

# Specialized and hybrid Newton schemes for the matrix $p$ th root

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## Abstract

We discuss different variants of Newton's method for computing the  $p$ th root of a given matrix. A suitable implementation is presented for solving the Sylvester equation, that appears at every Newton's iteration, via Kronecker products. This approach is quadratically convergent and stable, but too expensive in computational cost. In contrast we propose and analyze some specialized versions that exploit the commutation of the iterates with the given matrix. These versions are relatively inexpensive but have either stability problems or stagnation problems when good precision is required. Hybrid versions are presented to take advantage of the best features in both approaches. Preliminary and encouraging numerical results are presented for  $p = 3$  and  $p = 5$ .

## 1 Introduction

Consider the nonlinear matrix equation

$$F(X) = X^p - A, \tag{1}$$

where  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  has no eigenvalues on the closed negative real axis, and  $p$  is a positive integer. A solution  $X$  of (1) is called a matrix  $p$ -th root of  $A$ . This problem appears for instance as a useful tool in the calculation of matrix logarithms [3, 8], and also for computing the matrix sector function [12, 16]. The problem of computing the square root ( $p = 2$ ) has received significant attention [2, 4, 5, 7, 9, 13], and the general case has also been considered [1, 14, 15, 17]. In this work we pay special attention to the computational issues associated with Newton's method for computing (1).

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## 2 Classical Newton's method

Newton's method for finding the roots of  $F : \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is given by the following iterative scheme

$$X_{k+1} = X_k - F'(X_k)^{-1}F(X_k), \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

where  $F'$  denotes the Fréchet derivative of  $F$ , and  $X_0$  is given. In order to obtain  $F'$ , consider the expression for  $F(X + H)$ , where  $H$  is an arbitrary matrix

$$\begin{aligned} F(X + H) &= (X + H)^p - A \\ &= (X^p - A) + \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} X^{p-1-i} H X^i + O(H^2) \end{aligned}$$

Now, recalling the Taylor series for  $F$  about  $X$ ,  $F(X + H) = F(X) + F'(X)H + R(H)$ , where  $R(H)$  is such that

$$\lim_{\|H\| \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|R(H)\|}{\|H\|} = 0,$$

we observe that  $F'(X)$  is the linear operator given by

$$F'(X)H = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} X^{p-1-i} H X^i.$$

Therefore, the classical Newton's method, starting at  $X_0$ , can be written as

**Algorithm 1** (*Newton's method for the matrix  $p$ -th root*)

**For**  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

Solve  $\sum_{i=0}^{p-1} X_k^{p-1-i} H_k X_k^i = A - X_k^p$  (for  $H_k$ )

Set  $X_{k+1} = X_k + H_k$

**end end**

The classical local convergence analysis for Newton's method guarantees that, under standard assumptions, if  $X_0$  is sufficiently close to a  $p$ -th root of  $A$ , then the sequence generated by Algorithm 1 converges q-quadratically to that cubic root of  $A$ . On the negative side, we need to solve the linear matrix equation for  $H_k$  at every iteration of algorithm 1. For that we can use the Kronecker product and solve the following standard linear system instead

$$\left[ (I \otimes X_k^{p-1}) + \sum_{q=1}^{p-2} \left( (X_k^q)^T \otimes X_k^{p-q-1} \right) + \left( (X_k^{p-1})^T \otimes I \right) \right] \text{vec}(H_k) = \text{vec}(A - X_k^p) \quad (2)$$

where  $I$  represents the  $n \times n$  identity matrix, and  $\text{vec}(X) : \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{n^2}$  is given by  $\text{vec}(X) = (x_1^t \ x_2^t \ \dots \ x_n^t)^t$  where  $x_j \in \mathbb{C}^n$  represents the  $j$ -th column of  $X$ . In here, we are using the well-known properties of the Kronecker product (see [6]),  $\text{vec}(XBX) = (X^T \otimes X)\text{vec}(B)$  and  $\text{vec}(XB + BX) = (I \otimes X + X^T \otimes I)\text{vec}(B)$ .

The linear system (2) can be solved by means of many different well-known iterative or direct method. However, it involves  $n^2$  equations and  $n^2$  unknowns, and so the computational cost is very expensive. It can be simplified and the computational cost reduced by using the Schur factorization of the matrix  $X_k$  as described below. Instead of solving (2) we propose to solve at every  $k$ , the following linear system

$$\left[ (I \otimes R_k^{p-1}) + \sum_{q=1}^{p-2} \left( (R_k^q)^T \otimes R_k^{p-q-1} \right) + \left( (R_k^{p-1})^T \otimes I \right) \right] \text{vec}(Y_k) = \text{vec}(\tilde{C}_k) \quad (3)$$

where  $X_k = Q_k R_k Q_k^T$  (Schur factorization),  $Y_k = Q_k^T H_k Q_k$ , and  $\tilde{C}_k = Q_k^T (A - X_k^p) Q_k$ .

The advantage of this new and equivalent formulation is that the coefficient matrix in (3) is block lower triangular, and each block, denoted by  $S_{ij}^k$ , is upper triangular. Hence, (3) can be solved using the next back substitution algorithm.

**Algorithm 2** (*Back substitution*)

Solve  $S_{11}^k y_1^k = c_1^k$

**For**  $m = 2, 3, \dots, n$  **do**

$$b_m = c_m^k - \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} S_{mj}^k y_j^k$$

Solve  $S_{mm}^k y_m^k = b_m$  by back substitution

**End**

where  $y_j^k$  and  $c_j^k$  are the  $j$ -th columns of  $Y_k$  and  $\tilde{C}_k$  respectively.

