

A DERIVATIVE-FREE CONJUGATE GRADIENT METHOD FOR LARGE-SCALE NONLINEAR SYSTEMS OF MONOTONE EQUATIONS*

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Abstract. This paper presents a derivative-free conjugate gradient type algorithm for large-scale nonlinear systems of monotone equations. New search directions with superior numerical performance are constructed by introducing a new conjugate parameter and particular spectral parameters. These search directions inherit the numerical stability of RMIL search direction and satisfy the sufficient descent condition independent of step size. The method combines the hyperplane projection and the derivative-free line search technique to compute the iteration points. Under some appropriate assumptions, the global convergence of the given methods is established. Numerical experiments indicate that the proposed algorithms are effective.

Keywords. Derivative-free technique; nonlinear systems of monotone equations; projection technology; conjugate gradient method.

AMS subject classifications. 90C06; 90C56; 65K05; 65K10.

1. Introduction

Nonlinear systems of monotone equations widely exist in image segmentation [1], operation and control of power system [2], signal reconstruction [3] and many other fields. Many problems of relevance in monotone variational inequality problems [4] and the subproblems in the generalized proximal algorithms with Bregman distances [5] can be transformed into the following nonlinear equations

$$F(x) = 0, \tag{1.1}$$

where $F(x): \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is monotone and continuous, which means $F(x)$ satisfies the inequality $(F(x) - F(y))^T(x - y) \geq 0$ for all $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Among the iterative methods for solving (1.1), the Newton method, quasi-Newton method [6], and their variants are very popular because of their fast local superlinear convergence property. However, they are not suitable for solving large-scale nonlinear equations because they need to solve linear equations using the Jacobian matrix or an approximation of it in each iteration. Therefore, many scholars prefer to use the conjugate gradient method with a simple structure and low memory requirement to solve large-scale nonlinear monotone equations [7–12].

Rivaie et al. [13] proposed RMIL conjugate gradient method to solve the unconstrained optimization problem. The numerical results show that RMIL conjugate gradient method has better performance than other conjugate gradient methods. La Cruz and

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Raydan [14] presented the spectral algorithm for nonlinear equations. Li [15] presents a class of derivative-free methods for solving nonlinear monotone equations based on the conjugate gradient method and line search technique. Ahookhosh [16] proposed two derivative-free conjugate gradient methods for solving nonlinear monotone equations. Recently, Fang [17] proposed an improved RMIL derivative-free conjugate gradient method for solving nonlinear monotone equations based on RMIL conjugate gradient method.

Liu and Feng [18] presented a class of derivative-free conjugate gradient methods for solving nonlinear monotone equations with convex constraints and improved DY conjugate parameters. In this way, the algorithm inherited the stability of DY conjugate gradient method while ensuring the sufficient descent of the search direction and the global convergence of the algorithm.

In order to make the algorithm quickly converge to the solution x^* of the nonlinear monotone system (1.1), according to the monotonicity of $F(x)$, the selection of iteration points can be intervened by using the projection technique and appropriate linear search strategy. For example, Solodov and Svaiter [19] combined an inexact Newton method with a projection technique for solving nonlinear monotone equations. Zhang [20] combined the spectral gradient method with the projection method to solve nonlinear monotone equations.

Inspired by the above literature, this paper propose a derivative-free conjugate gradient method for solving nonlinear monotone equations, improves the conjugate parameter, and uses the inequality proof technique to construct the corresponding spectral parameter, so that the search direction satisfies the sufficient descent condition and bounded property, and then proves the global convergence of the algorithm. The main innovations of the algorithm include:

- Improved conjugate parameter and spectral parameters, three new derivative-free conjugate gradient directions are proposed, which inherit the theoretical properties of RMIL conjugate gradient directions and satisfy the sufficient descent condition and boundedness.
- A derivative-free conjugate gradient algorithm with global convergence is designed, which inherits the numerical stability and superiority of the RMIL conjugate gradient method for solving large-scale nonlinear equations, and is superior to the improved RMIL conjugate gradient method proposed by [17].

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we will introduce the basic principle, concrete steps, and sufficient descent proof of the proposed new derivative-free conjugate gradient algorithm. In Section 3, we will give the boundedness of search direction and the global convergence proof of the algorithm. In Section 4, we will analyze the numerical performance of the algorithm, including the numerical results of solving large-scale nonlinear monotone equations and the comparison with other algorithms.

2. Algorithm

In this section, our main aim is to propose a new derivative-free conjugate gradient method for solving monotone Equation (1.1). We define a new conjugate parameter

$$\beta_k^N = \frac{F_k^\top y_{k-1}}{d_{k-1}^\top w_{k-1}}, \quad (2.1)$$

in which F_k denotes the value of $F(x)$ at current point x_k , d_{k-1} denotes the search direction at x_{k-1} , $y_{k-1} = F_k - F_{k-1}$, $w_{k-1} = d_{k-1} + t_{k-1}y_{k-1}$ and there exists $t \in (0, 1)$

satisfying

$$t_{k-1} = \begin{cases} t, & \text{if } d_{k-1}^T y_{k-1} \geq 0, \\ -t, & \text{if } d_{k-1}^T y_{k-1} < 0. \end{cases}$$

