 1 at the n th vertex, 0 at the other vertices, and linear on the triangular patches sharing the n th vertex [16]. The explicit definition of $\tilde{\lambda}_n(\mathbf{r})$ is omitted here and can be found in [15]. Similarly, the Gram matrices associated with the pyramid and dual-pyramid functions are $\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}$ with dimension $N_V \times N_V$ and $\mathbf{G}_{\tilde{\lambda},\tilde{\lambda}}$ with dimension $N_P \times N_P$, whose entries are $\{\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}\}_{mn} = \langle \lambda_m(\mathbf{r}), \lambda_n(\mathbf{r}) \rangle$, and $\{\mathbf{G}_{\tilde{\lambda},\tilde{\lambda}}\}_{mn} = \langle \tilde{\lambda}_m(\mathbf{r}), \tilde{\lambda}_n(\mathbf{r}) \rangle$, respectively.

The Gram matrices introduced above ($\mathbf{G}_{\text{r.f}}$, $\mathbf{G}_{\text{g.g}}$, $\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}$, and $\mathbf{G}_{\tilde{\lambda},\tilde{\lambda}}$) are symmetric positive definite (SPD)—since we consider only Gram matrices of bases [4]—and can be used for the normalizations of the EFIE boundary element matrix \mathbf{T} , the loop-to-RWG transformation matrix $\mathbf{\Lambda}$, and the star-to-RWG transformation matrix $\mathbf{\Sigma}$, where the explicit definitions of $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ and $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ can be found in [17]. As mentioned in [3], using the matrices multiplied by the inverse square roots of the corresponding Gram matrices $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}$, $\tilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}$, and $\tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}}$ instead of their standard counterparts \mathbf{T} , $\mathbf{\Lambda}$, and $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ allows for more efficient spectral manipulations for problems involving nonuniformly discretized geometries. These new matrices are obtained by multiplying the standard matrices with the inverse square roots of the corresponding Gram matrices, for example, $\tilde{\mathbf{T}} = \sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\text{r.f}}}^{-1} \mathbf{T} \sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\text{r.f}}}^{-1}$. In Section III, strategies for the computation of the square roots and inverse square roots of the real, sparse, and SPD Gram matrices introduced above are presented.

III. COMPUTATION OF THE SQUARE ROOTS AND INVERSE SQUARE ROOTS OF THE GRAM MATRICES

To compute the square roots and inverse square roots of the Gram matrices of interest, a simple-to-define but expensive-to-compute approach is leveraging SVD [4]. SVD of a real SPD matrix \mathbf{G} of dimension $N \times N$ is

$$\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{U}^T \quad (3)$$

where \mathbf{S} is a diagonal matrix with nonzero elements that are the N singular values of \mathbf{G} and \mathbf{U} is a unitary matrix. Here, and in the following, \mathbf{G} stands for any of the matrices $\mathbf{G}_{\text{r.f}}$, $\mathbf{G}_{\text{g.g}}$, $\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}$, and $\mathbf{G}_{\tilde{\lambda},\tilde{\lambda}}$. Given that the Gram matrices under consideration are also invertible, their square roots and inverse square roots can be obtained as

$$\sqrt{\mathbf{G}} = \mathbf{U}\tilde{\mathbf{S}}\mathbf{U}^T \quad (4)$$

$$\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1} = \mathbf{U}\tilde{\mathbf{S}}^{-1}\mathbf{U}^T \quad (5)$$

where $\tilde{\mathbf{S}}$ is a diagonal matrix of which the diagonal entries are the square roots of that of \mathbf{S} . However, because of the computational cost of the SVD algorithm, this method quickly becomes impractical for large problems. Note that, since the matrices under consideration are SPD, their respective square roots are unique [18].

