Mitigating Disparity while Maximizing Reward: Tight Anytime Guarantee for Improving Bandits

Vishakha Patil\(^1\), Vineet Nair\(^2\), Ganesh Ghalme\(^3\) and Arindam Khan\(^1\)

\(^1\)Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore
\(^2\)Arithmic Labs
\(^3\)Indian Institute of Technology, Hyderabad

patilv@iisc.ac.in, vineet@arithmic.com, ganeshghalme@ai.iith.ac.in, arindamkhan@iisc.ac.in

Abstract

We study the Improving Multi-Armed Bandit (IMAB) problem, where the reward obtained from an arm increases with the number of pulls it receives. This model provides an elegant abstraction for many real-world problems in domains such as education and employment, where decisions about the distribution of opportunities can affect the future capabilities of communities and the disparity between them. A decision-maker in such settings must consider the impact of her decisions on future rewards in addition to the standard objective of maximizing her cumulative reward at any time. We study the tension between two seemingly conflicting objectives in the horizon-unaware setting: a) maximizing the cumulative reward at any time, and b) ensuring that arms with better long-term rewards get sufficient pulls even if they initially have low rewards. We show that, surprisingly, the two objectives are aligned with each other. Our main contribution is an anytime algorithm for the IMAB problem that achieves the best possible cumulative reward while ensuring that the arms reach their true potential given sufficient time. Our algorithm mitigates the initial disparity due to lack of opportunity and continues pulling an arm until it stops improving. We prove the optimality of our algorithm by showing that a) any algorithm for the IMAB problem, no matter how utilitarian, must suffer \(\Omega(T)\) policy regret and \(\Omega(k)\) competitive ratio with respect to the optimal offline policy, and b) the competitive ratio of our algorithm is \(O(k)\).

1 Introduction

Machine Learning (ML) algorithms are increasingly being used to make or assist critical decisions that affect communities (or, people) in areas such as education, employment, and loan lending. The distribution of opportunities in such critical domains can affect the future abilities of the impacted communities. Consequently, ML algorithms can influence the disparity between different communities. Though a significant amount of research has been aimed at ensuring fairness in ML algorithms, most of this work has focused on static settings without considering the long-term impacts of algorithmic decisions over time [Barocas et al., 2019; Hardt et al., 2016].

Multi-Armed Bandits (MAB) is a classical framework that captures sequential decision-making in uncertain environments [Robbins, 1952]. In MAB, a decision-maker pulls one of \(k\) arms at each time step and obtains a reward determined by a function or a reward distribution corresponding to that arm. The goal of the decision-maker is to maximize the total reward over multiple time steps when the reward function is not known to her a priori. A variant of MAB, called the Improving MAB (IMAB) model, was introduced by [Heidari et al., 2016] to model the long-term impacts of algorithmic decisions on the underlying population. In IMAB, the arms represent communities (or, people), and pulling an arm corresponds to allocating opportunities to the corresponding community. The instantaneous reward obtained from pulling an arm is the current ability of the community in utilizing the opportunity. This reward improves with the number of pulls the arm receives, which imitates the likely improvement in abilities of communities given more opportunities. Inspired by the motivating examples and numerous studies on human learning, the reward functions in IMAB are assumed to be bounded, monotonically increasing, and having decreasing marginal returns (diminishing returns) [Son and Sethi, 2006].

In this work, we initiate the study of IMAB in the horizon-unaware (anytime) setting. The key technical challenge of this problem is the seemingly conflicting set of objectives: we wish to maximize the cumulative reward at any time and ensure that arms with high long-term but low short-term rewards also get pulled sufficiently often. The IMAB problem has been previously studied in the horizon-aware setting with asymptotic regret guarantees [Heidari et al., 2016] (see Section 1.1). However, their non-asymptotic performance guarantee is not good (see Section 1.1). Further, in many practical applications, the time horizon is not known to the algorithm beforehand. In contrast to horizon-aware algorithms, anytime algorithms do not know the time horizon beforehand and hence cannot tailor their decisions to the given time horizon. Thus, an anytime algorithm must perform well for any finite time horizon without having prior knowledge of it, which poses interesting technical challenges. Due to its theoretical and practical significance, the design of anytime algorithms has been of prime interest to the MAB research community.
The nature of the IMAB model and its applications also call for an investigation of any IMAB algorithm through the lens of fairness. Fairness through awareness [Dwork et al., 2012] is a well-accepted notion of fairness that enforces that similar individuals or communities be treated similarly. In the IMAB model, one could quantify similarity (or equivalently, disparity) based on the arms’ current rewards (abilities). However, we argue that such a blind comparison may be fallacious. For instance, historical marginalization could lead to differences in the abilities of different individuals or communities to perform a given task, for example, the racial gap observed in SAT scores [V. Reeves and Halikias, 2017]. One way of mitigating such differences that has been studied in the MAB literature [Li et al., 2019; Patil et al., 2021], is via affirmative action, where the decision-maker allocates some opportunities to individuals based on attributes such as their race, gender, caste, etc. Such policies have been in place for decades in some countries (see reservation system in India [Sahoo, 2009]), while they are banned in several US states [J. Baker, 2019]. Another popular notion of fairness in the MAB literature is meritocratic fairness [Joseph et al., 2016], where arms are compared solely based on their current rewards. In IMAB however, meritocracy would identify individuals that are gifted early and provide them more opportunities which would suppress the growth of late bloomers, i.e., the individuals that would go on to perform well had they been given more opportunities. This detrimental effect of meritocracy has also been observed in the real world; for example, the education system in Singapore [Staff, 2018].