Consequently, using the Schur factorization of  $X_k$ , Newton's method can be written as

**Algorithm 3** (*Given  $X_0$* )

**For**  $k=0, 1, 2, \dots$

$$[Q_k, R_k] = \text{Schur}(X_k)$$

$$\text{Set } \tilde{C}_k = Q_k^T (A - X_k^p) Q_k$$

Solve (3) for  $Y_k$  using algorithm 2

$$\text{Set } H_k = Q_k Y_k Q_k^T$$

$$X_{k+1} = X_k + H_k$$

**End**

The structure of the coefficient matrix in (3) is shown in Figure 1.

Notice that solving (3) for  $Y_k$  using algorithm 2, as required in algorithm 3, does not need the explicit construction of the coefficient matrix, and this represents a significant reduction in storage. It is clear that this new formulation has a lot of potential for parallel implementations. It can also be observed, in Figure 1, that the algorithm only needs to

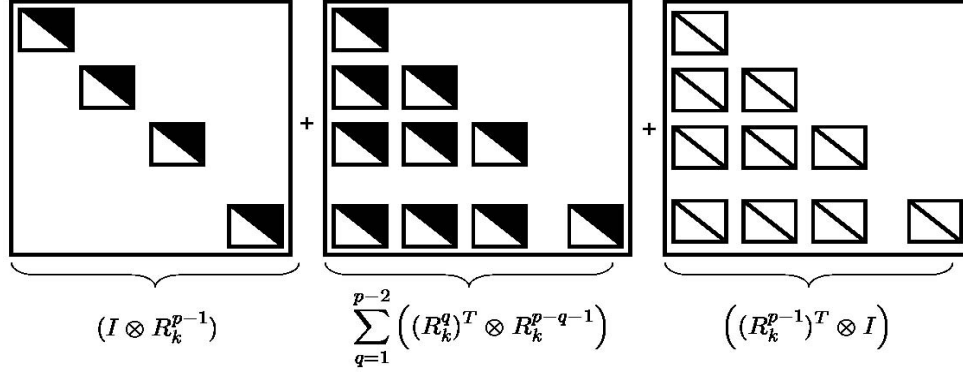


Figure 1: Structure of the coefficient matrix in (3)

build the  $S_{mj}^k$  blocks,  $1 \leq j \leq m$ , one at a time for sequential implementations. Indeed, the  $S_{ij}^k$  blocks can be dynamically built as follows

$$S_{ij}^k = \begin{cases} \sum_{q=1}^{p-2} (r_{ji}^k)^q R_k^{p-q-1} + \text{diag}(t_{ji}^k) & \text{if } i \neq j \\ \sum_{q=1}^{p-2} (r_{ii}^k)^q R_k^{p-q-1} + \text{diag}(t_{ii}^k) + R_k^{p-1} & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

where  $(r_{ji}^k)^q$  represents the  $ij$ -th position  $R_k^q$  and  $t_{ij}^k$  represents the  $ij$ -th position of  $R_k^{(p-1)}$  for  $j \geq i$ .

### 3 Specialized versions

If  $X_k$  commutes with  $A$ , then  $H_k$  commutes with  $X_k$ , and  $X_{k+1}$  will also commute with  $A$ . As we will see later, these events can be guaranteed for some special initial choices  $X_0$ . Under these circumstances the system to be solved at every iteration, of the classical Newton's method, can be simplified as follows

$$p(X_k^{p-1} H_k) = A - X_k^p,$$

and so,

$$H_k = (AX_k^{1-p} - X_k)/p.$$

After some simple manipulations, where the commutativity between  $A$  and  $X_k^{-1}$  is also exploited, we obtain three different specialized (or simplified) versions:

$$(I) : Y_{k+1} = \frac{1}{p} \left[ Y_k^{(1-p)} A + (p-1) Y_k \right] \quad (4)$$

$$(II) : Z_{k+1} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p} \left[ Z_k^{(1-p)/2} A Z_k^{(1-p)/2} + (p-1) Z_k \right] & \text{for } p \text{ odd} \\ \frac{1}{p} \left[ Z_k^{-p/2} A Z_k^{-p/2} + (p-1) I \right] Z_k & \text{for } p \text{ even} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

$$(III) : W_{k+1} = \frac{1}{p} \left[ A W_k^{(1-p)} + (p-1) W_k \right] \quad (6)$$

We now establish an important result concerning the commutativity of the involved matrices when the iterates are well-defined, i.e., when the Fréchet derivative,  $F'(X_k)$ , is nonsingular at each  $k$ . It is motivated by Theorem 1 in [4].

**Theorem 1** *Consider iterations (I),(II), and (III), and also the scheme described in algorithm 1. Suppose that  $X_0 = Y_0 = Z_0 = W_0$  commute with  $A$ , and that all the Newton iterates  $X_k$  are well-defined. Then*

1.  $X_k A = A X_k$  for all  $k$ ,
2.  $X_k S_k = S_k X_k$  for all  $k$ ,
3.  $X_k = Y_k = Z_k = W_k$  for all  $k$ .

