

Human-AI Collaboration Project

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1 Introduction (revised, please read)

Training an AI agent capable of cooperating with various types of humans stands as a central challenge in human-AI Interaction (HAI). This problem proves to be difficult because different humans can create varied environments for the AI agent to navigate. Additionally, the AI agent cannot presume rational behavior from humans within the collaboration setting [YL: add citations here](#). While a significant number of studies in the field of multi-agent reinforcement learning have explored centralized settings [64][61][24], this approach can present challenges in situations where a central control for individual agents is neither practical nor feasible. It's critical to acknowledge that a significant body of work also explores decentralized settings. However, most of these studies necessitate some form of predetermined communication or coordination guidelines to address the constraints inherent in centralized frameworks. [YL: add some citations of decentralized MARL here](#).

Consequently, collaborating with unknown humans without predetermined communication or coordination guidelines becomes important, giving rise to a research area named ad-hoc teamwork [40][7][50]. A pivotal subtask within the domain of ad-hoc teamwork is opponent modeling [6][5][12][58][29], a concept that, in the context of Human-AI (HAI) interactions, primarily entails modeling human behaviors and policies.

In this paper, we tackle a problem in the Human-AI (HAI) interaction domain where there are two participants: a human agent and an AI agent. The AI agent does not know the human agent's policy. However, the AI starts with a few initial guesses about the human's possible policies. The main goal of the AI is to find the best policy that can collaborate with human. This approach as falling within several known frameworks such as latent Markov Decision Processes (MDP) [35][27][15] and multi-task Reinforcement Learning (RL) [37] [54] [15].

To model the HAI problem, we use an episodic Markov decision process where the transitions and rewards are influenced by the policy that the human agent keeps secret. The AI agent begins with a set of initial guesses about the human's policy, grouped together in a finite hypothesis set \mathcal{H} . We discuss loosening the limitation of this finite set in a later Section 6.

We used the Maximize to Explore (MEX) algorithm mentioned in [38] to tackle the episodic MDP with an given hypothesis set. We confirm a sub-linear regret outcome in Section 5. Moreover, we found that the MEX algorithm can ignore human policies that are of the same type, allowing for a regret boundary that is smaller than the upper limit noted in [38]. The definition for policies be of the same type is introduced in Section 4. Furthermore, we applied the MEX algorithm with an infinite hypothesis set that encompasses the true policy. We demonstrated that utilizing MEX with a finite hypothesis set, which contains a policy nearly identical to the true policy in the infinite hypothesis set, can still achieve sub-linear regret that converges to a neighborhood of a optimal value. This aspect is elaborated in Section 6.

In our experiment, we developed a simplified environment of the Overcooked-AI [17], where agents are required to engage in a series of actions such as cooking, waiting, and delivering food. The simplified version of Overcooked-AI, focusing exclusively on the food delivery task. [This simplification is essential as it enables us to focus clearly on the main challenges posed by the original environment but significantly reduce the size of both state and action spaces, leading to a considerable decrease in computational complexity.](#)

We created the set of possible human policies using the best response dynamics method [52], where agents constantly modify their policies to best respond to the policies observed from other agents. The best response dynamics is guaranteed to converge to a Nash equilibrium policy, which equilibrium it reaches depends on the initial policy [41]. To increase the diversity of human policies, we hand-coded some policies as initial policies. Also, inspired by IPOMDP [25], we varied the total number of iterations in the best response dynamics to simulate humans exhibiting different levels of intelligence.

We compared our algorithm with Q -learning with UCB exploration [31][19], Upper confidence bound [36], optimistic posterior sampling [66], and UCRL2 [10] algorithms. Our results shows that (added experiment)

2 Related Work (haven't revise, do not read)

Previous research in the Human-AI (HAI) field tends to model human policy as a policy that closely aligns with the AI agent, with efforts to parameterize this closeness [42]. To evaluate these algorithms, several benchmark environments are available that aid in analyzing cooperative human-AI interaction tasks, including platforms like the two-player cooperative Atari game [57], bridge card game [40], and Overcooked-AI [16][54].