In this work, the square roots and inverse square roots of the Gram matrices are expressed as

$$\sqrt{\mathbf{G}} = \sqrt{\|\mathbf{G}\|_2} \sqrt{\mathbf{G}/\|\mathbf{G}\|_2} \quad (6)$$

$$\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1} = \sqrt{\|\mathbf{G}\|_2}^{-1} \sqrt{\mathbf{G}/\|\mathbf{G}\|_2}^{-1} \quad (7)$$

where $\|\mathbf{G}\|_2$ denotes the L_2 -norm of \mathbf{G} . Even though this normalization by $\|\mathbf{G}\|_2$ is not a necessary step of our proposed techniques, it is helpful for our analysis and the value of $\|\mathbf{G}\|_2$ can be computed fast using power methods [19] for sparse, SPD, and well-conditioned matrices. Then, because the Gram matrices under consideration are sparse, $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}/\|\mathbf{G}\|_2}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}/\|\mathbf{G}\|_2}^{-1}$ are numerically approximated using polynomial expansions-based algorithms combined with the theory of matrix functions [10] as presented in Sections III-A–III-C. Finally, $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1}$ are computed by multiplying $\sqrt{\|\mathbf{G}\|_2}$ and $\sqrt{\|\mathbf{G}\|_2}^{-1}$ with the numerical approximations of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}/\|\mathbf{G}\|_2}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}/\|\mathbf{G}\|_2}^{-1}$, respectively. This approach is made possible by the fact

that all the Gram matrices under consideration are sparse, meaning that they can be computed, stored, and multiplied to a vector in linear complexity, which is crucial to maintain compatibility with fast solvers for the overall electromagnetic problem.

To condense the treatments, given a real, sparse, and SPD matrix \mathbf{X} of dimension $N \times N$, we denote $f(\mathbf{X})$ as a matrix function that corresponds to either $\mathbf{X} \mapsto \sqrt{\mathbf{X}}$ or $\mathbf{X} \mapsto \sqrt{\mathbf{X}^{-1}}$. The numerical expression of $f(\mathbf{X})$ can be obtained by generalizing the numerical (polynomial or rational) approximation of its scalar function counterpart $f(x)$, which corresponds to either $x \mapsto \sqrt{x}$ or $x \mapsto \sqrt{x^{-1}}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$, to matrix arguments [10]. Then, the numerical approximations of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}/\|\mathbf{G}\|_2}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}/\|\mathbf{G}\|_2^{-1}}$ are obtained by using the expansions of $\sqrt{\mathbf{X}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{X}^{-1}}$ with $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{G}/\|\mathbf{G}\|_2$. We denote by δ the relative error between $f(\mathbf{X})$ —computed, for instance, by SVD—and its approximation $f^{\text{num}}(\mathbf{X})$: $\delta = \|f(\mathbf{X}) - f^{\text{num}}(\mathbf{X})\|_2 / \|f(\mathbf{X})\|_2$.

A. Taylor Series Expansion

As the first algorithmic approach, the Taylor series expansion (TSE) [20] is used for the polynomial approximations of $x \mapsto \sqrt{x}$ and $x \mapsto \sqrt{x^{-1}}$. Using TSEs, $x \mapsto \sqrt{x}$ and $x \mapsto \sqrt{x^{-1}}$ can be numerically expanded around $x = 1$ as

$$\begin{aligned} x \mapsto \sqrt{x} &\approx \sum_{n=0}^{N_T} c_n^{\text{TSE}} (x-1)^n, \quad \text{and} \\ x \mapsto \sqrt{x^{-1}} &\approx \sum_{n=0}^{N_T} \tilde{c}_n^{\text{TSE}} (x-1)^n. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Here, N_T is the order of the TSE, and c_n^{TSE} and \tilde{c}_n^{TSE} are the n th expansion coefficients of TSE for the approximations of \sqrt{x} and $\sqrt{x^{-1}}$, respectively. These coefficients can be computed as

$$c_n^{\text{TSE}} = \frac{\sqrt{x^{(n)}}|_{x=1}}{n!}, \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{c}_n^{\text{TSE}} = \frac{(1/\sqrt{x})^{(n)}|_{x=1}}{n!}. \quad (9)$$

The approximations of their matrix function counterparts $\mathbf{X} \mapsto \sqrt{\mathbf{X}}$ and $\mathbf{X} \mapsto \sqrt{\mathbf{X}^{-1}}$ are obtained by generalizing (8) to \mathbf{X} as

$$\mathbf{X} \mapsto \sqrt{\mathbf{X}} \approx \sum_{n=0}^{N_T} c_n^{\text{TSE}} (\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{I})^n, \quad \mathbf{X} \mapsto \sqrt{\mathbf{X}^{-1}} \approx \sum_{n=0}^{N_T} \tilde{c}_n^{\text{TSE}} (\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{I})^n \quad (10)$$

where \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix with the same dimension as \mathbf{X} .

