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## 577 A Further Related Work

578 **Introduction to the Problem.** Consider the following motivating examples: a worker joining a new  
579 team, a student starting an internship, or a junior professor joining a committee. These agents initially  
580 face uncertainty about the required effort and what constitutes good performance. They must decide  
581 when to exert more effort and when to reduce it. Peer assessments introduce additional uncertainty  
582 and noise. Furthermore, the environment is dynamic, with the value of certain outcomes changing  
583 over time. Each agent encounters an implicit and evolving system of incentives that they must adapt to  
584 through repeated interactions. This pattern is prevalent in many real-life contractual relationships and  
585 is increasingly relevant to AI agents handling complex, open-ended, and computationally intensive  
586 tasks. For details to the aforementioned examples, the interested reader can see [39] and references  
587 therein. In settings like credit scoring, the evaluation system creates incentives for the agent while  
588 remaining opaque to prevent gaming, forcing the agent to act under uncertainty [36].

589 **Simplifying Contracts.** Given this complexity, one line of work focuses on identifying settings  
590 where simple contracts suffice. Notably, [46] assume constant absolute risk aversion (CARA) utilities  
591 and Brownian motion of the output, examining a single payment at the end of the contractual  
592 relationship based on all outcomes. Another approach involves deliberately vague contracts, leaving  
593 agents uncertain about performance-based compensation (e.g., [3, 10, 30]). [42] explore how to  
594 learn an agent’s private type through online principal-agent interaction and contract menus. [9] study  
595 principal-agent problems over MDPs, where a budgeted principal offers additional rewards, and the  
596 agent selects the MDP policy selfishly, without learning. Thus, a naturally arising question is:

597 *How should an agent choose their actions in a contractual relationship*  
598 *involving uncertainty and recurrent interactions?*

599 Our algorithmic perspective introduces a novel, learning-based approach to address the complexity  
600 of repeated contracts, leveraging no-regret and general mean-based agents. Below, we discuss why  
601 learning methods are natural choices for agents’ responses in the context of existing literature.

602 **Optimizing Against No-Regret Learners.** From an econometric perspective, agents often respond  
603 to repeated strategic interactions in auctions in ways consistent with no-regret learning [57, 58].  
604 Inspired by these findings, [14] explore algorithmic mechanism design, demonstrating that no-regret  
605 learning methods are natural responses for agents. No-regret learning has been extensively studied in  
606 repeated games (e.g., [11, 15, 34, 44, 55, 62, 2, 51, 65, 63, 38, 37]), auctions and economic interactions  
607 (e.g., [24, 18, 50]), and Stackelberg security games (e.g., [8]). For a comprehensive overview, see [61].  
608 By assuming agents employ no-regret learning instead of complex strategic reasoning, we propose a  
609 new approach to repeated contracting.

610 **Optimizing Against Mean-Based Learners.** Finding an optimal dynamic strategy against a mean-  
611 based learner in general games remains an open problem. [26] show an equivalence between this  
612 problem and an  $n$ -dimensional control problem, where  $n$  is the number of actions available to the  
613 agent. Non-trivial optimization against a mean-based learner has been achieved only in repeated  
614 auction settings, where [14] demonstrate that the designer can extract full welfare as revenue. [25, 17]  
615 extend this to prior-free auction settings and multiple agents. However, even for a single agent, the  
616 optimal auction strategy, involving alternating between second-price auctions and charging large  
617 payments, is impractical and not intended to guide practice [17]. [18] study mechanisms for no-regret  
618 agents, incorporating principal learning to avoid common prior assumptions in economic design  
619 problems.

## 620 B Proof of Theorem 3.1 (Optimal Dynamic Linear Contract)

621 **Proof overview.** We will present a series of “rewriting” rules, which will allow us to replace a given  
622 dynamic contract  $\pi$  with a simpler, more constrained, dynamic contract  $\pi'$  with utility at least as large  
623 as  $\pi$ . At the conclusion of our sequence of rewriting steps, we will see that our contract takes the  
624 form of a free-fall contract, thus implying that there is an optimal free-fall contract.

