

DATA 37200: Learning, Decisions, and Limits (Winter 2025)

Lower Bounds for Stochastic MAB

Instructor: Haifeng Xu



Outline

- Technical Preparations
- Detour: Best-Arm Identification (BAI) Lower Bounds
- MAB Regret Lower Bounds
 - Instance-Independent Lower Bound
 - Instance-Dependent Lower Bounds

Lower Bounds: What and Why?

We look to derive results of form like

$$\text{Regret} \geq C\sqrt{KT} \quad \text{for some constant } C$$

or equivalently, $\text{Regret} = \Omega(\sqrt{KT})$

This helps to understand what we *cannot* achieve – i.e., our limits

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- If you have learned computational hardness (e.g., NP-hardness), that shares a similar spirit but very different flavor
- Computational lower bounds are mostly *conditional*
 - E.g., 3SAT takes at least exponential time to solve, *if $P \neq NP$*
 - $P \neq NP$ is an assumption
- The bound we will show for MAB is *unconditional*
 - i.e., they are facts that do not require any assumption
 - Proofs here will mostly use information theory

KL-Divergence

A useful quantity that measures “distance” between two distributions

Definition (KL-Divergence). For any two distributions p, q supported on discrete set X , their Kullback–Leibler (KL) divergence is defined as

$$KL(p, q) = \sum_{x \in X} p(x) \ln \left[\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \right] = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p} \ln \left[\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \right]$$

Remarks

- Similarly defined for continuous domain, though not needed for now
- It is not symmetric: $KL(\textcolor{red}{p}, \textcolor{blue}{q}) \neq KL(\textcolor{blue}{q}, \textcolor{red}{p})$
- Closely related to entropy; also named “relative entropy”
- Widely used in practice for measuring distribution distance (e.g., it is the default regularizer for fine-tuning LLMs)

KL-Divergence: An Example

Definition. (Biased Random Coins). For any $\epsilon \in [-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$, let RC_ϵ be the binary random coin with $\epsilon/2$ bias -- i.e., it takes value 1/head with prob $\frac{1+\epsilon}{2}$, and 0/tail otherwise.

- RC_ϵ is a Bernoulli random variable with $p = (1 + \epsilon)/2$
- Calculating KL-divergence

$$KL(RC_\epsilon, RC_0) = \frac{1 + \epsilon}{2} \ln \left[\frac{(1 + \epsilon)/2}{1/2} \right] + \frac{1 - \epsilon}{2} \ln \left[\frac{(1 - \epsilon)/2}{1/2} \right]$$

Claim: $KL(RC_\epsilon, RC_0) \leq 2\epsilon^2$ and $KL(RC_0, RC_\epsilon) \leq \epsilon^2$ for any $\epsilon \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$

Remark: this ϵ^2 term turns out to be the reason of the $\Omega(T^{\frac{1}{2}})$ lower bound
Claim's proof deferred to HW.

Properties of KL-Divergence

Theorem: KL-divergence satisfies the following properties

- a. **Gibb's Inequality:** $KL(p, q) \geq 0$, with equality if and only if $p = q$
- b. **Chain rule for product distributions:** For $i = 1, \dots, n$, let p_i, q_i be two distributions supported on X_i . $p = p_1 \times p_2 \times \dots \times p_n, q = q_1 \times q_2 \times \dots \times q_n$ be their product distributions. Then $KL(p, q) = \sum_{i=1}^n KL(p_i, q_i)$.
- c. **Pinsker's inequality:** For any event $A \subseteq X$, we have

$$2[p(A) - q(A)]^2 \leq KL(p, q)$$

Remarks.

- The probability difference of *any event* is upper bounded by $O(\sqrt{KL(p, q)})$
- Illustrates why it captures “divergence” between two distributions
- Pinsker’s inequality implies $KL(RC_0, RC_\epsilon) \geq \epsilon^2/2$ (compare to previous claim $KL(RC_0, RC_\epsilon) \leq \epsilon^2$)

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Proofs deferred to HW1.

Exercise with KL & a Warm-up Lower-Bound Problem

How many coin flips are needed to confidently tell it is fair or not?



A Fair Coin or Not?

- You know a coin is either RC_0 or RC_ϵ
 - RC_0 is called a fair coin, and RC_ϵ has $\epsilon/2$ bias
- You can flip the coin T times
- Based on your observations, you have a (deterministic) decision rule to decide it is fair or biased:

Rule: $\{0,1\}^T \rightarrow \{\text{fair, biased}\}$



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Question: how large your T needs to at least be for you to be correct with high prob in the following sense?

$$\Pr[\text{Rule}(\textit{observations}) = \text{fair} \mid RC_0] \geq 3/4 \quad (1)$$

$$\Pr[\text{Rule}(\textit{observations}) = \text{biased} \mid RC_\epsilon] \geq 3/4 \quad (2)$$

A Fair Coin or Not?

