
Putting Theory to Work: From Learning Bounds to Meta-Learning Algorithms

Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

Abstract

1 In this paper, we review the recent advances in meta-learning theory and show
2 how they can be used in practice both to better understand the behavior of popular
3 meta-learning algorithms and to improve their generalization capacity. This latter is
4 achieved by integrating the theoretical assumptions ensuring efficient meta-learning
5 in the form of regularization terms into several popular meta-learning algorithms for
6 which we provide a large study of their behavior on classic few-shot classification
7 benchmarks. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first contribution that puts the
8 most recent learning bounds of meta-learning theory into practice for the popular
9 task of few-shot classification.

10 1 Introduction

11 The emerging field of *meta-learning*, also called *learning to learn* (LTL) aims at producing a model on
12 data coming from a set of (meta-train) source tasks to use it as a starting point for learning successfully
13 a new previously unseen (meta-test) target task with little supervision. Several theoretical studies
14 [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]¹ provided probabilistic meta-learning bounds that require the amount of data in the
15 meta-train source task *and* the number of meta-train tasks to tend to infinity for efficient meta-learning.
16 While capturing the underlying general intuition, these bounds do not suggest that all the source data
17 is useful in such learning setup due to the additive relationship between the two terms mentioned
18 above. To tackle this drawback, two very recent studies [10, 11] aimed at finding deterministic
19 assumptions that lead to faster learning rates allowing meta-learning algorithms to benefit from all the
20 source data. Contrary to probabilistic bounds that have been used to derive novel learning strategies
21 [4, 5], there was no attempt to verify the validity of the assumptions leading to the fastest known
22 learning rates in practice or to enforce them through an appropriate optimization procedure.

23 In this paper, we bridge the meta-learning theory with practice by harvesting the theoretical results
24 from [11] and [10], and by showing how they can be implemented algorithmically and integrated,
25 when needed, to popular existing meta-learning algorithms used for few-shot classification (FSC).
26 More precisely, our contributions are three-fold. First, we identify two common assumptions from
27 the theoretical works on meta-learning and show how they can be verified and forced via a novel
28 regularization scheme. Second, we investigate whether these assumptions are satisfied for popular
29 meta-learning algorithms. Third, we show that enforcing the assumptions to be valid in practice leads
30 to better generalization of the considered algorithms.

31 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. After presenting preliminary knowledge on the meta-
32 learning problem in Section 2, we detail the existing meta-learning theoretical results with their
33 corresponding assumptions and show how they can be enforced via a novel regularization technique

¹We do not mention the results provided for meta-learning in the context of online convex optimization [6, 7, 8, 9] as they concern a different learning setup.

in Section 3. Then, we provide an experimental evaluation of several state-of-the-art FSL methods in Section 4 and highlight the different advantages brought by the proposed regularization technique in practice. Finally, we conclude and outline the future research perspectives in Section 5.

2 Preliminary Knowledge

Given a set of T source tasks observed through finite size samples of size n_1 grouped into matrices $\mathbf{X}_t = (\mathbf{x}_{t,1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{t,n_1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times d}$ and vectors of outputs $y_t = (y_{t,1}, \dots, y_{t,n_1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$, $\forall t \in [[T]] := \{1, \dots, T\}$, our goal is to learn a shared representation ϕ belonging to a certain class of functions $\Phi := \{\phi \mid \phi : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}, \mathbb{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{V} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k\}$ and linear predictors $\mathbf{w}_t \in \mathbb{R}^k$, $\forall t \in [[T]]$ grouped in a matrix $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times k}$. More formally, this is done by solving the following optimization problem:

$$\hat{\phi}, \hat{\mathbf{W}} = \arg \min_{\phi \in \Phi, \mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times k}} \frac{1}{2Tn_1} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \ell(y_{t,i}, \langle \mathbf{w}_t, \phi(\mathbf{x}_{t,i}) \rangle), \quad (1)$$

where $\ell : \mathbb{Y} \times \mathbb{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$, with $\mathbb{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, is a loss function. Once such a representation is learned, we want to apply it to a new previously unseen target task observed through a pair $(\mathbf{X}_{T+1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2 \times d}, y_{T+1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2})$ containing n_2 samples generated by the distribution μ_{T+1} . We expect that a linear classifier \mathbf{w} learned on top of the obtained representation leads to a low true risk over the whole distribution μ_{T+1} . More precisely, we first use $\hat{\phi}$ to solve the following problem:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{T+1} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^k} \frac{1}{n_2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_2} \ell(y_{T+1,i}, \langle \mathbf{w}, \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_{T+1,i}) \rangle).$$

