

# A New Nonmonotone Memory Gradient Method for Unconstrained Optimization

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## Abstract

In this paper, we introduced a new nonmonotone line search technique, and then we proposed a modified nonmonotone memory gradient method, where we replace the Armijo monotone line search by the new nonmonotone line search technique. theoretical analysis and numerical results indicate our algorithm have some advantages. what is more, we prove the global convergence of the algorithm, in the end numerical results obtained for a set of standard test problems are reported which indicate that the proposed methods is highly effective if we choose a good parameter in the method.

**Mathematics Subject Classification:** xxxxx

**Keywords:** unconstrained optimization, memory gradient methods, global convergence, modified nonmonotone line search

## 1 Introduction

we consider the following unconstrained optimization problem

$$\min f(x), x \in R^n \quad (1)$$

where  $f : R^n \rightarrow R$  is a continuously differentiable function,  $R^n$  is an Euclidean space. many iterative methods for (1) produce a sequence  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots$ , where  $x_{k+1}$  is generated from  $x_k$ , the current direction  $d_k$ , and the stepsize  $\alpha_k > 0$  by the rule

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k d_k$$

Unconstrained optimization problem is an important research topic in mathematical programming fields. There exist many methods for solving unconstrained optimization problem, these methods have research topic in many fields such as economy, management, control science, etc. It is well-known that conjugate gradient methods [1] and memory gradient methods [2] are two powerful methods for solving large scale unconstrained optimization problems because they avoid the computation and storage of some matrices associated with Newton type methods. The search direction  $d_k$  conjugate gradient methods is recursively defined by

$$d_k = \begin{cases} -g_k, & k = 1, \\ -g_k + \beta_k \delta_{k-1}, & k \geq 2. \end{cases}$$

where  $\beta_k$  is a parameter which determines different conjugate gradient methods. The best-known formulas for  $\beta_k$  are Fletcher-Reeves (FR), Polark-Ribire-Polyak (PRP), Polark-Ribire-Polyak plus (PRP+) and Dai-Yuan (DY), etc. Moreover, the global convergence properties of conjugate gradient methods have been studied by many researchers [3,4,5].

The search direction  $d_k$  in memory gradient method does not have a uniform form. Compared with conjugate gradient method, memory gradient method can use the information of the previous iterations more sufficiently and hence it is helpful to design algorithms with quick convergence rate. In line search method, the search direction  $d_k$  is generally required to satisfy

$$g_k^T d_k < 0$$

which guarantees that  $d_k$  is a descent direction of  $f(x)$  at  $x_k$ . In order to guarantee the global convergence, we sometimes require  $d_k$  to satisfy a sufficient descent condition.

The first idea of memory gradient methods was proposed by Miele and Cantrell (1969)[2] and Cragg and Levy (1969)[6]. Memory and super-memory gradient methods are similar to conjugate gradient methods. Comparing with conjugate gradient methods, however, memory gradient methods sufficiently use the previous multi-step iterative information at every iteration. Moreover, they add the freedom of some parameters and enable us to design some quick convergent and robust method. Many authors have studied the global convergence properties for these methods and yielded substantial results [7-11]. Some memory gradient methods have been proposed and investigated in the literature [1,12,13], memory gradient method is a good method for solving the unconstrained optimization problem in management and engineering.

In this paper, we proposed a modified nonmonotone memory gradient method in [14], here we replace the Armijo monotone line search in Step 5 by the new nonmonotone line search technique. the stepsize determined by Armijo monotone line search may considerably slow the rate of convergence

in the presence of the narrow curved valley. firstly we introduced a new nonmonotone line search technique by Yu [15] and then we combined a memory gradient method [14] with the new nonmonotone line search technique. which perform efficiently both in theory and numerical results than the algorithm NA in [14]. The direction generated by the new method automatically satisfies sufficient descent condition at every iteration without requiring conditions, and we given the proof in the lemma 1.1. Furthermore, we prove that the new method with nonmonotone line search rule is globally convergent under mild conditions. Numerical experiments show that the proposed method is efficient.