625 We begin not with a rewriting rule, but instead a general observation about the structure of dynamic  
626 linear contracts — namely, that it is impossible for an agent to “skip over” an action. That is, if an  
627 agent is playing action  $i$  at some point, and action  $j$  at some later point, there must exist segments of  
628 non-zero duration where the agent plays each of the intermediate actions between  $i$  and  $j$ . Formally,  
629 we can write this as follows.

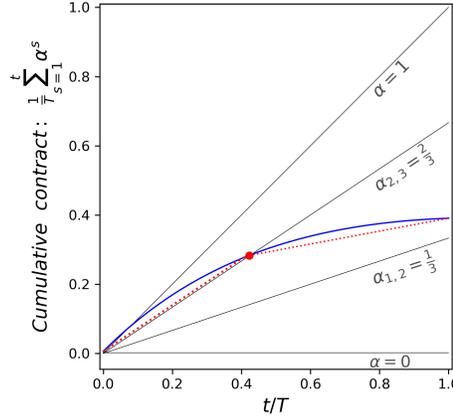


Figure 3: An illustration of Lemma B.2. The plot shows the cumulative contract over time for the contract game shown in Figure 1, repeated to  $T$  steps, where both axes are normalized by  $T$ . The lemma shows how arbitrary dynamic strategies, as the one shown in the blue curve, can be re-written as piecewise stationary strategies, depicted in the dotted red curve, inducing similar behavior by the agent and the same utilities.

630 **Lemma B.1.** *If  $\pi = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}$  is a dynamic linear contract, then for any  $k$ ,  $|a^k - a^{k+1}| \leq 1$*   
 631 *(i.e., in any two consecutive segments, the learner’s action can change by at most one).*

632 *Proof.* Note that  $a^k$  and  $a^{k+1}$  must both be best responses to the average historical contract  $\bar{\alpha}^k$ , i.e.,  
 633  $a^k, a^{k+1} \in \text{BR}(\bar{\alpha}^k)$ . Since  $\text{BR}(\alpha)$  is always of the form  $\{i\}$  or  $\{i, i+1\}$ , the conclusion follows.  $\square$

634 Note that the proof of Lemma B.1 relies on the “linear topology” of the best-response regions in  
 635 Figure 2 (i.e., any non-zero boundary between best-response regions connects two consecutive actions  
 636 of the agent). This property is *not* true for general contracts or general games; however, we will later  
 637 see that Lemma B.1 also holds for the class of  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled contracts introduced in Appendix D.

638 We now proceed to introduce our rewriting rules. The first rewriting rule we present is very general  
 639 (and in fact applies to any game): we will show that without loss of generality, no two consecutive  
 640 segments of a dynamic contract induce the same action for the learner. Intuitively, for any time  
 641 interval in which a mean-based agent plays a single action, we can replace the contracts in this  
 642 interval with their average and obtain overall a revenue-equivalent dynamic contract. Formally, we  
 643 can phrase this as follows.

644 **Lemma B.2.** *Let  $\pi$  be any linear dynamic contract. Then there exists a linear dynamic contract*  
 645  *$\pi'$  such that  $\text{Util}(\pi') \geq \text{Util}(\pi)$  and no two consecutive segments of  $\pi'$  share the same agent action*  
 646 *( $a^k \neq a^{k+1}$ ).*

647 *Proof.* Let  $\pi = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^K$  be any linear dynamic contract. Assume that for some  $k$ ,  $a^k =$   
 648  $a^{k+1} = a$ . Then the linear dynamic contract  $\pi'$  formed by replacing the two segments  $(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a)$   
 649 and  $(\alpha^{k+1}, \tau^{k+1}, a)$  with the single segment  $((\alpha^k \tau^k + \alpha^{k+1} \tau^{k+1}) / (\tau^k + \tau^{k+1}), \tau^k + \tau^{k+1}, a)$  has  
 650 the property that  $\text{Util}(\pi') \geq \text{Util}(\pi)$ . To see this, observe that the same action  $a$  is played throughout  
 651 the entire interval, and the average payout to the agent is the same. Therefore, in fact we have  
 652  $\text{Util}(\pi') = \text{Util}(\pi)$ . It only remains to confirm that this is still a valid dynamic contract (i.e., that each  
 653 prescribed action is still a best response in the corresponding segment).