Claim: Fix a decision rule that satisfies (1) and (2). Then $T \geq \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2}$.

Proof

- The decision rule is deterministic, so there is a subset $A_0 \subseteq \{0,1\}^T$ of events such that

$$\text{Rule}(x) = \text{fair} \quad \text{for any } x \in A_0$$

$$\text{Rule}(x) = \text{biased} \quad \text{for any } x \notin A_0$$

- Following accuracy requirement implies A_0 happens with probability $\geq 3/4$ under RC_0 , but happens with prob $\leq 1/4$ under RC_ϵ

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That is, $\Pr(A_0|RC_0) - \Pr(A_0|RC_\epsilon) \geq 3/4 - 1/4 = 1/2$

Next we employ properties of KL to show T has to be large to achieve the above inequality

A Fair Coin or Not?

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Proof (con'd)

That is, $\Pr(A_0|RC_0) - \Pr(A_0|RC_\epsilon) \geq 3/4 - 1/4 = 1/2$

➤ Let $p_i = RC_0, q_i = RC_\epsilon$; consider product distributions $p = \prod_{i=1}^T p_i, q = \prod_{i=1}^T q_i$

➤ p, q are measures over $\{0,1\}^T \supseteq A_0$, so Pinsker's inequality told us

$$KL(p, q) \geq 2|\Pr(A_0|RC_0) - \Pr(A_0|RC_\epsilon)|^2 \geq 1/2$$

➤ Employ chain rule to upper bound KL:

$$KL(q, q) = \sum_{i=1}^T KL(p_i, q_i) \leq T\epsilon^2$$

➤ Combing these two inequalities we have

$$T \geq \frac{KL(p, q)}{\epsilon^2} \geq \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2}$$

A Fair Coin or Not?

Claim: Fix a decision rule that satisfies (1) and (2). Then $T \geq \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2}$.

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That is, $\Pr(A_0|RC_0) - \Pr(A_0|RC_\epsilon) \geq 3/4 - 1/4 = 1/2$

- Let $p_i = RC_0, q_i = RC_\epsilon$; consider product distributions $p = \prod_{i=1}^T p_i, q = \prod_{i=1}^T q_i$
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$$KL(p, q) \geq 2|\Pr(A_0|RC_0) - \Pr(A_0|RC_\epsilon)|^2 \geq 1/2$$

- Employ chain rule to upper bound KL:

Remarkably, the proof applies to any decision rule;
fundamentally, it is because Pinsker's inequality holds for any A_0

$$T \geq \frac{KL(p, q)}{\epsilon^2} \geq \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2}$$

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A Variant of MAB: Best-Arm Identification (BAI)



$$1: r_1 \sim D_1 \\ \mu_1$$

• • •



$$a: r_a \sim D_2 \\ \mu_a$$

• • •



$$k: r_k \sim D_k \\ \mu_k$$

- Same setup as MAB, but task is to identify best arm $i^* (= \arg \max_{i \in [k]} \mu_i)$
- Same strategy process of pulling arms $i^1, i^2, \dots, i^t, \dots, i^T$
- Given T rounds of opportunities, performance is measured by *probability of success* $\Pr(I^T = i^*)$

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 - Same strategy process of pulling arms $i^1, i^2, \dots, i^t, \dots, i^T$
 - Given T rounds of opportunities, performance is measured by *probability of success* $\Pr(I^T = i^*)$
- Clearly, if T is very large, we can easily succeed with high prob.
 - **Goal Next:** understand how large T needs to be in order to guarantee reasonable success on *any problem instance*
By proving a statement of form “*if $T \leq ??$, then for any algorithm will have at least constant probability of failing to find optimal arm $on some instance$* ”

Imaging the Difficult Instances...



• • •



• • •



$$1: r_1 \sim D_1$$

$$\mu_1$$

$$a: r_a \sim D_2$$

$$\mu_a$$

$$k: r_k \sim D_k$$

$$\mu_k$$

What instance would be difficult for BAI?