In order to obtain the search direction with sufficient descent property, inspired by [17], we propose three spectral parameters based on the conjugate parameter (2.1). On the one hand, we introduce the spectral parameters θ_k^1 and θ_k^2 , combining β_k^N to construct search directions d_k^1 and d_k^2 as follows

$$d_k^{1,2} = \begin{cases} -F_k, & \text{if } k = 0, \\ -\theta_k F_k + \beta_k^N d_{k-1}, & \text{if } k \geq 1. \end{cases} \tag{2.2}$$

Here, we choose two different spectral parameters

$$\theta_k^1 = 1 + \frac{(F_k^T y_{k-1})^2 \|d_{k-1}\|^2}{4\gamma(d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2 \|F_k\|^2}, \tag{2.3}$$

$$\theta_k^2 = 1 + \frac{(F_k^T d_{k-1})^2 \|y_{k-1}\|^2}{4\gamma(d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2 \|F_k\|^2}. \tag{2.4}$$

On the other hand, we combine parameter

$$\theta_k^3 = \frac{(F_k^T y_{k-1})^2 \|d_{k-1}\|^2}{4\gamma(d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2}, \tag{2.5}$$

with β_k^N to construct search direction

$$d_k^3 = \begin{cases} -F_k, & \text{if } k = 0, \\ -F_k + \beta_k^N d_{k-1} - \theta_k^3 y_{k-1}, & \text{if } k \geq 1. \end{cases} \tag{2.6}$$

In the formulae (2.3), (2.4) and (2.5), we set parameter $\gamma \in (0, 1)$. Search directions d_k^1 , d_k^2 and d_k^3 have similar theoretical properties, such as descent and boundedness, but they are not consistent in numerical performance. Numerical comparisons are listed in Section 4.

Now, we will select an appropriate line search technique to get the steplength α_k . Zhang and Zhou [20] presented the following derivative-free line search rule, which requires α_k to be the largest steplength of $\alpha_k = \max\{s, \rho s, \rho^2 s, \dots\}$ to satisfy the following condition

$$-F(x_k + \alpha_k d_k)^T d_k \geq \sigma \alpha_k \|F(x_k + \alpha_k d_k)\| \|d_k\|^2, \tag{2.7}$$

where $\sigma > 0, s > 0$ and $0 < \rho < 1$.

After the search direction d_k and steplength α_k are obtained, we set auxiliary point

$$z_k = x_k + \alpha_k d_k, \tag{2.8}$$

which satisfies

$$F(z_k)^T (x_k - z_k) > 0. \tag{2.9}$$

For any x^* such that $F(x^*)=0$, by the monotonicity of $F(x)$, we have

$$F(z_k)^T(x^* - z_k) = -(F(x^*) - F(z_k))^T(x^* - z_k) \leq 0.$$

Thus the hyperplane

$$H_k = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | F(z_k)^T(x - z_k) = 0\}$$

strictly separates the current iterate x_k from zeros of the equation system (1.1).

Based on the above conclusion, Solodov and Svaiter [19] projected x_k onto H_k to get the next iteration point x_{k+1} . Its iteration format is

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{F(z_k)^T(x_k - z_k)}{\|F(z_k)\|^2} F(z_k). \tag{2.10}$$

This projection technique combined with the derivative-free line search technique ensures the boundedness of the search direction and the global convergence of the algorithm. Numerical experiments show that this method is superior to other similar algorithms in solving large-scale nonlinear monotone equations. Next, we give the specific steps of the new algorithm.

ALGORITHM 2.1.

Step 0: Given $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, choose $\delta > 0$, $\sigma > 0$, $s > 0$, $\epsilon > 0$, $0 < \rho < 1$, $k_{\max} > 0$, $d_0 = -F_0$. Set $k := 0$.

Step 1: If $\|F_k\| < \epsilon$ and $k < k_{\max}$, the algorithm is terminated, output x_k ; otherwise set $\alpha_k = s$ and go to Step 2.

Step 2: If α_k satisfy (2.7), then set auxiliary point $z_k = x_k + \alpha_k d_k$, go to Step 3, otherwise, set $\alpha_k \leftarrow \rho \alpha_k$, go to Step 2.

Step 3: Compute $F(z_k)$, if $\|F(z_k)\| \leq \epsilon$, algorithm stops; otherwise, use (2.10) to calculate x_{k+1} go to Step 4.

Step 4: Compute $F(x_{k+1})$, $y_k = F(x_{k+1}) - F(x_k)$, $w_k = d_k + t_k y_k$. According to (2.1), (2.2) and (2.6), determine the search direction d_{k+1} . Set $k := k + 1$ and go to Step 1.

Here, we will prove that three directions d_k^1 , d_k^2 and d_k^3 satisfy the sufficient descent condition.

LEMMA 2.1. *Let the sequence $\{d_k\}$ be generated by Algorithm 2.1, then d_k satisfies the sufficient descent condition*

$$F_k^T d_k \leq -\delta \|F_k\|^2, \delta > 0. \tag{2.11}$$

Proof.

