

etc). Moreover, some books have been published to introduce R , such as [11, 12].

To make easy to use, to keep in good quality, and to maintain continuously, mostly R packages are saved in the following repositories: the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN, <http://cran.r-project.org/>) and Bioconductor Project (<http://www.bioconductor.org/>). The first one contains more than 6000 packages included in 30 task views (e.g., Cluster, Environmetrics, High Performance Computing, Machine Learning, Natural Languages Processing, etc.) whereas Bioconductor focuses on R packages related to the bio-informatics field. For example, in CRAN we can find following packages grouped in Machine Learning: *frbs* [13, 14] and *RoughSets* [15].

III. IMPLEMENTATION: GRADIENT DESCENT AND ITS VARIANTS

GD is a famous algorithm to find a local minimum of an objective function by searching along the steepest descent direction. Therefore, as long as the current iterate point is not a stationary point, the method certainly moves to a lower value of the objective function [16].

In machine learning, it is mostly used for dealing with supervised learning, which is regression tasks. By using GD, we construct a model represented in a linear equation that maps the relationship between input variables and the output one. In other words, GD determines suitable coefficients of each variable so that the equation can express the mapping correctly. Algorithm 1 illustrates steps to obtain the coefficients of linear equations.

input : Data training with $dim(m, n + 1)$ containing input samples
 $\mathbf{X} : \mathbf{x}^1, \dots, \mathbf{x}^m$ and output values
 $\mathbf{y} : y^1, \dots, y^m$,
 maximum iteration $maxIter$,
 step size α .

output: The best coefficients $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ for the hypothesis function $h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$

Generate initial coefficients $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ randomly;
while ($t < maxIter$) $||(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_{old}) < \epsilon$ **do**
 $\theta_0 \leftarrow \theta_0 - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(x^i) - y^i)$
 $\theta_1 \leftarrow \theta_1 - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(x^i) - y^i)x^1$
 ...
 $\theta_n \leftarrow \theta_n - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(x^i) - y^i)x^n$
 Update the coefficients $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{new} : \theta_0, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_n$
end

Algorithm 1: Pseudo code of GD [2].

From the computing perspective, obviously there is a main drawback in Algorithm 1, which is high computation cost corresponding to numbers of datasets. It is happened because we need to calculate the hypothesis

function of each data sample for every iteration. Therefore, researchers have been introducing some variants of the method. For example, the study [17] proposes the MBGD algorithm. SGD [5] and SAG [6] are also used to speed up the algorithms. These algorithms have been implemented to deal with many problems, such as image processing [18, 19] and breast cancer classification [20].

In this research, we develop an R package implementing four algorithms based on GD: original GD, MBGD, SGD, and SAG. The package is called *grad-DescentR*. These algorithms are written into a main R function, with the following signature:

```
trainData <- function(dataset,
+ nData = nrow(dataset), theta,
+ alpha = 0.1, maxIter = 1,
+ maxError = 0, isNormalize = TRUE,
+ typeMethod = "GD", seed = NULL)
```

It can be seen that to run the function, we need to supply several parameters. Some parameters have a default value while the others must be defined. The most important argument is *dataset* representing data training in *data.frame*. *theta* is used to initiate the coefficients while *alpha*, *maxIter*, *maxError*, *isNormalize*, *typeMethod*, and *seed* express the step size, maximum iteration, tolerated error, normalization of the dataset, the chosen method, and a seed value of random generation, respectively. Especially for *typeMethod*, we can select one of the following values: “GD”, “MBGD”, “SGD”, and “SAG”.

After obtaining a linear model, we need to perform the *prediction()* function. This function has the following signature:

```
prediction <- function(model, dataTest)
```

So, there are two arguments in the function: *model* and *dataTest*, representing an R object of the linear model and new data for testing, respectively.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL STUDY: THE COMPRESSIBILITY FACTOR OF CO_2

In this section, we illustrate the use of the package for calculating Z -factor of CO_2 . However, firstly we explain the problem formulation more detail in the next section. Data gathering and experimental design are discussed as well.