- All arms have equal mean, except one of them that is slightly higher
 - Difficult since every sub-optimal arm is equally confusing
- Hopefully, each arm has large variance so rewards are random enough to “hide” the true mean
 - Interestingly, Bernoulli distributions (i.e., biased coins) turn out to already be sufficiently hard

Construction of Lower Bound Instances



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• • •



$$1: r_1 \sim D_1$$

$$\mu_1 = 1/2$$

$$a : r_a \sim D_2$$

$$\mu_a = (1 + \epsilon)/2$$

$$k: r_k \sim D_k$$

$$\mu_k = 1/2$$

- Each D_i is Bernoulli
- All of them are RC_0 , except one **arm a** is RC_ϵ

Construction of Lower Bound Instances



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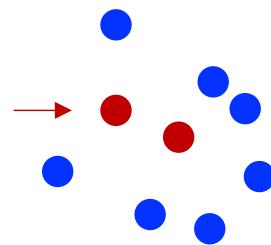
Remark.

This is not a single instance, but rather a set of k instances – each $a \in [k]$ correspond to one *problem instance* P_a

Formally, $P_a = \{k \text{ bandits with } D_a = RC_\epsilon, \text{ all other } D_i = RC_0\}$

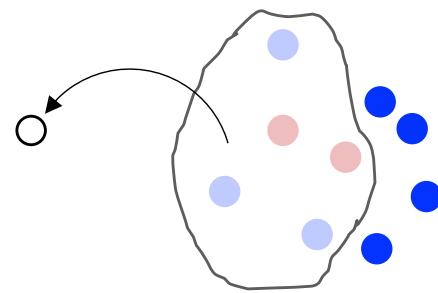
A Note on Lower Bound Proof Approaches

- Generally, two approaches to show an algorithm can perform bad on some instance
 1. Show that an algorithm does bad on some instance



A Note on Lower Bound Proof Approaches

- Generally, two approaches to show an algorithm can perform bad on some instance
 1. Show that an algorithm does bad on some instance
 2. Craft a set of instance, then randomly sample one for the algorithm to solve; show that the algo's expected performance is bad



A Note on Lower Bound Proof Approaches

- Generally, two approaches to show an algorithm can perform bad on some instance
 1. Show that an algorithm does bad on some instance
 2. Craft a set of instance, then randomly sample one for the algorithm to solve; show that the algo's expected performance is bad
- (2)⇒ (1) because if an algorithm perform bad in expectation, it must have performed bad in at least one instance on the support
- A stronger version of (1) ⇒ (2):
if an algo does **bad on a constant fraction of instances**, then it has constant probability to perform bad on a randomly sampled instance
- (1) suffices for a lower bound proof, but we use (2) often due to proof convenience
- For our problem, we will use the set of instances $\{P_a\}_{a \in [k]}$

Lower Bounds for BAI

Theorem 0: Consider BAI with $T \leq \frac{ck}{\epsilon^2}$ on instances from set $\{P_a\}_{a \in [k]}$, where c is a small enough absolute constant.

For any deterministic algorithm for this problem, there exists at least $\lceil k/3 \rceil$ P_a instances such that

$$\Pr(I^T \neq a | P_a) \geq 1/2$$

$$P_a = \{k \text{ bandits with } D_a = RC_\epsilon, \text{ all other } D_i = RC_0\}$$

Lower Bounds for BAI

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For any deterministic algorithm for this problem, there exists at least $\lceil k/3 \rceil$ P_a instances such that

$$\Pr(I^T \neq a | P_a) \geq 1/2$$

Corollary: Consider any BAI algorithm (possibly randomized) running on a uniformly randomly sampled instance from set $\{P_a\}_{a \in [k]}$ with $T \leq \frac{ck}{\epsilon^2}$.

Then $\Pr(I^T \neq i^*) \geq \frac{1}{6}$ where probability is over random choice of instance P_a , randomness of rewards and the algorithm.

- For deterministic algo, we have $\Pr(I^T \neq a | P_a) \geq 1/2$ for at least $1/3$ of instances in $\{P_a\}_{a \in [k]} \Rightarrow \Pr(I^T \neq i^*) \geq \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{6}$ on a sampled instance
- Any randomized algorithm is a distribution over deterministic algorithm
 $\Rightarrow \Pr(I^T \neq i^*) \geq \frac{1}{6}$ by taking expectation over algo' randomness

Next: Proof of Theorem 0 in 3 Steps

Step I: Converting the question to an instance testing problem by introducing a benchmark scenario

Introduce instance P_0 , where all k arms are independent RC_0 (i.e., non-biased coins)

➤ Intuitions for remaining proofs

- We say an arm $j \in [k]$ is “**neglected**” by the algorithm if (1) *it was not played too often*; (2) *it has low probability to be the final output I^T*
- Will show under any deterministic algorithm to P_0 , a constant fraction of arms are neglected because not all arms can be played a lot, simply by counting

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- Will show under any deterministic algorithm to P_0 , a constant fraction of arms are neglected because not all arms can be played a lot, simply by counting
- Now consider any neglected arm under the same algorithm in P_j . $KL(P_j, P_0)$ is likely small since they only slightly differ on arm j , Pinsker’s Inequality told us $\Pr(I^T \neq j | P_j) - \Pr(I^T \neq j | P_0)$ must be small

Tricky part is to figure out how small this could *tightly* be!