654 To see this, observe first that the cumulative contract at the start (respectively, end) of the merged  
 655 segment in  $\pi'$  is the same as the start of segment  $k$  (respectively, end of segment  $k+1$ ) in  $\pi$ . Therefore,  
 656 all segments before and after the merged segment are still correct. To confirm the merged segment,  
 657 we need only confirm that  $a$  is a best response on the merged segment in  $\pi'$  using the fact that it was  
 658 a best response in both segments  $k$  and  $k+1$  in  $\pi$ .

659 For this, let  $\alpha_0$  denote the cumulative contract after the first  $k-1$  segments,  $\alpha_1$  denote the cumulative  
 660 contract after the first  $k+1$  segments,  $\alpha'(t)$  denote the cumulative contract of  $\pi'$  during a time  $t$  in

661 the merged segment, and  $\alpha(t)$  denote the cumulative contract of  $\pi$  during a time  $t$  in segments  $k$  or  
 662  $k + 1$ . Observe first that for every  $x$  between  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$ , there is some  $t$  such that  $\alpha(t) = x$ . Because  
 663  $a$  is a best response on the entire segments  $k$  and  $k + 1$ , this means that  $a$  is a best response to  $x$  for  
 664 all  $x$  between  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$ . Moreover, observe that  $\alpha'(t)$  lies between  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$  for all  $t$ . Therefore,  $a$   
 665 is indeed a best response to  $\alpha'(t)$  for all  $t$  in the merged segment, and the dynamic contract is valid.

666 By repeatedly applying this merging of segments, we can obtain a linear dynamic contract  $\pi'$   
 667 satisfying the constraints of the lemma.  $\square$

668 Figure 3 illustrates the above lemma graphically. The figure displays the cumulative contract over  
 669 time for the contract game depicted in Figure 1. The blue curve represents the trajectory of an  
 670 arbitrary dynamic contract strategy under which the agent's best response is to take action 3 until  
 671 time  $t/T \approx 0.425$ , and then take action 2 in the remaining time. The crossing point between the best  
 672 response regions is marked with a red dot. Lemma B.2 demonstrates that we can replace the blue  
 673 trajectory with the simpler trajectory depicted in red. In this red trajectory, every region between two  
 674 consecutive  $\alpha$  values is crossed by a single linear segment (i.e., a piecewise-stationary trajectory),  
 675 resulting in the same behavior by the agent and the same revenue.

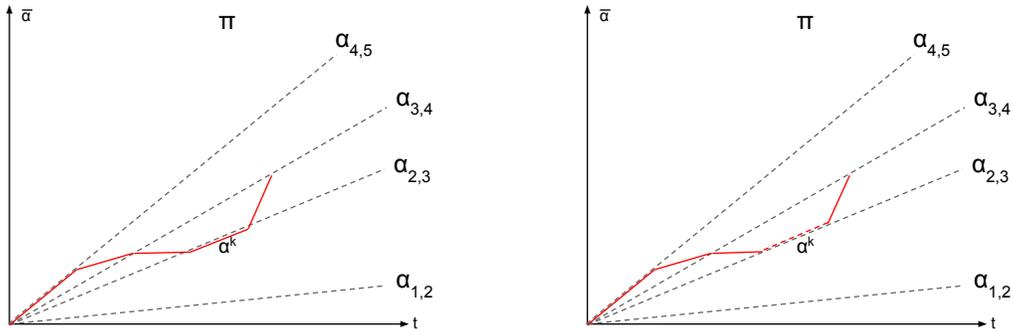
676 Our second rewriting rule is specific to linear contracts. It shows that for every linear contract in  
 677 which the agent is indifferent between two actions, it is beneficial for the principal to shift the contract  
 678 infinitesimally so that the agent prefers the action with the higher expected reward.