Then, we define the true target risk of the learned linear classifier $\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{T+1}$ as:

$$\mathcal{L}(\hat{\phi}, \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{T+1}) = \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x}, y) \sim \mu_{T+1}} [\ell(y, \langle \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{T+1}, \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) \rangle)]$$

and want it to be as close as possible to the ideal true risk $\mathcal{L}(\phi^*, \mathbf{w}_{T+1}^*)$ where \mathbf{w}_{T+1}^* and ϕ^* satisfy:

$$\forall t \in [[T+1]] \text{ and } (\mathbf{x}, y) \sim \mu_t, \quad y = \langle \mathbf{w}_t^*, \phi^*(\mathbf{x}) \rangle + \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2). \quad (2)$$

Equivalently, most of the works found in the literature seek to upper-bound the *excess risk* defined as $\text{ER}(\hat{\phi}, \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{T+1}) := \mathcal{L}(\hat{\phi}, \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{T+1}) - \mathcal{L}(\phi^*, \mathbf{w}_{T+1}^*)$.

3 From Theory to Practice

3.1 When does Meta-learning Provably Work?

First studies in the context of meta-learning relied on probabilistic assumption [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] stating that meta-train and meta-test tasks distributions are all sampled i.i.d. from the same random distribution. This assumption leads to the bounds having the following form:

$$\text{ER}(\hat{\phi}, \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{T+1}) \leq O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n_1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}}\right).$$

Such a guarantee implies that even with the increasing number of source data, one would still have to increase the number of tasks as well, in order to draw the second term to 0. A natural improvement to this bound was then proposed by [10] and [11] that obtained the bounds on the excess risk behaving as

$$O\left(\frac{kd}{\sqrt{n_1 T}} + \frac{k}{\sqrt{n_2}}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{O}\left(\frac{kd}{n_1 T} + \frac{k}{n_2}\right),$$

respectively, where $k \ll d$ is the dimensionality of the learned representation and $\tilde{O}(\cdot)$ hides logarithmic factors. Both these results show that all the source and target samples are useful in minimizing the excess risk. Thus, in the FSL regime where target data is scarce, all source data helps to learn well. From a set of assumptions made by the authors in both of these works², we note the following two:

²For a detailed review of the assumptions, the learning setups and the derived results from these two papers, we refer the interested reader to the Supplementary material.

Assumption 1. The matrix of optimal predictors \mathbf{W}^* should cover all the directions in \mathbb{R}^k evenly. More formally, this can be stated as

$$\frac{\sigma_1(\mathbf{W}^*)}{\sigma_k(\mathbf{W}^*)} = O(1), \quad (3)$$

where $\sigma_i(\cdot)$ denotes the i^{th} singular value of \mathbf{W}^* . As pointed out by the authors, such an assumption can be seen as a certain measure of diversity between the source tasks that are expected to be complementary to each other in order to provide a meaningful representation for a previously unseen target task.

Assumption 2. The norm of the optimal predictors \mathbf{w}^* should not increase with the number of tasks seen during meta-training³. This assumption says that the classification margin of linear predictors should remain constant thus avoiding over- or under-specialization to the seen tasks.

While being highly insightful, the authors did not provide any experimental evidence suggesting that verifying these assumptions in practice helps to learn more efficiently in the considered learning setting. To bridge this gap, we propose a general regularization scheme that allows to enforce these assumptions when learning the matrix of predictors in several popular meta-learning algorithms.