Step 2: Characterizing “neglected arms” under any deterministic algorithm on benchmark instance P_0

Lemma 1: For any deterministic algorithm on P_0 , there is a subset $J \subset [k]$ of arms such that

- 1) $|J| \geq k/3$
- 2) For any $j \in J$, $\mathbb{E}(N_j^T | P_0) \leq \frac{3T}{k}$
- 3) For any $j \in J$, $\Pr(I^T = j | P_0) \leq \frac{3}{k}$

Recall: I^T is the (random) arm pulled at last round T

N_j^T is the number of times arm j is pulled until round T

- That is, J contains all arms that are “neglected” in the sense of property 2) and 3)
- Property 1) says that J has size at least $k/3$

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Intuition of the proof

➤ Follows from counting argument:

- At least $2k/3$ arms satisfy property 2) since $\sum_{j=1}^T N_j^T = T$ is always true
- At least $2k/3$ arms satisfy property 3) since $\sum_{j=1}^T \Pr(I_j^T = j) = 1$

Formal proof left to HW1!

Step 2: Characterizing “neglected arms” under any deterministic algorithm on benchmark instance P_0

Lemma 1: For any deterministic algorithm on P_0 , there is a subset $J \subset [k]$ of arms such that

- 1) $|J| \geq k/3$
- 2) For any $j \in J$, $\Pr\left(N_j^T \leq \frac{24T}{k} \mid P_0\right) \geq \frac{7}{8}$
- 3) For any $j \in J$, $\Pr(I^T = j \mid P_0) \leq \frac{3}{k}$

Corollary: Property 2) above implies $\Pr\left(N_j^T \leq \frac{24T}{k} \mid P_0\right) \geq \frac{7}{8}$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr\left(N_j^T > \frac{24T}{k} \mid P_0\right) &\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(N_j^T \mid P_0)}{24T/k} && \text{By Markov's inequality} \\ &\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(N)}{24T/k} && \Pr(N > x) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(N)}{x} \\ &\leq 1/8 && \text{By plugging in property 2)}\end{aligned}$$

This implies the corollary

Step 3: Upper bounding $\Pr(I^T = j)$ under instance P_j for any neglected arm j

The intuitive idea is straightforward

- Want to show KL divergence $KL(P_0, P_j)$ is upper bounded
- Pinsker's Inequality then implies if j is neglected under P_0 , it will be under P_j as well

Technical argument needs careful treatment

- Simple argument yields $T \leq \frac{c}{\epsilon^2}$
- To get the stronger $T \leq \frac{ck}{\epsilon^2}$ bound, we need to carefully define the (random) events that determine a BAI algorithm's behavior

Step 3: Upper bounding $\Pr(I^T = j)$ under instance P_j for any neglected arm j

- A deterministic BAI algorithm maps any observed reward sequence thus far to the next to-be-pulled arm

$$\text{Alg: } \{0,1\}^t \rightarrow [k]$$

- Such an Alg can be viewed as an adaptive way to open **exactly T cells** of a random reward table

A diagram illustrating a random reward table. A horizontal arrow points from left to right, labeled N_i^t , indicating the progression of time or observations. Below the arrow is a grid of cells. The vertical axis is labeled "Arms" and lists indices 1, 2, \dots , j , \dots , k . The horizontal axis represents time steps, with the grid having 8 columns. The cells are empty, representing a random reward table.

1							
2							
\dots							
j							
\dots							
k							

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1	0						
2	1	0	...				
...							
j	0	1	1	...			
...							
k	0	1	...				

Arms

Step 3: Upper bounding $\Pr(I^T = j)$ under instance P_j for any neglected arm j

- We only care about event $\Pr(I^T = j)$
- Randomness purely comes from this random reward table
 - Since Alg is deterministic – it maps a sequence of T rewards to a deterministic choice of I^T



The diagram shows a horizontal arrow pointing to the right above a grid of numbers. The arrow is labeled N_i^t .

The grid is labeled "Arms" on the left side. It has rows labeled 1, 2, ..., j , ..., k . The columns represent rewards, with values 0, 1, and ... appearing in various cells.