The values of the first ten expansion coefficients of the TSEs $\{c_n^{\text{TSE}}\}_{n=0}^9$ and $\{\tilde{c}_n^{\text{TSE}}\}_{n=0}^9$ are $\{1, (1/2), -(1/8), (1/16), -(5/128), (7/256), -(21/1024), (33/2048), -(429/32768), (715/65536)\}$ and $\{1, -(1/2), (3/8), -(5/16), (35/128), -(63/256), (231/1024), -(429/2048), (6435/32768), \text{and } -(12155/65536)\}$, respectively.

B. Chebyshev Polynomial Expansion

As the second algorithmic approach, the truncated Chebyshev polynomial series expansion (CPE) [21] is used for the polynomial approximations of the square root function and its reciprocal on the interval $x \in [n_0, 1]$ as

$$x \mapsto \sqrt{x} \approx \sum_{n=0}^{N_C} c_n^{\text{CPE}} T_n(x), \quad \text{and} \quad x \mapsto \sqrt{x^{-1}} \approx \sum_{n=0}^{N_C} \tilde{c}_n^{\text{CPE}} T_n(x). \quad (11)$$

Here, the primed summation indicates that the first term is halved, n_0 is a positive real number, N_C is the expansion order of CPE, $T_n(x)$ is the shifted Chebyshev polynomial of the first kind of order n defined on the interval $x \in [n_0, 1]$ as

$$T_n(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \frac{2x - (n_0 + 1)}{1 - n_0}, & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 2 \left(\frac{2x - (n_0 + 1)}{1 - n_0} \right) T_{n-1}(x) - T_{n-2}(x), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

and the Chebyshev series coefficients c_n^{CPE} and \tilde{c}_n^{CPE} for the approximations of \sqrt{x} and $\sqrt{x^{-1}}$ can be computed as [21]

$$c_n^{\text{CPE}} = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{n_0}^1 \frac{\sqrt{x} T_n(x)}{\sqrt{-x^2 + (n_0 + 1)x - n_0}} dx \quad (13)$$

$$\tilde{c}_n^{\text{CPE}} = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{n_0}^1 \frac{\sqrt{x^{-1}} T_n(x)}{\sqrt{-x^2 + (n_0 + 1)x - n_0}} dx \quad (14)$$

which can be rewritten with special functions as

$$c_n^{\text{CPE}} = 2\sqrt{n_0} \frac{{}_3F_2\left(\begin{matrix} -1/2 & 1/2 & 1 \\ 1-n & 1+n \end{matrix}; 1-n_0^{-1}\right)}{\Gamma(1-n)\Gamma(1+n)} \quad (15)$$

$$\tilde{c}_n^{\text{CPE}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{n_0}} \frac{{}_3F_2\left(\begin{matrix} 1/2 & 1/2 & 1 \\ 1-n & 1+n \end{matrix}; 1-n_0^{-1}\right)}{\Gamma(1-n)\Gamma(1+n)} \quad (16)$$

where ${}_3F_2$ is the generalized hypergeometric function [22] and Γ is the Euler gamma function.

Similarly, after the series expansions of $x \mapsto \sqrt{x}$ and $x \mapsto \sqrt{x^{-1}}$ in (11) are derived, their matrix function counterparts can be obtained by generalizing (11) to the matrix arguments as

$$\mathbf{X} \mapsto \sqrt{\mathbf{X}} \approx \sum_{n=0}^{N_C} c_n^{\text{CPE}} T_n(\mathbf{X}) \quad \mathbf{X} \mapsto \sqrt{\mathbf{X}^{-1}} \approx \sum_{n=0}^{N_C} \tilde{c}_n^{\text{CPE}} T_n(\mathbf{X}), \quad (17)$$

where direct evaluation of the sum in (17) is not necessarily optimal and other algorithms can be employed [23], and $T_n(\mathbf{X})$ is defined as

$$T_n(\mathbf{X}) = \begin{cases} \mathbf{I}, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \frac{2\mathbf{X} - (n_0 + 1)\mathbf{I}}{1 - n_0}, & \text{if } n = 1 \\ \frac{2[2\mathbf{X} - (n_0 + 1)\mathbf{I}]T_{n-1}(\mathbf{X}) - T_{n-2}(\mathbf{X})}{1 - n_0}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