3.2 Putting Theory to Work

Ensuring assumption 1. For this assumption, we propose to perform the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) on the full matrix $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times k}$ but to take into account only the last batch of N predictors (with $N \ll T$) grouped in the matrix $\mathbf{W}_N \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times k}$. Furthermore, we note that

$$\sigma_i(\mathbf{W}_N \mathbf{W}_N^\top) = \sigma_i^2(\mathbf{W}_N), \quad \forall i \in [[N]],$$

implying that we can calculate the SVD of $\mathbf{W}_N \mathbf{W}_N^\top$ (or $\mathbf{W}_N^\top \mathbf{W}_N$ for $k \leq N$) and retrieve the singular values from it afterwards. We now want to verify whether \mathbf{w}_t cover all directions in the embedding space and track the evolution of the ratio of singular values during training

$$R_\sigma(\mathbf{W}_N) = \frac{\sigma_1(\mathbf{W}_N)}{\sigma_N(\mathbf{W}_N)}.$$

For the sake of conciseness, we use R_σ instead of $R_\sigma(\mathbf{W}_N)$ thereafter. According to the theory, we expect R_σ to decrease gradually during the training thus improving the generalization capacity of the learned predictors and preparing them for the target task. When we want to enforce such a behavior in practice, we propose to use R_σ as a regularization term in the training loss of popular meta-learning algorithms. Alternatively, as the smallest singular value $\sigma_N(\mathbf{W}_N)$ can be arbitrarily close to 0 and lead to numerical errors, we propose a more convenient replacement of R_σ given by the entropy of the vector of singular values defined as follows:

$$H_\sigma(\mathbf{W}_N) = - \sum_{i=1}^N \text{softmax}(\sigma(\mathbf{W}_N))_i \cdot \log \text{softmax}(\sigma(\mathbf{W}_N))_i,$$

where $\sigma(\mathbf{W}_N)$ is the vector of eigenvalues of \mathbf{W}_N and $\text{softmax}(\sigma(\mathbf{W}_N))_i$ is the i^{th} output of the softmax function. Analogously to R_σ , we write H_σ instead of $H_\sigma(\mathbf{W}_N)$ from now on. Since the distribution with the highest entropy is the uniform distribution, adding R_σ or $-H_\sigma$ as a regularization term leads to a better coverage of \mathbb{R}^k with a nearly identical importance regardless of the direction.

Ensuring assumption 2. In addition to the full coverage of the embedding space by the linear predictors, the meta-learning theory assumes that the norm of the linear predictors does not increase with the number of tasks seen during meta-training, *i.e.*, $\|\mathbf{w}\|_2 = O(1)$ or, equivalently, $\|\mathbf{W}\|_F^2 = O(T)$. If this assumption does not hold in practice, we propose to regularize the norm of linear predictors during training or directly normalize the obtained linear predictors $\bar{\mathbf{w}} = \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|_2}$.

The final meta-training loss with the theory-inspired regularization terms is given as:

$$\min_{\phi \in \Phi, \mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times k}} \frac{1}{2Tn_1} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \ell(y_{t,i}, \langle \mathbf{w}_t, \phi(\mathbf{x}_{t,i}) \rangle) + R_\sigma(\mathbf{W}_N) + \|\mathbf{W}_N\|_F^2, \quad (4)$$

³While not stated as a separate assumption in [10], the authors assume it in their analysis of linear representations and further use it to derive the Assumption 1 mentioned above. See page 5 and the discussion after Assumption 4.3 in their pre-print.

and depending on the considered algorithm, we can replace R_σ by $-H_\sigma$ and/or replace \mathbf{w}_t by $\bar{\mathbf{w}}_t$ instead of regularizing with $\|\mathbf{W}_N\|_F^2$.

3.3 Related work

Below, we discuss several related studies aiming at improving the general understanding of meta-learning, and mention other regularization terms specifically designed for meta-learning.