**Proof.** We will prove the theorem for  $p$  odd. For  $p$  even, the arguments can be followed almost verbatim. The first part will be established by induction. If  $k = 0$ ,  $A X_0 = X_0 A$  by assumption. Suppose that  $A X_k = X_k A$ , which implies that  $X_k^{-1} A = A X_k^{-1}$ . Let

$$G_k = \frac{1}{p} \left[ X_k^{(1-p)/2} A X_k^{(1-p)/2} - X_k \right]$$

We have that

$$\begin{aligned} F'(X_k) G_k &= \sum_{q=0}^{p-1} X_k^{(p-q-1)} G_k X_k^q \\ &= \frac{1}{p} \sum_{q=0}^{p-1} X_k^{(p-q-1)} \left[ X_k^{(1-p)/2} A X_k^{(1-p)/2} - X_k \right] X_k^q = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{q=0}^{p-1} \left[ X_k^{(p-2q-1)/2} A X_k^{(1-p)/2} - X_k^{p-q} \right] X_k^q \\ &= \frac{1}{p} \sum_{q=0}^{p-1} \left[ X_k^{(p-2q-1)/2} A X_k^{(-p+2q+1)/2} - X_k^p \right] = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{q=0}^{p-1} \left[ X_k^{(p-2q-1)/2} X_k^{-(p-2q-1)/2} A - X_k^p \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{p} \sum_{q=0}^{p-1} [A - X_k^p] = A - X_k^p = -F(X_k) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, since all Newton iterates are well-defined, then  $G_k = S_k$ . Moreover,  $X_{k+1} = X_k + S_k = X_k + G_k$ , and so

$$X_{k+1} = X_k + \frac{1}{p} \left[ X_k^{(1-p)/2} A X_k^{(1-p)/2} - X_k \right].$$

Consequently

$$\begin{aligned}
AX_{k+1} &= AX_k + \frac{1}{p} \left[ AX_k^{(1-p)/2} AX_k^{(1-p)/2} - AX_k \right] \\
&= X_k A + \frac{1}{p} \left[ X_k^{(1-p)/2} AX_k^{(1-p)/2} A - X_k A \right] \\
&= \left[ X_k + \frac{1}{p} \left[ X_k^{(1-p)/2} AX_k^{(1-p)/2} - X_k \right] \right] A \\
&= X_{k+1} A.
\end{aligned}$$

For the second part, since  $S_k = G_k$  then showing that  $X_k S_k = S_k X_k$  is equivalent to showing that  $X_k G_k = G_k X_k$ . Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned}
X_k G_k &= X_k \left[ \frac{1}{p} \left[ X_k^{(1-p)/2} AX_k^{(1-p)/2} - X_k \right] \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{p} \left[ X_k X_k^{(1-p)/2} AX_k^{(1-p)/2} - X_k^2 \right] = \frac{1}{p} \left[ X_k^{(1-p)/2} X_k AX_k^{(1-p)/2} - X_k^2 \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{p} \left[ X_k^{(1-p)/2} AX_k X_k^{(1-p)/2} - X_k^2 \right] = \frac{1}{p} \left[ X_k^{(1-p)/2} AX_k^{(1-p)/2} X_k - X_k^2 \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{p} \left[ X_k^{(1-p)/2} AX_k^{(1-p)/2} - X_k \right] X_k \\
&= G_k X_k
\end{aligned}$$

To establish the third part is enough to commute in a suitable way  $X_k$  and  $S_k$  in the Newton iteration.  $\square$

Another specialized version (let us call it  $\{V_k\}$ ), that we would like to present, is based on a recent Newton type scheme discussed by Iannazzo [7] for computing matrix square roots. It is based on the fact that  $H_k$  commutes with  $X_{k+1}$  in the three simplified Newton schemes presented above. In that case  $V_{k+1} = V_k + H_k$ , and

$$H_k = \frac{1}{p} (AV_k^{1-p} - V_k) = \frac{1}{p} (A - V_k^p) V_k^{1-p}. \quad (7)$$

Hence  $A - V_k^p - pV_k^{p-1}H_k = 0$ , and so

$$\begin{aligned}
H_{k+1} &= \frac{1}{p} [A - (V_k + H_k)^p] V_{k+1}^{1-p} \\
&= \frac{1}{p} \left[ A - \sum_{q=0}^p \binom{p}{q} V_k^q H_k^{p-q} \right] V_{k+1}^{1-p} \\
&= \frac{1}{p} \left[ A - pV_k^{p-1}H_k - V_k^p - \sum_{q=0}^{p-2} \binom{p}{q} V_k^q H_k^{p-q} \right] V_{k+1}^{1-p} \\
&= \frac{1}{p} \left[ -H_k^p - \sum_{q=1}^{p-2} \binom{p}{q} V_k^q H_k^{p-q} \right] V_{k+1}^{1-p}.
\end{aligned}$$

This identity gives some possible equivalent iterative formulas for the step matrix  $H_k$ . In the next section we present an algorithm that is based on this formulas for the special cases  $p = 3$  and  $p = 5$ , and that will be later considered for building hybrid schemes.

Based on the previous results, it follows that the Newton iteration  $\{X_k\}$  and the four simplified versions  $\{Y_k\}$ ,  $\{Z_k\}$ ,  $\{W_k\}$ , and  $\{V_k\}$  produce the same iterates provided the initial guess  $X_0 = Y_0 = Z_0 = W_0 = V_0$  commutes with  $A$  and  $F'(X_k)$  is nonsingular at each  $k$ . We now discuss briefly the convergence of these sequences when the matrix  $A$  is diagonalizable. Following the arguments in Smith [15] (see also Higham [4]), we can in theory diagonalize the iterates, and uncouple the process into  $n$  scalar Newton iterations for the  $p$ th root of the eigenvalues,  $\lambda_i$ , of  $A$ . According to the standard analysis for the scalar Newton's method, these scalar sequences converge to  $\lambda_i^{1/p}$  provided the eigenvalues of the initial guess are close enough to the eigenvalues at the solution.