1	0						
2	1	0	...				
...							
j	0	1	1	...			
...							
k	0	1	...				

Step 3: Upper bounding $\Pr(I^T = j)$ under instance P_j for any neglected arm j

- We only care about event $\Pr(I^T = j)$
- Randomness purely comes from this random reward table
 - Since Alg is deterministic – it maps a sequence of T rewards to a deterministic choice of I^T
 - These T rewards can be from different rows/arms

N_i^t

1	0						
2	1	0	...				
...							
j	0	1	1	...			
...							
k	0	1	...				

Arms

Step 3: Upper bounding $\Pr(I^T = j)$ under instance P_j for any neglected arm j

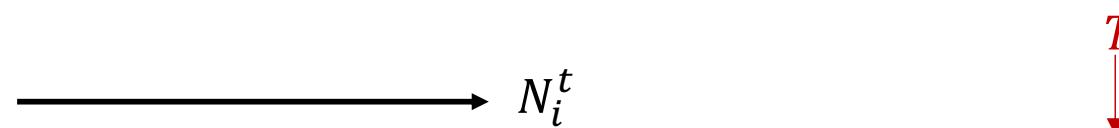
- **Bad news:** generally, every reward cell below can possibly affect the algorithm
 - We particularly do not like that all T cells in j 's row can affect Alg

The diagram illustrates a matrix representing rewards over time steps t to T for k different arms. The rows are labeled with arm indices 1, 2, ..., j , ..., k . The columns represent time steps, with N_i^t indicating the number of rewards observed for arm i at time step t . A red arrow labeled T points downwards from the top of the matrix, indicating the final time step. Another red arrow labeled N_i^t points horizontally to the first column of the j -th row.

1	0						
2	1	0	...				
...							
j	0	1	1	...			
...							
k	0	1	...				

Step 3: Upper bounding $\Pr(I^T = j)$ under instance P_j for any neglected arm j

- **Bad news:** generally, every reward cell below can possibly affect the algorithm
 - We particularly do not like that all T cells in j 's row can affect Alg
 ⇒ too much randomness that makes $KL(P_0, P_j)$ too large
 ⇒ a non-tight bound c/ϵ^2



1	0						
2	1	0	...				
...							
j	0	1	1	...			
...							
k	0	1	...				