![Image of Two-armed IMAB Instance](image_url)

Figure 1: Two-armed IMAB Instance

We give a simple example to highlight the challenges in the anytime IMAB problem. Figure 1 shows a two-armed IMAB instance. We emphasize here that the reward of an arm changes only when the arm is pulled. That is, the x-axis denotes the number of arm pulls of an arm and not the time horizon. As the figure shows, arm 1 is an early gifted arm and arm 2 is a late bloomer. Here, a myopic decision-maker that pulls arms based only on the instantaneous rewards will seldom pull arm 2. An algorithm that majorly plays arm 1 may obtain a high cumulative reward for shorter horizons. However, for larger horizons, this algorithm could perform poorly. Additionally, an algorithm that mostly plays arm 1 will increase the disparity between the two arms. This highlights the challenges faced by an anytime algorithm in balancing exploitation (pull arm 1) and exploration (pull arm 2) such that the total reward is maximized.

### Our Results

Our contributions in this paper are twofold. First, we contribute strong theoretical results to the long line of literature on non-stationary bandits, particularly rested bandits, where the rewards obtained from an arm can change when pulled [Besbes et al., 2014; Levine et al., 2017]. We refer the reader to Section 1.1 for a discussion on why existing algorithms for the non-stationary MAB problem do not work for the IMAB problem. Second, we make an important conceptual and technical contribution to the study of fairness in the IMAB problem. We study the IMAB problem in the horizon-unaware setting with the following objective: how does a decision-maker maximize her reward while ensuring the participants (arms) are provided with sufficient opportunities to improve and reach their true potential?

Our first result shows that any algorithm for the IMAB problem, how much ever utilitarian, suffers \(\Omega(T)\) regret and has competitive ratio \(\Omega(k)\) (Theorem 2). Our main contribution is an efficient anytime algorithm (Algorithm 1) which has a competitive ratio of \(O(k)\) for the IMAB problem in the horizon-unaware case (Theorem 4).\(^1\) An interesting and important property of our proposed algorithm is that it continues pulling an arm until it reaches its true potential (Theorem 5), thus mitigating the disparity that existed due to lack of opportunity. We note that this is not accomplished by imposing any fairness constraints but by establishing that it is in the best interest of a decision-maker that wishes to have good anytime regret, to enable arms to achieve their true potential (see example in Figure 1). The proofs of Theorems 4 and 5 require intricate analysis (see Sections 4.2 and 4.3). Our theoretical guarantees rest crucially on several important and non-trivial properties that our algorithm satisfies (e.g., see Lemmas 6, 9, and 10) and are the key technical contributions of our paper. We also analyze the performance of the round-robin (RR) algorithm. We show that while RR gives equal opportunity to all arms, its competitive ratio is \(\Theta(k^2)\) and hence, is sub-optimal for the decision maker (Theorem 3). Finally, we further highlight the significance of our theoretical results via experiments.

### 1.1 Related Work

The IMAB problem was introduced by [Heidari et al., 2016], who studied the horizon-aware IMAB problem. Our work differs from theirs in two key aspects. First, they study the horizon-aware setting and their algorithm uses the knowledge of \(\tau\) at every time step. In particular, if their algorithm has run for some time steps with horizon set as \(T_1\), and it is then decided to run it for some more rounds for a horizon \(T_2 > T_1\), then the algorithm would need to be restarted from the first time step. Importantly, for two different horizons \(T_1\) and \(T_2\), the sequence of arm pulls by this algorithm could vary significantly. In contrast, our algorithm does not have prior

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\(^1\)Informally, the competitive ratio (Definition 2) is the worst-case ratio of the reward of the offline optimal to that of the algorithm.
knowledge of $T$ and must work well for any stopping time $T$. Second, they provide an asymptotically sub-linear regret bound in terms of instance-dependent parameters. On the other hand, our results hold for any finite time horizon $T$. In fact, in Appendix G, we show that for any time horizon $T$ there is an instance for which the algorithm of [Heidari et al., 2016] will have competitive ratio $\Omega(k^2)$ which is similar to $8k$. We note here that our results are with respect to two standard performance metrics in the MAB literature, policy regret [Arora et al., 2012; Heidari et al., 2016] and competitive ratio [Immorlica et al., 2019; Daniely and Mansour, 2019; Andrew et al., 2013] (see Section 2 for the definitions).