The paper is organized as follows. in section 2, we give a new nonmonotone line search proposed by Yu [15], and then we combined a memory gradient method with the new nonmonotone line search technique. what is more, we give the algorithm. in section 3, we establish the global convergence of the algorithm, in section 4, all the essential parameters of its implementation is given, some numerical experiments are given.

## 2 Algorithm

After the direction  $d_k$  is determined the next task is to find a step size  $\alpha_k$  along the search direction. The ideal line search rule is the exact one which satisfies:

$$f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) = \min_{\alpha > 0} f(x_k + \alpha d_k)$$

in fact, the exact step size is difficult or even impossible to seek in practical computation, and thus many researchers constructed some inexact line search rule, such as Armijo rule, Goldstein rule, Wolfe rule and nonmonotone line search [17]

In 1982, Chamberlain et al. in [18] proposed a watchdog technique for constrained optimization, in which some standard line search conditions were relaxed to overcome the Marotos effect. Motivated by this idea, Grippo, Lampariello and Lucidi in [17] presented a nonmonotone Armijo-type line search technique for the Newton method. The traditional line search rules require the function value descent monotonically at each iteration. It may considerably slow the rate of convergence in the intermediate stages of the minimization process, especially in the presence of the narrow curved valley. However the nonmonotone line search rules are effective or even powerful at some iteration, especially when the iterates are trapped in a narrow curved valley of objective functions.

The earliest nonmonotone line search framework was developed by Grippo, Lampariello, and Lucidi in [17] for Newton's methods. thanks to its excellent numerical exhibition, many nonmonotone techniques have been developed in recent years, before introduce the new nonmonotone technique, we describe

the nonmonotone Armijo rule.  $\alpha_k$  is a stepsize with  $\alpha_k \geq 0$  and  $d_k$  is a search direction satisfied  $g_k^T d_k \leq 0$ , Let  $a > 0$ ,  $\gamma \in (0, 1)$ ,  $\beta \in (0, 1)$  and let  $M$  be a nonnegative integer. For each  $k$ , let  $m(k)$  satisfies

$$m(0) = 0, 0 \leq m(k) \leq \min[m(k-1) + 1, M], \text{ for } k \geq 1,$$

Let  $\alpha_k = \beta^{p^k} a$  and  $p^k$  be the smallest nonnegative integer  $p$  such that

$$f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq \max_{0 \leq j \leq m(k)} [f(x_{k-j})] + \gamma \beta^{p^k} a g_k^T d_k.$$

If the search is the nonmonotone Goldstein line search, so  $\alpha_k$  should satisfied the following condition:

$$f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq \max_{0 \leq j \leq m(k)} [f(x_{k-j})] + \mu_1 \lambda_k g_k^T d_k,$$

$$f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq \max_{0 \leq j \leq m(k)} [f(x_{k-j})] + \mu_2 \lambda_k g_k^T d_k,$$

where  $0 < \mu_1 \leq \mu_2 < 1$

If the search is the nonmonotone wolfe line search, so  $\alpha_k$  should satisfied the following condition:

$$f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq \max_{0 \leq j \leq m(k)} [f(x_{k-j})] + \gamma_1 \alpha_k g_k^T d_k,$$

$$g(x_k + \alpha_k d_k)^T d_k \geq \gamma_2 g_k^T d_k,$$

where  $0 < \gamma_1 \leq \gamma_2 < 1$

the nonmonotone line search methods have been studied by many authors Toint (1996); Dai (2002); Zhang and Hager (2004); Shi and Shen (2006); Yu and Pu (2008); Hadi Nosratipour (2013). Theoretical analysis and numerical results show that the nonmonotone algorithms are very efficient.