679 **Lemma B.3.** *Let  $\pi = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^K$  be a dynamic linear contract where during segment  $k$  the  
 680 agent is indifferent between actions  $i$  and  $i + 1$  (i.e.,  $\text{BR}(\bar{\alpha}^{k-1}) \cap \text{BR}(\bar{\alpha}^k) \supseteq \{i, i + 1\}$ ), but  $a^k = i$ .  
 681 If we form  $\pi'$  by replacing  $a^k$  with  $i + 1$ , then  $\text{Util}(\pi') \geq \text{Util}(\pi)$  (the principal always prefers that  
 682 the agent plays the action with higher expected reward).*

683 *Proof.* Since actions in the linear contract setting are sorted by increasing value of expected reward,  
 684 we have that  $\text{Util}(\pi') - \text{Util}(\pi) = \frac{\tau^k}{T-K} (u_P(p^k, i + 1) - u_P(p^k, i)) = \frac{\tau^k}{T-K} (R_{i+1} - R_i)(1 - \alpha^k) \geq$   
 685  $0$ .  $\square$

686 Note that the principal can implement the change in the agent's action in Lemma B.3 by simply  
 687 increasing their payment to the agent by an arbitrarily small amount – this incentivizes the agent to  
 688 break ties in favor of the action with larger expected reward (which is the action labeled with a larger  
 689 number). The fact that the principal can implement this change also follows as a direct consequence  
 690 of the discrete-to-continuous reduction of Theorem 2.4.

691 By applying the above two rewriting rules (Lemmas B.2 and B.3) along with our observation in  
 692 Lemma B.1, we can establish our third rewriting rule: it is always possible to rewrite a dynamic  
 693 contract so that the sequence of actions is a consecutively decreasing sequence.



(a) Base policy  $\pi$ . In this example, the  $k$ th segment is the first segment where the action increases immediately after the segment ( $a_k = 2$ ,  $a_{k+1} = a_k + 1 = 3$ ).

(b) Since  $a_{k-1} = a_{k+1}$ , the  $k$ th lies along the best response boundary  $\alpha_{2,3}$ , and its existence violates Lemma B.3 (we can rewrite it as a segment with  $a_k = 3$ , and then further collapse these segments via Lemma B.2).

Figure 4: Illustrations for the proof of Lemma B.4.

694 **Lemma B.4.** Let  $\pi$  be any dynamic linear contract. Then there exists a dynamic linear contract  
 695  $\pi' = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^K$  with  $\text{Util}(\pi') \geq \text{Util}(\pi)$  and where  $a^1, a^2, \dots, a^K$  is a decreasing sequence  
 696 of consecutive actions (i.e.,  $a^k = a^1 - (k - 1)$ ).

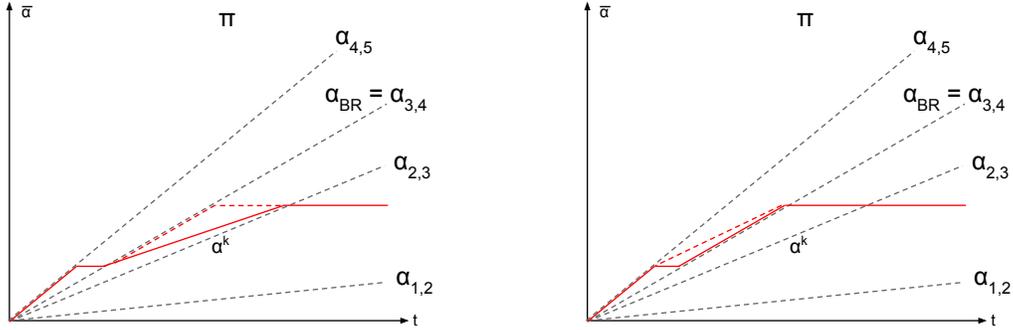
697 *Proof.* Apply the two rewriting rules in Lemmas B.2 and B.3 to  $\pi$  until it satisfies the post-conditions  
 698 of both lemmas (so, no two consecutive segments incentivize the same action, and any segment on  
 699 a best-response boundary incentivizes the higher-reward action). Since Lemma B.1 implies that  
 700 consecutive segments cannot skip over an action, this means that every two consecutive actions under  
 701  $\pi$  are consecutive: either the agent switches to the next higher action or the next lower action each  
 702 time step. We therefore just must show that any dynamic contract where the agent increases their  
 703 action can be rewritten as a decreasing contract with at least same payoff.