IMAB is a variant of the non-stationary MAB problem. Non-stationary MAB problems have been extensively studied in the literature under various assumptions [Tekin and Liu, 2022] and competitive ratio [Immorlica et al., 2019; Daniely and Mansour, 2019; Andrew et al., 2013] (see Section 2 for the definitions).

The area of fairness in ML has received tremendous attention in recent years [Barocas et al., 2019]. However, much of this attention has been focused on fairness in static, and one-shot settings such as classification [Kleinberg et al., 2017; Hardt et al., 2016; Dwork et al., 2012]. Recent work has studied the fairness aspects of sequential decision-making models, such as MABs [Joseph et al., 2016; Patil et al., 2021; Li et al., 2019; Hossain et al., 2021] and Markov Decision Processes (MDPs) [Jabbari et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2021; Ghalme et al., 2022]. However, these works do not consider the impact of the decisions on the population on which they operate. With a motivation similar to ours, [Lindner et al., 2021] recently studied a problem called the single-peaked bandit model, where the reward functions are monotonically increasing before and decreasing after the peak. This class of reward functions subsumes the class of reward functions considered in [Heidari et al., 2016]. The algorithm and the results in [Lindner et al., 2021], which are again for the horizon-aware case only, match the results in [Heidari et al., 2016] for the class of reward functions considered in IMAB.

2 Model and Preliminaries

Let $\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{N}$ denote the set of real and natural numbers, respectively, and $[k]$ denote the set $\{1, 2, \ldots, k\}$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Model and Problem Definition. The IMAB model was introduced in [Heidari et al., 2016]. Formally, an instance $I$ of IMAB is defined by a tuple $(k, (f_i)_{i \in [k]})$ where $k$ is the number of arms. Each arm $i \in [k]$ is associated with a fixed underlying reward function denoted by $f_i(\cdot)$. When the decision-maker pulls arm $i$ for the $n$-th time, it obtains an instantaneous reward $f_i(n)$. Further, $\text{Rew}_I(N)$ denotes the cumulative reward obtained from arm $i$ after it has been pulled $N$ times, i.e., $\text{Rew}_I(N) = f_i(1) + f_i(2) + \ldots + f_i(N)$. We assume that the reward functions $f_i, i \in [k]$ are bounded in $[0, 1]^k$, i.e., $f_i : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow [0, 1]$. In our motivating examples, the reward functions $f_i$ correspond to the ability of communities to utilize an opportunity. In the IMAB model, $f_i$’s are assumed to be monotonically increasing with decreasing marginal returns (aka diminishing returns). This assumption about the progression of human abilities is well-supported by literature in cognitive sciences [Son and Sethi, 2006] and microeconomics [Jovanovic and Nyarko, 1995]. The decreasing marginal returns property states that for all $i \in [k]$ $f_i(n + 1) - f_i(n) \leq f_i(n) - f_i(n - 1)$ for all $n \geq 1$.

It is to be noted that the main technical hurdle for an anytime algorithm is the lack of knowledge of the time horizon, which is in no way alleviated by the non-stochastic nature of the reward functions. Next, let $a_i(t)$ denote the asymptote of $f_i$, i.e., $a_i = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_i(n)$. Since $f_i$’s are monotonically increasing and bounded, this asymptote exists and is finite. We call $a_i$ the true potential of the arm. It represents the ability of communities if they are given enough opportunities.

Let $\text{ALG}$ be a deterministic algorithm for the IMAB problem and $T$ be the time horizon (unknown to $\text{ALG}$). Let $i_t \in [k]$ denote the arm pulled by $\text{ALG}$ at time step $t \in [T]$. We use $N_i(t)$ to denote the number of pulls of arm $i$ made by $\text{ALG}$ until (not including) time step $t$, and $\text{ALG}(I, T)$ to denote the cumulative reward of $\text{ALG}$ on instance $I$ at the end of $T$ time steps. Then, $\text{ALG}(I, T) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} f_i(N_i(t) + 1)$. We note that the cumulative reward of $\text{ALG}$ after $T$ time steps only depends on the number of pulls of each arm and not on the order of pulls. Hence, we can write $\text{ALG}(I, T) = \sum_{i \in [k]} \text{Rew}_I(N_i(T + 1))$. For brevity, we write $N_i(T + 1)$ as $N_i$. Hence, $\text{ALG}(I, T) = \sum_{i \in [k]} \text{Rew}_I(N_i)$. When $I$ is clear from context, we use $\text{ALG}(T)$ to denote $\text{ALG}(I, T)$.