Although these nonmonotone technique work well in many case, there are some drawbacks, First, a good function value generated in any iteration is essentially discard due to the max. Second, in some case, the numerical performance is very dependent on the choice of  $M$  [17.19.20] now we give a new nonmonotone line search proposed by Yu as follows: [15]

Let  $\lambda \in (0, 1]$   $M \geq 1$  is a positive integer, defined  $m(k) = \min[k + 1, M]$

$$\lambda_{kr} \geq \lambda, r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m(k) - 1 \quad \sum_{r=0}^{m(k)-1} \lambda_{kr} = 1,$$

Let  $\alpha_k = \beta^{p^k}$  be bounded above and satisfy:

$$f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq \max[f(x_k), \sum_{r=0}^{m(k)-1} \lambda_{kr} f(x_{k-r})] + \gamma \alpha_k \langle d_k, g(x_k) \rangle. \quad (2)$$

The following algorithm model is a modified nonmonotone memory gradient method in [14], here we replace the Armijo monotone line search in Step 5 by the new nonmonotone line search technique by Yu [15]. the direction  $d_k$  is determined by the following formula for solving problem (1):

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k d_k$$

$$d_k = \begin{cases} -g_k, & k = 1, \\ -g_k + \beta_k \delta_{k-1}, & k \geq 2. \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

where  $\delta_k = d_{k-1} - g_{k-1}$  and the parameter  $\beta_k$  is chosen from Tang and Dong [14]

$$\beta_k = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } d_{k-1} = g_{k-1}, \\ \frac{\eta \|g_k\|}{\|\delta_{k-1}\|}, & \text{if } d_{k-1} \neq g_{k-1}. \end{cases} \tag{4}$$

**Algorithm 2.1**

**Step0.** Give starting guess  $x_1$ , and some constants,  $0 < \beta < 1$ ,  $0 < \delta < 1$ ,  $\eta \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1)$ ,  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $k = 1$ .

**Step1.** Compute  $g_k$ , and  $\|g_k\| \leq \varepsilon$ , STOP.

**Step2.** Compute  $d_k$  by (3) (4).

**Step3.** Set trial step  $\alpha_k = 1$ .

**Step4.** Set  $x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k d_k$ .

**Step5.** Let  $\lambda \in (0, 1]$   $M \geq 1$  is a positive integer, defined  $m(k) = \min[k + 1, M]$

$$\lambda_{kr} \geq \lambda, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m(k) - 1 \quad \sum_{r=0}^{m(k)-1} \lambda_{kr} = 1,$$

Let  $\alpha_k \geq 0$  be bounded above and satisfy:

$$f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq \max[f(x_k), \sum_{r=0}^{m(k)-1} \lambda_{kr} f(x_{k-r})] + \gamma \alpha_k \langle d_k, g(x_k) \rangle. \tag{5}$$

If (6) does not holds, define  $\alpha_k = \alpha_k \beta$  and go to step 4

**Step6.** Set  $k := k + 1$ , and go to step 1 .

Note that the algorithm cannot cycle indefinitely in step 5 in fact, when  $\alpha_k = 0$ ,  $f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) = f(x_k)$  there must exist a sufficient small  $\alpha_k$

$$f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq f_k + \gamma \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k) d_k,$$

because of  $\nabla f(x_k) d_k \leq 0$  and  $0 < \gamma < 1$ . what is more

$$f(x_k) \leq \max[f(x_k), \sum_{r=0}^{m(k)-1} \lambda_{kr} f(x_{k-r})],$$

So we have

$$f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq \max[f(x_k), \sum_{r=0}^{m(k)-1} \lambda_{kr} f(x_{k-r})] + \gamma \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k) d_k.$$

### 3 The Global Convergence of the Algorithm

In this section, we discuss the global convergence property of algorithm with the nonmonotone line search technique by Yu[15]. In order to achieve the convergence of the second algorithm 2.1, we give some Assumptions as follow:

**Assumption 3.1**

A:  $f(x)$  is bounded above on the level set  $L = \{x | f(x) \leq f(x_0)\}$

B: In some neighborhood  $\Omega$  of  $L$ ,  $f$  is continuously differentiable, and its gradient  $\nabla f(x)$  is Lipschitz continuous, namely, there exists a constant  $L$  such that

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(x_k)\| \leq L\|x - x_k\|$$

**Lemma 3.1**  $d_k$  is computed by (3)(4), We have  $-g_k^T d_k \geq (1 - \eta)\|g_k\|^2$ , for any  $k \geq 1$

Proof: if  $k = 1$  we have  $-g_k^T d_k = \|g_k\|^2$ , holds

if  $k > 1$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} -g_k^T d_k &= -g_k \left( -g_k + \frac{\eta \|g_k\|}{\|\eta_{k-1}\|} \eta_{k-1} \right) \\ -g_k^T d_k &= \|g_k\|^2 \pm \eta \|g_k\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

holds end.