Understanding meta-learning Raghu et al. [12] investigated whether MAML algorithm works well due to rapid learning with significant changes in the representations when deployed on target task, or due to feature reuse where the learned representation remains almost intact. They establish that the latter factor is dominant and propose a new variation of MAML that freezes all but task-specific layers of the neural network when learning new tasks. In [13], the authors explain the success of meta-learning approaches by their capability to either cluster classes more tightly in feature space (task-specific adaptation approach), or to search for meta-parameters that lie close in weight space to many task-specific minima (full fine-tuning approach). Finally, the effect of the number of shots on the classification accuracy was studied in [14] for PROTONET algorithm. Our paper is complementary to all other works mentioned above as it investigates a new aspect of meta-learning that has never been studied before and provides a more complete experimental evaluation with the three different approaches of meta-learning (based on gradient, metric or transfer learning), separately presented in [12], [14] and [13].

Other regularization strategies In general, regularization in meta-learning is applied to the weights of the whole neural network [15, 5], the predictions [16, 13] or is introduced via a prior hypothesis biased regularized empirical risk minimization [2, 17, 18, 19, 9]. Our proposal is different from all the approaches mentioned above for the following reasons. First, we do not regularize the whole weight matrix learned by the neural network but the linear predictors of its last layer contrary to the first group of methods, and the famous weight decay approach [20]. Second, we regularize the singular values of the matrix of linear predictors obtained in the last batch of tasks instead of the predictions used by the methods of the second group (*e.g.*, using the theoretic-information quantities in [16]). Finally, the works of the last group are related to the online setting with convex loss functions only, and, similarly to the algorithms from the second group, do not specifically target the spectral properties of the learned predictors.

4 Practical Results

In this section, we use extensive experimental evaluations to answer the following two questions:

- Q1) Do popular meta-learning methods naturally satisfy the learning bounds assumptions?
- Q2) Does ensuring these assumptions help to (meta-)learn more efficiently?

To this end, we first run the original implementations of popular meta-learning methods to see what their natural behavior is. Then, we observe the impact of forcing them to follow the theoretical setup.

Datasets & Baselines For our evaluation, we focus on the few-shot image classification problem on three benchmark datasets, namely: 1) Omniglot [21] consisting of 1,623 classes with 20 images of size 28×28 per class, 2) miniImageNet [22] consisting of 100 classes with 600 images of size 84×84 per class, and 3) tieredImageNet [23] consisting of 779,165 images divided into 608 classes. For each dataset, we follow the commonly adopted experimental protocol used in [24] and [25] and use a four-layer convolution backbone (Conv-4) with 64 filters as done by [25]. On Omniglot, we perform 20-way classification with 1 shot and 5 shots, while on miniImageNet and tieredImageNet we perform 5-way classification with 1 shot and 5 shots. Finally, we evaluate four FSL methods: two popular meta-learning strategies, namely, MAML [24], a gradient-based method, and Prototypical Networks (PROTONET) [26], a metric-based approach; two popular transfer learning baselines, termed as BASELINE and BASELINE++ [22, 27, 25]. Even though these baselines are trained with the standard supervised learning framework, such a training can also be seen as learning a single task in the LTL framework.

Q1 – Verifying the assumptions According to theory, $\|\mathbf{W}_N\|_F$ and R_σ should remain constant or converge toward a constant value when monitoring the last N tasks. From Fig. 1(a), we can see that for MAML (Fig. 1(a) top), both $\|\mathbf{W}_N\|_F$ and R_σ increase with the number of tasks seen during