Offline Optimal Algorithm for IMAB. Let $I = \langle k, (f_i)_{i \in [k]} \rangle$ be an IMAB instance. We use $\text{OPT}(I, T)$ to denote the offline algorithm maximizing the cumulative reward for instance $I$ and horizon $T$. Here, offline means that $\text{OPT}(I, T)$ knows the IMAB instance $I$ and the time horizon $T$ beforehand. With slight abuse of notation, we also denote the cumulative reward of this algorithm by $\text{OPT}(I, T)$. When $I$ is clear from context, we use $\text{OPT}(T)$ instead of $\text{OPT}(I, T)$. The following proposition shows that for the IMAB problem, $\text{OPT}(I, T)$ corresponds to pulling a single arm for all the $T$ rounds. We give an alternate proof in Appendix B.

Proposition 1. [[Heidari et al., 2016]] Suppose $I = \langle k, (f_i)_{i \in [k]} \rangle$ is an instance of the IMAB problem and $T$ is the
time horizon. Then there exists an arm $j_T^*$ such that the optimal offline algorithm consists of pulling arm $j_T^*$ for $T$ time steps.

We emphasize that $j_T^*$ defined above depends on the time horizon $T$, and may differ for different values of $T$. We compare the performance of an online algorithm at any time $T$ with $\text{OPT}(T)$ using the performance metrics defined next.

**Performance Metrics.** In this work, our objective is to minimize the stronger notion of regret, viz. policy regret, as opposed to external regret [Arora et al., 2012]. We refer the reader to Example 1 in [Heidari et al., 2016] or Appendix A.2 for insight into how the two regret notions differ in IMAB. We next define policy regret for the IMAB problem. Henceforth, we use regret to denote policy regret unless stated otherwise.

**Definition 1.** Let $\mathcal{I}$ denote the set of all problem instances for the IMAB problem with $k$ arms. The policy regret of an algorithm $\text{ALG}$ for time horizon $T$, is defined as

$$\text{Regret}_{\text{ALG}}(T) = \sup_{I \in \mathcal{I}} \left[ \text{OPT}(I, T) - \mathbb{E}[\text{ALG}(I, T)] \right]$$

where the expectation is over any randomness in $\text{ALG}$.

In Section 3, we show that any algorithm for the IMAB problem must suffer regret that is linear in $T$. This motivates our choice to study the competitive ratio of an algorithm with respect to the offline optimal algorithm. We note that competitive ratio is a well-studied notion used to evaluate performance of online algorithms [Borodin and El-Yaniv, 2005; Buchbinder et al., 2012] and is also studied in the MAB literature [Immorlica et al., 2019; Kesselheim and Singla, 2020; Andrew et al., 2013; Daniely and Mansour, 2019].

**Definition 2.** Let $\mathcal{I}$ denote the set of all problem instances for the IMAB problem with $k$ arms. and $\text{ALG}$ be an algorithm for the IMAB problem. Then the (strict) competitive ratio of $\text{ALG}$ for time horizon $T$ is defined as

$$\text{CR}_{\text{ALG}}(T) = \inf_{\alpha \geq 1} \{ \forall I \in \mathcal{I}, \alpha \cdot \text{ALG}(I, T) \geq \text{OPT}(I, T) \}$$

We will henceforth refer to this as the competitive ratio of an algorithm. To lower bound the competitive ratio of an algorithm $\text{ALG}$ by $\alpha$, it is sufficient to provide an instance $I$ such that $\frac{\text{OPT}(I, T)}{\text{ALG}(I, T)} \geq \alpha$. Naturally, the goal of the decision-maker is to design an algorithm with a small competitive ratio. Finally, we note that although we have defined $\text{Rew}_{\text{ALG}}(N)$ and $\text{ALG}(T)$ as a discrete sum, in some of our proofs, we use definite integrals (area under the curves defined by $f_i$) to approximate the value of the discrete sum. This approximation does not affect our results (see Appendix A.1).

### 3 Lower Bound and Round Robin

In this section, we begin by proving the hardness of IMAB. In particular, we show that for any finite time horizon $T$, there is an instance such that any algorithm for IMAB suffers a regret that is linear in $T$ and has a competitive ratio $\Omega(k)$. This implies that even an algorithm that solely wants to maximize its cumulative reward, without any fairness consideration towards the arms, must suffer linear regret. We also show that the competitive ratio of simple round-robin (RR) is $\Theta(k^2)$, and hence RR, even though it equally distributes pulls to the arms, is sub-optimal for the decision-maker.

