# NEW HYBRID CONJUGATE GRADIENT METHOD FOR NONLINEAR OPTIMIZATION WITH APPLICATION TO IMAGE RESTORATION PROBLEMS

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The conjugate gradient method is one of the most effective algorithm for unconstrained nonlinear optimization problems. This is due to the fact that it does not need a lot of storage memory and its simple structure properties, which motivate us to propose a new hybrid conjugate gradient method through a convex combination of  $\beta_k^{RMIL}$  and  $\beta_k^{HS}$ . We compute the convex parameter  $\theta_k$  using the Newton direction. Global convergence is established through the strong Wolfe conditions. Numerical experiments show the superior efficiency of our algorithm to solve unconstrained optimization problem compared to other considered methods. Applied to image restoration problem, our algorithm is competitive with existing algorithms and performs even better when the level of noise in the image is significant.

Keywords: unconstrained optimization, conjugate gradient method, descent direction, line search, image restoration

Classification: 65K05, 90C26, 90C30

### 1. INTRODUCTION

The conjugate gradient method remains one of the most widely used iterative techniques for solving linear systems and nonlinear optimization problems due to its efficiency, numerical stability and versatility across different domains of science and engineering.

In this paper, we are interested in solving unconstrained optimization problems in the form

<span id="page-0-0"></span>
$$
\begin{cases}\n\min f(x) \\
x \in \mathbb{R}^n,\n\end{cases} \tag{1}
$$

where  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a continuously differentiable function.

The nonlinear conjugate gradient methods are efficient to solve problem [\(1\)](#page-0-0), especially for large scale problems. So, the classical conjugate gradient method is given by:

<span id="page-0-1"></span>
$$
x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k d_k, \tag{2}
$$

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where  $x_k$  is the current iterate point,  $\alpha_k > 0$  is the stepsize which can be found by one of the line search methods and  $d_k$  is the search direction defined by:

$$
d_0 = -g_0, \ d_{k+1} = -g_{k+1} + \beta_k d_k, \text{ for } k \ge 0,
$$
\n(3)

where  $g_k = \nabla f(x_k)$  is the gradient of f at  $x_k$  and  $\beta_k$  is a scalar conjugacy coefficient. The choice of the parameter  $\beta_k$  in the conjugate gradient method determines the search direction  $d_k$  which leads to different variants of the conjugate gradient method.

In recent years, researchers have continued to explore and refine the conjugate gradient method, proposing new  $\beta_k$  to address specific problem characteristics and computational challenges.

Some of the well known parameters  $\beta_k$  are those of Hesteness–Steifel (HS) [\[15\]](#page-16-0), Fletcher and Reeves (FR) [\[13\]](#page-16-1), Polak–Ribiere–Polyak (PRP) [\[21,](#page-16-2) [22\]](#page-16-3), Conjugate Descent (CD) [\[12\]](#page-16-4), Liu–Storey (LS) [\[17\]](#page-16-5), Dai–Yuan (DY) [\[6,](#page-15-0) [7\]](#page-15-1) and Rivaie–Mustafa–Ismail–Leong (RMIL) [\[24\]](#page-16-6). Hager and Zhang gave a good survey of nonlinear conjugate gradient methods in [\[14\]](#page-16-7).

The formulas of the  $\beta_k$  mentioned above are:

$$
\beta_k^{HS} = \frac{g_{k+1}^T y_k}{d_k^T y_k}, \ \beta_k^{FR} = \frac{\|g_{k+1}\|^2}{\|g_k\|^2}, \ \beta_k^{PRP} = \frac{g_{k+1}^T y_k}{\|g_k\|^2}, \ \beta_k^{CD} = -\frac{\|g_{k+1}\|^2}{g_k^T d_k},
$$

$$
\beta_k^{LS} = -\frac{g_{k+1}^T y_k}{g_k^T d_k}, \ \beta_k^{DY} = \frac{\|g_{k+1}\|^2}{d_k^T y_k}, \ \beta_k^{RMIL} = \frac{g_{k+1}^T y_k}{\|d_k\|^2}.
$$

Where  $y_k = g_{k+1} - g_k$  and  $\|\cdot\|$  denotes the Euclidean norm.

Many researchers proposed new families and combinations of the conjugate gradient methods, specifically the hybrid methods. The idea of the hybrid methods is to combine the standard conjugate gradient methods and exploit the attractive features of each of one and to avoid the jamming phenomenon. This combination can be convex or nonconvex. Among these hybrid methods, we can cite those proposed by Dalladji et al. [\[8\]](#page-15-2) and Mtagulwa and Kaelo [\[20\]](#page-16-8), Djordjevic [\[9,](#page-16-9) [10\]](#page-16-10), Ben Hanachi et al. [\[3\]](#page-15-3), Yang et al. [\[28\]](#page-17-0), Rivaie et al. [\[25\]](#page-16-11) and the families of conjugate methods proposed by Sellami and Chaib [\[26,](#page-16-12) [27\]](#page-17-1).