Arms

N_i^t

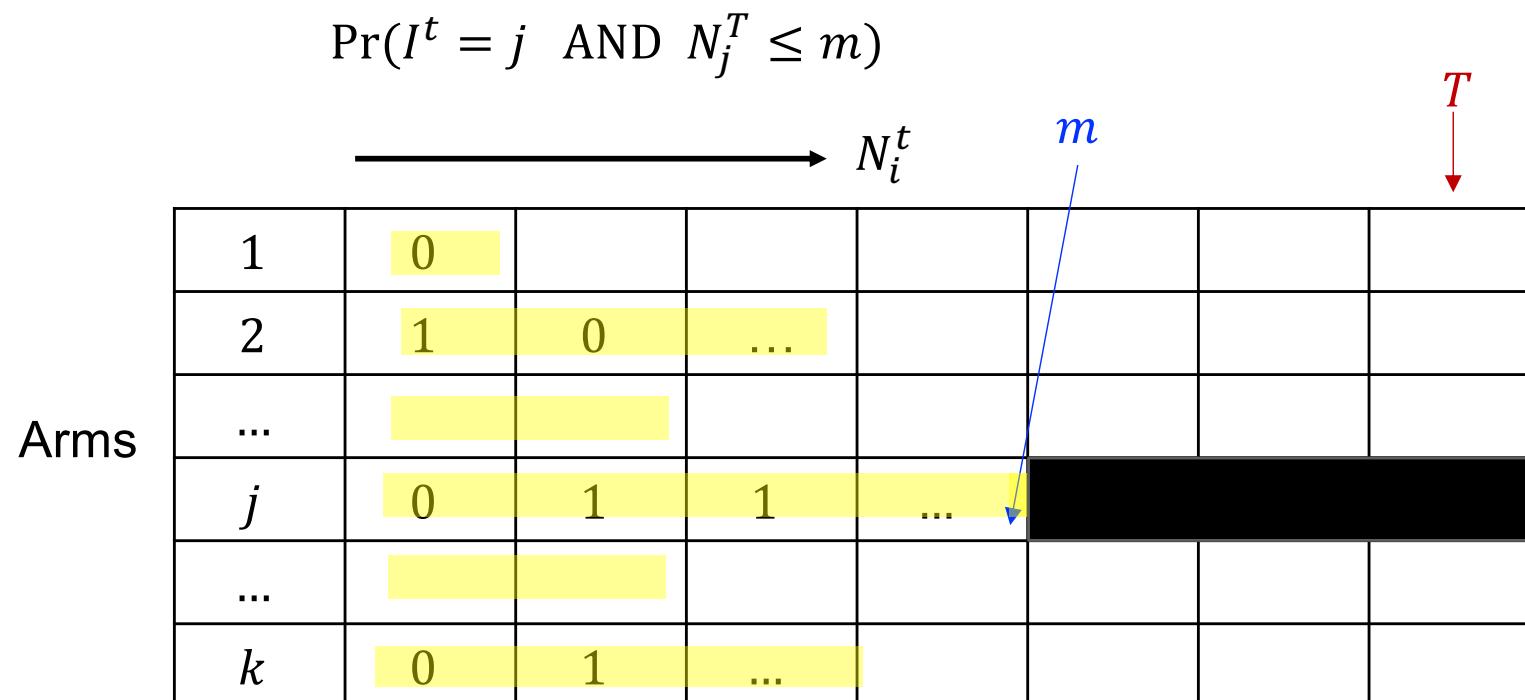
T

Step 3: Upper bounding $\Pr(I^T = j)$ under instance P_j for any neglected arm j

- Key idea: only consider first $m = \min\{\frac{24T}{k}, T\}$ cells in j 'th row, though allow other rows' all random rewards (since they are equal under P_0, P_j)

Formally, consider

From Lemma 1, these are precisely the condition of “neglected arms”



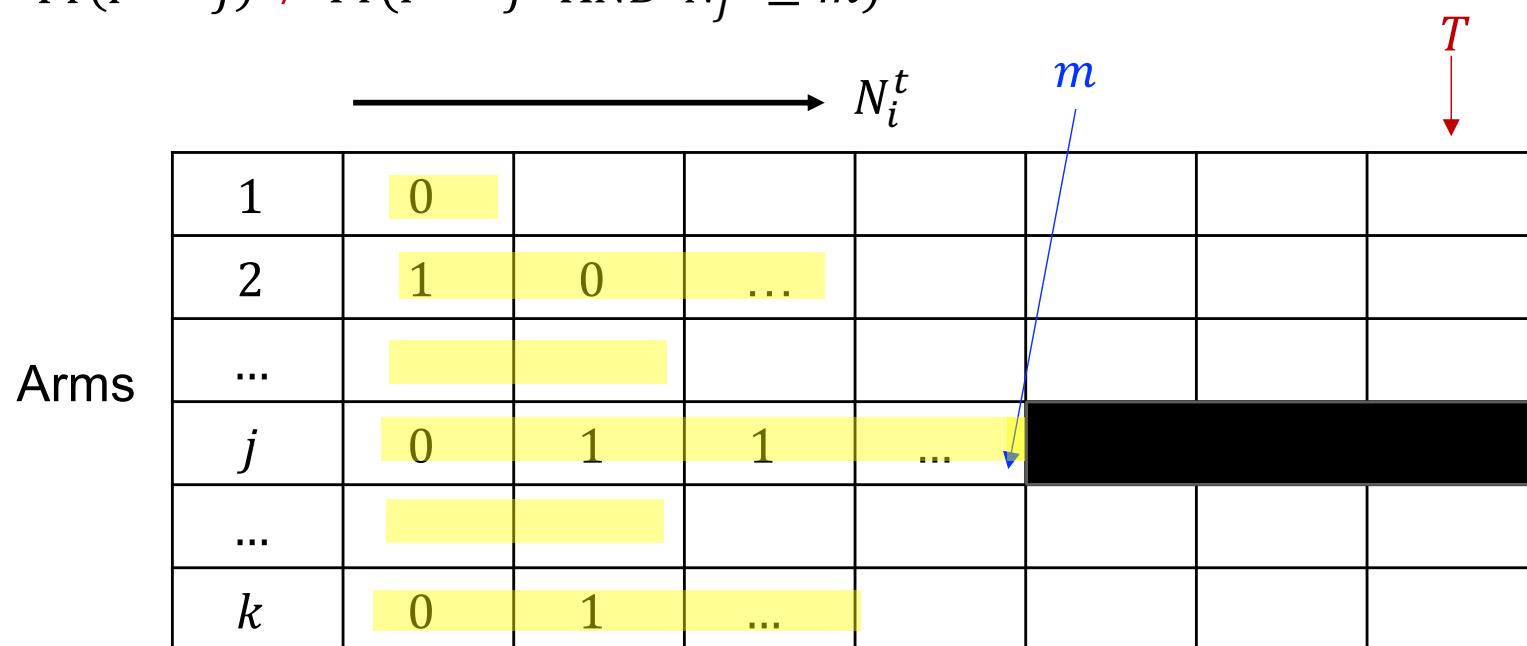
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Formally, consider

