

Figure 8-10. Swiss roll reduced to 2D using kPCA with various kernels

Selecting a Kernel and Tuning Hyperparameters

As kPCA is an unsupervised learning algorithm, there is no obvious performance measure to help you select the best kernel and hyperparameter values. However, dimensionality reduction is often a preparation step for a supervised learning task (e.g., classification), so you can simply use grid search to select the kernel and hyperparameters that lead to the best performance on that task. For example, the following code creates a two-step pipeline, first reducing dimensionality to two dimensions using kPCA, then applying Logistic Regression for classification. Then it uses Grid SearchCV to find the best kernel and gamma value for kPCA in order to get the best classification accuracy at the end of the pipeline:

```
from sklearn.model_selection import GridSearchCV
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
from sklearn.pipeline import Pipeline

clf = Pipeline([
    ("kpc", KernelPCA(n_components=2)),
    ("log_reg", LogisticRegression())
])

param_grid = [{
    "kpc__gamma": np.linspace(0.03, 0.05, 10),
    "kpc__kernel": ["rbf", "sigmoid"]
}]

grid_search = GridSearchCV(clf, param_grid, cv=3)
grid_search.fit(X, y)
```

The best kernel and hyperparameters are then available through the `best_params_` variable:

```
>>> print(grid_search.best_params_)
{'kpc__gamma': 0.04333333333333333, 'kpc__kernel': 'rbf'}
```

Another approach, this time entirely unsupervised, is to select the kernel and hyperparameters that yield the lowest reconstruction error. However, reconstruction is not as easy as with linear PCA. Here's why. Figure 8-11 shows the original Swiss roll 3D dataset (top left), and the resulting 2D dataset after kPCA is applied using an RBF kernel (top right). Thanks to the kernel trick, this is mathematically equivalent to mapping the training set to an infinite-dimensional feature space (bottom right) using the *feature map* ϕ , then projecting the transformed training set down to 2D using linear PCA. Notice that if we could invert the linear PCA step for a given instance in the reduced space, the reconstructed point would lie in feature space, not in the original space (e.g., like the one represented by an x in the diagram). Since the feature space is infinite-dimensional, we cannot compute the reconstructed point, and therefore we cannot compute the true reconstruction error. Fortunately, it is possible to find a point in the original space that would map close to the reconstructed point. This is called the reconstruction *pre-image*. Once you have this pre-image, you can measure its squared distance to the original instance. You can then select the kernel and hyperparameters that minimize this reconstruction pre-image error.

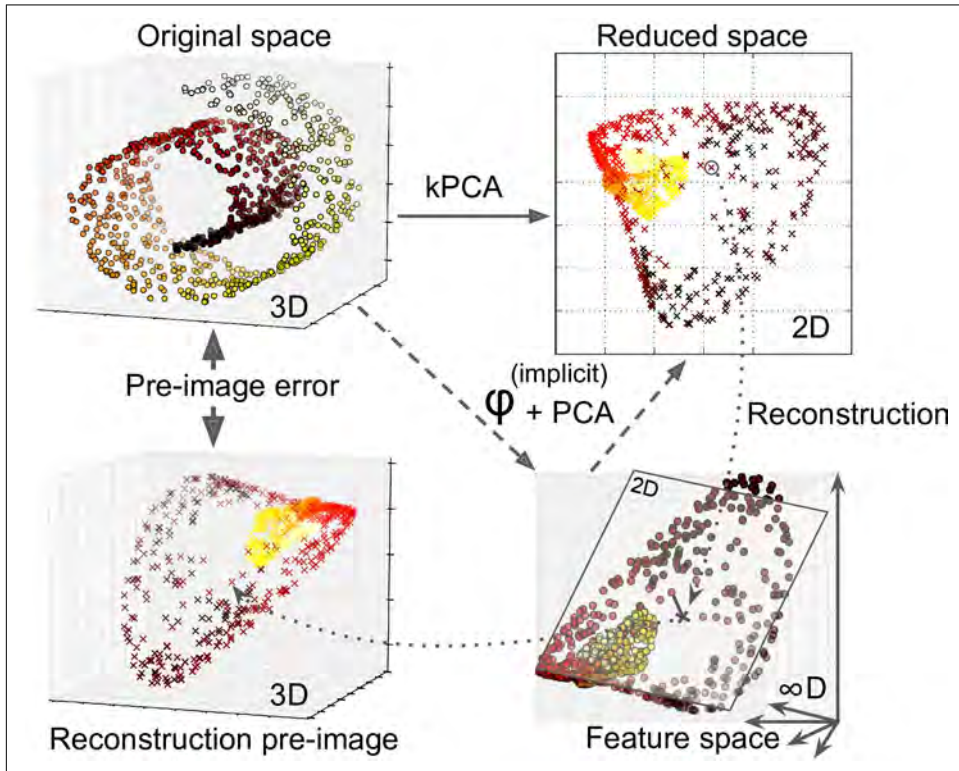


Figure 8-11. Kernel PCA and the reconstruction pre-image error

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You may be wondering how to perform this reconstruction. One solution is to train a supervised regression model, with the projected instances as the training set and the original instances as the targets. Scikit-Learn will do this automatically if you set `fit_inverse_transform=True`, as shown in the following code:⁷

```
rbf_pca = KernelPCA(n_components = 2, kernel="rbf", gamma=0.0433,  
                    fit_inverse_transform=True)  
X_reduced = rbf_pca.fit_transform(X)  
X_preimage = rbf_pca.inverse_transform(X_reduced)
```



By default, `fit_inverse_transform=False` and `KernelPCA` has no `inverse_transform()` method. This method only gets created when you set `fit_inverse_transform=True`.

You can then compute the reconstruction pre-image error:

```
>>> from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error  
>>> mean_squared_error(X, X_preimage)  
32.786308795766132
```

Now you can use grid search with cross-validation to find the kernel and hyperparameters that minimize this pre-image reconstruction error.

LLE

Locally Linear Embedding (LLE)⁸ is another very powerful *nonlinear dimensionality reduction* (NLDR) technique. It is a Manifold Learning technique that does not rely on projections like the previous algorithms. In a nutshell, LLE works by first measuring how each training instance linearly relates to its closest neighbors (c.n.), and then looking for a low-dimensional representation of the training set where these local relationships are best preserved (more details shortly). This makes it particularly good at unrolling twisted manifolds, especially when there is not too much noise.

For example, the following code uses Scikit-Learn's `LocallyLinearEmbedding` class to unroll the Swiss roll. The resulting 2D dataset is shown in [Figure 8-12](#). As you can see, the Swiss roll is completely unrolled and the distances between instances are locally well preserved. However, distances are not preserved on a larger scale: the left part of the unrolled Swiss roll is squeezed, while the right part is stretched. Nevertheless, LLE did a pretty good job at modeling the manifold.

⁷ Scikit-Learn uses the algorithm based on Kernel Ridge Regression described in Gokhan H. Bakır, Jason Weston, and Bernhard Scholkopf, “*Learning to Find Pre-images*” (Tubingen, Germany: Max Planck Institute for Biological Cybernetics, 2004).

⁸ “Nonlinear Dimensionality Reduction by Locally Linear Embedding,” S. Roweis, L. Saul (2000).