Recently, a great contribution in the area of conjugate gradient methods and its application has been done by Andrei in [\[2\]](#page-15-4).

The aim of this paper is to propose an efficient conjugate gradient method for nonlinear optimization using a new parameter  $\beta_k$  which leads to a new descent direction.

The contents of the remaining part of this paper are organized as follows. In section 2, we give the new formula of  $\beta_k$  and describe the corresponding algorithm. In addition, we present a complete analysis of the descent condition of the obtained direction then, we show the global convergence of the new algorithm using the strong Wolfe line search. Section 3 includes numerical experiments on the obtained algorithm based on our new parameter  $\beta_k$  on several unconstrained optimization problems compared to other considered methods, using the well known test functions in the literature and an image processing problems called image restoration problems. Finally, we end with a conclusion in section 4.

## 2. NEW HYBRID CONJUGATE GRADIENT METHOD AND DESCRIPTION OF THE CORRESPONDING ALGORITHM

Based on the previously mentioned hybridization ideas and considering the good numerical performance of the RMIL and HS algorithms, we present in this section a new formula of  $\beta_k$  which is a convex combination of  $\beta_k^{RMIL}$  and  $\beta_k^{HS}$ . Our new parameter  $\beta_k$ , denoted by  $\beta_k^{RMILHS}$  is given as follows:

<span id="page-2-0"></span>
$$
\beta_k^{RMILHS} = (1 - \theta_k)\beta_k^{RMIL} + \theta_k\beta_k^{HS}.\tag{4}
$$

So, we can write

<span id="page-2-1"></span>
$$
d_{k+1} = -g_{k+1} + \beta_k^{RMILHS} d_k,
$$
\n(5)

where  $\theta_k$  is a scalar parameter which satisfies  $0 \leq \theta_k \leq 1$ .

To compute the stepsize  $\alpha_k$ , of [\(2\)](#page-0-1), we use the strong Wolfe conditions, given by:

<span id="page-2-3"></span>
$$
f(x_k + \alpha_k d_k) \leq f(x_k) + \rho \alpha_k g_k^T d_k \tag{6}
$$

$$
\left|g_{k+1}^T d_k\right| \le -\sigma g_k^T d_k,\tag{7}
$$

where  $0 < \rho < \sigma < \frac{1}{2}$ .

It is obvious that, if  $\theta_k = 0$ , then  $\beta_k^{RMILHS} = \beta_k^{RMIL}$  and if  $\theta_k = 1$ , then  $\beta_k^{RMILHS} =$  $\beta_k^{HS}.$ 

On the other hand, if  $0 < \theta_k < 1$ , then  $\beta_k^{RMILHS}$  is proper convex combination of  $\beta_k^{RMIL}$  and  $\beta_k^{HS}$ .

Having in view the formulas of  $\beta_k^{RML}$  and  $\beta_k^{HS}$ , the relation [\(4\)](#page-2-0) becomes

<span id="page-2-4"></span>
$$
\beta_k^{RMILHS} = (1 - \theta_k) \frac{g_{k+1}^T y_k}{\|d_k\|^2} + \theta_k \frac{g_{k+1}^T y_k}{d_k^T y_k}.
$$
\n(8)

Hence the relation [\(5\)](#page-2-1) becomes

$$
d_{k+1} = -g_{k+1} + (1 - \theta_k) \frac{g_{k+1}^T y_k}{\|d_k\|^2} d_k + \theta_k \frac{g_{k+1}^T y_k}{d_k^T y_k} d_k.
$$
 (9)

As known, if the point  $x_{k+1}$  is close enough to a local minimizer  $x^*$ , then the Newton direction is the best direction to follow.

The parameter  $\theta_k$  is chosen such that the search direction  $d_{k+1}$  aligns with the Newton direction. So, assuming that the inverse of the hessian  $\nabla^2 f(x_{k+1})$  exists at each iterative point  $x_{k+1}$  for the objective function f. We are going to choose the parameter  $\theta_k$  such that the search direction  $d_k$  defined by [\(5\)](#page-2-1), satisfies the condition of Newton's direction, i. e.,

<span id="page-2-2"></span>
$$
-\nabla^2 f(x_{k+1})^{-1} g_{k+1} = d_{k+1} = -g_{k+1} + \beta_k^{RMILHS} d_k.
$$
 (10)

Replacing  $\beta_k^{RMILHS}$  by its formula [\(4\)](#page-2-0) and multiplying [\(10\)](#page-2-2) by  $s_k^T \nabla^2 f(x_{k+1})$ , where  $s_k = x_{k+1} - x_k$ , we obtain