704 Consider the first segment in  $\pi$  where the agent switches to a larger action, that is, the smallest  $k$  such  
 705 that  $a^{k+1} = a^k + 1$ . Let  $a^k = j$  (so  $a^{k+1} = j + 1$ ). Note that the agent must be indifferent between  
 706 actions  $j$  and  $j + 1$  at the end of the  $j$ th segment (i.e.,  $\{j, j + 1\} \subseteq \text{BR}(\bar{\alpha}^k)$ ).

707 There are two cases: either segments  $k$  and  $k + 1$  are the first two segments of the dynamic contract  
 708  $\pi$  (i.e.,  $k = 1$ ), or there exists a  $(k - 1)$ st segment. In the first case, the agent is indifferent between  
 709 actions  $j$  and  $j + 1$  for the entire first segment (from time 0 to  $\tau^1$ ), but plays action  $j$ . This contradicts  
 710 the fact that  $\pi$  cannot be reduced further by Lemma B.3.

711 In the second case, the  $(k - 1)$ st segment must incentivize action  $j + 1$  for the learner (since  
 712 the sequence of actions is decreasing up until segment  $k$ ). But this means that the agent must be  
 713 indifferent between actions  $j$  and  $j + 1$  also after the  $(k - 1)$ st segment, and thus for the entirety of  
 714 the  $k$ th segment ( $\{j, j + 1\} \subseteq \text{BR}(\bar{\alpha}^{k-1})$ ). Since the agent plays  $j$  during the  $k$ th segment, this also  
 715 contradicts the fact that  $\pi$  cannot be reduced further by Lemma B.3 (see Figure 4 for an example of  
 716 this reduction).  $\square$

717 We are now almost done – Lemma B.4 shows we can rewrite any dynamic contract so that the agent  
 718 descends through their action space. We now need only show that the principal should abruptly  
 719 switch to offering the zero contract after the first segment (instead of slowing the rate of descent  
 720 through these regions by offering a positive contract). We do this in our final rewriting lemma.



(a) Base policy  $\pi$ . The  $k$ th segment is the first non-free-fall segment; we decompose it into a segment  $\alpha = \alpha_{BR} = \alpha_{3,4}$  and a free-fall segment with  $\alpha = 0$ .

(b) The segment with  $\alpha = \alpha_{BR}$  can be rewritten via Lemma B.3 to lie in region 4, where it can then be further combined with earlier segments via Lemma B.2. This moves the first non-free-fall action earlier in  $\pi$ .

Figure 5: Illustrations for the proof of Lemma B.5.

721 **Lemma B.5.** Let  $\pi$  be a dynamic linear contract where the agent plays a decreasing sequence of  
 722 actions. Then there exists a free-fall linear contract  $\pi'$  with  $\text{Util}(\pi') \geq \text{Util}(\pi)$ .

723 *Proof.* Let  $\pi = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^K$  (with  $a^k$  decreasing), and consider the last non-free-fall segment  
 724  $(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)$ , i.e.,  $k$  is the maximal  $k$  for which  $\alpha^k \neq 0$ . Assume that  $k > 1$  (if not, then  $\pi$  is already  
 725 a free-fall contract).