Concerning the stability issue, it is well-known that under standard assumptions, the classical Newton's method is a stable algorithm for finding roots of nonlinear maps. Since the Schur factorization of a given matrix is also a stable process, then Algorithm 3 for computing the  $p$ -th root of a matrix is stable. On the other hand, as discussed by Smith [15], the simplified versions that generate the sequences  $\{Y_k\}$  and  $\{W_k\}$  are unstable. The version that generates  $\{Z_k\}$  belongs to the same family and, as we will see in practice, it is also unstable although in general it reduces the loss of numerical commutativity, and as a consequence it has a better behavior than the other two simplified versions. The algorithms that generate the sequence  $\{Z_k\}$  in (5) can be written in a compact form as follows:

**Algorithm 4** For  $p$  odd

Given  $Z_0 = I, T_0 = A$

For  $k=0,1,2,\dots$

$$Z_{k+1} = \frac{1}{p} [T_k + (p-1)Z_k]$$

$$U_{k+1} = Z_{k+1}^{-1} Z_k$$

$$T_{k+1} = U_{k+1}^{(p-1)/2} T_k U_{k+1}^{(p-1)/2}$$

End

**Algorithm 5** For  $p$  even

Given  $Z_0 = I, T_0 = A$

For  $k=0,1,2,\dots$

$$Z_{k+1} = \frac{1}{p} [T_k + (p-1)I] Z_k$$

$$U_{k+1} = Z_{k+1}^{-1} Z_k$$

$$T_{k+1} = U_{k+1}^{p/2} T_k U_{k+1}^{p/2}$$

End

## 4 Special cases: $p = 3$ and $p = 5$

We have special interest in computing the cubic root of a given matrix ( $p = 3$ ). This problems has been recently associated with the calculation of fractional derivatives that appear in high energy physics [10, 11]. In that case, the three simplified versions  $\{Y_k\}$ ,  $\{Z_k\}$ ,  $\{W_k\}$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{k+1} &= \frac{1}{3} [Y_k^{-2} A + 2Y_k] \\ Z_{k+1} &= \frac{1}{3} [Z_k^{-1} A Z_k^{-1} + 2Z_k] \\ W_{k+1} &= \frac{1}{3} [A W_k^{-2} + 2W_k] \end{aligned}$$

For the sequence  $\{V_k\}$ , when  $p = 3$ , we present the following expression to compute  $H_{k+1}$  obtained from (7).

$$\begin{aligned}
H_{k+1} &= \frac{1}{3}(-H_k^3 - 3V_k H_k^2)V_{k+1}^{-2} \\
&= \frac{1}{3}(-3V_k - H_k)H_k^2 V_{k+1}^{-2} \\
&= \frac{1}{3}(-3V_{k+1} + 2H_k)H_k^2 V_{k+1}^{-2} \\
&= \frac{1}{3}H_k V_{k+1}^{-1} H_k (2V_{k+1}^{-1} H_k - 3I)
\end{aligned}$$

This identity gives some possible equivalent iterative formulas for the step matrix  $H_k$ . The following algorithm is based on one of those formulas, and will be further analyzed.

**Algorithm 6** Given  $V_0$  such that  $AV_0 = V_0A$

Set  $H_0 = \frac{1}{3}(V_0^{-1}AV_0^{-1} - V_0)$

For  $k=0,1,2\dots$

$$V_{k+1} = V_k + H_k$$

$$T_{k+1} = V_{k+1}^{-1}H_k$$

$$H_{k+1} = \frac{1}{3}H_k T_{k+1} (2T_{k+1} - 3I)$$

End

We now investigate the stability of the sequence  $\{V_k\}$  generated by Algorithm 6. To be precise, emulating the arguments used in [7, pp. 277-278], we will analyze the effect of small perturbations at a given iteration over the forthcoming iterations. Let  $\Delta V_k$  and  $\Delta H_k$  be the numerical perturbations introduced at the  $k$ th iteration of Algorithm 6, and let

$$\begin{aligned}
\widehat{V}_k &= V_k + \Delta V_k, \\
\widehat{H}_k &= H_k + \Delta H_k.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\Delta V_{k+1} = \Delta V_k + \Delta H_k,$$

and assuming exact arithmetic for  $\Delta H_{k+1}$ ,

$$\Delta H_{k+1} = \widehat{H}_{k+1} - H_{k+1} = \frac{1}{3}\widehat{H}_k \widehat{V}_{k+1}^{-1} \widehat{H}_k (2\widehat{V}_{k+1}^{-1} \widehat{H}_k - 3I) - \frac{1}{3}H_k V_{k+1}^{-1} H_k (2V_{k+1}^{-1} H_k - 3I). \quad (8)$$

It is well-known that for any nonsingular matrix  $B$  and any matrix  $C$ ,

$$(B + C)^{-1} \approx B^{-1} - B^{-1}CB^{-1} \quad (9)$$

up to second order terms. Therefore, using (9) and (8), and recalling that

$$\widehat{V}_{k+1}^{-1} = (V_{k+1} + \Delta V_{k+1})^{-1},$$



we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta H_{k+1} &\approx \frac{1}{3}\widehat{H}_k(V_{k+1}^{-1} - V_{k+1}^{-1}\Delta V_{k+1}V_{k+1}^{-1})\widehat{H}_k(2(V_{k+1}^{-1} - V_{k+1}^{-1}\Delta V_{k+1}V_{k+1}^{-1})\widehat{H}_k - 3I) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{3}H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}H_k(2V_{k+1}^{-1}H_k - 3I).\end{aligned}$$

Using now that  $\widehat{H}qz_k = H_k + \Delta H_k$  it follows, after some algebraic manipulations and several suitable cancellations, that

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta H_{k+1} &\approx \frac{2}{3}(-H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}\Delta V_{k+1}V_{k+1}^{-1}H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}H_k + \Delta H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}H_k \\ &\quad + H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}\Delta H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}H_k - H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}\Delta V_{k+1}V_{k+1}^{-1}H_k + H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}\Delta H_k) \\ &\quad + H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}\Delta V_{k+1}V_{k+1}^{-1}H_k - \Delta H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}H_k - H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}\Delta H_k.\end{aligned}$$