<span id="page-3-0"></span>
$$
-s_k^T g_{k+1} = -s_k^T \nabla^2 f(x_{k+1}) g_{k+1} + (1 - \theta_k) \beta_k^{RMIL} s_k^T \nabla^2 f(x_{k+1}) d_k + \theta_k \beta_k^{HS} s_k^T \nabla^2 f(x_{k+1}) d_k.
$$
\n(11)

Using the secant condition  $\nabla^2 f(x_{k+1})s_k = y_k$ , [\(11\)](#page-3-0) becomes:

<span id="page-3-1"></span>
$$
-s_k^T g_{k+1} = -y_k^T g_{k+1} + (1 - \theta_k) \beta_k^{RMIL} y_k^T d_k + \theta_k \beta_k^{HS} y_k^T d_k.
$$
 (12)

From [\(12\)](#page-3-1) and with some simple algebraic manipulations, we define  $\theta_k$  as follows:

<span id="page-3-3"></span>
$$
\theta_k = \begin{cases} \theta_k^{NT} & \text{if } 0 < \theta_k^{NT} < 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } \theta_k^{NT} < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } \theta_k^{NT} > 1, \end{cases} \tag{13}
$$

where

<span id="page-3-2"></span>
$$
\theta_k^{NT} = \frac{-s_k^T g_{k+1} + y_k^T g_{k+1} - \beta_k^{RMIL} y_k^T d_k}{(\beta_k^{RMIL} - \beta_k^{HS}) y_k^T d_k}.
$$
\n(14)

### 2.1. Algorithm RMILHS

The algorithm corresponding to our parameter  $\beta_k$  is given as follows:

#### Begin algorithm

**Step 0:** Given a starting point  $x_0$  and a parameter  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Step 1: Set  $k = 0$  and compute  $d_0 = -g_0$ . Step 2: If  $||g_k|| \leq \varepsilon$ , Stop; else go to Step 3. **Step 3:** Find the stepsize  $\alpha_k \in ]0,1]$  (using strong Wolfe conditions [\(6\)](#page-2-3) and [\(7\)](#page-2-3)). **Step 4:** Compute  $x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k d_k$ . Step 5: Compute  $g_{k+1} = \nabla f(x_{k+1}), y_k = g_{k+1} - g_k, s_k = x_{k+1} - x_k.$ **Step 6:** Compute  $\theta_k = \theta_{k}^{NT}$  (using [\(14\)](#page-3-2) and [\(13\)](#page-3-3)). **Step 7:** Compute  $\beta_k = \beta_k^{RMILHS} = (1 - \theta_k)\beta_k^{RMIL} + \theta_k\beta_k^{HS}$  (using [\(8\)](#page-2-4)). **Step 8:** If  $|g_{k+1}^T g_k| \ge 0.2||g_{k+1}||$  (restart criterion of Powell [\[23\]](#page-16-13)) then set  $d_{k+1} = -g_{k+1}$  and  $\alpha_{k+1} = 1$ , else compute  $d_{k+1} = -g_{k+1} + \beta_k d_k$ . **Step 9:** Let  $k = k + 1$  and go to **Step 2.** 

### End algorithm.

### 2.2. Convergence Analysis

Throughout this section, we make the following assumptions:

(i) The level set  $\mathcal{L} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(x) \leq f(x_0)\}\$ is bounded, which means that there exists a constant  $M < \infty$ , such that

$$
||x|| \le M, \text{ for all } x \in \mathcal{L}.
$$

(ii) In a neighborhood  $\mathcal N$  of  $\mathcal L$ , the function f is continuously differentiable and its gradient  $\nabla f(x)$  is Lipschitz continuous, it means that exists  $0 < L < \infty$  such that

<span id="page-4-5"></span>
$$
\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\| \le L\|x - y\| \text{ for all } x, y \in \mathcal{N}.
$$
 (15)

Under these assumptions, there exists a constant  $\mu \geq 0$ , where

<span id="page-4-6"></span>
$$
\|\nabla f(x)\| \le \mu, \text{ for all } x \in \mathcal{L}.\tag{16}
$$

To establish the sufficient descent condition, we introduce the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.1.** Let the sequences  $\{g_k\}$  and  $\{d_k\}$  be generated by the RMILHS algorithm. Then, the search direction satisfies the sufficient descent condition:

<span id="page-4-0"></span>
$$
g_k^T d_k^{RMILHS} \le -c \|g_k\|^2, \text{ for all } k. \tag{17}
$$

P r o o f. From the RMILHS algorithm, we know that if the restart criterion of Powell holds, then  $d_k = -g_k$  and [\(17\)](#page-4-0) holds.