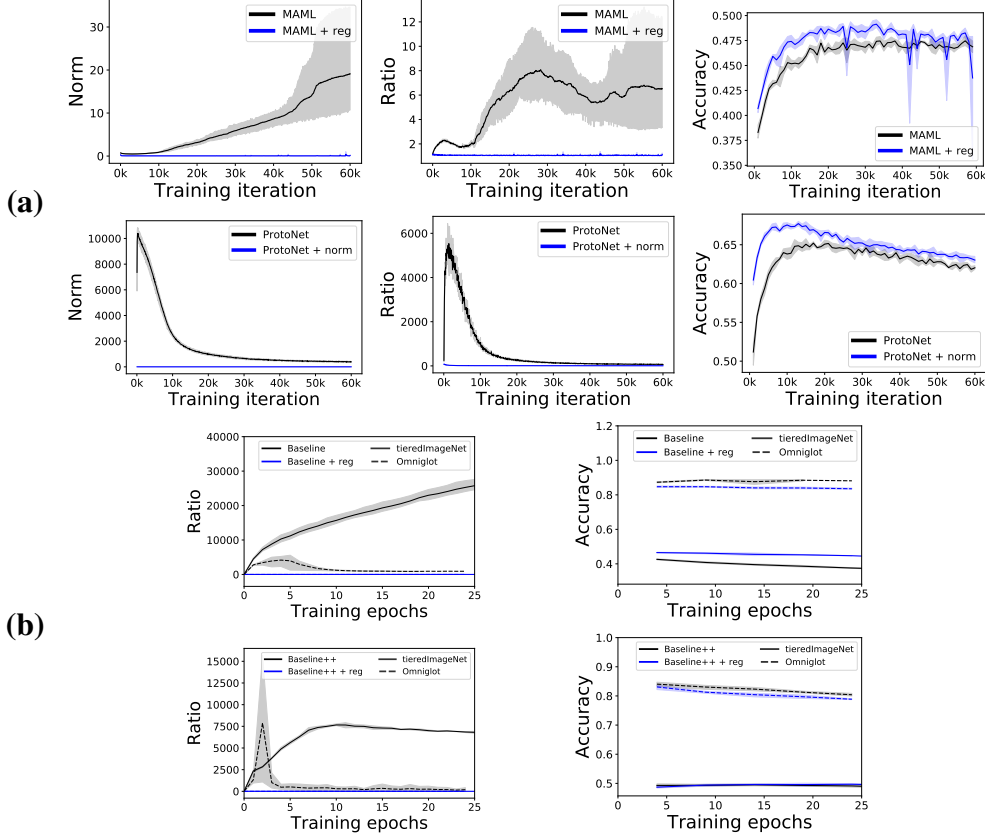


Figure 1: (a) Evolution of $\|\mathbf{W}_N\|_F$ (left), R_σ (middle) and validation accuracy (right) during training of MAML (top) and PROTONET (bottom) on miniImageNet (1 shot for MAML, 5 shots for PROTONET). (b) Evolution of R_σ (left) and validation accuracy (right) during training of BASELINE (top) and BASELINE++ (bottom) on Omniglot (dashed lines) and tieredImageNet (solid lines).

training, whereas PROTONET (Fig. 1(a) bottom) naturally learns the prototypes with a good coverage of the embedding space, and minimizes their norm. This behavior is rather peculiar as neither of the two methods specifically controls the theoretical quantities of interest, and still, PROTONET manages to do it implicitly. As for the transfer learning baselines (Fig. 1(b) top and bottom), we expect them to learn features that cover the embedding space with R_σ rapidly converging towards a constant value. As can be seen in Fig. 1(b), similarly to PROTONET, BASELINE++ naturally learns linear predictors that cover the embedding space. As for BASELINE, it learns a good coverage for Omniglot dataset, but fails to do so for the more complicated tieredImageNet dataset. The observed behavior of these different methods leads to a conclusion that some meta-learning algorithms are inherently more explorative of the embedding space.

Q2 – Ensuring the assumptions Armed with our regularization terms, we now aim to force the considered algorithms to verify the assumptions when it is not naturally done. In particular, for MAML we regularize both $\|\mathbf{W}_N\|_F$ and R_σ in order to keep them constant throughout the training. Similarly, we regularize R_σ during the training of BASELINE and BASELINE++, and both $\|\mathbf{W}_N\|_F$ and R_σ during the finetuning phase of meta-testing. For PROTONET, we enforce a normalization of the prototypes. According to our results for Q1, regularizing the singular values of the prototypes through the entropy H_σ is not necessary.⁴

Based on the obtained results, we can make the following conclusions. First, from Fig. 1(a) (left, middle) and Fig. 1(b) (left), we note that, for all methods considered, our proposed methodology used to enforce the theoretical assumptions works as expected, and leads to a desired behavior during the

⁴For more details on the effect of entropic regularization on PROTONET, we refer the interested reader to the Supplementary materials.