Now, recalling that  $\Delta V_{k+1} = \Delta V_k + \Delta H_k$  and denoting  $\alpha_k = \|V_{k+1}^{-1}H_k\| = \|T_{k+1}\|$  we obtain

$$\|\Delta H_{k+1}\| \approx \leq \left(\frac{4}{3}\alpha_k^3 + \alpha_k^2\right)\|\Delta V_k\| + \left(\frac{4}{3}\alpha_k^3 + 3\alpha_k^2 + 2\alpha_k\right)\|\Delta H_k\|. \quad (10)$$

Moreover, using (7) we have that

$$\alpha_k = \|T_{k+1}\| = \left\|\frac{1}{3}(AV_k^{-2} - V_k)V_{k+1}^{-1}\right\| = \left\|\frac{1}{3}(AV_k^{-3} - I)V_kV_{k+1}^{-1}\right\|,$$

and so,

$$\alpha_k \leq \frac{1}{3}\|AV_k^{-3} - I\| \|V_k\| \|V_{k+1}\|^{-1}.$$

Consequently, for  $k$  large enough, if  $V_k$  is close to the cubic root of  $A$ , then  $\|V_{k+1}\| \approx \|V_k\|$  and  $\|AV_k^{-3} - I\| \approx 0$ . Therefore,  $0 < \alpha_k \ll 1$ . Hence, using (10), for  $k$  large enough  $\|\Delta H_{k+1}\| \ll \|\Delta H_k\|$  and  $\|\Delta V_{k+1}\| \approx \|\Delta V_k\|$ , i.e., the error at iteration  $k$  does not amplify.

In Figure 2 we can see the behavior of the four simplified versions of Newton's method for finding the cubic root of the  $5 \times 5$  Hilbert matrix. As expected, the versions that produce the sequences  $\{Z_k\}$ ,  $\{W_k\}$  and  $\{Y_k\}$  are unstable, whereas the one that produces the sequence  $\{V_k\}$  is not. However, the sequence  $\{V_k\}$  shows stagnation way below the required accuracy. Moreover, it is worth noticing that the sequence  $\{Z_k\}$  achieves a better approximation before blowing up. This behavior has been observed in several experiments for different test matrices with different dimensions. This is precisely the characteristic that motivates us to introduce, in the next section, hybrid techniques that combine the sequences  $\{Z_k\}$  and  $\{V_k\}$  with Algorithm 3 and a suitable alternating projection scheme.

Repeating the same arguments for  $p = 5$ , it follows from (7) that

$$H_{k+1} = \frac{1}{5}H_kV_{k+1}^{-1}H_k(4V_{k+1}^{-3}H_k^3 - 15V_{k+1}^{-2}H_k^2 + 20V_{k+1}^{-1}H_k - 10I),$$

and the following algorithm is obtained

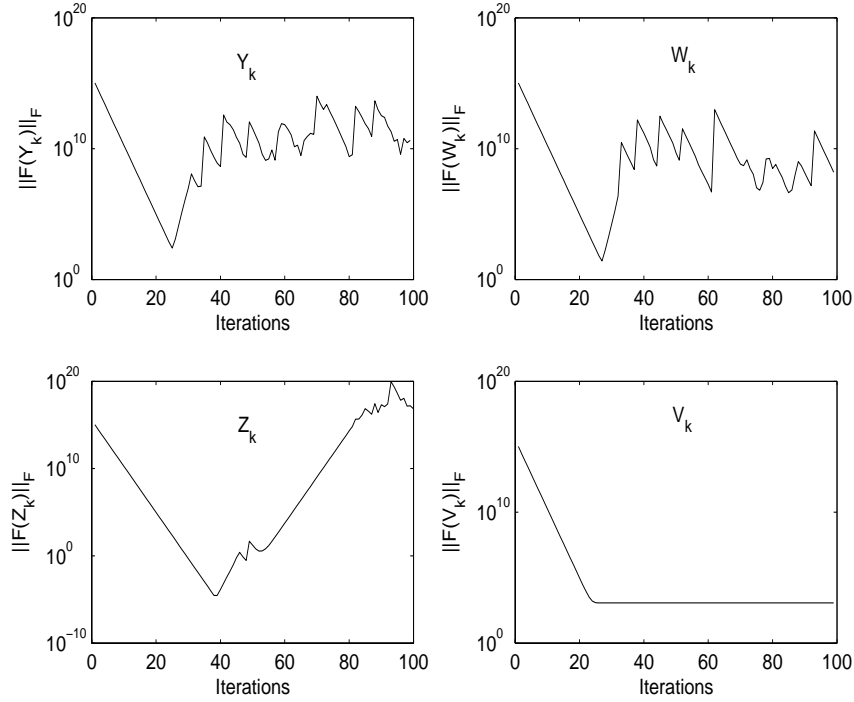


Figure 2: Behavior of simplified versions of Newton's method for finding the cubic root of the  $5 \times 5$  Hilbert matrix.

**Algorithm 7** Given  $V_0$  such that  $AV_0 = V_0A$

Set  $H_0 = \frac{1}{5}(V_0^{-2}AV_0^{-2} - V_0)$

For  $k=0,1,2\dots$

$$V_{k+1} = V_k + H_k$$

$$T_{k+1} = V_{k+1}^{-1}H_k$$

$$H_{k+1} = \frac{1}{5}H_k T_{k+1} (4T_{k+1}^3 - 15T_{k+1}^2 + 20T_{k+1} - 10I)$$

End

A family of algorithms based on (7) can be obtained for any positive integer  $p$ . In practice we have observed that for different values of  $p$  the algorithms that generate the sequence  $V_k$  are stable, as established above for  $p = 3$ .