So, we assume that Powell criterion doesn't hold. Then, we have

$$
|g_{k+1}^T g_k| < 0.2 \|g_{k+1}\|^2. \tag{18}
$$

The following proof is by induction. If  $k = 0$ , then  $g_0^T d_0 = -||g_0||^2$ , so [\(17\)](#page-4-0) holds. Next, for  $k > 0$  we have

$$
d_{k+1} = -g_{k+1} + \beta_k^{RMILHS} d_k,
$$

which can be written as

$$
d_{k+1} = -(\theta_k g_{k+1} + (1 - \theta_k) g_{k+1}) + ((1 - \theta_k) \beta_k^{RMIL} + \theta_k \beta_k^{HS}) d_k
$$
  
=  $\theta_k (-g_{k+1} + \beta_k^{HS} d_k) + (1 - \theta_k) (g_{k+1} + \beta_k^{RMIL} d_k).$ 

It follows that:

<span id="page-4-1"></span>
$$
d_{k+1} = \theta_k d_{k+1}^{HS} + (1 - \theta_k) d_{k+1}^{RML}.
$$
\n(19)

Multiplying [\(19\)](#page-4-1) by  $g_{k+1}^T$  from the left side, we get

<span id="page-4-2"></span>
$$
g_{k+1}^T d_{k+1} = \theta_k g_{k+1}^T d_{k+1}^{HS} + (1 - \theta_k) g_{k+1}^T d_{k+1}^{R M I L}.
$$
\n(20)

Firstly, if  $\theta_k = 0$ ,  $d_k$  coincides with descent direction of Rivaie et al.,  $d_{k+1}^{RMIL}$  =  $-g_{k+1} + \beta_k^{RMIL} d_k$ , where they proved in [\[25\]](#page-16-11) that

<span id="page-4-3"></span>
$$
g_{k+1}^T d_{k+1}^{R M I L} \le -c_1 \|g_{k+1}\|^2, \text{ for all } k. \tag{21}
$$

Now, if  $\theta_k = 1$ ,  $d_k$  coincides with descent direction of Hesteness-Steifel,  $d_{k+1}^{HS} =$  $-g_{k+1} + \beta_k^{HS} d_k$ , where Djordjevic proved in [\[10\]](#page-16-10) that

<span id="page-4-4"></span>
$$
g_{k+1}^T d_{k+1}^{HS} \le -c_2 \|g_{k+1}\|^2,\tag{22}
$$

with

$$
c_2 = \frac{1 - 2.2\sigma}{1 - \sigma}
$$
, and  $\sigma < \frac{5}{11}$ .

Finally, if  $0 < \theta_k < 1$ , then there exist scalars  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ , such that

<span id="page-5-0"></span>
$$
0 < \lambda_1 \le \theta_k \le \lambda_2 < 1. \tag{23}
$$

From the formula [\(20\)](#page-4-2) and using [\(23\)](#page-5-0), we conclude

<span id="page-5-1"></span>
$$
g_{k+1}^T d_{k+1} \le \lambda_1 g_{k+1}^T d_{k+1}^{HS} + (1 - \lambda_2) g_{k+1}^T d_{k+1}^{RML}.
$$
\n(24)

Let  $c = \lambda_1 c_2 + (1 - \lambda_2) c_1$ , then from [\(21\)](#page-4-3), [\(22\)](#page-4-4) and [\(24\)](#page-5-1) we finally get

$$
g_{k+1}^T d_{k+1} \le -c ||g_{k+1}||^2
$$
.

Lemma 2.2. Suppose that assumptions (i) and (ii) hold. Consider common iterate [\(2\)](#page-0-1), where  $d_k$  is a descent direction [\(5\)](#page-2-1) and  $\alpha_k$  is determined by the strong Wolfe line search [\(6\)](#page-2-3) and [\(7\)](#page-2-3). Then, the Zoutendjik condition

<span id="page-5-6"></span>
$$
\sum_{k\geq 0} \frac{(g_k^T d_k)^2}{\|d_k\|^2} < \infty,\tag{25}
$$

holds.

P r o o f . The proof follows directly from [\[29\]](#page-17-2).  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 2.3.** Consider the RMILHS conjugate gradient method and suppose that assumptions (i), (ii) and [\(17\)](#page-4-0) hold. Then either  $g_k = 0$  for some k, or

<span id="page-5-2"></span>
$$
\lim_{k \to \infty} \inf \|g_k\| = 0. \tag{26}
$$

P r o o f. Suppose that  $q_k \neq 0$ , for all k. Then we have to prove [\(26\)](#page-5-2).