(1) When θ is defined by θ_k^1 , using (2.1), (2.2) and (2.3), we set $u = \sqrt{2\gamma} d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1} F_k$, $v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\gamma}} F_k^T y_{k-1} d_{k-1}$ and use $u^T v \leq \frac{1}{2} (\|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2)$, then, for $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} F_k^T d_k &= F_k^T \left(-\theta_k F_k + \frac{F_k^T y_{k-1}}{d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1}} d_{k-1} \right) \\ &= - \left[1 + \frac{(F_k^T y_{k-1})^2 \|d_{k-1}\|^2}{4\gamma \|F_k\|^2 (d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2} \right] \|F_k\|^2 + \frac{F_k^T y_{k-1} F_k^T d_{k-1}}{d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= -\|F_k\|^2 + \frac{F_k^T y_{k-1} F_k^T d_{k-1} \|F_k\|^2 d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1} - \frac{1}{4\gamma} (F_k^T y_{k-1})^2 \|d_{k-1}\|^2 \|F_k\|^2}{\|F_k\|^2 (d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2} \\
 &\leq -\|F_k\|^2 + \frac{\frac{1}{2}(2\gamma)(d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2 \|F_k\|^2}{(d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2} \\
 &= -(1-\gamma)\|F_k\|^2. \tag{2.12}
 \end{aligned}$$

(2) When θ is defined by θ_k^2 , using (2.1), (2.2) and (2.4), we set $u = \sqrt{2\gamma} d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1} F_k$, $v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\gamma}} F_k^T d_{k-1} y_{k-1}$, then, for $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_k^T d_k &= F_k^T \left(-\theta_k F_k + \frac{F_k^T y_{k-1}}{d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1}} d_{k-1} \right) \\
 &= - \left[1 + \frac{(F_k^T d_{k-1})^2 \|y_{k-1}\|^2}{4\gamma \|F_k\|^2 (d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2} \right] \|F_k\|^2 + \frac{F_k^T y_{k-1} F_k^T d_{k-1}}{d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1}} \\
 &= -\|F_k\|^2 + \frac{F_k^T y_{k-1} F_k^T d_{k-1} d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1} - \frac{1}{4\gamma} (F_k^T d_{k-1})^2 \|y_{k-1}\|^2}{(d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2} \\
 &\leq -\|F_k\|^2 + \frac{\frac{1}{2}(2\gamma)(d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2 \|F_k\|^2}{(d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2} \\
 &= -(1-\gamma)\|F_k\|^2. \tag{2.13}
 \end{aligned}$$

(3) When d_k is determined by (2.5) and (2.6), set $u = \sqrt{2\gamma} d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1} F_k$, $v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\gamma}} F_k^T y_{k-1} d_{k-1}$, then, for $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_k^T d_k &= F_k^T \left[-F_k + \frac{F_k^T y_{k-1}}{d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1}} d_{k-1} - \frac{(F_k^T y_{k-1})^2 \|d_{k-1}\|^2}{4\gamma (d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2} y_{k-1} \right] \\
 &= -\|F_k\|^2 + \frac{F_k^T y_{k-1} F_k^T d_{k-1} d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1} - \frac{1}{4\gamma} (F_k^T y_{k-1})^2 \|d_{k-1}\|^2}{(d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2} \\
 &\leq -(1-\gamma)\|F_k\|^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

Set $\delta = 1 - \gamma$, since $\gamma \in (0, 1)$, for the above three directions, the sufficient descent conditions are all satisfied.

(4) If $k = 0$, using (2.2), we get $\|F_0^T d_0\| = -\|F_0\|^2$. □

Therefore, the search direction d_k generated by the Algorithm 2.1 satisfies the sufficient descent condition.

3. Convergence analysis

In order to prove the global convergence of Algorithm 2.1, we give the following assumptions.

ASSUMPTION 3.1.

- (1) The solution set of the system of monotone Equations (1.1) is nonempty.
- (2) $F(x)$ is Lipschitz continuous on \mathbb{R}^n , namely

$$\|F(y) - F(x)\| \leq L \|y - x\|, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \tag{3.1}$$

where $L > 0$ is a positive constant.

Assumption 3.1 implies that

$$\|F(x)\| \leq \kappa, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \tag{3.2}$$

where κ is a positive constant.

LEMMA 3.1. *Suppose Assumption 3.1 is satisfied and the sequence $\{x_k\}$ is generated by Algorithm 2.1. For any x^* such that $F(x^*)=0$, we have*

$$\|x_{k+1} - x^*\|^2 + \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|^2 \leq \|x_k - x^*\|^2. \tag{3.3}$$

In addition, the sequence $\{x_k\}$ satisfies

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|x_{k+1} - x_k\| = 0. \tag{3.4}$$

The proof can be referenced from [19].

REMARK 3.1. From (2.10) and (2.7), we have

$$\|x_{k+1} - x_k\| = \frac{\alpha_k |F^T(z_k)d_k| \|F(z_k)\|}{\|F(z_k)\|^2} \geq \sigma \|\alpha_k d_k\|^2. \tag{3.5}$$

Using (3.4), we can get

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|\alpha_k d_k\| = 0. \tag{3.6}$$

LEMMA 3.2. *Suppose Assumption 3.1 is satisfied and the sequences $\{x_k\}, \{d_k\}$ are generated by Algorithm 2.1. Then we have*

$$\|d_k\| \leq \kappa \left[1 + Ls + \frac{(Ls)^2}{4\gamma} \right], \tag{3.7}$$

where $\kappa > 0, 0 < \gamma < 1, s > 0, L > 0$.