Human-AI Interaction: Previous research in the Human-AI (HAI) field model human policy as a policy that closely aligns with the AI agent, with efforts to parameterize this closeness [42]. Additionally, there are studies in Meta Reinforcement Learning (Meta RL) that work on deciphering the MDP the AI agent encounters, inherently learning the human agent's policy, since the structure of this MDP is influenced by the human agent's choices. To evaluate these algorithms, several benchmark environments are available that aid in analyzing cooperative human-AI interaction tasks, including platforms like the two-player cooperative Atari game [56], bridge card [39], and Overcooked-AI [17][52].

Human agent generation: Collecting human policies can be notably costly. Previous studies have developed methods for more efficient human policies generation. One such method utilizes an algorithm that identifies and selects policies based on a measure defined by the diversity of the best responses these policies can offer. The algorithm then maximizes this measure to find the policies that provide a diverse set of best responses [45]. Another strategy formulates human policies by running best response dynamics [52].

Ad-Hoc teamworks: Our work is closely related to ad-hoc teamworks [40][7][50], especially the opponent modeling subtask. Barrett et. al. [12] introduces PLASTIC-Model and PLASTIC-Policy algorithms, the formal algorithm models the team-member by its transition dynamics and the latter models team-member by its policy. He et.al. [29] models the human agent's policy as a deep neural network.

YL: needs more time to read [6][5][58]

Partially observable Markov decision process (POMDP): The foundation of our problem is closely related to the partially observable Markov decision process [9][48], since each human policy in the hypothesis set can be viewed as a latent variable of the POMDP. The POMDP problem where we have latent variables are called latent MDPs (LMDP) [35]. LMDP has few different names, such as contextual decision process [27], multi-model MDP [49], multi-task RL [37][54][15], MOMDP/hidden model MDP [43][18][20][23], and concurrent MDP [16]. Beyond original POMDP, there are also some other settings that can cover our problem, such as interactive-POMDP [28][25], Augmented Bayes-Adaptive MDP (BAMDP) [57][22][26]. The model-based RL with UCB exploration algorithms [51][11] is also related to our setting.

MEX related algorithms: Our algorithm is based on MEX [38], in each episode, the algorithm chooses a human policy from the hypothesis set. On the other hand, the posterior sampling algorithms [55][47][66][2][65][3][4] updates a belief over the hypothesis set in each episode and draws a policy based on the current belief. Some methods like OLIVE [30] eliminates policy from current hypothesis set in each episode. Additionally, there is a method that trains one policy that is robust for all possible human policies in the hypothesis set [14].

MDP structure assumptions: Our regret analysis is based on the low generalized eluder coefficient assumption [66], which is a weaker assumption than low Eluder dimension/Bellman eluder dimension [44][32], low Bellman rank [30], Bellman completeness [62], Bilinear classes [21], and linear MDP structure [60][33]. The environment we used in the experiment is a tabular MDP which satisfies the low Bellman eluder dimension assumption [32]. Also, the regret analysis of infinite hypothesis set are related to agnostic online learning [13][46].

3 Prerequisite

In this work, we use an two-player episodic finite horizon MDP as the setting for human-AI collaboration, where the player 1 is the AI agent and the player 2 is the human agent. We assume that the different human types are captured by different policies and the human agent’s real policy is fixed but unknown. We revised the MEX algorithm introduced in [38] so it can be used in our setting.