**Lower Bound:** In Theorem 2, we show that for any algorithm $\text{ALG}$ and any time horizon $T$, there exists a problem instance $I = (\{k\}, (f_i)_{i \in \{k\}})$, such that the competitive ratio $\text{CR}_{\text{ALG}}(T) \geq k/2$. The lower bound shows that we cannot give anytime guarantees with competitive ratio $o(k)$ for IMAB.\(^5\)

**Theorem 2.** Let $\text{ALG}$ be an algorithm for the IMAB problem with $k$ arms. Then, for any finite time horizon $T$, there exists a problem instance defined by the reward functions $(f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_k)$ such that

(a) $\text{Regret}_{\text{ALG}}(T) \geq c \cdot T$, for some constant $c$,

(b) $\text{CR}_{\text{ALG}}(T) \geq k/2$.

The proof of our lower bound also shows that even when $T$ is known to the algorithm, an instance-dependent sublinear regret is not possible. Note that [Heidari et al., 2016] give an instance-dependent asymptotically sublinear regret. In contrast, we seek an instance-independent anytime regret guarantee (i.e., one that does not depend on the parameters of problem instance). We prove this lower bound by constructing a family of $k$ IMAB instances and showing that no algorithm can achieve sub-linear regret and $o(k)$ competitive ratio on all $k$ instances. We briefly provide intuition about the construction of these problem instances and defer the detailed proof to Appendix C.1. Let $N = \lceil T/k \rceil$. The $k$ problem instances are as follows: For $m \in [k]$, instance $I_m$ is such that

$$\forall i \neq m, f_i(n) = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{kN} & \text{if } n \leq N \\ \frac{1}{k} & \text{if } n > N \end{cases}$$

$$f_m(n) = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{kN} & \text{if } n \leq kN \\ 1 & \text{if } n > kN \end{cases}$$

See Figure 2 for a depiction of instance $I_m$. An algorithm cannot differentiate between the arms in instance $I_m$ until the

\(^5\)In Appendix C.2, we show that the regret lower bound holds even if the algorithm knows the functions $f_i$ and only $T$ is unknown.
optimal arm \( m \) has been pulled at least \( N \) times. Given the construction of the reward functions, at least one arm, say arm \( j \), would be pulled \(< N \) times by any algorithm. Hence, the algorithm will suffer linear regret on instance \( I_j \).

**Round Robin:** The RR algorithm pulls arms 1 to \( k \) in a cyclic manner, and at the end of \( T \) rounds, for any \( T \in \mathbb{N} \) ensures that each arm is pulled at least \( \lceil T/k \rceil \) times irrespective of the reward obtained from the arm. Although this ensures equal distribution of arm pulls, in Theorem 3, we show that RR is sub-optimal in terms of its competitive ratio.

**Theorem 3.** Let RR denote the round-robin algorithm. Then, \( 8k^2 \geq CR_{RR}(T) \geq \frac{k^2}{2} \).

The proof is in Appendix C.3. The first inequality above says that the competitive ratio of RR is at most \( 8k^2 \), whereas the second inequality shows that our analysis for RR is tight (up to constants). Theorems 2 and 3 together show a gap of \( k \) in the competitive ratio is optimal up to constants and which allocates the pulls to arms in a manner that ensures each arm attains its true potential given sufficient time.

## 4 Optimal Algorithm for Improving Bandits

In this section, we propose an algorithm that mitigates disparity due to lack of opportunities while achieving the best possible cumulative reward at any time. We first give an intuitive idea about how our algorithm works. Then, we formally state the two-way guarantee that our algorithm provides; first, the tight anytime guarantee for the cumulative reward, and second, the mitigation of disparity by helping arms reach their true potential given sufficient time. In Section 4.1, we state our algorithm along with the main results (Theorems 4 and 5). In Section 4.2, we provide a proof sketch of Theorem 4 along with the supporting lemmas. Finally, in Section 4.3, we give a proof sketch of Theorem 5.

### 4.1 Algorithm and its Guarantees

Our proposed algorithm is Algorithm 1. Throughout this section, we use ALG to denote Algorithm 1 unless stated otherwise. In addition to having strong performance guarantees, ALG is simple (in terms of the operations used) and efficient (in terms of time complexity). Before stating the theoretical guarantees of our algorithm, we provide an intuitive explanation of how it works. For each arm \( i \in [k] \), recall \( N_i(t) \) denotes the number of times arm \( i \) has been pulled until (not including) time step \( t \), and for notational convenience, we use \( N_i \) to denote the number of times ALG pulls arm \( i \) in \( T \) time steps. Initialization is done by pulling each arm twice (Step 3). This lets us compute the rate of change of the reward function between the first and second pulls of each arm, i.e., \( \Delta_i(2) = f_i(2) - f_i(1) \) (as defined in Step 6). This takes \( 2k \) time steps. At each time step \( t > 2k \), let \( i_\ast^{(t)} \) denote the arm that has been pulled the maximum number of times so far, i.e., \( i_\ast^{(t)} \in \arg\max_{i \in [k]} N_i(t) \). Then, for every arm \( i \in [k] \), we compute an optimistic estimate of its cumulative reward, as defined in Step 6, which is standard in MAB literature. This shows that our algorithm is optimal (up to constants).