Suppose, on the contrary, that [\(26\)](#page-5-2) doesn't hold. Then there exists a constant  $t > 0$ , such that

<span id="page-5-3"></span>
$$
||g_k|| \ge t, \text{ for all } k. \tag{27}
$$

Let D be the diameter of the level set  $\mathcal{L}$ . From the formula of  $\beta_k^{RMILHS}$  we get

<span id="page-5-5"></span>
$$
\left| \beta_k^{RMILHS} \right| \le \left| \beta_k^{RMIL} \right| + \left| \beta_k^{HS} \right| = \frac{\left| g_{k+1}^T y_k \right|}{\| d_k \|^2} + \left| \frac{g_{k+1}^T y_k}{d_k^T y_k} \right|.
$$
 (28)

Further, using the second strong Wolfe condition [\(7\)](#page-2-3), we get

<span id="page-5-4"></span>
$$
y_k^T d_k = g_{k+1}^T d_k - g_k^T d_k \ge (\sigma - 1) g_k^T d_k = -(1 - \sigma) g_k^T d_k > 0,
$$
\n(29)

which gives

<span id="page-6-1"></span>
$$
\frac{1}{y_k^T d_k} \le \frac{1}{-(1-\sigma)g_k^T d_k}.\tag{30}
$$

The direction  $d_k$  satisfies [\(17\)](#page-4-0), so it holds:

$$
-g_k^T d_k \ge c \|g_k\|^2,
$$

which implies using [\(27\)](#page-5-3) that

<span id="page-6-0"></span>
$$
\frac{-1}{g_k^T d_k} \le \frac{1}{c \|g_k\|^2} \le \frac{1}{ct^2}.\tag{31}
$$

So, from [\(31\)](#page-6-0) the formula [\(30\)](#page-6-1) satisfies

<span id="page-6-2"></span>
$$
\frac{1}{y_k^T d_k} \le \frac{1}{-(1-\sigma)g_k^T d_k} \le \frac{1}{(1-\sigma)ct^2}.
$$
\n(32)

Now, using  $(15)$  and  $(16)$ , we get

<span id="page-6-3"></span>
$$
\left|g_{k+1}^T y_k\right| \le \|g_{k+1}\| \left\|g_{k+1} - g_k\right\| \le \mu L \|x_{k+1} - x_k\| \le \mu L \|s_k\| \le \mu LD. \tag{33}
$$

Then, from [\(32\)](#page-6-2) and [\(33\)](#page-6-3), we have

<span id="page-6-6"></span>
$$
\beta_k^{HS} = \frac{g_{k+1}^T y_k}{y_k^T d_k} \le \frac{\mu LD}{(1-\sigma)ct^2}.\tag{34}
$$

On the one hand and using [\(15\)](#page-4-5), we have

$$
y_k^T d_k \le ||y_k|| \, ||d_k|| \le L \, ||s_k|| \, ||d_k|| = L \alpha_k ||d_k||^2,
$$

then

<span id="page-6-4"></span>
$$
||d_k||^2 \ge \frac{1}{L\alpha_k} y_k^T d_k. \tag{35}
$$

So, using [\(29\)](#page-5-4) and [\(17\)](#page-4-0) the formula [\(35\)](#page-6-4) becomes

$$
||d_k||^2 \ge -\frac{1}{L\alpha_k}(1-\sigma)g_k^T d_k \ge \frac{1}{L\alpha_k}(1-\sigma)c||g_k||^2.
$$

Using [\(27\)](#page-5-3), we get

<span id="page-6-5"></span>
$$
\frac{1}{\|d_k\|^2} \le \frac{L\alpha_k}{(1-\sigma)c\|g_k\|^2} \le \frac{L\alpha_k}{(1-\sigma)ct^2}.
$$
 (36)

From [\(33\)](#page-6-3), [\(36\)](#page-6-5) and the formula of  $\beta_k^{RMIL}$ , we obtain

<span id="page-6-7"></span>
$$
\left| \beta_k^{RMIL} \right| = \frac{\left| g_{k+1}^T y_k \right|}{\|d_k\|^2} \le \frac{\mu L^2 D}{(1 - \sigma) c t^2} \alpha_k. \tag{37}
$$

Now, from [\(28\)](#page-5-5), [\(34\)](#page-6-6) and [\(37\)](#page-6-7) we get

<span id="page-6-8"></span>
$$
|\beta_k^{RMILHS}| \leq \frac{\mu LD}{(1-\sigma)ct^2}(L\alpha_k+1). \tag{38}
$$

Next, we are going to prove as in [\[9\]](#page-16-9) that there exists  $\alpha_* > 0$ , such that

$$
\alpha_k \ge \alpha_* > 0, \text{ for all } k.
$$

Suppose, on the contrary, that there isn't an  $\alpha_*$ , such that  $\alpha_k \geq \alpha_* > 0$ . Then there exists an infinite subsequence  $\alpha_k = \gamma^{j_k}, k \in K_1$  such that

$$
\lim_{k \in K_1} \alpha_k = 0.
$$

Then

<span id="page-7-1"></span>
$$
\lim_{k \in K_1} \gamma^{j_k - 1} = 0,\tag{39}
$$

i. e.,

$$
\lim_{k \in K_1} j_k - 1 = \infty.
$$

Now, from [\(6\)](#page-2-3) we get

$$
f(x_k + \gamma^{j_k} d_k) - f(x_k) \le \delta \gamma^{j_k} g_k^T d_k,
$$
\n(40)