726 Let  $\alpha_{BR} = \alpha_{a^k, a^k+1}$  be the indifference contract for the best-response boundary separating the  
727 current action from the previously incentivized action. Consider replacing this segment with the  
728 two consecutive segments  $(\alpha_{BR}, (\alpha^k/\alpha_{BR})\tau^k, a^k)$ ,  $(0, (1 - \alpha^k/\alpha_{BR})\tau^k, a^k)$ . In doing so we  
729 essentially are doing the inverse of the first rewriting rule in Lemma B.2 – replacing a single segment  
730 with two segments that average to the original segment – and because of this, the resulting dynamic  
731 contract is valid and has the same utility as our original contract (the construction also guarantees  
732 both segments stay within this region). But now we have a segment  $(\alpha_{BR}, (\alpha^k/\alpha_{BR})\tau^k, a^k)$  that  
733 lies along the best-response boundary  $\alpha_{BR}$ , so by Lemma B.3 we can replace it with the segment  
734  $(\alpha_{BR}, (\alpha^k/\alpha_{BR})\tau^k, a^k + 1)$  and strictly increase the utility of our dynamic contract (see Figure 5).

735 We can then merge this segment with the previous segment in (which also incentivizes action  $a^k + 1$ )  
736 to obtain a new dynamic contract with strictly greater utility than  $\pi$  and whose first non-free-fall  
737 action occurs strictly earlier. Repeating this process, we obtain a free-fall contract  $\pi'$  with at least the  
738 same utility as  $\pi$ .  $\square$

739 We can now prove the main theorem of this section.

740 *Proof of Theorem 3.1.* From Lemmas B.4 and B.5 the first part of this theorem (that there exists a  
741 free-fall linear contract  $\pi'$  with  $\text{Util}(\pi') \geq \text{Util}(\pi)$ ) immediately follows.

742 To show that we can efficiently compute this free-fall contract, note that the optimal free-fall linear  
743 contract might as well start with a segment of the form  $(\alpha_{i-1, i}, \tau, i)$  for some indifference contract  
744  $\alpha_{i-1, i}$  (if it does not start by offering some indifference contract, we can apply the rewriting rule of  
745 Lemma B.2 to merge this segment with the following segment, which would incentivize the same  
746 action).

747 It is also true that the optimal free-fall linear contract might as well *end* at an indifference contract:  
748 that is,  $\bar{\alpha}^K = \alpha_{j-1, j}$  for some  $j$ . To see this, consider a free-fall linear contract  $\pi$  that does not end  
749 on an indifference contract. It ends with a segment of the form  $(0, \tau^K, a)$  for some agent action  $a$ .  
750 Consider the contract  $\pi(\tau)$  formed by replacing the duration of the last segment with  $\tau$ ; this operation  
751 is valid for all  $\tau$  in some interval  $[0, \tau_{\max}]$ . Note that  $\text{Util}(\pi(\tau))$  is a convex function of  $\tau$  (it is of  
752 the form  $(\text{Util}(\pi(0))\mathcal{T}^{K-1} + u_P(0, a)\tau)/(\mathcal{T}^{K-1} + \tau)$ ) so it is maximized when  $\tau$  equals one of the  
753 endpoints of this interval. But at both endpoints,  $\bar{\alpha}^K$  lies on a best-response boundary (for  $\tau = 0$ ,  
754  $\alpha_{a, a+1}$ , for  $\tau = \tau_{\max}$ ,  $\alpha_{a-1, a}$ ).

755 Since our optimal contract is completely characterized by its start and end points, it can be computed  
756 in polynomial time in  $n$  by testing all the pairs of indifference points  $\{\alpha_{i-1, i}, \alpha_{j-1, j}\}$  with  $j \leq i$  as  
757 candidates for the start and end points of the optimal initial contract (this pair of indifference points  
758 also uniquely specifies the fraction of time that must be spent in free-fall). Note that in the case where  
759 in the optimal free-fall contract  $i = j$ , the optimal contract is the best static contract.  $\square$

760 In Appendix D (see Theorem D.1), we generalize Theorem 3.1, showing that free-fall contracts are  
761 optimal for a much broader family of dynamic contracts with “single-dimensional scaling,” where the  
762 principal is using an arbitrary non-linear contract and dynamically rescales it during the interaction  
763 with the agent.