**Theorem 4.** The competitive ratio of ALG is \( O(k) \). Further, the time complexity of ALG is \( O(k \log k) \) per time step.

The per-round time complexity of ALG follows from the \( \arg\max \) operation (step 11) performed at each time step, which is standard in MAB literature. This shows that our algorithm, in addition to being simple, is also efficient. The proof of the above theorem relies on some elegant attributes of our algorithm and the class of reward functions. We discuss some of these in Section 4.2. We next show in Theorem 5 that ALG ensures that each arm reaches its true potential given sufficient time.

**Theorem 5.** For an arm \( i \in [k] \), let \( a_i = \lim_{N \to \infty} f_i(N) \). Then, for every \( \epsilon \in (0, a_i) \), there exists \( T \in \mathbb{N} \) such that ALG ensures that \( a_i - f_i(N_i(T)) \leq \epsilon \).

Theorem 5 shows that all arms reach arbitrarily close to their true potential given sufficient time. In particular, this shows that our algorithm mitigates the initial disparities in the arms due to a lack of opportunities by enabling the arms to reach their true potential given sufficient time. We give a proof sketch in Section 4.3. We recognize that Theorem 5 is not very interesting in and of itself. In particular, even RR satisfies this property. However, what is interesting is that our algorithm satisfies this while Theorem 4 also holds. This further underlines our observation that the arm-pull decisions of our algorithm are delicately balanced at each time step.
4.2 Proof Sketch of Theorem 4

The proof of the theorem hinges upon Lemmas 6, 7, and 9 and Corollary 8 stated below. We elaborate upon these lemmas along with the proof sketches for a few of them and then explain how the proof is completed using these lemmas. The complete proof of Theorem 4 along with the proofs of the lemmas and corollaries is in Appendix D.

Let \( I = \{k, (f_i)_{i \in [k]}\} \) be an arbitrary instance of the IMAB problem and let \( T \) be the time horizon. To upper bound the competitive ratio of our algorithm at \( T \), it is sufficient to upper bound \( \frac{\text{OPT}(I, T)}{\text{ALG}(I, T)} \) (since instance \( I \) has been chosen arbitrarily). Throughout, and without loss of generality, assume \( N_1 \geq N_2 \geq \ldots \geq N_k \). We begin with a crucial lemma which captures an important feature of our algorithm: the first arm to cross \( N \) pulls has to be the optimal arm for the time horizon \( N \), that is, as per Proposition 1, it has to be the arm that maximizes the cumulative reward for horizon \( N \). This property is of key importance in proving the optimality of our algorithm.

**Lemma 6.** If arm \( i \in [k] \) is the first arm to cross \( N \) pulls, i.e., to be pulled \( N + 1 \) time, then

\[
\text{Rew}_i(N) = \text{OPT}(I, N).
\]

We note that if our algorithm runs for \( T \) time steps then the above lemma holds for any \( N \) between \( 1 \) and \( T \). The proof of the above lemma relies on how we compute \( p_i(t) \), the optimistic estimate of the cumulative reward of arm \( i \), at each time step. We remark here that previous works that study the IMAB problem assume that the horizon \( T \) is known to the algorithm beforehand. This significantly simplifies the problem of estimating the optimistic estimate of the cumulative reward of any arm using a linear extrapolation. This also allows certain arms to be eliminated based on these estimates. However, such an approach is not possible in the anytime setting. In fact, in Theorem 5, we show that our algorithm keeps pulling an arm until it is improving.

Next, we state Lemma 7 that lower bounds the ratio \( \text{Rew}_i(N)/\text{Rew}_i(T) \), which is the ratio of the cumulative reward of pulling arm \( i \) for \( N \) pulls to that of pulling it for \( T \) pulls, for each arm \( i \in [k] \). Part (a) of the following lemma considers the case when \( N > T/2 \) and part (b) looks at the case when \( N \leq T/2 \).