Note that, due to the normalization and the properties of the Gram matrices we study, the spectrum of \mathbf{X} —to which the polynomial approximations are applied—lives in the interval $[n_0, 1]$, where n_0 is the inverse of the condition number of \mathbf{X} . When using (17), the coefficients c_n^{CPE} and \tilde{c}_n^{CPE} must be computed for each matrix since they depend on the condition number of the matrix argument n_0^{-1} . If this turns out to be inconvenient, tabulated values of coefficients can be used for the matrices that have a value of n_0 living in known ranges. Usage of such tabulated values will typically yield higher errors than the computation with the matrix-dependent coefficients. In Section IV, we will provide numerical results for these two approaches designated as ‘‘CPE-1’’ for the matrix-specific approach and ‘‘CPE-2’’ for the tabulated approach, respectively. For convenience, the values of c_n^{CPE} and \tilde{c}_n^{CPE} of CPE-2 are provided in Tables I and II for given bounds on the matrices conditioning (different n_0).

C. Padé Approximant Expansion

The last algorithmic approach we explore is the Padé approximant expansion (PAE) [24] for $x \mapsto \sqrt{x}$ and $x \mapsto \sqrt{x^{-1}}$ at $x = 1$ as

$$\begin{aligned} x \mapsto \sqrt{x} &\approx \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{N_A} c_n^{\text{PAE}} x^n}{\sum_{n=0}^{N_A} \tilde{c}_n^{\text{PAE}} x^{N_A-n}} \\ x \mapsto \sqrt{x^{-1}} &\approx \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{N_A} \tilde{c}_n^{\text{PAE}} x^{N_A-n}}{\sum_{n=0}^{N_A} c_n^{\text{PAE}} x^n}. \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

Here, N_A is the expansion order of PAE, and c_n^{PAE} is the n th expansion coefficient of PAE for the approximations of \sqrt{x} and $\sqrt{x^{-1}}$, which depends on N_A and can be obtained after solving the linear equation systems as presented in [25].

TABLE I
FIRST 20 CHEBYSHEV SERIES COEFFICIENTS FOR THE SQUARE ROOT FUNCTION FOR DIFFERENT n_0

$n_0 \backslash c_n^{\text{CPE}}$	c_0^{CPE}	c_1^{CPE}	c_2^{CPE}	c_3^{CPE}	c_4^{CPE}	c_5^{CPE}	c_6^{CPE}	c_7^{CPE}	c_8^{CPE}	c_9^{CPE}
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-1}$	50720584 36057897 201 -13137223	58192354 176379781 1188 -173409911	-4460738 108096729 409 -131560083	599673 57061255 145 101639721	-287819 85384633 17 -25723455	183411 150871267 55 178196989	-58340 123912171 15 -103329721	51981 271721903 3 43668719	-7566 94035965 1 -30591204	2764 79582277 1 63979016
$n_0 \geq 5 \times 10^{-2}$	141760564 104989387 -8116 -83759003	35002745 95238932 4645 87782356	-5385084 98048633 4539 154958201	375119 22232916 2159 131648930	-123075 18770531 567 61162961	964144 335715223 708 133999337	-99240 73358167 225 74184637	61845 92416364 187 106738132	-49497 144355439 91 89427045	43265 239826181 77 129639190
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-2}$	94293998 72892523 -37949 -42730513	11654085 28548136 43604 70096297	-13024699 174927782 -29207 66081562	1616566 56730601 51537 162168061	-1147126 82276417 -25435 110193549	761833 98466580 11535 68213866	-308484 66539819 -10239 82034690	263708 90144229 3604 38866185	-162889 85022700 -6215 89696092	161374 125071371 2753 52900755
$n_0 \geq 5 \times 10^{-3}$	111282682 86634283 -86227 -60890409	19778972 47632141 77118 73520351	-10097893 128419878 61735 -78300108	1613988 51323195 43125 71884333	-1103585 68372228 93187 -202045214	1156783 122811139 27405 76607114	-1072665 180416284 -26887 96161515	182246 46057955 1853 8422610	-335564 122664125 -19053 109416983	102602 52715219 2101 15164315
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-3}$	67448647 52859297 -362239 -148056512	18465778 43750239 272353 140130127	-3199979 -38492102 353347 -225334648	3836927 109928911 98124 76560973	-1863218 -98477081 75049 -70863879	1438469 122838561 78769 89167398	-1071366 -136237541 41954 56475965	1846182 330775465 258049 410152123	-1551939 -376426982 -33661 62777131	400555 127615892 177773 386862333