Proof. From (2.10) and Step 2 of Algorithm 2.1, we have

$$\|x_{k+1} - x_k\| = \frac{\|F(z_k)^T(x_k - z_k)F(z_k)\|}{\|F(z_k)\|^2} \leq \|x_k - z_k\| = \alpha_k \|d_k\|. \tag{3.8}$$

According to the definition of line search in Step 2 of Algorithm 2.1 and $\alpha_k = \max\{s, \rho s, \rho^2 s, \dots\}$, $0 < \rho < 1$, we get

$$\alpha_k \leq s. \tag{3.9}$$

From the definition of w_{k-1} , we obtain $t_{k-1}d_{k-1}^T y_{k-1} \geq 0$, and then

$$d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1} \geq \|d_{k-1}\|^2. \tag{3.10}$$

Therefore, for $\theta = \theta_k^1$, from (3.1), (3.2), (3.8), (3.9) and (3.10), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|d_k\| &= \left\| - \left[1 + \frac{(F_k^T y_{k-1})^2 \|d_{k-1}\|^2}{4\gamma (d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2 \|F_k\|^2} \right] F_k + \frac{F_k^T y_{k-1}}{d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1}} d_{k-1} \right\| \\ &\leq \|F_k\| \left[1 + \frac{\|y_{k-1}\|^2 \|d_{k-1}\|^2}{4\gamma (d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1})^2} + \frac{\|y_{k-1}\| \|d_{k-1}\|}{d_{k-1}^T w_{k-1}} \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq \|F_k\| \left(1 + \frac{\|y_{k-1}\|^2}{4\gamma\|d_{k-1}\|^2} + \frac{\|y_{k-1}\|}{\|d_{k-1}\|} \right) \\ &\leq \|F_k\| \left(1 + \frac{L^2\alpha_{k-1}^2\|d_{k-1}\|^2}{4\gamma\|d_{k-1}\|^2} + \frac{L\alpha_{k-1}\|d_{k-1}\|}{\|d_{k-1}\|} \right) \\ &\leq \kappa \left[1 + Ls + \frac{(Ls)^2}{4\gamma} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, when $\theta = \theta_k^2$ and $d_k = d_k^3$, the conclusions also hold. □

LEMMA 3.3. *Suppose Assumption 3.1 is satisfied and the sequences $\{x_k\}, \{d_k\}$ are generated by Algorithm 2.1. If there exists a constant ϵ , such that $\|F_k\| \geq \epsilon$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$, then we have*

$$\alpha_k \geq \min \left\{ s, \frac{\delta\epsilon^2}{\rho^{-1}\kappa^2 \left\{ L + \sigma\kappa\rho^{-1} \left[\rho + Ls + (Ls)^2 + \frac{(Ls)^3}{4\gamma} \right] \right\} \left[1 + Ls + \frac{(Ls)^2}{4\gamma} \right]^2} \right\}. \tag{3.11}$$

The proof is analogous to that of Lemma 3.3 in [17]. We omit the proof here.

THEOREM 3.1. *Suppose Assumption 3.1 is satisfied, and the sequences $\{x_k\}, \{d_k\}$ are generated by Algorithm 2.1, then we have*

$$\liminf_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|F_k\| = 0. \tag{3.12}$$

In particular, the sequence $\{x_k\}$ converges to x^* and $F(x^*) = 0$.

Proof. If (3.12) does not hold, then there exists a constant $\epsilon > 0$ such that

$$\|F_k\| \geq \epsilon, \quad \forall k \geq 0. \tag{3.13}$$

From Lemma 2.1, we get

$$\|F_k\| \|d_k\| \geq \|F_k^T d_k\| \geq (1 - \gamma) \|F_k\|^2. \tag{3.14}$$

From (3.13) and (3.14), we have

$$\|d_k\| \geq (1 - \gamma) \|F_k\| \geq \delta\epsilon. \tag{3.15}$$

Suppose \tilde{x} is an arbitrary accumulation point of $\{x_k\}$ and K_1 is an infinite index set such that

$$\lim_{k \in K_1, k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = \tilde{x}. \tag{3.16}$$

From (3.4), (3.8) and (3.16), we can get

$$\lim_{k \in K_1, k \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_k \|d_k\| = 0. \tag{3.17}$$

On the other hand, combined with Lemma 3.3 and (3.15),

$$\alpha_k \|d_k\| \geq \min \left\{ \delta\epsilon s, \frac{\delta^2\epsilon^3}{\rho^{-1}\kappa^2 \left\{ L + \sigma\kappa\rho^{-1} \left[\rho + Ls + (Ls)^2 + \frac{(Ls)^3}{4\gamma} \right] \right\} \left[1 + Ls + \frac{(Ls)^2}{4\gamma} \right]^2} \right\}$$

> 0.

This inequality and (3.17) are a contradiction, then the conclusion (3.12) holds. From Assumption 3.1, Lemma 3.1 and (3.12), we see that the sequence $\{x_k\}$ converges to some accumulation point x^* such that $F(x^*) = 0$. \square

In order to further prove the R-linear convergence rate of the algorithm, we need to give the following assumptions.

ASSUMPTION 3.2. For $\forall \tilde{x} \in \Omega$, there exist $\rho \in (0, 1)$ and $\nu > 0$ satisfying

$$\rho \text{dist}(x, \Omega) \leq \|F_k\|^2, \forall x \in N(\tilde{x}, \nu), \tag{3.18}$$

where Ω is the solution set of problem (1.1), $N(\tilde{x}, \nu) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x - \tilde{x}\| \leq \nu\}$, $\text{dist}(x, \Omega)$ represents the distance from point x to solution set Ω .