**Lemma 7.** For each arm \( i \in [k] \),

\begin{align*}
(a) & \frac{\text{Rew}_i(\alpha T)}{\text{Rew}_i(T)} \geq \frac{1}{5} \quad \text{for } \alpha \geq \frac{1}{2}, \\
(b) & \frac{\text{Rew}_i(\alpha T/k)}{\text{Rew}_i(T)} \geq \frac{16\alpha^2}{25k^2} \quad \text{for } 0 \leq \alpha \leq \frac{k}{2}.
\end{align*}

The proof of the above lemma relies on the properties of \( f_i \), in particular, the properties that \( f_i \)'s are monotonically increasing, bounded in \([0, 1]\), and have decreasing marginal returns. To prove part (a), we first show that \( \text{Rew}_i(\alpha T) \) can be lower bounded by the area of triangle defined by \( O, E, \) and \( B \) in Figure 3 which is equal to \( \frac{\alpha T f_i(\alpha T)}{2} \). Further, for \( \alpha \geq 1/2 \) we show that \( \text{Rew}_i(T) \leq \frac{25}{2} f_i(\alpha T) \) (see Claim 4 in Appendix D). This gives us part (a) of the lemma. To prove part (b), we show that \( \text{Rew}_i(\alpha T/k) \) is lower bounded by the area of the triangle defined by \( O, E, \) and \( B \) in Figure 4 which is equal to \( \frac{\alpha^2 T^2 m_{OE}}{2} \) where \( m_{OE} \) is the slope of the line segment passing through points \( O \) and \( E \) in Figure 4. Using arguments leveraging certain geometric properties satisfied by \( f_i \), we show that \( \text{Rew}_i(T) \leq \frac{25T^2 m_{OE}}{32} \) (see Claim 5 in Appendix D). This gives us part (b) of the lemma.

Next, we have the following interesting corollary to Lemma 7 which compares the optimal rewards at \( T \) and \( N \) where \( N \) spans values in \([1, \ldots, T]\) depending on the value of \( \alpha \).

**Corollary 8.** For any finite time horizon \( T \), we have

\begin{align*}
(a) & \frac{\text{OPT}(I, \alpha T)}{\text{OPT}(I, T)} \geq \frac{1}{5} \quad \text{for } \frac{1}{2} \leq \alpha \leq 1, \\
(b) & \frac{\text{OPT}(I, \alpha T/k)}{\text{OPT}(I, T)} \geq \frac{16\alpha^2}{25k^2} \quad \text{for } 0 \leq \alpha \leq \frac{k}{2}.
\end{align*}

The proof of the above corollary uses Proposition 1 and Lemma 7. From Proposition 1, we know that the optimal policy for time horizon \( T \) pulls a single arm. Let \( j^*_T \in [k] \) denote this arm. Further, note that \( \text{OPT}(I, \alpha T) \geq \text{Rew}_{j^*_T}(\alpha T) \), by definition of \( \text{OPT}(I, \alpha T) \). Since, \( \text{OPT}(I, T) = \text{Rew}_{j^*_T}(T) \), part (a) of the corollary follows from part (a) of Lemma 7. Part (b) is also proved using a similar argument.

Now, observe that \( \text{ALG}(I, T) \), i.e., the cumulative reward of our algorithm after \( T \) time steps can be written as the sum of the rewards obtained from each arm. In particular, \( \text{ALG}(I, T) = \sum_{i \in [k]} \text{Rew}_i(N_i) \), where \( N_i \) is the number of times arm \( i \) has been pulled in \( T \) time steps. Recall that, our goal is to provide an upper bound on \( \frac{\text{OPT}(I, T)}{\text{ALG}(I, T)} \), or equivalently, \( \frac{\text{OPT}(I, T)}{\sum_{i \in [k]} \text{Rew}_i(N_i)} \). The following lemma provides an upper bound on \( \frac{\text{OPT}(I, T)}{\text{ALG}(I, T)} \) in terms of only \( N_i \) and the time horizon \( T \), when \( N_i \leq T/2 \). We handle the (easier) case of \( N_i > T/2 \) separately (see proof of Thm. 4 in Appendix D).

**Lemma 9.** If \( N_i \leq T/2 \) then for any arm \( i \in [k] \),

\[
\frac{\text{OPT}(I, T)}{\text{Rew}_i(N_i)} \leq \frac{200T^2}{N_i^2}.
\]

The proof of the above lemma requires intricate case analysis using different properties of our algorithm and the reward functions, and crucially uses Lemmas 7 and 9, and Corollary 8. Finally, with all the components in place, we provide a brief proof sketch of Theorem 4.

**Proof Sketch of Theorem 4.** Consider the following two cases: 1) \( N_1 > T/2 \), and 2) \( N_1 \leq T/2 \).

Case 1 implies that arm 1 is the first, and hence the only arm to cross \( T/2 \) pulls. From Lemma 6, we get, \( \text{Rew}_1(T/2) = \text{OPT}(I, T/2) \). Therefore, \( \text{ALG}(I, T) \geq \text{OPT}(I, T/2) \). Hence, we obtain, \( \text{OPT}(I, T)/\text{ALG}(I, T) \leq \text{OPT}(I, T)/\text{OPT}(I, T/2) \leq 5 \leq 200k \). Here, the second inequality follows from Corollary 8. Since the above inequality holds for any instance \( I \), we get \( \text{CR}_{\text{ALG}}(T) \leq 200k \).