**Lemma 3.2**  $d_k$  is computed by (3)(4), We have  $\|d_k\| \leq (1 + \eta)\|g_k\|$ , for any  $k \geq 1$

Proof: if  $k = 1$  we have  $\|d_k\| = \|g_k\|$ , holds

if  $k > 1$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|d_k\| &= \left\| -g_k + \frac{\eta \|g_k\|}{\|\eta_{k-1}\|} \eta_{k-1} \right\| \\ \|d_k\| &= \left\| -g_k \pm \eta g_k \right\| \end{aligned}$$

holds end.

**Lemma 3.3** Assumption B is hold,  $\alpha_k$  satisfy the formula(5) of algorithm, then there exist  $\beta$  satisfy :

$$\alpha_k \geq \min\left\{1, \frac{(1 - \gamma)\beta}{L} \frac{|\langle g_k, d_k \rangle|}{\|d_k\|^2}\right\}. \quad (6)$$

Proof:

At the  $k$ th iterate, if  $\alpha_k = 1$  satisfy the formula (5). then  $\alpha_k = 1$ , otherwise, there exist  $\beta$ , which does not satisfy formula (5) for  $\alpha_k/\beta > 0$ , in other words :

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_k + \frac{\alpha_k}{\beta}d_k) &> \mu f(x_k) + (1 - \mu)T_k + \gamma \frac{\alpha_k}{\beta} \langle d_k, g(x_k) \rangle \\ &> f(x_k) + \gamma \frac{\alpha_k}{\beta} \langle d_k, g(x_k) \rangle. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

by mean value theorems, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_k + \alpha d_k) - f(x_k) &= \int_0^\alpha \langle g(x_k + td_k) - g(x_k), d_k \rangle dt + \alpha \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle. \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2}L\alpha^2 \|d_k\|^2 + \alpha \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

with(7), we have

$$\alpha_k \geq \min\{1, \frac{(1 - \gamma)\beta | \langle g_k, d_k \rangle |}{L \|d_k\|^2}\}.$$

So, (6)is hold.

**Lemma 3.4** Assume that sequence  $x_k$  is generated by algorithm 2.1, so that:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_k) &\leq f(x_0) + \lambda\gamma \sum_{r=0}^{k-2} \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle + \gamma\alpha_{k-1} \langle g(x_{k-1}), d_{k-1} \rangle \\ &\leq f(x_0) + \lambda\gamma \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle. \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

Proof: We prove by induction.

if  $k = 1$ , by (5) and  $\lambda \leq 1$ , we have

$$f(x_1) \leq f(x_0) + \lambda\alpha_0 \langle g(x_0), d_0 \rangle \leq f(x_0) + \gamma\lambda\alpha_0 \langle g(x_0), d_0 \rangle.$$

Assume (8) is hold for  $1, 2 \dots k$ , we can think of this problem from two cases

:

case 1 :  $\max[f(x_k), \sum_{r=0}^{m_k-1} \lambda_{kr} f(x_{k-r})] = f(x_k)$ , by (5),we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_{k+1}) &= f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq f(x_k) + \gamma\alpha_k \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle. \\ &\leq f(x_0) + \lambda\gamma \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle + \gamma\alpha_k \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle. \\ &\leq f(x_0) + \lambda\gamma \sum_{r=0}^k \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle \end{aligned}$$

case 2 :  $\max[f(x_k), \sum_{r=0}^{m_k-1} \lambda_{kr} f(x_{k-r})] = \sum_{r=0}^{m_k-1} \lambda_{kr} f(x_{k-r})$ , Let  $q = \min[k, M-1]$  by (5) we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_{k+1}) &= f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq \sum_{p=0}^q \lambda_{kp} f(x_{k-p}) + \gamma \alpha_k \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle. \\ &\leq \sum_{p=0}^q \lambda_{kp} [f(x_0) + \lambda \gamma \sum_{r=0}^{k-p-2} \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle + \\ &\quad \gamma \alpha_{k-p-1} \langle g(x_{k-p-1}), d_{k-p-1} \rangle] + \gamma \alpha_k \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