<span id="page-7-0"></span>
$$
f(x_k + \gamma^{j_k - 1} d_k) - f(x_k) > \delta \gamma^{j_k - 1} g_k^T d_k,
$$
\n(41)

where  $\delta < 1$ . From [\(41\)](#page-7-0), we have

<span id="page-7-2"></span>
$$
\frac{f(x_k + \gamma^{j_k - 1} d_k) - f(x_k)}{\gamma^{j_k - 1}} > \delta g_k^T d_k.
$$
\n(42)

Using [\(39\)](#page-7-1) and passing to the limit of [\(42\)](#page-7-2), we conclude that

<span id="page-7-3"></span>
$$
g_k^T d_k \ge \delta g_k^T d_k. \tag{43}
$$

But, our method satisfies the sufficient descent, so  $g_k^T d_k \leq 0$ .

Also,  $0 < \delta < 1$ , so, the relation [\(43\)](#page-7-3), is correct only if  $g_k^T d_k = 0$ . Then, from the second strong Wolfe condition [\(7\)](#page-2-3), we get that  $g_{k+1}^T d_k = 0$ , which correspond to the exact line search. So, we have a contradiction.

Now,we can write

$$
||d_{k+1}|| \le ||g_{k+1}|| + | \beta_k^{RMILHS} ||d_k||. \tag{44}
$$

As  $s_k = \alpha_k d_k$ , we write  $d_k = \frac{s_k}{s_k}$  $\frac{\partial \kappa}{\partial x_k}$ . So, from [\(16\)](#page-4-6) and [\(38\)](#page-6-8), we have

$$
||d_{k+1}|| \le \mu + \frac{\mu LD}{(1-\sigma)ct^2}(L\alpha_k + 1)\frac{||s_k||}{\alpha_k}.
$$

Since  $\alpha_k \geq \alpha_*$  and  $||s_k|| \leq D$ , it follows that

$$
||d_{k+1}|| \le \mu + \frac{\mu LD^2(L\alpha_* + 1)}{\alpha_*(1 - \sigma)ct^2} = Cste,
$$
\n(45)

which gives

<span id="page-8-0"></span>
$$
\sum_{k\geq 1} \frac{1}{\|d_k\|^2} = \infty.
$$
\n(46)

On the other hand, from [\(17\)](#page-4-0), [\(27\)](#page-5-3) and from the Zoutendijk condition [\(25\)](#page-5-6), it results that

$$
c^2 t^4 \sum_{k \ge 0} \frac{1}{\|d_k\|^2} \le \sum_{k \ge 0} \frac{c^2 \|g_k\|^4}{\|d_k\|^2} \le \sum_{k \ge 0} \frac{(g_k^T d_k)^2}{\|d_k\|^2} < \infty,
$$

which contradicts [\(46\)](#page-8-0). Therefore, [\(27\)](#page-5-3) doesn't hold.

Then,  $\lim_{k \to \infty} \inf ||g_k|| = 0$ . This completes the proof. □

#### 3. NUMERICAL EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we will study the effectiveness of our algorithm (RMILHS) on two parts. In this first part, we consider an unconstrained optimization problem of the form [\(1\)](#page-0-0). To show the effectiveness and to measure the convergence behavior of our algorithm  $(RMILHS)$ , we applied it on a set of test functions taken from  $|1|$  in comparing with some existing methods, namely  $HSFR$  method [\[10\]](#page-16-10), LSCD method [\[9\]](#page-16-9) and LSDY method [\[28\]](#page-17-0). We take several dimensions, from  $n = 10$  to  $n = 10000$  and we considered the precision  $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$ .

We used Matlab language on HP laptop with  $Intel(R)$  Core(TM) i5-6300U CPU  $@$ 2.40 GHz processor and 8GB RAM memory and Windows 8.1.

We applied here the iterations number, CPU time and the gradient evaluations. The performance profile of Dolan and Moré [\[11\]](#page-16-14) offers a systematic means to evaluate and compare the performance of a set of solvers S on a set P of problems. Assuming  $n_p$ problems and  $n_s$  solvers, for each problem p and solver s, they define  $t_{p,s}$  the computing time required to solve problem  $p$  by solver  $s$ . A need of reference point for comparisons. They evaluate the performance of solver s on problem p against the optimal performance achieved by any solver on the same problem using the performance ratio

$$
r_{p,s} = \frac{t_{p,s}}{\min\{t_{p,s} : s \in S\}}.
$$

They suppose that a parameter  $r_M \geq r_{p,s}$  for all chosen p, s, and  $r_{p,s} = r_M$  if and only if solver  $s$  does not solve problem  $p$ . Define

$$
\rho_s(\tau) = \frac{1}{n_p} size\{p \in P : \log_2 r_{p,s} \le \tau\},\
$$

where  $\rho_s(\tau)$  is the probability for solver  $s \in S$  that the performance ratio  $r_{p,s}$  is within a factor  $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$  of the best possible ratio. The function  $\rho_s$  is the (cumulative) distribution function for the performance ratio. The value of  $\rho_s(0)$  is the probability that the solver will win over the rest of the solvers. Table [1](#page-9-0) represents several test functions that are used in this experiments for different dimensions and different choices of the initial points.