From Lemma 1, these are precisely the condition of “neglected arms”

$$\Pr(I^t = j) \neq \Pr(I^t = j \text{ AND } N_j^T \leq m)$$



Step 3: Upper bounding $\Pr(I^T = j)$ under instance P_j for any neglected arm j

- Key idea: only consider first $m = \min\{\frac{24T}{k}, T\}$ cells in j 'th row, though allow other rows' all random rewards (since they are equal under P_0, P_j)

Formally, consider

$$\Pr(I^t = j) = \Pr(I^t = j \text{ AND } N_j^T \leq m) + \Pr(I^t = j \text{ AND } N_j^T > m)$$

————— N_i^t —————

m

T

1	0						
2	1	0	...				
...							
<i>j</i>	0	1	1	...			
...							
<i>k</i>	0	1	...				

Step 3: Upper bounding $\Pr(I^T = j)$ under instance P_j for any neglected arm j

Both events depend only on first m rewards of row j

$$\Pr(I^t = j) = \Pr(I^t = j \text{ AND } N_j^T \leq m) + \Pr(I^t = j \text{ AND } N_j^T > m)$$

$$\leq \Pr(\text{Event } A_1) + \Pr(\text{Event } A_2)$$

	Time Step				
	1	2	3	...	
1	0				
2	1	0	...		
...					
j	0	1	1	...	m
...					
k	0	1	...		

Step 3: Upper bounding $\Pr(I^T = j)$ under instance P_j for any neglected arm j

- Let $p_j^t = RC_0$ for $t = 1, 2, \dots, m$ and $p_i^t = RC_0$ for $i \neq j$ and $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$
- Let $q_j^t = RC_\epsilon$ for $t = 1, 2, \dots, m$ and $q_i^t = RC_0$ for $i \neq j$ and $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$
- Both event A_1, A_2 are in support of $p = \prod_{i \neq j, t \in [T]} p_i^t \cdot \prod_{t \in [m]} p_j^t$ and a similarly defined q

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Event A_1 Event A_2

1	0						
2	1	0	...				
...							
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...							
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By chain rule

$$\begin{aligned} KL(p, q) &= \sum_{i \neq j, t \in [T]} KL(p_i^t, q_i^t) + \sum_{t \in [m]} KL(p_j^t, q_j^t) \\ &= \sum_{i \neq j, t \in [T]} KL(RC_0, RC_0) + \sum_{t \in [m]} KL(RC_0, RC_\epsilon) \\ &= m KL(RC_0, RC_\epsilon) \\ &\leq \frac{24T}{k} \epsilon^2 \quad \text{Since } m = \min\left\{\frac{24T}{k}, T\right\} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 0 assumed $T \leq \frac{c\kappa}{\epsilon^2}$ for a small constant $c \Rightarrow KL(p, q) \leq \frac{1}{32}$

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$$\Rightarrow |\Pr(A|P_0) - \Pr(A|P_j)| \leq \sqrt{KL(p, q)/2} \leq \frac{1}{8}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(A_1|P_j) &\leq \Pr(A_1|P_0) + \frac{1}{8} & \Pr(A_2|P_j) &\leq \Pr(A_2|P_0) + \frac{1}{8} \\ &\leq \frac{3}{k} + \frac{1}{8} \quad (\text{by lemma 1}) & &\leq \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} \quad (\text{by lemma 1}) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{4} & &\leq \frac{1}{4} \end{aligned}$$

By considering
instances with large k

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By considering
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To Summarize

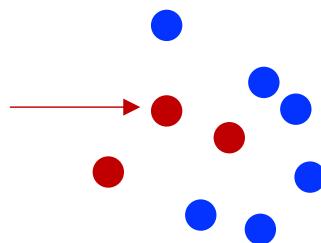
We proved

Theorem 0: Consider BAI with $T \leq \frac{ck}{\epsilon^2}$ on instances from set $\{P_a\}_{a \in [k]}$, where c is a small enough absolute constant.