3.1 Episodic Finite Horizon MDP

We consider a two-player episodic finite horizon Markov game defined as $(S, A, \mathbb{P}, T, K, r, \gamma)$, where S is the joint state space and A is the action space for both players. In this paper, we only consider the tabular setting, i.e., $|S| < \infty$ and $|A| < \infty$. The transition kernel \mathbb{P} and the expected reward r are defined as:

$$\mathbb{P}: S \times A \times A \rightarrow \Delta(S), \quad r: S \times A \times A \rightarrow [0, 1],$$

where $\Delta(S)$ is the probability simplex on joint state space. The time horizon and the total number of episodes are denoted by T and K . Also, we consider a discounted setting with a discount factor $\gamma < 1$. We use s_t^k to denote the joint state of episode k in time t and we use a_t^k and b_t^k to denote the action of episode k in time t for player 1 and player 2 respectively. The initial state is fixed for all episodes and denoted as s_1 , i.e., $s_0^k = s_0$. The policy for player 1 is denoted as μ and defined as

$$\mu: S \times [T] \rightarrow \Delta(A),$$

where $[T] = \{0, 1, \dots, T-1\}$. The policy for player 2 is denoted as π and defined as

$$\pi: S \times [T] \rightarrow \Delta(A).$$

The set of all policies available to player 1 is denoted by \mathcal{U} and the set for player 2 is represented by Π . Now, we define the cumulative reward given policies (μ, π) as

$$V(\mu, \pi) = \mathbb{E}_{a_t \sim \mu(s_t, t), b_t \sim \pi(s_t, t)} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \gamma^t r(s_t, a_t, b_t) \mid s_0 = s_0, s_{t+1} \sim \mathbb{P}(s_t, a_t, b_t) \right].$$

In this study, we explore a scenario where player 2 adopts a fixed but unknown policy through all episodes. The true policy adopted for player 2 is denoted as π^* . The primary objective is to develop a series of policies $\{\mu^k\}_{k \in [K]}$ for player 1, which aim to reduce the regret defined by the equation

$$\text{Reg}(K) = \sum_{k=1}^K \max_{\mu \in \mathcal{U}} V(\mu, \pi^*) - V(\mu^k, \pi^k).$$

Here, π^k is the guessed policy of player 2 in episode k (guessed by player 1). The guessed policies are selected from a pre-trained hypothesis set \mathcal{H} . This set contains potential behaviors of player 2. Some methods such as best response dynamics [41] can be employed to create \mathcal{H} . The detailed way to generate a hypothesis set will be discussed in Section (Experiment).

A significant challenge encountered in human-AI collaboration is the necessity for the AI agent to anticipate the actions of the human agent. In the context of our framework, the hypothesis set \mathcal{H} embodies various potential human behaviors identified prior to the training phase, with the true policy, π^* , representing the actual behavior demonstrated by the human agent during the interaction with the AI agent.

3.2 Maximize to Explore Algorithm

TODO: introduce MEX in here, compare the original implementation and our implementation.

4 Classifying Different Types of Agents by Policies

In our previous discussion, we explained how the hypothesis set \mathcal{H} captures the potential behaviors of player 2. However, \mathcal{H} might include policies that result in similar optimal cumulative rewards. In instances like these, we should consider these policies as belonging to the same type. In this subsection, we will present a clear definition to classify the various types of policies. Building on these classifications, we will then develop a metric to assess the size of the hypothesis set \mathcal{H} , which will be smaller than the numerical count of $|\mathcal{H}|$.

4.1 Best Response Oracle

For each player 2's policy π , the set of all best response policies is denoted as $\text{BR}(\pi)$, i.e.,

$$\text{BR}(\pi) = \underset{\mu \in \mathcal{U}}{\operatorname{argmax}} V(\mu, \pi).$$

For any player 2's policy π , we assume the existence of an oracle that can return a best response from $\text{BR}(\pi)$.

Definition 1. (Oracle) A best response oracle ψ refers to a function that, upon receiving policies as input, yields a best response as its output, i.e., ψ is a function $\psi: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ such that

$$\psi(\pi) \in \text{BR}(\pi).$$

With the definition of an oracle, we can categorize policies within a hypothesis set into various types.

4.2 Type Number

Definition 2. (ψ -type) We call two policies π and π' to be of the same type under oracle ψ if we have

$$V(\psi(\pi), \pi) = V(\psi(\pi'), \pi').$$

The relationship is denoted as $\pi \stackrel{\psi}{\sim} \pi'$. On the contrary, two policies π and π' not of the same type under oracle ψ is denoted as $\pi \not\stackrel{\psi}{\sim} \pi'$.