TABLE II
FIRST 20 CHEBYSHEV SERIES COEFFICIENTS FOR THE INVERSE SQUARE ROOT FUNCTION FOR DIFFERENT n_0

$n_0 \backslash \bar{c}_n^{\text{CPE}}$	\bar{c}_0^{CPE}	\bar{c}_1^{CPE}	\bar{c}_2^{CPE}	\bar{c}_3^{CPE}	\bar{c}_4^{CPE}	\bar{c}_5^{CPE}	\bar{c}_6^{CPE}	\bar{c}_7^{CPE}	\bar{c}_8^{CPE}	\bar{c}_9^{CPE}
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-1}$	374048017 113951175 -337750 379582213	-88499941 99875048 -17881 -40498318	15797788 45155977 23207 105516984	-20535446 134671187 16946 -154174661	3198561 45955201 5735 104114243	-1821274 55810317 1684 -60855691	1646349 105728006 1403 100712358	-656367 87247730 640 -91088439	187127 51011883 138 38877931	-257569 -142972536 197 -109695708
$n_0 \geq 5 \times 10^{-2}$	249779459 67453088 510107 65658935	-350792999 280590374 491723 104378654	132037463 217146298 360646 125772587	-17309909 53231083 -240771 137509316	24420789 134319148 128666 120011707	-11726340 112404257 -79363 120608489	9883564 162320651 30997 76590848	-3377515 93897642 -26019 104339573	1014741 47325860 15878 103168691	-16780163 1303748560 -17123 180008350
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-2}$	237825977 50542861 11305153 78552187	-39264271 17952244 -9467215 83975554	195265677 138817343 3834427 43265789	-103416965 105120298 -7690733 110058353	12141478 16961213 5948375 107682632	-81979913 153769588 -3503490 80051251	100102199 248249039 1048651 30183225	-41303408 133947555 -6557825 237360333	47672400 200509969 19174519 871395101	-10291450 55779169 -999069 56928095
$n_0 \geq 5 \times 10^{-3}$	564146905 109693414 75488883 248678426	-271445188 103894561 -2511703 9946203	203729517 112913626 16184137 76778415	-84437949 62627027 -21196048 120119399	49111051 46961990 17846601 120516115	-15609456 18825521 -7550133 60623138	63222034 94771407 11163511 106379007	-56599573 104360532 -5209630 58817269	38412599 86436742 7231330 96584953	-62114496 169532831 -11584499 182801188
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-3}$	630048624 102215551 65195223 69543947	-343367843 94808470 -95599410 112964291	294957839 105949003 184341026 240571663	-494742647 216022718 -55931467 80408470	1224960907 629659811 68082220 107582399	-206423487 122566312 -70019489 121380714	180757935 122418742 69973473 132846113	-130317757 99758659 -35406207 73506184	119757642 102912463 53675438 121692277	-36868111 -35375072 -34220975 84624381

TABLE III
FIRST 10 PADÉ SERIES COEFFICIENTS FOR DIFFERENT N_A

$c_n^{\text{PAE}} \backslash N_A$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
c_0^{PAE}	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
c_1^{PAE}	—	3	10	21	36	55	78	105	136	171
c_2^{PAE}	—	—	5	35	126	330	715	1365	2380	3876
c_3^{PAE}	—	—	—	7	84	462	1716	5005	12376	27132
c_4^{PAE}	—	—	—	—	9	165	1287	6435	24310	75582
c_5^{PAE}	—	—	—	—	—	11	286	3003	19448	92378
c_6^{PAE}	—	—	—	—	—	—	13	455	6188	50388
c_7^{PAE}	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	15	680	11628
c_8^{PAE}	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	17	969
c_9^{PAE}	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19

The numerical expressions of their matrix function counterparts are obtained by generalizing (19) to the matrix arguments as

$$\mathbf{X} \mapsto \begin{cases} \sqrt{\mathbf{X}} \approx \left(\sum_{n=0}^{N_A} c_n^{\text{PAE}} \mathbf{X}^{N_A-n} \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{N_A} c_n^{\text{PAE}} \mathbf{X}^n \right) \\ \sqrt{\mathbf{X}}^{-1} \approx \left(\sum_{n=0}^{N_A} c_n^{\text{PAE}} \mathbf{X}^n \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{N_A} c_n^{\text{PAE}} \mathbf{X}^{N_A-n} \right). \end{cases} \quad (20)$$

The detailed values of the expansion coefficients c_n^{PAE} of PAE for $N_A = 0, 1, \dots, 9$, are provided in Table III.