THEOREM 3.2. Suppose Assumption 3.1 and Assumption 3.2 are satisfied, the sequence $\{x_k\}$ is generated by Algorithm 2.1, then the sequence $\{\text{dist}(x_k, \Omega)\}$ converges Q-linearly to 0, therefore $\{x_k\}$ is R-linear convergent.

Proof. Set $\omega_k = \text{argmin}\{\|x_k - \omega\| \mid \omega \in \Omega\}$, we know that ω_k is the closest solution to point x_k in the solution set Ω , that is

$$\text{dist}(x_k, \Omega) = \|x_k - \omega_k\|. \tag{3.19}$$

Using (2.11) and Cauchy-Schwartz inequality, we can get

$$\|d_k\| \geq \delta \|F_k\|. \tag{3.20}$$

Since $\omega_k \in \Omega$, from (3.3), (3.18), (3.19) and (3.20), we get

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dist}(x_{k+1}, \Omega)^2 &\leq \|x_{k+1} - \omega_k\|^2 \\ &\leq \|x_k - \omega_k\|^2 - \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|^2 \\ &= \text{dist}(x_k, \Omega)^2 - \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|^2 \\ &\leq \text{dist}(x_k, \Omega)^2 - \sigma^2 \|\alpha_k d_k\|^4 \\ &\leq \text{dist}(x_k, \Omega)^2 - \sigma^2 \alpha_k^4 \delta^4 \|F_k\|^4 \\ &\leq (1 - \sigma^2 \rho^2 \alpha_k^4 \delta^4) \text{dist}(x_k, \Omega)^2. \end{aligned}$$

It shows the sequence $\{\text{dist}(x_k, \Omega)\}$ converges Q-linearly to 0. Using $1 - \sigma^2 \rho^2 \alpha_k^4 \delta^4 \in (0, 1)$, then $\{x_k\}$ is R-linear convergent. \square

4. Numerical experiment

In this section, we will compare Algorithm 2.1 with the DFPB1 method in [16] and the MRMIL1 method in [17]. Our tests are implemented in MatlabR2015b, run on a personal computer with 4 GB RAM and Intel CPU I5-4210. We compare all methods, and give the numerical performance comparison chart. We employ the performance profiles [21], which are defined by the following fraction

$$\rho_\nu(\tau) = \frac{1}{|P|} \left| \left\{ p \in P : \log_2 \left(\frac{t_{p,\nu}}{\min\{t_{p,\nu} : \nu \in V\}} \right) \leq \tau \right\} \right|$$

to describe the performance of the algorithms. Here P is the test set, $|P|$ is the number of problems in the test set P , V is the set of optimization solvers, and $t_{p,\nu}$ is the

CPU time (or the number of the function evaluations, or the number of iterations) for $p \in P$ and $\nu \in V$. The numerical experiments include 10 large-scale nonlinear monotone equations. The problems 1-8 are selected from problem 1 to 8 in [17], and the problems 9-10 are selected from problem 4 to 5 in [22] with sizes 500, 1000, 3000, 5000, 10000, all problems are initialized with the following 8 starting points: $x_0^1 = (10, 10, \dots, 10)^T$, $x_0^2 = (-10, -10, \dots, -10)^T$, $x_0^3 = (1, 1, \dots, 1)^T$, $x_0^4 = -(1, 1, \dots, 1)^T$, $x_0^5 = (0.1, 0.1, \dots, 0.1)^T$, $x_0^6 = (1, \frac{1}{2}, \dots, \frac{1}{n})^T$, $x_0^7 = (\frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}, \dots, 1)^T$, $x_0^8 = (\frac{n-1}{n}, \frac{n-2}{n}, \dots, 0)^T$. For all methods, the stopping criteria are (1) $\|F(x_k)\| \leq \epsilon$; or (2) $\|F(z_k)\| \leq \epsilon$; or (3) the number of iterations exceeds k_{\max} , where $\epsilon = 10^{-4}$, $k_{\max} = 10^5$, $\rho = 0.7$, $\sigma = 0.3$, $\gamma = \frac{1}{4}$.

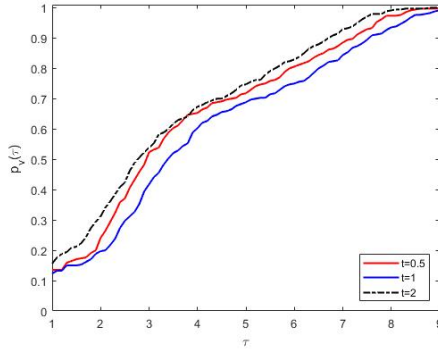


FIG. 4.1. Performance profiles of Algorithm 2.1 with different t based on the number of function evaluations.

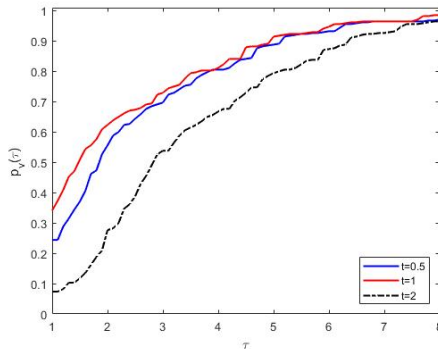


FIG. 4.2. Performance profiles of Algorithm 2.1 with different t based on the number of iterations.