impose  $(1, 2 \dots, q) \times (1, 2 \dots, k-q-2) \subset \{(p, r) : 0 \leq p \leq q, 0 \leq r \leq k-p-2\}$ ,  $\sum_{p=0}^q \lambda_{kp} = 1, \lambda_{kp} \geq \lambda$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_{k+1}) &\leq f(x_0) + \lambda \sum_{r=0}^{k-q-2} \left( \sum_{p=0}^q \lambda_{kp} \right) \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle \\ &\quad + \gamma \sum_{p=0}^q \lambda_{kp} \alpha_{k-p-1} \langle g(x_{k-p-1}), d_{k-p-1} \rangle + \gamma \alpha_k \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle. \\ &\leq f(x_0) + \lambda \gamma \sum_{r=0}^{k-q-2} \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle + \lambda \gamma \sum_{r=k-p-1}^{k-1} \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle \\ &\quad + \gamma \alpha_k \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle \\ &= f(x_0) + \lambda \gamma \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle + \gamma \alpha_k \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle \\ &\leq f(x_0) + \lambda \gamma \sum_{r=0}^k \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle \end{aligned}$$

end.

**Theorem 3.1** Assume that  $x_k$  and  $d_k$  is generated by algorithm 2.1 and  $A, B$  holds, and then

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle = 0. \tag{9}$$

Proof:

Assume that there exist a boundless sequence index set  $K$ , and there exist  $\varepsilon > 0$ , which satisfy  $\langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle \leq -\varepsilon$ . for any  $k \in K$ , impose the lemma 3.4, for any  $k \in K$ , we have :

$$-\lambda \gamma \sum_{r=0r \in K}^{k-1} \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle \leq f(x_0) - f(x_k), \tag{10}$$

impose the lemma 3.1 ,  $-g_k^T d_k \geq (1 - \eta)\|g_k\|^2$  , which means

$$-\frac{\langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle}{\|g_k\|^2} \geq (1 - \eta), \tag{11}$$

with (6) (10), (11) we have:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_0) - f(x_k) &\geq -\lambda\gamma \sum_{r=0, r \in K}^{k-1} \alpha_r \langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle \\ &\geq \lambda\gamma\varepsilon \sum_{r=0, r \in K}^{k-1} \alpha_r \\ &\geq \lambda\gamma\varepsilon \sum_{r=0, r \in K}^{k-1} \min\left\{1, \frac{(1 - \gamma)\beta}{L} \cdot \frac{|\langle g(x_r), d_r \rangle|}{\|d_r\|^2}\right\} \\ &\geq \lambda\gamma\varepsilon \sum_{r=0, r \in K}^{k-1} \min\left\{1, \frac{(1 - \gamma)\beta}{L} \cdot (1 - \eta)\right\} \end{aligned}$$

since  $f(x)$  is bounded below , let  $k \rightarrow \infty (k \in K)$  , we have

$$\infty \geq f(x_0) - f(x_k) \rightarrow \infty.$$

paradoxically, so (9) holds

end.

**Theorem 3.2** Assume that sequence  $\{x_k\}$  is generated by algorithm 2.1, and then we have

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|g_k\| = 0$$

Proof:

by Lemma 3.1 and theorem 3.1, we have

$$0 \geq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (\eta - 1)\|g_k\|^2 \geq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle g(x_k), d_k \rangle = 0$$

which implies

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|g_k\| = 0$$

end.