Definition 3. We call a set of policies Π be type-independent under oracle ψ if for all $\pi \in \Pi$ and $\pi' \in \Pi$ such that $\pi \neq \pi'$, we have $\pi \stackrel{\psi}{\sim} \pi'$.

The ψ -type characterization gives rise to a measurement of quantity for the set of policies \mathcal{H} , denoted by $n^\psi(\mathcal{H})$.

Definition 4. Given a hypothesis set \mathcal{H} , the type number $n^\psi(\mathcal{H})$ under oracle ψ is defined as the size of a largest type-independent subset of \mathcal{H} , i.e.,

$$n^\psi(\mathcal{H}) = \max \{ |\Pi| : \Pi \subset \mathcal{H}, \Pi \text{ is type-independent under oracle } \psi \}.$$

It is easy to verify that $n^\psi(\mathcal{H}) \leq |\mathcal{H}|$. In the next section, we will show that the regret of the MEX algorithm depends on $n^\psi(\mathcal{H})$ instead of $|\mathcal{H}|$.

5 Regret Analysis for Finite Hypothesis Set

In this section, we restrict our discussion to cases where the cardinality of the hypothesis set is finite, i.e., $|\mathcal{H}| < \infty$. This condition is emphasized through the notation \mathcal{H}_{fin} . We also assume that the realization assumption holds, i.e., $\pi^* \in \mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}$.

5.1 Generalized Eluder Coefficient

Our sub-linear regret result based on the following assumption.

Assumption 5. (*Low generalized eluder coefficient [38][66]*) Given $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $d(\varepsilon) > 0$, such that for any $\{\pi^k\}_{k \in [K]} \subset \mathcal{H}$, $\{\psi(\pi^k)\}_{k \in [K]} \subset \mathcal{U}$,

$$\sum_{k=1}^K V(\mu^k, \pi^k) - V(\mu^k, \pi^*) \leq \inf_{\mu > 0} \left\{ \frac{\mu}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K,H} \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_h \sim \mu^s} [\ell(\pi^k; \xi_h)] + \varphi(\mu, \varepsilon, H, K) \right\}, \quad (1)$$

where $\varphi(\mu, \varepsilon, H, K) = d(\varepsilon) / (2\mu) + \sqrt{d(\varepsilon)HK} + \varepsilon HK$. The player 1's policy in episode s is given by $\mu^s = \psi(\pi^s)$. The discrepancy function ℓ_{π^s} is the *Hellinger distance*. Given data $\xi_h = (s_h, a_h, r_h, s_{h+1})$, we define

$$\ell(\pi^k, \xi_h) = D_H(\mathbb{P}(\cdot | s_h, a_h, \pi^k(s_h)) || \mathbb{P}(\cdot | s_h, a_h, \pi^*(s_h))),$$

where $D_H(\cdot || \cdot)$ denotes the Hellinger distance. We denote the smallest number $d(\varepsilon) > 0$ satisfying condition (1) as $d_{\text{GEC}}(\varepsilon)$.

Intuitively, the low generalized eluder coefficient assumption states that, in the long run, if the hypothesis $\{\pi^k\}_{k \in [K]}$ has a small in-sample training error, i.e., the term

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi_h \sim \mu^s} [\ell(\pi^k; \xi_h)]$$

is small, then, the prediction error $V(\mu^k, \pi^k) - V(\mu^k, \pi^*)$ will also be small. In [30], they showed that a tabular MDP has a low Bellman rank, which implies a low Bellman eluder dimension [32]. In [66], they showed that any MDP that satisfies the low Bellman eluder dimension condition will have a low GEC condition, which implies that our setting satisfies condition (1).