We analyze the values of parameters t, s, γ in Algorithm 2.1, the value of parameter t in Algorithm 2.1 directly affects the search direction and its descent. Firstly, we study the numerical results of parameter $t=0.5, 1, 2$ in terms of the number of function evaluations, the number of iterations, and CPU operation time. Figures 4.1-4.3 show the experimental results of the direction with d_k^1 , $s=1, \gamma=0.25$. Obviously, in terms of the number of the function evaluations (see Figure 4.1) and the number of iterations (see Figure 4.2), the three values of t are almost the same, while in terms of CPU operation time (see Figure 4.3), for $t=1$, it shows a more stable performance.

Secondly, we study the effect of initial steplength s and parameter γ on algorithm performance. In Algorithm 2.1, we use d_k^1 as the search direction, use the initial step

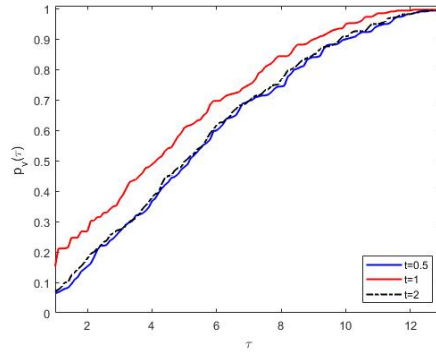


FIG. 4.3. Performance profiles of Algorithm 2.1 with different t based on the CPU time.

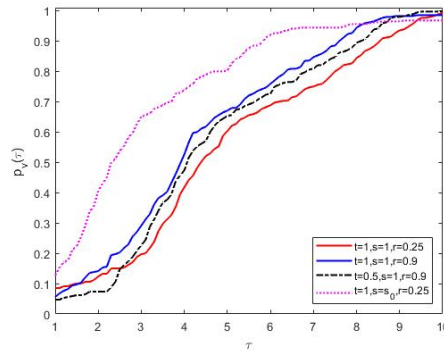


FIG. 4.4. Performance profiles of Algorithm 2.1 with different s and γ based on the number of function evaluations

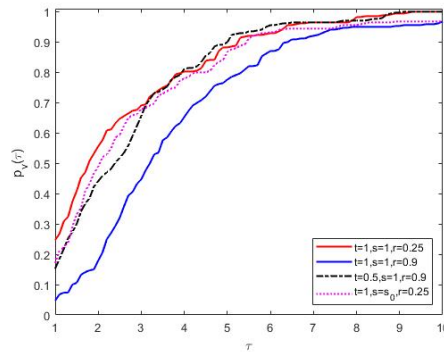


FIG. 4.5. Performance profiles of Algorithm 2.1 with different s and γ based on the number of iterations

for $s = 1$, $s = s_0$, $s_0 = \left\| \frac{F_k^T d_k}{(F(x_k + 10^{-8}d_k) - F_k)^T d_k / 10^{-8}} \right\|$, and $\gamma = 0.25$ respectively to solve 10 large-scale nonlinear monotone equations, the specific results as shown in Figures 4.4-4.6. Figures 4.1-4.6 show that Algorithm 2.1 with $t = 1, s = s_0, \gamma = 0.25$ has high stability in function evaluations. However, by observing the numerical results, for solving all test problems, it is found that the average number of function evaluations generated by

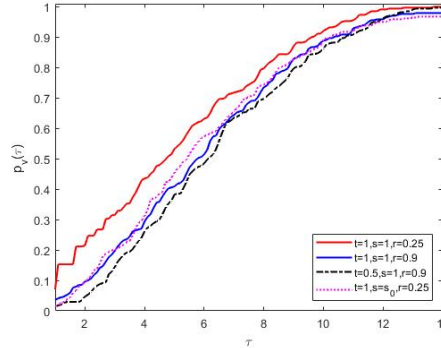


FIG. 4.6. Performance profiles of Algorithm 2.1 with different s and γ based on the CPU time

Algorithm 2.1 is more than other algorithms, and the CPU operation time is the same as that of other algorithms. Therefore, Algorithm 2.1 is not suitable for selecting initial steplength $s = s_0$. When $t = 1, s = 1, \gamma = 0, 25$ (red line), Algorithm 2.1 is almost the same as other algorithms in the number of iterations and function evaluations, but it is in the upstream in terms of the CPU operation time, which shows that in this case, the stability of the algorithm is good, and the average time of solving the test problem is short. Based on the above experimental results, we investigated the numerical performance of three search directions in Algorithm 2.1 under the conditions of $t = 1, s = 1, \gamma = 0.25$, denoted as NA1, NA2, and NA3, as well as DFPB1 and MRMIL1 algorithms proposed by [16] and [17], respectively.

Figures 4.7-4.9 show the performance profiles of the proposed NA1, NA2, and NA3 algorithms compared with MRMIL1 and DFPB1 algorithms in the CPU time, the number of the function evaluations, and the number of iterations. We can see from Figure 4.8 and Figure 4.9 that in terms of the number of iterations and CPU time, the performance curves of Algorithm 2.1 in three directions are significantly higher than that of the other two algorithms. It shows that the new derivative-free conjugate gradient method has good stability in solving large-scale nonlinear monotone equations, can use fewer iterations and CPU time, and has higher efficiency. Specifically, Figure 4.7 shows that the proposed algorithms perform better than DFPB1 and MRMIL1, whereas the NA1 uses slightly fewer function evaluations. In Figure 4.8, the search direction d_k^3 (NA3) performs better on the number of iterations at $\tau < 2$, and it still has the advantage when $\tau \geq 2$, but it is not evident. Figure 4.9 indicates Algorithm 2.1 proposed in this paper has obvious superiority, and Algorithm 2.1 with d_k^3 (NA3) is faster in solving large-scale nonlinear monotone equations and has notable advantages among the five algorithms.