D. General Comments

Before the presentation of numerical experiments in Section IV, we would like to attract the readers' attention to the following points.

For the reader's convenience, Table IV lists the order N_T , N_C , and N_A at which the Taylor, Chebyshev, and Padé series should be truncated for the numerical expansion of $\sqrt{\mathbf{X}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{X}}^{-1}$ to reach a target relative error δ for \mathbf{X} with different condition number (different n_0); these truncation orders have been obtained through extensive numerical experiments.

IV. NUMERICAL RESULTS

In this section, some numerical experiments are presented to investigate the advantages and disadvantages of TSE, CPE, and PAE for the computation of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1}$ for $\mathbf{G} \in \{\mathbf{G}_{\text{r.f.}}, \mathbf{G}_{\text{g.g.}}, \mathbf{G}_{\text{L.L.}}, \mathbf{G}_{\text{L.I.}}\}$ with thorough performance analysis and demonstrate the applicability of the proposed techniques to spectral analysis.

A. Accuracy of the Computation of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1}$

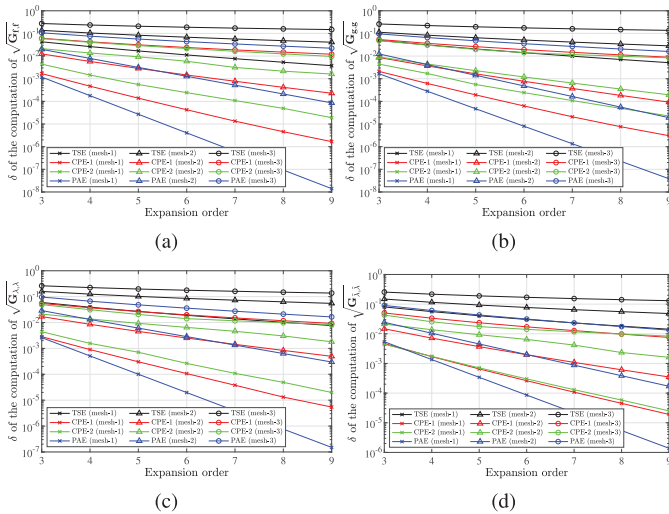
As the first numerical experiment, the accuracy of the computation of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1}$ using the proposed techniques is investigated. A PEC sphere of radius 0.5 m centered at the origin and residing in free space is considered. The sphere surface is nonuniformly discretized into three meshes designated as "mesh-1," "mesh-2," and "mesh-3" with $\{N_E, N_P, N_V\} = \{1230, 820, 412\}$, $\{N_E, N_P, N_V\} = \{2193, 1462, 733\}$, and $\{N_E, N_P, N_V\} = \{4449, 2966, 1485\}$, respectively. These sets of meshes are selected so that the resulting Gram matrices are increasingly ill-conditioned for mesh-1, -2,

TABLE IV

 TRUNCATION ORDER N_T , N_C , AND N_A FOR THE EXPANSION OF $\sqrt{\mathbf{X}}$ (LEFT) AND $\sqrt{\mathbf{X}}^{-1}$ (RIGHT) TO REACH TARGET δ FOR \mathbf{X} WITH DIFFERENT n_0

$n_0 \backslash \delta$		10^{-2}	10^{-3}	10^{-4}	10^{-5}	10^{-6}
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-1}$	N_T	12	25	41	59	—
	N_C	3	5	8	11	14
	N_A	3	5	7	8	10
$n_0 \geq 5 \times 10^{-2}$	N_T	21	47	—	—	—
	N_C	4	7	11	15	19
	N_A	4	7	9	12	14
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-2}$	N_T	—	—	—	—	—
	N_C	6	13	21	31	40
	N_A	8	13	19	—	—
$n_0 \geq 5 \times 10^{-3}$	N_T	—	—	—	—	—
	N_C	8	17	29	41	—
	N_A	10	18	—	—	—
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-3}$	N_T	—	—	—	—	—
	N_C	12	30	—	—	—
	N_A	16	—	—	—	—