For any deterministic algorithm for this problem, there exists at least $\lceil k/3 \rceil$ P_a instances such that

$$\Pr(I^T \neq a | P_a) \geq 1/2$$

Notably, this theorem does not hold for randomized algorithm since the $\lceil k/3 \rceil$ P_a instances may be different under different algorithm randomness



Any deterministic algorithm
“fails” at a constant fraction
of constructed instances

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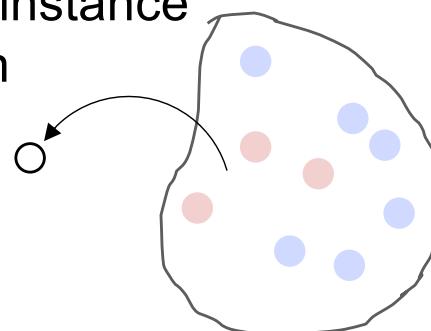
Theorem 0: Consider BAI with $T \leq \frac{ck}{\epsilon^2}$ on instances from set $\{P_a\}_{a \in [k]}$, where c is a small enough absolute constant.

For any deterministic algorithm for this problem, there exists at least $[k/3]$ P_a instances such that

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Randomly sample an instance
removes this limitation



Any deterministic algorithm
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Notably, this theorem does not hold for randomized algorithm since the $[k/3]$ P_a instances may be different under different algorithm randomness

Corollary: Consider any BAI algorithm (possibly randomized) running on a uniformly randomly sampled instance from set $\{P_a\}_{a \in [k]}$ with $T \leq \frac{ck}{\epsilon^2}$.

Then $\Pr(I^T \neq i^*) \geq \frac{1}{6}$ where probability is over random choice of instance P_a , randomness of rewards and the algorithm.

Outline

- Technical Preparations
- Detour: Best-Arm Identification (BAI) Lower Bounds
- MAB Regret Lower Bounds
 - Instance-Independent Lower Bound
 - Instance-Dependent Lower Bounds

Regret Lower Bound for MAB

Theorem 1: Fixed time horizon T and number of arms k .

For any bandit algorithm, running on a uniformly randomly sampled instance from $\{P_a\}_{a \in [k]}$ with $\epsilon = \sqrt{ck/T}$ for a sufficiently small constant c , we have

$$\mathbb{E}(R^T) \geq \Omega(\sqrt{kT})$$

where expectation is over choice of instance P_a , randomness in rewards and Algo.

Proof.

- Note that $T = ck/\epsilon^2$ by our choice of ϵ
- Previous corollary says any algorithm running on the stated random instance satisfies $\Pr(I^t \neq i^*) \geq \frac{1}{6}$ for any $t \leq ck/\epsilon^2 (= T)$
- This means we suffer expected regret $\geq \frac{1}{6} \times \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ at each round $t \leq T$ since in the constructed instance, any sub-optimal arm has $\Delta = \epsilon/2$
- In total, we have

$$\mathbb{E}(R^T) \geq \frac{\epsilon}{12} \times T = \Omega(\sqrt{kT})$$

Regret Lower Bound for MAB

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where expectation is over choice of instance P_a , randomness in rewards and Algo.

Remarks.

- This is called “worst-case lower bound”
 - You designed an algorithm;
 - Someone tries to “stress test” your algorithm by trying to feeding in the most challenging instance
 - The bound captures the best you can do under such challenge
- Also known as “minimax lower bound”

$$\min_{\text{Algorithm}} \max_{\text{Instance}} \text{Regret}(\text{Algo}|\text{Ins})$$

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That is, remove that “max” in “minimax lower bound”, and derive a bound for every instance

Instance-Dependent Regret Lower Bound

Rough format of the statement

“For any MAB problem instance P and time horizon T , no algorithm can achieve regret $\mathbb{E}(R^T) = o(\text{Time}_{P,T})$ ”

- However, this claim is clearly not true → why?
 - Consider a trivial algorithm Alg_a which always pulls arm a
 - One of $\{\text{Alg}_a\}_{a \in [k]}$ has 0 regret
- To have a meaningful result, we need to rule out such “pure luck” algorithms that fail miserably in general, but do well occasionally

Instance-Dependent Regret Lower Bound

Theorem 2. Consider any MAB algorithm that satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}(R^T) \leq O(C_{P,\alpha} T^\alpha) \quad \text{for any } \alpha > 0 \text{ and any instance } P.$$

Then for any problem instance P , there exists a time T_0 such that for any $T \geq T_0$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}(R^T) \geq \mu^*(1 - \mu^*) \sum_{i \neq i^*} \frac{\ln T}{\Delta_i}$$

- This is the restriction on the algorithms that we consider
 - That is, these are reasonable algorithms that attempted to solve all instances
- This bound shows that UCB's gap-dependent regret bound is tight order-wise

Thank You

Haifeng Xu

University of Chicago

haifengxu@uchicago.edu