In our opinion, the directions of the new algorithms have a natural descending property that does not depend on the step size, and the parameter t is suitably selected so that the function value has sufficient descent along these directions in each iteration. Simultaneously, the formula of the search direction is brief and uses the stored information in the calculation execution process, which results in no significant increase in the amount of calculation and the number of function evaluations. For the above reasons, the numerical performance of the newly proposed three algorithms is superior to that of the other two methods.

Finally, we make a meaningful attempt at line search technology. In [23], Dai

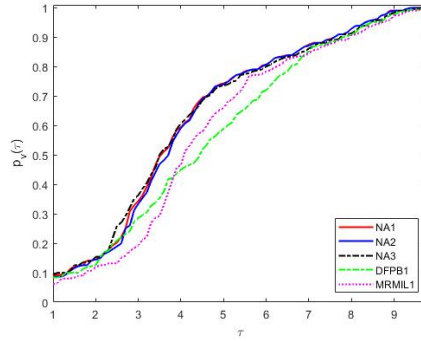


FIG. 4.7. Performance profiles of different algorithms based on the number of function evaluations

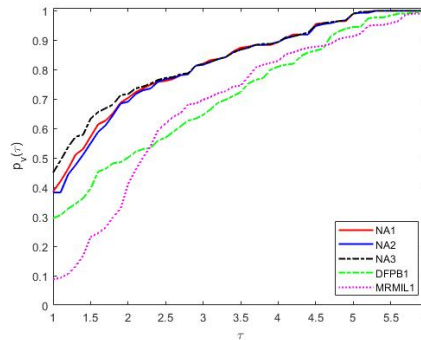


FIG. 4.8. Performance profiles of different algorithms based on the number of iterations

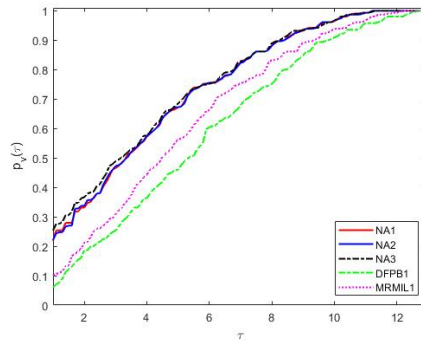


FIG. 4.9. Performance profiles of different algorithms based on the CPU time

introduces a line search technique:

$$-F(x_k + \alpha_k d_k)^T d_k \geq \sigma \alpha_k \min\{\|d_k\|^2, \|F(x_k + \alpha_k d_k)\| \|d_k\|^2, -F(x_k)^T d_k\}, \quad (4.1)$$

$\alpha_k = \max\{s, \rho s, \rho^2 s\}$, $0 < \rho < 1$, which is used instead of (2.7) to select the appropriate steplength α_k . It may find a more accurate α_k to construct an iteration point closer to the real value, which is a technology to reduce the number of iterations and save the operation time; it is also possible that the min function on the right side of the

inequality increased the number of function evaluations. The guess is confirmed in the following experiments. We replace the line search technique (2.7) in Algorithm 2.1 with (4.1), in the case of $t = 1, s = 1, \gamma = 0.25, d_k = d_k^l$, then we get Algorithm 4.1.