Test function	Dimension	Initial point
Raydan 1	10, 100, 500, 1000, 2000	$(1, \ldots, 1)$
Raydan 2	10, 100, 500, 1000, 3000	$(4,\ldots,4)$
Diagonal 4	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(1, \ldots, 1)$
<b>Extended Woods</b>	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(2,\ldots,2)$
<b>HIMMELBG</b>	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(1.5, \ldots, 1.5)$
Extended Block-Diagonal 1	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(1, \ldots, 1)$
Prod1	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(1, \ldots, 1)$
Extended Maratos	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(0.1, \ldots, 0.1)$
Pertubed Quadratic	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(0.5, \ldots, 0.5)$
Extended White and Holst	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(1.5, \ldots, 1.5)$
Diagonal 2	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(1, \frac{1}{2}, \ldots, \frac{1}{n})$
<b>POWER</b>	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(1, \ldots, 1)$
Hager	10, 100, 500, 1000, 5000	$(1, \ldots, 1)$
<b>DENSCHNA</b>	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(1, \ldots, 1)$
HIMMELBC	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(1, \ldots, 1)$
<b>Extended TET</b>	10, 100, 500, 1000, 2000	$(0.1, \ldots, 0.1)$
Extended Cliff	10, 100, 500, 1000, 5000	$(1, \ldots, 1)$
Tridia	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(\frac{1}{n}, \ldots, \frac{1}{n})$
Diagonal 5	10, 100, 500, 1000, 3000	$(1.1,\ldots,1.1)$
<b>ARWHEAD</b>	10, 100, 500	$(1, \ldots, 1)$
QUARTC	10, 100, 500, 1000, 10000	$(2,\ldots,2)$

<span id="page-9-0"></span>Tab. 1. The test functions and their dimensions with the initial points.

In the second part, we applied our algorithm to image restoration problems with the use of the two-phase scheme.

As known, images can get corrupted due to various factors including noise during acquisition. In this part, we are going to deal with restorations of an image corrupted by impulse noise problems. Impulse noise is one of the most common noise models, where only a portion of the pixels is contaminated by the noise and the information on the true values of these pixels is completely lost. Chan et al. [\[5\]](#page-15-6) have applied the two-phase scheme to restore a corrupted image. Several researchers have used these two phases to make conjugate gradient algorithms capable of restoring images corrupted by impulse noise, even though the noise ratio is high or even reaches 90% [\[16,](#page-16-15) [18,](#page-16-16) [19\]](#page-16-17).

The two-phase scheme applied can be briefly described as follows. In the first phase, we use adaptive median filter to detect noisy pixels. In the second phase the noise from the corrupted pixels is removed by solving the following smooth problem [\(47\)](#page-9-1) proposed by Cai et al. [\[4\]](#page-15-7). We used our proposed  $RMLHS$  algorithm to solve the problem [\(47\)](#page-9-1), in comparison with  $HSFR$ ,  $LSCD$  and  $LSFR$  methods.

Let X be an image of size M-by-N and  $\mathcal{A} = \{1, 2, \ldots, M\} \times \{1, 2, \ldots, N\}$  be the index set of the image X. We minimize  $F_{\alpha}(u)$  where

<span id="page-9-1"></span>
$$
F_{\alpha}(u) = \sum_{(i,j)\in\mathcal{B}} \left( 2 \sum_{(m,n)\in\mathcal{V}_{i,j}\backslash\mathcal{B}} \varphi_{\alpha}(u_{i,j} - y_{m,n}) + \sum_{(m,n)\in\mathcal{V}_{i,j}\cap\mathcal{B}} \varphi_{\alpha}(u_{i,j} - u_{m,n}) \right), \quad (47)
$$



Fig. 1. Performance profile based on the iteration number.



Fig. 2. Performance profile based on the CPU time.