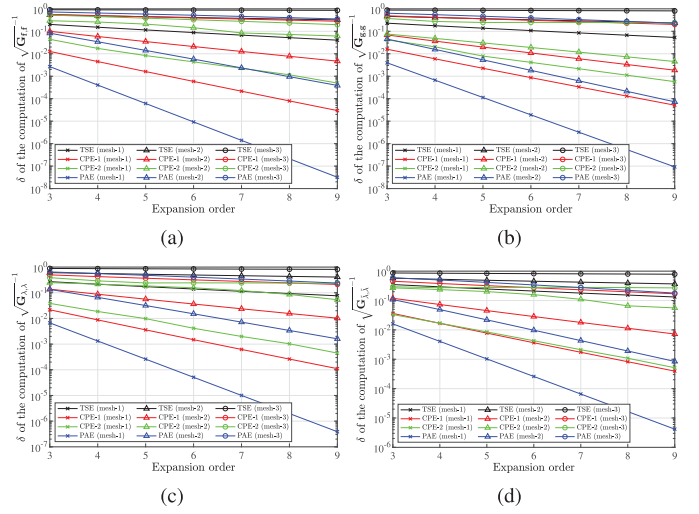
$n_0 \backslash \delta$		10^{-2}	10^{-3}	10^{-4}	10^{-5}	10^{-6}
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-1}$	N_T	31	51	72	—	—
	N_C	5	9	12	15	19
	N_A	4	6	8	9	11
$n_0 \geq 5 \times 10^{-2}$	N_T	64	—	—	—	—
	N_C	8	13	17	22	27
	N_A	6	8	11	13	16
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-2}$	N_T	—	—	—	—	—
	N_C	18	28	39	—	—
	N_A	13	19	—	—	—
$n_0 \geq 5 \times 10^{-3}$	N_T	—	—	—	—	—
	N_C	25	40	—	—	—
	N_A	19	—	—	—	—
$n_0 \geq 1 \times 10^{-3}$	N_T	—	—	—	—	—
	N_C	—	—	—	—	—
	N_A	—	—	—	—	—


 Fig. 1. Relative error δ of the computation of (a) $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{r,r}}$, (b) $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{g,g}}$, (c) $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}}$, and (d) $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}^{-1}}$ using TSE, CPE-1, CPE-2, and PAE for three mesh sets against the expansion order.

and -3 with the condition number of $\{\mathbf{G}_{r,r}, \mathbf{G}_{g,g}, \mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}, \mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}^{-1}\}$ equal to $\{5.16, 5.74, 6.72, 9.11\}$, $\{20.45, 14.49, 29.12, 24.58\}$, and $\{615.61, 344.95, 361.91, 269.31\}$, respectively.

Figs. 1(a)–(d) and 2(a)–(d) show the relative error δ of the computation of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{r,r}}$, $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{g,g}}$, $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}}$, $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}^{-1}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{r,r}^{-1}}$, $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{g,g}^{-1}}$, $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}^{-1}}$, $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}^{-1}}$ for three sets of meshes against the expansion order, respectively, where δ is the relative error between $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}$ or $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1}$ computed using SVD and its numerical computation as described in Section III. As expected, the accuracy of the computation of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1}$ using the proposed techniques for all the sets of meshes increases with the expansion order. Moreover, for a fixed expansion order and a given algorithm, the accuracy of the numerical computation of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1}$ improves with mesh uniformity. This is because, as the mesh quality improves, \mathbf{G} exhibits a lower condition number approaching 1 and the numerical computation of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1}$ improves too (see Section III-D).

Moreover, for mesh-1 (resulting in a lower condition number for \mathbf{G}), the PAE converges faster than the TSE and the CPE. In this case, one could choose the PAE that needs fewer expansion orders for a given computational accuracy.


 Fig. 2. Relative error δ of the computation of (a) $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{r,r}^{-1}}$, (b) $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{g,g}^{-1}}$, (c) $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}^{-1}}$, and (d) $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\lambda,\lambda}^{-1}}$ using TSE, CPE-1, CPE-2, and PAE for three mesh sets against the expansion order.