A. Problem Definition

One of the problems in calculation in industry is analyzing Z -factor, which is defined as the ratio of the molar volume of a gas to the molar volume of an ideal gas at the same temperature and pressure [21]. This factor is important for prediction the thermodynamic properties of the gas, relating to the phase change, the temperature, and the pressure of the gas [22]. In short, Z -factor is defined in terms of the gas constant R and the measurable gas variables (i.e., pressure P , volume V , absolute temperature T , and quantity). The quantity is expressed as the number of moles n and

density ρ . The simple expression of Z factor can be written in the following relationship [23]:

$$Z = \frac{P}{\rho RT}$$

Moreover, Z -factor of CO_2 is an essential calculations in chemical, oil, and gas engineering. For example, calculating Z factor is used to determine CO_2 compression, design of pipeline, material balance calculations and surface facilities design [10]. It is also important to do in enhanced oil recovery combined with carbon sequestration in mature oil fields [24, 25].

Mostly, there are four strategies to determine Z factor of CO_2 . First, it can be done by experimental/laboratory measurements. Even though we can obtain the precise values, these procedures are usually expensive, time consuming, and cumbersome experiments [26]. Another method to predict the Z factor is by calculating equations of state (EOS) [27]. A main drawback of this approach is that we need to construct and solve a model containing complicated and implicit equations. The third way is much easier and faster, which is via correlations. Since correlations are built by multiple steps sequentially, the error will be propagated in the other calculations [28]. Because of these disadvantages of each approach, machine-learning approaches as the last strategy are proposed. The following are studies conducting machine learning for calculating Z factor: [29–32].

B. Data Gathering and Experimental Design

In order to do some experimentations, we are using some data collected experimentally by George C. Kennedy [33]. The data contain 2110 samples involving temperature (T) in *Celsius*, pressure (P) in *bars*, and density in *gr/cc*. After doing conversion, we obtain a relationship between input attributes (i.e., T in *Kelvin* and P in *atm*) and the output (i.e., Z factor). To get a good distribution of T , P , and Z , we need to shuffle the data.

After gathering and pre-processing the data, we make the following experimental design. We firstly split the data into two groups: training and testing. The training data, used for learning or constructing a linear model, contain 80% of data while the rest is for testing. Corresponding to four implemented methods based on GD, there are four scenarios of the experiments: using GD, MBGD, SGD, and SAG. For every scenario, we perform several maximum iterations (*maxIter*) and number of datasets on each batch (*nData*) with two different values of *alpha* as illustrated in Table I. The last step is to calculate Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE). Furthermore, we compare the results with other methods: Subtractive Clustering (*SBC*) and Dynamic Evolving Neural-Fuzzy Inference System (*DENFIS*) included in the *R* package *frbs* [13].

TABLE I
SCENARIOS AND THE INPUT PARAMETERS.

Scenario	Method	<i>alpha</i>	<i>nData</i>	<i>maxIter</i>
1	GD	0.1,	-	10, 20, 30, 40,
		0.01		50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100, 1000
2	MBGD	0.1,	10, 20	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,
		0.01		7, 8, 9, 10
3	SGD	0.1,	1	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,
		0.01		7, 8, 9, 10
4	SAG	0.1,	10, 20	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,
		0.01		7, 8, 9, 10

TABLE II
RESULT COMPARISON WITH OTHER METHODS.

Method	Parameters	Best RMSE
GD	<i>maxIter</i> = 1000, <i>alpha</i> = 0.1	0.151
MBGD	<i>maxIter</i> = 3, <i>nData</i> = 10, <i>alpha</i> = 0.01	0.152
SGD	<i>maxIter</i> = 2, <i>alpha</i> = 0.1	0.153
SAG	<i>maxIter</i> = 4, <i>nData</i> = 10, <i>alpha</i> = 0.1	0.165
SBC	<i>r.a</i> = 0.5, <i>eps.high</i> = 0.5, <i>eps.low</i> = 0.15	0.229
DENFIS	<i>Dthr</i> = 0.01, <i>max.iter</i> = 300, <i>step.size</i> = 0.01, <i>d</i> = 2	0.563

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After running some simulations with several values of the parameters indicated in Table I, we obtain the best predicted Z factor of CO_2 of all methods as illustrated in Figure 1. It can be seen that even though at beginning all methods cannot predict precisely, they give small errors after the index 144. It might be happened because Z -factor values on the index from 1 to 144 are fluctuating and sensitive. In other words, these values should be approximated by a method using a set of hypothesis functions expressed by non-linear equations instead of a linear one as GD.