5.2 Main Theorem: Finite Hypothesis Set

Theorem 6. *Given an MDP with generalized eluder coefficient $d_{\text{GEC}}(\cdot)$ and a finite hypothesis class \mathcal{H}_{fin} with $\pi^* \in \mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}$, by setting*

$$\eta = \sqrt{\frac{d_{\text{GEC}}(1/\sqrt{HK})}{\log(Hn^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}})/\delta) \cdot HK}},$$

the regret of the MEX algorithm applying on \mathcal{H}_{fin} with oracle ψ after K episodes is upper bounded by, with probability at least $1 - \delta$,

$$\text{Regret}(K) \lesssim \sqrt{d_{\text{GEC}}(1/\sqrt{HK}) \cdot \log(Hn^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}})/\delta) \cdot HK}.$$

Proof. See Appendix 8.2 □

The sole term related to the size of the hypothesis set is $n^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}})$. Consequently, the magnitude of regret is solely influenced by the type number associated with a hypothesis set, as opposed to the cardinality of the hypothesis set. This phenomenon occurs because policies that are categorized under the same type by policy ψ yield identical rewards when implemented in the MEX algorithm.

The type number $n^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}})$ depends on the choice of the oracle ψ , which makes it hard to verify when the explicit form of ψ is not given. However, we can introduce a stronger notion of type and verify the upper bound of $n^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}})$. This stronger notion of type does not depend on the choice of oracle ψ .

Definition 7. (Strong) We call two policies π and π' to be of the same s -type if

$$V(\mu, \pi) = V(\mu, \pi') = V(\mu', \pi) = V(\mu', \pi')$$

for all $\mu \in \text{BR}(\pi)$ and $\mu' \in \text{BR}(\pi')$. The relationship are denoted as $\pi \stackrel{s}{\sim} \pi'$.

Similar to the definition of type number under oracle ψ , we can define strong type number $n_{\text{stype}}(\mathcal{H})$.

Lemma 8. $n^\psi(\mathcal{H}) \leq n_{\text{stype}}(\mathcal{H})$ for all ψ be a best response oracle.

Proof. By definition. □

Example 9. For any two distinct policies, π and π' , if they both have the same unique best response μ , we can deduct that $\pi \stackrel{s}{\sim} \pi'$ by definition. To illustrate this in a real-world context, let's consider a scenario involving two cars traveling on a road with three lanes. The AI-operated car is in the left lane, while the human-driven car occupies the middle lane. Suppose the AI car intends to accelerate to move ahead of the human car. In response, the human has three options: move to the right, shift to the left, or maintain their current position. If the human's policy tends towards moving right or staying put, the AI car will consistently choose to speed up, given that both these responses from the human elicit the same best response from the AI. Consequently, these two human policies can be considered to be of the same strong type, or s -type.

In the next section, we will generalize the regret analysis to an infinite hypothesis set.

6 Regret Analysis for Infinite Hypothesis Set

In this subsection, we discuss the cases where the cardinality of the hypothesis set is infinite, i.e., $|\mathcal{H}| = \infty$. This condition is emphasized through the notation \mathcal{H}_{inf} . We keep assume that the realization assumption holds, i.e., $\pi^* \in \mathcal{H}_{\text{inf}}$.

6.1 Approximate an Infinite Hypothesis Set by a Finite Hypothesis Set

A direct approach to handling an infinite hypothesis set is to approximate it by a finite hypothesis set. First, we outline what makes a good approximation. Let's first define the following quantity,

$$V^*(\pi) \triangleq \max_{\mu \in \mathcal{U}} V(\mu, \pi) = V(\psi(\pi), \pi)$$

The quantity V^* serves as a value function for player 2's policy given player 2 will return a best response. In the tabular case, we can regard each policy π as a vector in $\mathbb{R}^{|S||A|^T}$. Now given a norm $\|\cdot\|$ such as L_2 -norm defined on Π , we have the following definition,

Definition 10. (ε -approximation) A finite hypothesis set \mathcal{H}_{fin} is called an ε -optimal approximation of \mathcal{H}_{inf} if there exist a $\pi \in \mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}$ such that $\|\pi - \pi^*\| \leq \varepsilon$.

Based on this definition, we make the following Assumption.