Prob.	n	NA1			MRMIL1			DFPB1			MNA1		
		nf	iter	CPUt	nf	iter	CPUt	nf	iter	CPUt	nf	iter	CPUt
1	500	988	88	0.297	992	88	0.265	988	86	0.295	1100	97	0.316
	1000	1501	121	0.687	1505	121	0.656	1514	120	0.69	1502	121	0.656
	3000	2904	204	3.385	2908	204	3.281	2914	203	3.377	2934	211	3.312
	5000	3874	259	7.548	3878	259	7.295	3884	258	7.613	3874	259	7.389
	10000	5826	364	22.575	5827	364	22.03	5828	362	22.78	5853	364	24.979
2	500	42	15	0.028	46	15	0.016	46	14	0.021	306	39	0.052
	1000	68	18	0.035	69	18	0.031	70	17	0.036	517	58	0.111
	3000	143	27	0.181	145	27	0.172	142	25	0.173	950	93	0.495
	5000	196	32	0.393	197	32	0.391	200	31	0.413	1520	135	1.32
	10000	304	42	1.183	308	42	1.171	308	41	1.263	2495	202	4.202
3	500	1349	715	0.703	1240	685	0.641	1295	711	0.669	13	4	0.008
	1000	1319	684	1.172	1316	740	1.187	1365	743	1.259	13	4	0.01
	3000	1666	790	4.062	1393	738	3.39	1443	742	3.65	13	4	0.015
	5000	1740	797	6.975	1016	474	3.952	1709	676	6.523	13	4	0.021
	10000	1582	758	12.852	1590	762	12.607	1613	764	13.146	13	4	0.035
4	500	154	28	0.063	155	29	0.062	154	27	0.064	183	34	0.097
	1000	236	36	0.14	241	37	0.125	238	35	0.146	248	39	0.129
	3000	486	58	0.672	492	59	0.641	497	58	0.701	495	67	0.667
	5000	672	73	1.526	678	74	1.484	684	73	1.506	687	77	1.598
	10000	1044	101	4.6	1050	102	4.545	1046	100	4.647	1137	111	4.743
5	500	104	19	0.046	115	21	0.063	169	30	0.267	132	24	0.261
	1000	104	19	0.156	115	21	0.203	169	30	0.265	132	24	0.269
	3000	104	19	1.312	115	21	1.579	169	30	2.4	132	24	3.75
	5000	104	19	3.578	115	21	3.921	169	30	5.753	132	24	6.178
	10000	104	19	13.726	115	21	16.286	169	30	21.508	132	24	67.4
6	500	112	17	0.047	124	19	0.046	82	12	0.031	104	17	0.047
	1000	133	19	0.203	136	20	0.171	104	14	0.125	156	23	0.239
	3000	204	26	2.452	205	27	2.484	161	18	1.906	195	25	2.59
	5000	245	29	7.717	240	28	7.524	201	21	6.248	270	36	7.757
	10000	329	35	39.287	318	33	37.944	285	27	34.175	358	38	42.944
7	500	46	14	0.047	46	14	0.016	48	14	0.024	280	36	0.049
	1000	75	18	0.031	70	17	0.031	74	17	0.041	477	54	0.099
	3000	149	26	0.187	153	26	0.187	159	26	0.213	884	87	0.484
	5000	214	32	0.438	218	32	0.422	214	31	0.439	1402	125	1.272
	10000	330	43	1.281	332	42	1.281	335	42	1.314	2326	189	4.033
8	500	121	20	0.047	128	22	0.046	126	20	0.038	114	18	0.031
	1000	145	22	0.062	155	24	0.063	165	24	0.071	137	20	0.063
	3000	230	29	0.234	246	32	0.266	657	113	0.703	222	32	0.234
	5000	283	33	0.485	303	37	0.499	768	127	1.428	275	31	0.453
	10000	396	41	1.327	410	44	1.375	987	156	3.477	388	39	1.297
9	500	38	15	0.031	34	11	0.016	40	15	0.018	348	44	0.064
	1000	59	18	0.032	55	14	0.031	66	19	0.037	587	65	0.132
	3000	129	27	0.171	125	23	0.172	128	26	0.173	1048	102	0.578
	5000	184	33	0.391	179	28	0.359	187	32	0.386	1676	148	1.558
	10000	287	43	1.171	282	38	1.156	294	43	1.189	2742	221	4.894
10	500	119	21	0.046	272	50	0.078	1045	203	0.281	19	6	0.017
	1000	140	24	0.063	319	58	0.14	1441	279	0.631	19	6	0.007
	3000	178	29	0.203	328	57	0.344	1420	272	1.655	133	17	0.071
	5000	295	48	0.547	377	64	0.672	1436	272	2.697	146	18	0.126
	10000	293	42	1.046	345	52	1.187	1549	288	5.78	214	23	0.345

TABLE 4.1. Numerical Results.

ALGORITHM 4.1.

Step 0: Choose an initial point $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, choose constants $\delta > 0, \sigma > 0, s > 0, \epsilon > 0, 1 > \rho > 0, k_{\max} > 0, d_0 = -F(x_0)$. Set $k := 0$.

Step 1: If $\|F_k\| < \epsilon$ and $k < k_{\max}$, the algorithm is terminated, output x_k ; otherwise, set $\alpha_k = s$.

Step 2: If α_k satisfy (4.1), then set auxiliary point $z_k = x_k + \alpha_k d_k$; otherwise, set $\alpha_k \leftarrow \rho \alpha_k$, go to Step 2 again.

Step 3: Calculate $F(z_k)$, if $\|F(z_k)\| \leq \epsilon$, then the algorithm stops; otherwise, we use (2.10) to calculate x_{k+1} .

Step 4: Calculate $F(x_{k+1})$, $y_k = F(x_{k+1}) - F(x_k)$, $w_k = d_k + t_k y_k$. We use (2.1), (2.2) and (2.6), to determine the search direction d_{k+1} . Set $k := k + 1$ and go to Step 1.

We used Algorithm 4.1 (MNA1) to solve test problems 1-10, and compared with the numerical results of NA1, MRMIL1, and DFPB1 algorithms, the detailed results are given in Table 4.1. We denoted the number of function evaluations, iterations, and CPU operation time as nf , $iter$, and $CPUt$ respectively.

We can see from Table 4.1 that Algorithm 4.1 costs more than twice as much as other algorithms in solving test problems 2, 7, and 9. However, for problems 3 and 10, which are expensive to solve by other algorithms, the optimal solution is obtained in a short time and with a few iterations. It is a surprising result and may be closely related to the structure of the right side of the inequality (4.1), which is worthy of further study and discussion in the following work.

5. Conclusion

We mainly study a few efficient algorithms for solving large-scale nonlinear monotone systems in this paper, present a class of derivative-free conjugate gradient methods based on the projection technique, and prove that the search direction satisfies the sufficient descent condition. The global convergence of new algorithms is proved under appropriate assumptions. The numerical results show that the proposed algorithm has high efficiency in solving large-scale nonlinear monotone equations, and its performance is better than other similar algorithms in terms of function evaluations and CPU time.

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