Activation Functions

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What is Needed for Generalization?

Recall



- To attain good generalization performance
 - the model class need to be able to approximate the true model well.
 - in addition, it should be possible to *learn* a (near-) optimal approximation within the class.
- We look at how activation functions affect the generalization performance of neural nets in this lecture.

Approximation Power

- True input-output relationship: $y = f(x) = x^2$, $x \in [-1, 1]$.
- Assumed model: single-hidden layer MLP, sigmoid activation for hidden units, and identity activation for the output unit.
- Is there a model that approximates f well?
 - i.e. can we find a neural net g(x) of the form $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i \sigma(w_i x + b_i) + \beta \text{ such that } |g(x) - f(x)| \text{ is small for all } x \in [-1, 1]?$

• Yes, we just need 2 sigmoid units for a very good approximation!



• What happens if $f(x) = \sin(2\pi x)$?

• We just need 3 sigmoid units for a very good approximation!



• Why can neural nets approximate these functions well?

- A key factor is the activation function
 - Why? MLPs with identity function are just linear functions \Rightarrow they can't approximate x^2 or sin $(2\pi x)$ well.
 - So the sigmoid activation plays an important role in our examples.
- Can we approximate functions other than x^2 and $sin(2\pi x)$? Does other activation functions work?
- Universal approximation theorems give affirmative answers to these questions.

Universal Approximation

- Under mild conditions, a single-hidden layer MLP using a bounded, continuous and monotonically increasing activation function have the universal approximation property
 - universal approximation = with sufficiently many neurons, we can approximate any continuous function arbitrarily well (typically on a compact domain)
 - Example activations: sigmoid, tanh
- This can be extended to certain unbounded activation functions
 - Example activations: ReLU, truncated power
- Most activations are thus "equal" in the sense that they have the universal approximation property.

- However, they are not really equal considering
 - computational efficiency
 - difficulty to optimize
 - generalization performance
- This motivates much research on designing good activation functions.

Binary Step

•
$$f(u) = \begin{cases} 1, & u \ge 0. \\ 0, & u < 0. \end{cases}$$

• Used in the perceptron (using -1 instead of 0 to denote inactive state), but provably hard to train in general.

- + biologically appealing, as biological neurons generate all-or-none electrochemical pulses.
- it makes the neural net discontinuous, thus not ideal for approximating continuous continuous functions.
- saturates too easily \Rightarrow hard to learn
 - saturation = little/no change if input increases further
 - \blacksquare saturation \Rightarrow vanishing gradients \Rightarrow gradient-based learning is hard
 - Gradient, if exists, is always 0 for binary step activation!

Sigmoid (aka logistic)



sigmoid squashes input to the range (0,1)

- $+\,$ it is continuous and differentiable with smoothly changing gradients \Rightarrow gradient-based learning is possible
- $-\,$ it still saturates for large inputs, and this kill the gradients.
- exponentiation is a bit expensive
- sigmoid outputs are not zero-centered
 - recall: we use various tricks to keep input zero-centered

tanh (hyperbolic tangent)

• $f(u) = \tanh(u) = \frac{e^u - e^{-u}}{e^u + e^{-u}}$



tanh squashes numbers to the range (-1,1).

- Essentially the same pros and cons as sigmoid, but tanh is zero-centered.
- Note: both sigmoid and tanh are used in LSTM (why? we need to take the desirable range of the output into account).

ReLU

•
$$f(u) = \max(0, u) = (u)_+$$



The ReLU unit does not saturate in +region.

 It approximates the sum of infinitely many shifted copies of the logistic unit.

$$\sum_{i=1}^\infty \sigma(x-i+0.5) pprox \ln(1+e^x) pprox \max(0,x).$$

Nair and Hinton, Rectified linear units improve restricted boltzmann machines, 2010

- $+\,$ ReLU is efficiently computable (no exponentiation), and converges much faster than sigmoid/tanh in practice.
- + ReLU often has better generalization than sigmoid/tanh in practice.
- output not zero-centered.
- a dead ReLU never activates again.

Leaky ReLU (LReLU)

• $f(u) = \max(0.01u, u)$.



Leaky ReLU does not saturate.

• Leaky ReLU has essentially the same pros and cons as ReLU, but it never dies.

Parametric ReLU (PReLU)

- Slopes other than 0.01 may be used for the negative part in leaky ReLU.
- Tuning the slope using cross-validation can lead to better results, but too tedious and slow.
- A better idea: learn a domain-specific slope together with other parameters.
- Parametric ReLU

$$f(u) = I(u < 0)\alpha u + I(u \ge 0)u,$$

where $\alpha > 0$ is learnable parameter.

ELU (Exponential Linear Unit)

• $f(u) = (u)_+ + \min(0, \alpha(e^u - 1)) \ (\alpha > 0 \text{ is user-specified}).$



- + ELU alleviates vanishing gradients in the positive part as in ReLU/LReLU/PReLU.
- + It has closer to zero mean outputs than ReLU.
- $+\,$ Its negative saturation regime adds some robustness to noise as compared to LReLU/PReLU.
- It requires exponentiation.

SELU (Scaled ELU)

• $f(x) = \lambda[(u)_+ + \min(0, \alpha(e^u - 1))]$ with $\alpha \approx 1.6733$ and $\lambda \approx 1.0507$.



- ELU uses user-defined α and $\lambda = 1$.
- In MLP using SELU, activations converge to zero mean and unit variance given normalized input and weights ~ N(0, ¹/_{n_i}).
 - Normalization tricks are not needed.

Klambauer, Unterthiner, Mayr, and Hochreiter, Self-normalizing neural networks, 2017

• Plot of mean and variance of activations against number of layers



Note that the mean and variance remain close to 0 and 1 respectively.

• Distribution of the activations are bimodal for normalized input



The distributions remain quite stable.

• For activations not close to unit variance, there is an upper and lower bound on the variance, thus, vanishing and exploding gradients are impossible.

Derivatives

name	f(x)	f'(x)
sigmoid/logistic hyperbolic tangent ReLU leaky ReLU parametric ReLU ELU	$ \begin{array}{l} \displaystyle \frac{1}{1+e^{-u}} \\ \displaystyle \frac{e^{u}-1}{e^{u}+1} \\ \displaystyle \max(0,u) \\ \displaystyle \max(0.01u,u) \\ \displaystyle \max(\alpha u,u) \\ \displaystyle \begin{cases} u, & \text{if } u>0, \\ \alpha(e^{u}-1), & \text{if } u\leq 0. \end{cases} \end{array} $	$ \begin{aligned} & f(u)(1-f(u)) \\ & \frac{1}{2}(1-f(u)^2) \\ & I(u>0) \\ & 0.01I(u\leq 0)+I(u>0) \\ & (\alpha I(u\leq 0)+I(u>0), uI(u\leq 0)) \\ & \left\{1, & \text{if } u>0, \\ & f(u)+\alpha, & \text{if } u\leq 0. \right. \end{aligned} $

• Derivative computation is cheap after function evaluation

even for activations requiring exponentiation

Choosing an Activation Function

- Avoid exponentiation if time is critical
- Avoid saturating units if training often get stuck
- ReLU is often a good starting point, but fancier versions may give you some performance improvement.
- Zero-mean and unit variance is desirable.

What You Need to Know

- Activation functions often differ wrt computational efficiency, difficulty to optimize, generalization performance.
- Some commonly used activation functions
 - Step, sigmoid, tanh, ReLU, LReLU, PReLU, ELU, SELU
- General rules for choosing an activation function