Assumption 11. The value function for player 2's policy $V^*(\pi)$ is Lipschitz continuous, i.e., if $\|\pi - \pi^*\| \leq \varepsilon$, we have

$$|V^*(\pi) - V^*(\pi^*)| \leq L_V \varepsilon,$$

for some constant $L_V > 0$.

The assumption holds for MDPs where the transition kernel and the reward function are both Lipschitz continuous, see Proposition 2 in [53]. Similar results can also be found in [8][34][63][59][1]

Example 12. Many works (TODO: add citations) in ad-hoc teamworks assumes an finite hypothesis set \mathcal{H}_{fin} to capture all potential policies adopted by teammates. However, the real policy the teammates adopts might deviate from the given hypothesis set \mathcal{H}_{fin} due to reasons like bounded rationality. Thus, the real hypothesis set that captures the deviation is defined as

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{inf}} = \{\pi \mid \|\pi - \pi'\| \leq \varepsilon, \pi' \in \mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}\}.$$

Thus, the given hypothesis set \mathcal{H}_{fin} serves as an ε -optimal approximation of the real hypothesis set \mathcal{H}_{inf}

Example 13. Given a specific parameterization \mathcal{N} , we define \mathcal{H}_{inf} as the set comprising all policies characterized by the set all possible parameters Θ that is in accordance with the specified structure, formally represented as,

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{inf}} = \{\pi \mid \pi \in \mathcal{N}(\theta), \theta \in \Theta\}.$$

We proceed to create a discretization of Θ , denoted as $\hat{\Theta}$. The finite approximation set \mathcal{H}_{fin} is defined as

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}} = \{\pi \mid \pi \in \mathcal{N}(\theta), \theta \in \hat{\Theta}\}.$$

By the choice of discretization interval, we can ensure that $\|\pi - \pi^*\| \leq \varepsilon$.

6.2 Main Theorem: Infinite Hypothesis Set

Now, given an infinite hypothesis set \mathcal{H}_{inf} with an ε -optimal approximation set \mathcal{H}_{fin} , we are prepared to execute the MEX algorithm within the confines of \mathcal{H}_{fin} . The regret analysis is given in the following Theorem. Before proof the theorem, we denote π_{det}^* as ε -approximate policy w.r.t. π^* defined as

$$\pi_{\text{det}}^* \triangleq \underset{\pi \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{argmin}} |V^*(\pi) - V^*(\pi^*)|.$$

Theorem 14. *Given an MDP with generalized eluder coefficient $d_{\text{GEC}}(\cdot)$ and an infinite hypothesis class \mathcal{H}_{inf} with $\pi^* \in \mathcal{H}_{\text{inf}}$. For any ε -optimal approximation \mathcal{H}_{fin} of \mathcal{H}_{inf} , by setting*

$$\eta = \sqrt{\frac{d_{\text{GEC}}(1/\sqrt{HK})}{\log(Hn^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}})/\delta) \cdot HK}},$$

the regret of the MEX algorithm applying on \mathcal{H}_{fin} with oracle ψ after K episodes is upper bounded by, with probability at least $1 - \delta$,

$$\text{Regret}(K) \lesssim \sqrt{d_{\text{GEC}}(1/\sqrt{HK}) \cdot \log(Hn^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}})/\delta) \cdot HK} + KL_V \varepsilon.$$

Proof. By the choice of π^k , we have

$$V(\psi(\pi_{\text{det}}^*), \pi_{\text{det}}^*) - \eta \sum_{h=1}^H L_h^{k-1}(\pi_{\text{det}}^*) \leq V(\mu^k, \pi^k) - \eta \sum_{h=1}^H L_h^{k-1}(\pi^k)$$

for all $k \in [K]$. By Definition 10,

$$V(\psi(\pi_{\text{det}}^*), \pi_{\text{det}}^*) \geq V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*) - L_V \varepsilon.$$

Thus,

$$V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*) - V(\mu^k, \pi^k) \leq \eta \sum_{h=1}^H L_h^{k-1}(\pi_{\text{det}}^*) - \eta \sum_{h=1}^H L_h^{k-1}(\pi^k) + L_V \varepsilon.$$