In addition, the figures show that we could use CPE-2 as a good approximation of CPE-1 by directly using the bounds of the known ranges in which n_0 lives and the corresponding coefficients in Tables I and II for CPE for convenience. As one would expect, the error behavior of CPE-1 and CPE-2 converges toward one another when the actual value of n_0 for a given set of meshes and a given Gram matrix corresponds to the lower bound of the range of n_0 (used to select the CPE-2 tabulated coefficients). Additionally, the Chebyshev series truncation order N_C of CPE-2 for the computation of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1}$ to reach target δ for \mathbf{G} with different condition number in Figs. 1(a)–(d) and 2(a)–(d) generally matches with that reported in Table IV. Also, the accuracy of the computation of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}^{-1}$ is generally lower than that of $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}}$ using the same expansion order, the same algorithm, and the same set of meshes for the same \mathbf{G} in Figs. 1(a)–(d) and 2(a)–(d), which is in accordance with the reports in Table IV.

B. Application to Spectral Analysis

As the second numerical experiment, the use of the proposed techniques as a tool for the study, manipulation, and accurate recovery

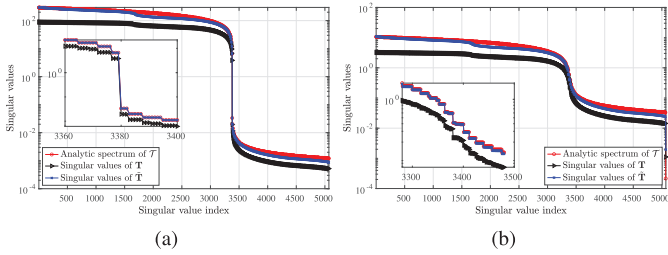


Fig. 3. Comparison of the singular values of \mathbf{T} and $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}$ with the spectrum of \mathcal{T} including a zoom around singular value index for 3380 (a) $k = 0.1$ rad/m and (b) $k = 2.744$ rad/m.

of the spectrum of the relevant integral operators is showcased. The surface of a PEC sphere of radius 1 m is uniformly discretized with $\{N_E, N_P, N_V\} = \{5070, 3380, 1692\}$ and the corresponding boundary element matrix \mathbf{T} is obtained as delineated in Section II. The spectral analysis is demonstrated for a spurious resonance of the EFIE operator and a nonresonant wavenumber.

Fig. 3(a) and (b) compares the singular values of the standard EFIE matrix \mathbf{T} and its normalized counterpart $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}$ with the analytic spectrum of the surface integral operator \mathcal{T} obtained from a spherical harmonics analysis of the problem [17]. The nonresonant and resonant wavenumbers [26] are, respectively, $k = 0.1$ rad/m and $k = 2.744$ rad/m and the condition numbers of the corresponding \mathbf{T} matrices are 1.7×10^5 and 2.9×10^3 . The results are obtained with the PAE for $\sqrt{\mathbf{G}_{\text{eff}}^{-1}}$ with $N_A = 9$. Clearly, the singular values of $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}$ have a good agreement with the spectrum of \mathcal{T} while those of \mathbf{T} do not, even for the resonant scenario.

When assessing the quality of the spectrum obtained from the BEM matrices of the EM operators, one should keep in mind that several sources of errors will cause deviation of the matrix spectrum from the continuous operator's spectrum. They include the error in the computation of the elements of the BEM matrices—for instance, in the computation of nearly singular integrals [27]—the error caused by the truncation of the expansions of the reciprocal square roots of the Gram matrices, and the error introduced by the spectral properties of the discretization bases [28]. In Fig. 3, these errors degrade the precision of the singular values associated with highly oscillating singular vectors while the rest of the spectrum shows a good agreement with spherical harmonics.

V. CONCLUSION

In this work, three polynomial-expansion-based algorithms are delineated for the computation of the square roots and inverse square roots of some of the most relevant Gram matrices for SIEs. Properly chosen polynomial expansions of the square root and inverse square root of the scalar functions and the theory of matrix functions are used. Tables containing the different sets of expansion coefficients are provided along with the comparative numerical experiments that illustrate the advantages and disadvantages of the different strategies. Moreover, the application of the proposed techniques to spectral analysis is demonstrated, which could be applied to most of the standard SIEs in electromagnetics and acoustics.

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