## 5 Hybrid versions

We can combine the algorithm that generates the sequence  $\{Z_k\}$  with Algorithm 3 as follows. Generate the sequence  $\{Z_k\}$ , monitoring the size of the residual, and change to Algorithm 3 at the first iteration  $\bar{k}$  for which

$$\|F(Z_{\bar{k}+1})\|_F \geq \delta * \|F(Z_{\bar{k}})\|_F,$$

for  $1 < \delta \ll 2$ , using  $X_0 = Z_{\bar{k}}$  as its initial guess. i. e., when the residual associated with the sequence  $\{Z_k\}$  shows the unstable behavior. This hybrid scheme makes sense, since the sequence  $\{Z_k\}$  tends to achieve good accuracy before showing an unstable behavior, and so, the number of Newton - Kronecker steps required should be very small. Consequently, the expensive final steps would be performed very few times.

A similar hybrid scheme can be defined combining the sequence  $\{V_k\}$  with Algorithm 3. In this case, the decision to start the Newton - Kronecker iterations is based on the stagnation of the sequence  $\{V_k\}$ , described in the previous section. Therefore, we proceed as follows. Generate the sequence  $\{V_k\}$ , monitoring the size of the residual, until

$$\|V_{\bar{k}+1} - V_{\bar{k}}\|_F \leq 1.D - 15,$$

and continue with Algorithm 3 otherwise, using  $X_0 = V_{\bar{k}}$  as its initial guess.

Another possible hybrid schemes can be constructed based on the lack of commutativity when using the simplified versions. This fact motivates us to propose the following combinations. Generate the sequence  $\{Z_k\}$  (or  $\{V_k\}$ ), monitoring  $\rho_k = \|AZ_k - Z_kA\|_F$  (or  $\rho_k = \|AV_k - V_kA\|_F$ ). If  $\rho_k \geq 1.D - 8$  then project the iterate  $Z_k$  (or  $V_k$ ) onto the subspace of matrices  $X$  that satisfy  $AX - XA = 0$ , and continue with the sequence  $\{Z_k\}$  (or  $\{V_k\}$ ) from the projected matrix. There is a straightforward implementation of this projection process in MATLAB using the SVD factorization of  $Z_k$  (or  $V_k$ ) that, unfortunately, is very expensive as we will see in our numerical experiments. Nevertheless, if a suitable and less expensive projection is available, then this combination of ideas is a promising one.

In this work, we are using the following Matlab code to perform a projection onto the subspace of matrices that commute with  $A$ :

```
function [P]=projSCA(A,B,I,n)
    C=kron(I,A)-kron(A',I);
    b=reshape(B,n*n,1);
    invC=pinv(C*C');
    pb=b-C'*invC*C*b;
    P=reshape(pb,n,n);
```

## 6 Numerical Experiments

In the implementation of our hybrid schemes we proceed as follows:

- We stop all considered algorithms when the Frobenius norm of the residual is less than  $0.5D - 12$ .

- We consider that an algorithm fails when the number of iterations exceeds 100.
- The initial guess for all algorithms is the matrix  $A$ .
- We fix the parameter  $\delta = 1.2$

All experiments were run on a Pentium IV, 3.4GHz, using Matlab 7. We report the number of required iterations (Iter), the CPU time in seconds (CPU), and the norm of the residual ( $\|F(X_k)\|_F$ ) when the process is stopped. We use the symbol (\*\*) to report a failure.

We compare the following list of hybrid Newton algorithms with the Kronecker - Newton method (KN), based on algorithm (3), and the simplified versions that generate the sequences  $Z_k$  (NZ) and  $V_k$  (NV):

- $Z_k$  + Kronecker - Newton (KN)
- $V_k$  + Kronecker - Newton (KN)
- $Z_k$  + Projections (P) (at most 3)
- $V_k$  + Projections (P) (at most 3)
- $Z_k$  + one Projection (P) + Kronecker - Newton (KN).

We test the algorithms with the following matrices from the Matlab gallery:

- **hilb**: Hilbert matrix.
- **kahan**: an upper trapezoidal matrix. We set  $\theta = 2.3$ .
- **fiedler**: Symmetric. We set  $c = \frac{1}{n}(1, 2, \dots, n)^t$ .
- **lehmer**: Symmetric and positive definite.
- **parter**: It possesses complex eigenvalues. We use  $X_0 = A + (1.D - 16) * i$ .
- **pei**: Symmetric. We set  $\alpha = -3$  such that the matrix is indefinite.

In our first experiment, we show the performance of the different algorithms for finding the cubic root of the  $5 \times 5$  Hilbert matrix. The results are in Table 1 and we can see in this table that the *pure* sequences NZ and NV do not converge, and for this reason we do not report those options in the forthcoming tables.

In Figure 3 we compare the residual norms of *pure* sequences with the residual norms of hybrid versions. We can observe that the norm of the residual, for the sequence  $Z_k$ , was approximately  $10^{-5}$  before changing to KN, while the norm of the residual, for the sequence  $V_k$ , was approximately  $10^2$  before changing to KN. This significant difference explains why  $Z_k$  + KN requires fewer iterations than  $V_k$  + KN.

Scheme	Iter	CPU	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$
$Z_k + \text{KN}$	46(40+6)	0.046875	1.7609e-016
$V_k + \text{KN}$	52(31+21)	0.03125	2.7195e-016
$Z_k + \text{P}$	46(2)	0.03125	2.1302e-013
$V_k + \text{P}$	55(2)	0.03125	2.1394e-013
$Z_k + \text{P} + \text{KN}$	46(40+1+6)	0.0412	1.7609e-016
KN	45	0.0625	3.8858e-016
NZ	**	**	**
NV	**	**	**

Table 1: Performance of Hybrid versions of Newton’s method, simplified versions of Newton’s method and Newton’s method for finding the cubic root of the  $5 \times 5$  Hilbert matrix.