Dataset	Episodes	MAML	PROTONET	BASELINE	BASELINE++
Omniglot	20-way 1-shot	+3.95*	+0.33*	-13.2*	-7.29*
	20-way 5-shot	+1.17*	+0.01	+0.66*	-2.24*
miniImageNet	5-way 1-shot	+1.23*	+0.76*	+1.52*	+0.39
	5-way 5-shot	+1.96*	+2.03*	+1.66*	-0.13
tieredImageNet	5-way 1-shot	+1.42*	+2.10*	+5.43*	+0.28
	5-way 5-shot	+2.66*	+0.23	+1.92*	-0.72

Table 1: Accuracy gap (in p.p.) with the addition of the regularization (or normalization in the case of PROTONET) enforcing the theoretical assumptions. All accuracy results are averaged over 2400 test episodes and 4 different seeds. Statistically significant results (out of confidence intervals) are reported with *. Absolute performances are reported in the Supplementary material.

learning process. This means that the differences in terms of accuracy results presented in Table 1 are fully explained by this particular regularization added to the optimized objective function. Second, from the shape of the accuracy curves provided in Fig. 1(a) (right) and the accuracy gaps when enforcing the assumptions given in Table 1, we can see that respecting the assumptions leads to several significant improvements related to different aspects of learning. On the one hand, we observe that the final validation accuracy improves significantly in all benchmarks for meta-learning methods and in most of experiments for BASELINE (except for Omniglot, where BASELINE already learns to regularize its linear predictors). In accordance with the theory, we attribute the improvements to the fact that we fully utilize the training data, which leads to a tighter bound on the excess target risk and, consequently, to a better generalization performance.

On the other hand, we also note that our regularization reduces the sample complexity of learning the target task, as indicated by the faster increase of the validation accuracy from the very beginning of the meta-training. Roughly speaking, less meta-training data is necessary to achieve a performance comparable to that obtained without the proposed regularization using more tasks. Finally, we note that BASELINE++ and PROTONET methods naturally satisfy some assumptions: both learn diverse linear predictors by design, while BASELINE++ also normalizes the weights of its linear predictors. Thus, these methods do not benefit from additional regularization.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we studied the validity of the theoretical assumptions made in recent papers applied to popular meta-learning algorithms and proposed practical ways of enforcing them. On the one hand, we showed that depending on the problem and algorithm, some models can naturally fulfill the theoretical conditions during training. Some algorithms offer a better covering of the embedding space than others. On the other hand, when the conditions are not verified, learning with our proposed regularization terms allows to learn faster and improve the generalization capabilities of meta-learning methods. The theoretical framework studied in this paper explains the observed performance gain. Notice that no specific hyperparameter tuning was performed as we rather aim at showing the effect of ensuring learning bounds assumptions than comparing performance of the methods. Absolute accuracy results are detailed in the Supplementary materials.

While this paper proposes an initial approach to bridging the gap between theory and practice in meta-learning, some questions remain open on the inner workings of these algorithms. In particular, being able to take better advantage of the particularities of the training tasks during meta-training could help improve the effectiveness of these approaches. Self-supervised meta-learning and multiple target tasks prediction are also important future perspectives for the application of meta-learning.

Broader impact

Meta-learning framework is related to many research areas of high scientific interest and can be used in many applications considered in machine learning. Consequently, exhaustively stating all the potential ethical impacts of our work appears to be quite hard. As described in the paper, it could be used to solve the so-called few-shot image classification problem, but this is a rather common task

solved routinely by many machine learning methods and, if not applied to sensitive data, remains quite unoffensive. Generally speaking, and when given access to two datasets with sensitive data, our algorithm is able to learn faster and with less data which could possibly lead to privacy issues for a malicious user. From a different perspective, the meta-learning framework relies on deep neural networks that are known to be quite computationally expensive and have a high carbon footprint with potential negative impact on the planet.

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