## 4 Numerical Examples

In this section, we report the numerical results obtained for a set of standard tests problems. to test the effect of the algorithms, we selected a few examples of numerical experiments, Although our best convergence result of the first

were obtained by dynamically varying  $\mu_k$ , in this numerical test we take some fixed value  $\mu_k$ , which seemed to work reasonably well for a broad class of problems. in the two algorithms,  $\eta = 0.88$ ,  $\beta = 0.5$ ,  $M = 10$ ,  $\gamma = 0.75$ ,  $\lambda_{kr} = \frac{1}{m(k)}$ , ( $r = 0, 1, \dots, m(k) - 1$ ), For all codes the termination criterion was  $\|g_k\| \leq 10^{-5}$  except problem 3 whose termination criterion was  $\|g_k\| \leq 10^{-4}$ , we compute the number  $n_l$  of line search.

The algorithms has been tested on the following set of problems by MATLAB 7.1.

$$\text{Problem1. } f(x) = 100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$$

$$x_0 = [-1.2, 1]', x^* = [1, 1], f(x^*) = 0.$$

$$\text{Problem2. } f(x) = 100(x_1^2 - x_2)^2 + (x_1 - 1)^2 + (x_3 - 1)^2 + 90(x_3^2 - x_4)^2 + 10.1[(x_2 - 1)^2 + (x_4 - 1)^2] + 19.8(x_2 - 1)(x_4 - 1)$$

$$x_0 = [-3, -1, -3, -1]', x^* = [1, 1, 1, 1], f(x^*) = 0.$$

$$\text{Problem3. } f(x) = (x_1 + 10x_2)^2 + 5(x_3 - x_4)^2 + (x_2 - 2x_3)^4 + 10(x_1 - x_4)^4$$

$$x_0 = [3, -1, 0, 1]', x^* = [0, 0, 0, 0], f(x^*) = 0.$$

$$\text{Problem4. } f(x) = 100(x_2 - x_1^3)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$$

$$x_0 = [-1.2, -1]', x^* = [1, 1], f(x^*) = 0.$$

$$\text{Problem5. } f(x) = (x_1 + 10*x_2)^4 + 5*(x_3 - x_4)^4 + (x_2 - 2*x_3)^4 + 10*(x_1 - 10*x_4)^4$$

$$x_0 = (2, 2, -2, -2)^T, x^* = (0, 0, 0, 0)^T, f^* = 0.$$

$$\text{Problem6. } f(x) = (x_1 - 1)^2 + (x_1 - x_2)^2 + (x_3 - 1)^2 + (x_4 - 1)^4 + (x_5 - 1)^6$$

$$x_0 = (2, 2, 2, 2, 2)^T, x^* = (1, 1, 1, 1, 1)^T, f^* = 0.$$

TABLE 1

results for algorithm2.1

Algorithm 1	problem 1	pro 2	pro 3	pro 4	pro 5	problem 6
M=1	943	4282	4326	2732	654	1762
M=2	681	2972	1624	1270	408	1286
M=3	610	3601	1172	1117	232	471
M=4	510	3717	1112	1179	656	654
M=5	612	3749	1111	1675	543	724
M=6	633	3917	1088	1679	194	1000
M=7	625	3856	1216	1682	159	1218
M=8	628	3990	599	1572	145	1125
M=9	324	4061	957	1686	317	1068
M=10	288	4303	338	1796	493	1124

In algorithm 2.1, the numerical performance is highly dependent on the choice of  $M$ . almost the choice of  $M$  is better than the choice of  $M = 1$  which is monotone Armijo line search in algorithm NA [14].

TABLE 2

*results of the comparison between different methods*

problem 1	NA	algorithm2.1( $M = 10$ )
$n_l$	943	288
problem 2	NA	algorithm2.1( $M = 2$ )
$n_l$	4282	2972
problem 3	NA	algorithm2.1( $M = 10$ )
$n_l$	4326	338
problem 4	NA	algorithm2.1( $M = 3$ )
$n_l$	2732	1117
problem 5	NA	algorithm2.1( $M = 7$ )
$n_l$	654	159
problem 6	NA	algorithm2.1( $M = 3$ )
$n_l$	1762	471

In the end, the algorithm NA [14] was compared with algorithm 2.1. the excellent numerical performance in table 2 indicates that the algorithm 2.1 is highly efficient than the algorithm NA in [14] if we choose appropriate parameters included in the method, besides theoretical analysis suggests the algorithms have some advantages.

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