\footnote{For ease of exposition, we have not optimized the constants.}
For Case 2, we use Lemma 9 and obtain
\[
\frac{\sum_{i \in [k]} \text{Rew}_i(N_i)}{\text{OPT}(I, T)} \geq \frac{\sum_{i \in [k]} N_i^2}{200T^2} \geq \frac{(\sum_{i \in [k]} N_i/\sqrt{k})^2}{200T^2} = \frac{T^2}{200kT^2} = \frac{1}{200k}.
\]

Here, the second inequality follows from Cauchy-Schwarz inequality (see Observation 3 in Appendix D). This implies \(\text{OPT}(I, T) \leq 200k\). Since this holds for an arbitrary instance \(I \in \mathcal{I}\), we have \(\text{CR}_{\text{ALG}}(T) \leq 200k\), i.e., \(O(k)\).

\[\square\]

### 4.3 Proof Sketch for Theorem 5
The theorem is proved using Lemma 10 stated below. See Appendix E for the detailed proofs of Lemma 10 and Theorem 5. In Lemma 10, we show that \(\text{ALG}\) pulls an arm finitely many times only if the arm stops improving.

**Lemma 10.** Let \(L_i = \max_{t \in \mathbb{N}} \{N_i(t)\}\) for all \(i \in [k]\). Then for any \(i \in [k]\), \(L_i\) is finite implies that \(\Delta_i(L_i) = 0\).

\(L_i\) as defined above captures the number of times the algorithm pulls arm \(i\) as \(T \to \infty\). It is easy to see that there is at least one arm \(i \in [k]\) such that \(L_i\) is not finite, and hence, the property holds for this arm vacuously. The proof of the lemma argues via contradiction that the property has to be satisfied for all the arms. Suppose there is an arm \(j \in [k]\) such that \(L_j\) is finite but \(\Delta_j(L_j) \neq 0\). Then we consider a time horizon larger than when arm \(j\) was pulled for the \(L_j\)-th time and use the definition of \(p_j(t)\) to show that such an arm is indeed pulled again, contradicting the assumption.

Using this lemma, the theorem is proved as follows. Suppose \(L_i\) is finite for an arm \(i \in [k]\). Then the diminishing returns property of \(f_i\) ensures that arm \(i\) has reached its true potential, i.e., \(f_i(L_i) = a_i\). Further, if \(L_i\) is not finite then the arm is pulled infinitely many times, and hence from the properties of \(f_i\) we have that for every \(\varepsilon \in (0, a_i]\), there exists \(T \in \mathbb{N}\) such that \(\text{ALG}\) ensures that \(a_i - f_i(N_i(T)) \leq \varepsilon\).

### 5 Experiments
In this paper, we focused on a self-contained theoretical study of the IMAB problem. Our algorithm provides \(O(k)\) competitive ratio, whereas HKR can only achieve \(\Theta(k^2)\) competitive ratio (see Appendix G). In fact, in Appendix G we show that the ratio in the reward obtained by our algorithm and that of HKR is \(\Omega(k^2)\) on some instances. Thus, our analysis of the worst-case performance guarantee is quite revealing in and of itself. Given this and the space constraint, we have provided some experimental analysis in Appendix E that further underlines our results in the main body of the paper. We compared the performance of the two algorithms on the instances in [Heidari et al., 2016b] (see Figure 10). We observe that for finite time horizons, our algorithm can match or even beat the performance of horizon-aware HKR on many instances, despite not knowing \(T\). We also compared the performance of our algorithm, HKR, and Round Robin on some randomly generated IMAB instances (see Figure 11). In Figure 12, we also show some additional experiments that provide a visual depiction of Theorem 5 and compare it with the HKR algorithm. We refer the reader to Appendix F for details regarding the experiments and the figures referred to above.

### 6 Conclusion and Future Work
We studied the IMAB problem in the horizon-unaware setting. A direction that is of immediate future interest is to study the Single-Peaked MAB model when the horizon is not known. This model, where the reward function is monotonically increasing before and decreasing after the peak has been studied when the time horizon is known [Lindner et al., 2021]. It would be interesting to see if our ideas can be extended to the Single-Peaked model to obtain anytime guarantees. Another question of immediate interest is to define alternate regret notions for IMAB that are natural and provide better regret bounds. As mentioned in Section 1.1, it would also be interesting to see if our results extend to the stochastic setting where the expected rewards of the arms change as a function of pulls.

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Vishakha Patil and Vineet Nair have contributed equally to this work and are the joint first authors. Their names are ordered randomly in the author list.

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