Follow the same procedure in the proof of Theorem 6 leads to the proof. \square

Remark 15. The linear term $KL_V \varepsilon$ cannot be eliminated. Consider the best case where $\pi^k = \pi_{\text{det}}^*$ for all $k \in [K]$. The regret is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Regret}(K) &= \sum_{k=1}^K V(\psi(\pi_{\text{det}}^*), \pi_{\text{det}}^*) - V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*) \\ &= K(V(\psi(\pi_{\text{det}}^*), \pi_{\text{det}}^*) - V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*)) \\ &\leq KL_V \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

7 Numerical Experiments

8 Appendix

8.1 Lemmas

Lemma 16. *With probability at least $1 - \delta$, for any $(h, k) \in [H] \times [K]$, $\mu^s \in \text{BR}(\pi^s)$, and $\pi \in \Pi$*

$$L_h^{k-1}(\pi^*) - L_h^{k-1}(\pi) \leq -2 \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_h \sim \mu^s} [\ell_{\pi^s}(\pi; \xi_h)] + 2 \log(H |\Pi| / \delta).$$

Proof. Given $\pi \in \mathcal{H}$, we denote the random variable $X_{h,\pi}^k$ as

$$X_{h,\pi}^k = \log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}_{h,\pi^*}(s_{h+1}^k | s_h^k, a_h^k)}{\mathbb{P}_{h,\pi}(s_{h+1}^k | s_h^k, a_h^k)} \right).$$

Now we define a filtration $\{\mathcal{F}_{h,k}\}_{k=1}^K$ as (B.25) in [38]. Thus we have $X_{h,\pi}^k \in \mathcal{F}_{h,k}$. Therefore, by applying Lemma D.1 in [38], we have that with probability at least $1 - \delta$, for any $(h, k) \in [H] \times [K]$, and $\pi \in \Pi$, we have

$$-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} X_{h,\pi}^s \leq \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} \log \mathbb{E} \left[\exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} X_{h,\pi}^s \right\} \middle| \mathcal{F}_{h,s-1} \right] + \log(H |\Pi| / \delta). \quad (2)$$

Meanwhile, by (B.27) in [38], for any $\mu^s \in \text{BR}(\pi^s)$, the conditional expectation equals to

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}X_{h,\pi}^s\right\}\middle|\mathcal{F}_{h,s-1}\right] = 1 - \mathbb{E}_{(s_h^s, a_h^s) \sim \mu^s}[D_H(\mathbb{P}_{h,\pi^s}(\cdot|s_h^s, a_h^s) || \mathbb{P}_{h,\pi}(\cdot|s_h^s, a_h^s))]. \quad (3)$$

Denote $\mathbb{E}_{(s_h^s, a_h^s) \sim \mu^s}[D_H(\mathbb{P}_{h,\pi^s}(\cdot|s_h^s, a_h^s) || \mathbb{P}_{h,\pi}(\cdot|s_h^s, a_h^s))]$ as $\mathbb{E}_{\xi_h \sim \mu^s}[\ell_{\pi^s}(\pi; \xi_h)]$. Using the fact $\log(x) \leq x - 1$ and substituting (3) into (2) finishes the proof. \square

Lemma 17. *If $a = \operatorname{argmax}_{x \in \mathcal{X}} [f(x) + g(x)]$ and $b = \operatorname{argmax}_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x)$, then, $f(b) \geq f(a)$ and*

$$f(b) - f(a) \geq g(b) - g(a).$$

Proof. By definition,

$$f(a) + g(a) \geq f(x) + g(x)$$

for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Let $x = b$, we have

$$f(a) + g(a) \geq f(b) + g(b).$$

Rearranging the above formula gives us

$$f(b) - f(a) \geq g(b) - g(a).$$

Similarly, by definition

$$f(b) \geq f(x)$$

for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Let $x = a$ gives $f(b) \geq f(a)$ \square