Fig. 3. Performance profile based on gradient evaluations.

in which  $\mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{A}$ , the set of indices of the noise pixels detected from the first phase and  $\eta$  its number of elements.  $V_{i,j} = \{(i, j-1), (i, j+1), (i-1, j), (i+1, j)\}$  is the set of the four closest neighbors for the pixel at pixel location, for all  $(i, j) \in A$ , and  $y_{i,j}$  be the observed pixel value of the image at pixel location  $(i, j)$ . Also  $\varphi_{\alpha}(t)$  is an edge-preserving boserved pixel value of the image at pixel location  $(i, j)$ . Also  $\varphi_{\alpha}(t)$  is an edge-preserving functional which is chosen as  $\varphi_{\alpha}(t) = \sqrt{t^2 + \alpha}$ , in our tests we set  $\alpha = 100$ . We use the peak signal to noise ratio (PSNR), defined by

$$
PSNR = 10\log_{10}\frac{255^2}{\frac{1}{MN}\sum\limits_{i,j}\left(x_{i,j}^r - x_{i,j}^*\right)^2},
$$

where  $x_{i,j}^r$  and  $x_{i,j}^*$  denote the pixel values of the restored image and the original one, respectively. We tested Lena  $(512 \times 512)$ , Man  $(512 \times 512)$  and Pepper  $(512 \times 512)$ . We also set the stopping criteria as

$$
Itr > 300 \text{ or } \frac{|F_{\alpha}(u_k) - F_{\alpha}(u_{k-1})|}{F_{\alpha}(u_k)} \le 10^{-4}.
$$

The noise levels of the salt-and-pepper noise used are as follows: 30%, 50%, 70%, and 90%.

In the following figures (Fig. 4 and Fig. 5), we present the most significant results of the noisy images which correspond to 70% and 90%.



Fig. 4. The original images, the noisy images with 70% salt-and-paper noise and the restored images by RMILHS , HSFR, LSCD and LSFR.



Fig. 5. The original images, the noisy images with 90% salt-and-paper noise and the restored images by RMILHS , HSFR, LSCD and LSFR.

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Images	Methods	<b>RMILHS</b>		<b>HSFR</b>			<b>LSCD</b>			<b>LSFR</b>		
	Ratio	<b>ITER</b>	<b>PSNR</b> CPU	<b>ITER</b>	CPU	<b>PSNR</b>	ITER	CPU	<b>PSNR</b>	<b>ITER</b>	CPI	<b>PSNR</b>
Lena	30%	11.34 21	38.07	21	1.09	38.07	19	10.42	38.06	19	10.41	38.06
	50%	18.23 24	35.53	24	18.18	35.53	22	16.82	35.50	22	16.79	35.50
	70%	27.02 29	32.22	29	27.10	32.22	26	23.00	32.21	26	22.87	32.21
	90%	44.07 34	27.21	34	43.88	27.21	44	57.73	27.07	44	57.73	27.07
Man	30%	16.25 22	34.46	22	14.64	34.46	19	10.43	34.43	19	10.49	34.43
	50%	18.66 23	32.02	23	18.49	32.02	22	16.88	32.00	22	16.87	32.00
	70%	29.53 29	29.04	29	27.53	29.04	27	24.79	29.06	27	22.57	29.06
	90%	49.07 39	25.02	39	49.58	25.02	49	58.29	24.96	49	58.49	24.96
Pepppers	30%	16.28 23	34.08	23	16.25	34.08	19	13.11	34.15	19	12.96	34.15
	50%	19.64 25	32.37	25	19.92	32.37	23	20.28	32.33	23	18.32	32.33
	70%	32.79 30	29.93	30	31.83	29.93	29	33.16	29.91	29	31.12	29.91
	90%	51.58 37	25.96	37	51.70	25.96	51	70.91	25.77	51	71.58	25.77

Tab. 2. Numerical results for image restoration problem.

The obtained results of the Table 2 are converted into a bar chart so that the subtle differences can be seen better.



Fig. 6. PSNR Comparison for different methods and images.

### 3.1. Commentaries

Concerning the first part, based on the performance profiles depicted in Figures 1, 2 and 3 for the number of iterations, CPU time and gradient evaluations, respectively, we can say that our new approach employing  $\beta_k^{RMILHS}$  is more efficient than the other considered conjugate gradient methods.

For the second part, the numerical results cited in Table 2, Figures 4, 5 and 6 show the superiority of the LSCD and LSFR approaches compared to our RMILHS approach. We observe either an equality or a slight increase in the number of iterations or computation time in RMILHS compared to LSCD, LSFR, and HSFR. On the other hand, our approach RMILHS and also HSFR offer a better PSNR compared to LSCD and LSFR.

### 4. CONCLUSION

We have proposed a new parameter  $\beta_k$ , which is the convex combination of  $\beta_k^{RMIL}$  and  $\beta_k^{HS}$ . We have provided proof of the global convergence of the algorithm under the strong Wolfe line search. The performance of the proposed new method is significantly better than other existing conjugate gradient methods, namely HSFR, LSCD and LSFR, for unconstrained optimization problems. On the other hand, applied to restoration image problems, our method is competitive with the considered methods and it is even better when the image's noise is higher.

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