In more detail, we can see RMSE of all methods based on GD and its comparison with *SBC* and *DENFIS* in Table II. It can be seen that GD gives the smallest RMSE, which is 0.151 on the iteration 1000. However, regarding the number of iterations, SGD, MBGD, and SAG can obtain the best RMSE on second, third, and fourth iterations. It should be noted that even though on the second iteration SGD has the best RMSE, it does not mean on the next iterations, the method consistently has the same or better values of RMSE. It can be understood because they are included in a stochastic algorithm. Moreover, two other methods as the comparison, which are *SBC* and *DENFIS*, are difficult to obtain better results because the Z -factor datasets probably contain small intervals and sensitive values.

VI. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

There are two main contributions in this research. The first one is to create an *R* package for regression tasks, called *gradDescentR*. It implements four algorithms based on GD and its variants (i.e., MBGD,

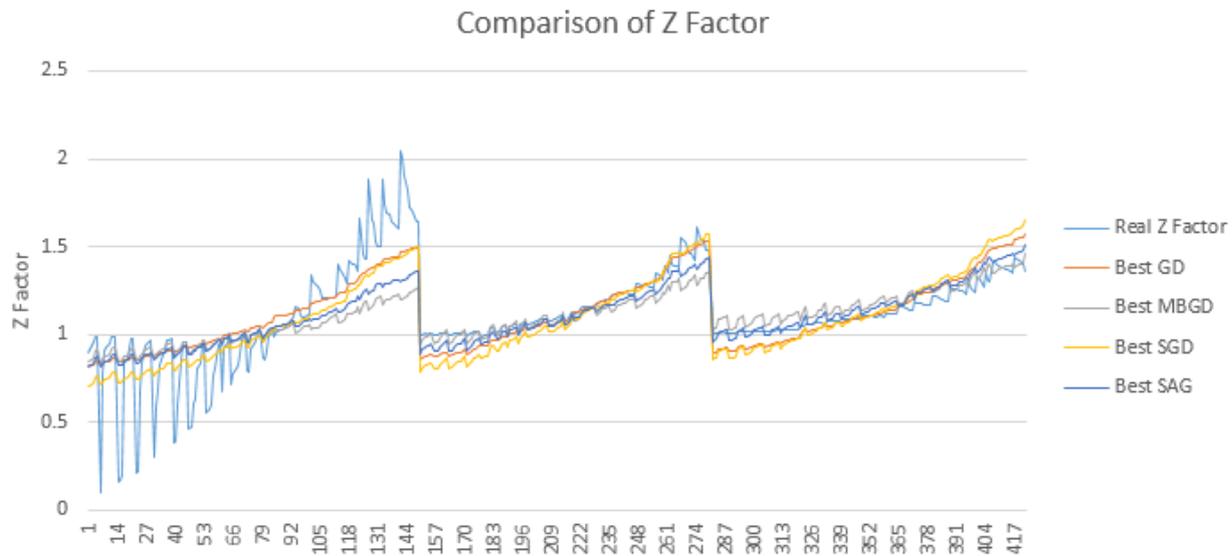


Figure 1. Comparison between real and predicted values of Z factor.

SGD, and SAG). Second, we perform some experiments to calculate Z-factor of CO_2 by using the package. Moreover, some comparisons are also presented.

As future work, we plan to implement other variants of GD, such as Accelerated Gradient Method (AGM), Incremental Aggregated Gradient (IAG), and GD with momentum, for the same task. Furthermore, we will be studying the implementations of the methods in parallel computing.

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