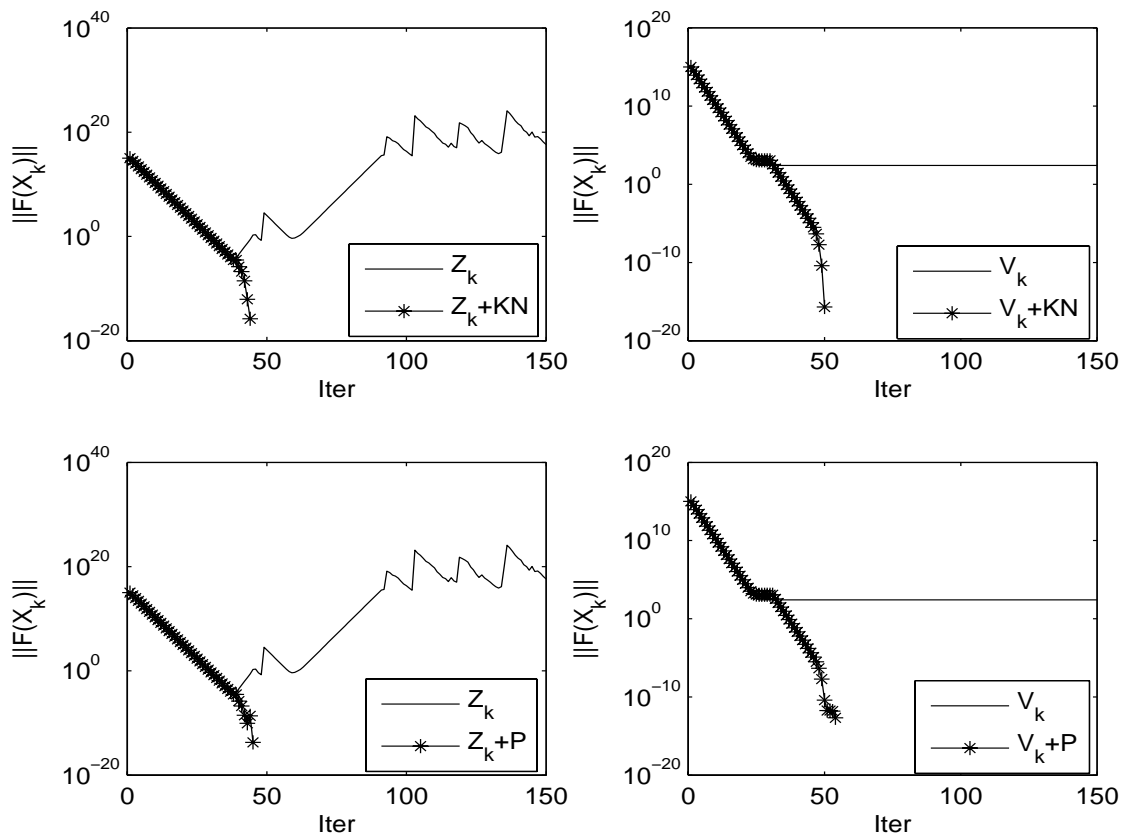


Figure 3: Behavior of simplified and hybrid versions of Newton’s method for finding the cubic root of the  $5 \times 5$  Hilbert matrix.

Scheme	Iter	CPU	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$
$Z_k + \text{KN}$	30(28+2)	0.11938	6.2156e-016
$V_k + \text{KN}$	29(27+2)	0.09375	8.5677e-016
$Z_k + \text{P}$	30(3)	12.5625	2.6393e-015
$V_k + \text{P}$	29(1)	4.2344	2.5872e-015
$Z_k + \text{P} + \text{KN}$	30(28+1+2)	4.3125	6.2156e-016
KN	27	0.67188	7.3154e-016

Table 2: Performance of Hybrid versions of Newton’s method finding the cubic root of the  $25 \times 25$  Kahan matrix.

In Table 2 we show the performance of the different algorithms for finding the cubic root of the  $25 \times 25$  Kahan matrix and we observe that when  $n$  increases the projection onto the subspace of matrices that commute with  $A$  takes a significant amount of CPU time. For that reason we do not report those options in the forthcoming tables.

		$Z_k + \text{KN}$	$V_k + \text{KN}$	KN
$n = 10$	iter	13(13+0)	13(13+0)	13
	CPU	0.03125	0.03125	0.036875
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	5.6203e-013	1.05e-013	8.758e-013
$n = 50$	iter	21(19+2)	21(19+2)	19
	CPU	0.48438	0.48438	4.3125
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	6.637e-015	6.4122e-015	6.4e-015
$n = 90$	iter	22(20+2)	23(21+2)	21
	CPU	7.1406	7.1719	76.7344
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	1.5339e-014	1.4756e-014	1.4855e-014

Table 3: Performance of Hybrid versions of Newton’s method for finding the cubic root of the **fiedler** matrix for different values of  $n$ .

		$Z_k + \text{KN}$	$V_k + \text{KN}$	KN
$n = 50$	iter	15(13+2)	14(12+2)	12
	CPU	1.9219	1.9219	10.7188
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	1.6735e-014	1.7466e-014	1.5328e-014
$n = 150$	iter	16(14+2)	15(13+2)	13
	CPU	48.1875	48.2813	312.7188
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	8.3214e-014	9.5548e-014	1.3116e-013

Table 4: Performance of Hybrid versions of Newton’s method for finding the cubic root of the **pei** matrix for different values of  $n$ .

From Table 3 to Table 5 we observe once again that for all values of  $n$ , small or large, the hybrid versions required less CPU time than the Kronecker-Newton method. It is also clear that the advantage of using the hybrid versions increases when  $n$  increases.