8.2 Proof of Theorem 6

Proof. We decompose the regret into two terms,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Regret}(K) &\triangleq \sum_{k=1}^K V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*) - V(\psi(\pi^k), \pi^*) \\ &= \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^K V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*) - V(\psi(\pi^k), \pi^k)}_{\text{Term (i)}} + \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^K V(\psi(\pi^k), \pi^k) - V(\psi(\pi^k), \pi^*)}_{\text{Term (ii)}}. \end{aligned}$$

Term (i). By the choice of π^k , we have

$$V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*) - \eta \sum_{h=1}^H L_h^{k-1}(\pi^*) \leq V(\mu^k, \pi^k) - \eta \sum_{h=1}^H L_h^{k-1}(\pi^k)$$

for all $k \in [K]$. Thus,

$$V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*) - V(\mu^k, \pi^k) \leq \eta \sum_{h=1}^H L_h^{k-1}(\pi^*) - \eta \sum_{h=1}^H L_h^{k-1}(\pi^k). \quad (4)$$

for any $\pi^k \stackrel{\psi}{\sim} \pi^{k'}$, we have

$$V(\psi(\pi^k), \pi^k) = V(\psi(\pi^{k'}), \pi^{k'}).$$

Thus, an upper bound for $V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*) - V(\mu^k, \pi^k)$ is also an upper bound for $V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*) - V(\mu^{k'}, \pi^{k'})$. Applying Lemma 16, we have that with probability at least $1 - \delta$, for any $(h, k) \in [H] \times [K]$, $\mu^s = \psi(\pi^s)$ and $\pi^k \in \mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}$,

$$L_h^{k-1}(\pi^*) - L_h^{k-1}(\pi^k) \leq -2 \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_h \sim \mu^s} [\ell_{\pi^s}(\pi; \xi_h)] + 2 \log(Hn^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}) / \delta).$$

Substituting the above equation into (4) gives us that with probability at least $1 - \delta$, for any $k \in [K]$, $\mu^s = \psi(\pi^s)$ and $\pi^k \in \mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}$

$$V(\psi(\pi^*), \pi^*) - V(\mu^k, \pi^k) \leq -2\eta \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_h \sim \mu^s} [\ell_{\pi^s}(\pi; \xi_h)] + 2H\eta \log(Hn^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}) / \delta).$$

Summing over $[K]$ gives us

$$\text{Term (i)} \leq -2\eta \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_h \sim \mu^s} [\ell_{\pi^s}(\pi; \xi_h)] + 2\eta KH \log(Hn^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}) / \delta).$$

Term (ii). Follow the proof of Theorem 4.4 in [38], we have that for all $\mu^s = \psi(\pi^s)$

$$\text{Term (ii)} \leq 2\eta \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_h \sim \mu^s} [\ell_{\pi^s}(\pi; \xi_h)] + \frac{d_{\text{GEC}}(\varepsilon_{\text{conf}})}{8\eta} + \sqrt{d_{\text{GEC}}(\varepsilon_{\text{conf}})HK} + \varepsilon_{\text{conf}}HK.$$

Combining Term (i) and Term (ii).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Regret}(K) &= \text{Term (i)} + \text{Term (ii)} \\ &\leq 2\eta KH \log(Hn^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}) / \delta) + \frac{d_{\text{GEC}}(\varepsilon_{\text{conf}})}{8\eta} + \sqrt{d_{\text{GEC}}(\varepsilon_{\text{conf}})HK} + \varepsilon_{\text{conf}}HK. \end{aligned}$$

Set $\varepsilon_{\text{conf}} = 1 / \sqrt{HK}$ and

$$\eta = \sqrt{\frac{d_{\text{GEC}}(1 / \sqrt{HK})}{\log(Hn^\psi(\mathcal{H}_{\text{fin}}) / \delta) \cdot HK}}$$

leads to the proof. \square

9 Do Not Read The Following

An optimal policy is denoted as (μ^*, π^*) and defined by

$$(\mu^*, \pi^*) \in \underset{(\mu, \pi) \in \mathcal{U} \times \Pi}{\operatorname{argmax}} V(\mu, \pi).$$

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