		$Z_k + \text{KN}$	$V_k + \text{KN}$	KN
$n = 60$	iter	22(20+2)	21(19+2)	19
	CPU	1.0313	1.037	9.25
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	9.6909e-015	9.9393e-015	1.0116e-014
$n = 80$	iter	22(20+2)	22(20+2)	20
	CPU	3.6094	3.5938	35.1094
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	1.5194e-014	1.5074e-014	1.5336e-014
$n = 100$	iter	23(21+2)	23(21+2)	21
	CPU	11.3906	11.3906	118.625
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	2.1076e-014	2.0934e-014	2.1402e-014
$n = 120$	iter	23(21+2)	24(22+2)	21
	CPU	26.5781	26.625	277.2656
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	2.76e-014	2.7636e-014	2.7719e-014

Table 5: Performance of Hybrid versions of Newton’s method for finding the cubic root of the **lehmer** matrix for different values of  $n$ .

		$Z_k + \text{KN}$	$V_k + \text{KN}$	KN
$n = 10$	iter	12(7+5)	12(11+1)	11
	CPU	0.03125	0.03125	0.046875
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	1.4954e-015	1.9252e-015	1.6216e-015
$n = 20$	iter	13(5+8)	13(12+1)	12
	CPU	0.29688	0.0625	0.32813
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	4.3693e-015	5.0361e-015	5.1429e-015
$n = 50$	iter	20(5+15)	21(19+2)	19
	CPU	13.7969	2.0156	17.3438
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	9.6557e-015	9.9789e-015	9.5033e-015

Table 6: Performance of Hybrid versions of Newton’s method for finding the cubic root of the **parter** matrix for different values of  $n$ .

In Table 6 we observe that the hybrid version  $Z_k + \text{KN}$  required more KN iterations than the version  $V_k + \text{KN}$ . This behavior could be explained as follows. The criterion used in the hybrid version  $Z_k + \text{KN}$ , for changing to KN, does not guarantee that  $\|F(Z_{\bar{k}+1})\|$  has reached the smallest possible value, whereas in the hybrid version  $V_k + \text{KN}$  we can guarantee that  $\|F(V_{\bar{k}+1})\|$  can not decrease any more.

In Tables 7, 8 and 9 we show the performance of the different hybrid versions of Newton’s method for finding the fifth root of several matrices. As in the previous experiments, the required CPU time for the KN option is very high and we do not report it anymore. We can observe that the hybrid version  $Z_k + \text{KN}$  does not require KN iterations, while  $V_k + \text{KN}$  in all cases requires KN iterations. This happens because the sequence  $V_k$  is stabilized when the residual still has a large norm value.

Scheme	Iter	CPU	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$
$Z_k + \text{KN}$	15(15+0)	0	1.7299e-013
$V_k + \text{KN}$	23(17+6)	0.015625	8.5898e-014

Table 7: Performance of Hybrid versions of Newton’s method for finding the fifth ( $p = 5$ ) root of the  $5 \times 5$  **Kahan** matrix.

Scheme	Iter	CPU	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$
$Z_k + \text{KN}$	25(25+0)	0.0133	1.1974e-015
$V_k + \text{KN}$	54(26+28)	0.95313	2.2748e-013

Table 8: Performance of Hybrid versions of Newton’s method for finding the fifth root of the  $5 \times 5$  **lehmer** matrix.

		$Z_k + \text{KN}$	$V_k + \text{KN}$
$n = 10$	iter	12(12+0)	20(13+7)
	CPU	0.001	0.0625
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	1.9817e-014	2.7559e-013
$n = 15$	iter	14(14+0)	15(15+14)
	CPU	0.015625	0.21875
	$\ F(X_k)\ _F$	2.2914e-014	3.4695e-013

Table 9: Performance of Hybrid versions of Newton’s method for finding the fifth root of the **pei** matrix for different values of  $n$ .

## 7 Conclusions

We present several specialized (or simplified) versions of Newton’s Method for computing the  $p$ -th root of a given matrix  $A$ . We also discuss an efficient implementation, called the Newton-Kronecker scheme, for solving the Sylvester equation that appears at every Newton’s iteration using the Kronecker product.

All the specialized versions are based on the commutativity of the iterates with the matrix  $A$ . Among the new specialized versions, we pay special attention to the one that produces the sequence  $Z_k$ . The  $Z_k$  scheme is not stable, but it tends to achieve a much better approximation of the  $p$ -th root of  $A$  than the previously-known simplified schemes (denoted as  $Y_k$  and  $W_k$ ), before the unstable behavior is observed. The unstable behavior appears when the commutativity between  $A$  and  $Z_k$  is lost.

Another specialized version that we present is the one denoted as  $V_k$ . We establish that the  $V_k$  scheme is stable for  $p = 3$ , and we have observed in practice that the stability property also holds for all values of  $p > 3$ . Unfortunately, the  $V_k$  scheme tends to stagnate before reaching an accurate approximation of the  $p$ -th root of  $A$ . This phenomenon is also due to the lack of commutativity between  $A$  and the iterates  $V_k$ .



We also present some hybrid schemes that try to avoid the lack of commutativity combining the simplified methods with the Newton-Kronecker scheme. Although more experiments are needed to assess the effectiveness of these hybrid schemes, the initial results on several matrices are encouraging.

Current work includes the search of a smoother and automatic way of combining the  $Z_k$  scheme with the Newton-Kronecker method. In this work we change from the  $Z_k$  scheme to the Newton-Kronecker method using a parameter  $\delta$ , chosen ad-hoc. Future work should also include the study of an inexpensive way of projecting onto the set of matrices that commute with a given one. As observed in our experiments, an inexpensive projection of that kind could lead to very powerful hybrid schemes for the calculation of the  $p$ -th root of a given matrix.

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