764 Our proof of Theorem D.1 is parallel to the proof of Theorem 3.1 in the sense that we demonstrate  
765 how to gradually transform a general single-dimensional-scaling contract into a free-fall contract,  
766 while increasing utility for the principal. The main difficulty in applying the proof of Theorem  
767 3.1 directly is that the rewriting rule in Lemma B.3 no longer holds – for general contracts with  
768 single-dimensional scaling, it is not the case that segments along a best-response boundary should  
769 always incentivize the higher action for the agent. In the proof of Theorem D.1, we forego the use  
770 of this rewriting rule and instead using the weaker condition that there cannot be two consecutive  
771 segments along a best-response boundary.

772 **C Proof of Theorem 3.2 (Win-Win)**

773 *Proof.* Consider the following contract game.<sup>10</sup> There are  $n > 2$  actions, with expected reward  
 774  $R_i = v^i$  for some  $v > 0$ . Concretely, we let  $v = 2$ . The cost of the action are specified recursively  
 775 by  $c_1 = 0$  and  $c_i = c_{i-1} + R_{i-1} - \frac{1}{2}$  for  $i > 1$ , yielding  $c_{i>1} = \sum_{k=2}^i (2^{k-1} - \frac{1}{2})$ . The resulting  
 776 indifference contracts are thus  $\alpha_i = 1 - 2^{-i}$  for  $1 < i \leq n$ . In this game, the principal has the same  
 777 utility (of one unit) for all the indifference contracts. The agent's utility under the contract  $\alpha_i$ , as the  
 778 reader can verify, is given by  $2^i - \frac{3}{2} - \sum_{k=1}^i (2^{k-1} - \frac{1}{2}) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + i)$ . Notably, this utility is higher  
 779 for the higher actions. The welfare of action  $i$  is thus  $w_i = \frac{1}{2}(3 + i)$ . Next, we slightly alter this game  
 780 by increasing the payoff of action 2 by a small amount  $\epsilon > 0$  such that the optimal static contract is  
 781 now  $\alpha_2$ , which yields a utility of  $1 + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$  for the principal, and the agent is still indifferent under this  
 782 contract between action 2 and the null action. In the following analysis, we are mainly interested in  
 783 large (but finite)  $n$ . Notice that the optimal static contract is extremely inefficient for large  $n$ , getting  
 784 an arbitrarily low (independent of  $n$ ) fraction of the optimal welfare.

785 Now consider an optimal dynamic strategy; by Theorem 3.1, there is an optimal strategy of a free-fall  
 786 form. We will construct a free-fall contract  $\mathbf{p}$  that starts at  $\alpha_n$ , so action  $n$  is played initially, where  
 787 the duration  $\lambda T$  of that stage is chosen such that the final action at time  $T$  is action  $\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log(n) \rceil$ .  
 788 Specifically, we require  $\lambda \alpha_n + (1 - \lambda) \cdot 0 = \alpha_{\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log(n) \rceil}$ , and so  $\lambda = \frac{2^n}{2^n - 1} (1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}})$ . We show that  
 789 this free-fall strategy bounds the utilities of both players from below.

790 **Claim C.1.** *In an optimal free-fall contract, the utilities for both players are at least those obtained*  
 791 *in the contract described above.*

792 For ease of presentation, the proof for this claim is deferred to the following subsection. It consists of  
 793 three parts: first, we show that an optimal free-fall contract must start at  $\alpha_n$ . This is done directly  
 794 by way of contradiction. Then, the proof shows that the last action that is played by the agent in an  
 795 optimal free-fall contract must be higher than  $\frac{1}{2} \log n$ . The intuition for this part of the proof is that  
 796 as the principal continues to free fall through lower and lower actions, the marginal gain from each  
 797 action (which is the expected reward of that action because we are free falling) continues to diminish.  
 798 At some point, the marginal gain is outweighed by the current average principal utility, which we  
 799 show should occur at action  $\Theta(\log n)$  (since we know the principal can get an average utility of  
 800  $\Theta(n)$  and the expected reward of action  $i$  is  $2^i$ ). Lastly, we compare the utilities of both players in a  
 801 free-fall strategy that begins at action  $n$  and ends at action  $\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log n \rceil$  to those of the optimal free-fall  
 802 strategy and observe that the utilities in the former case bound the respective utilities in the latter case  
 803 from below. The principal's utility is clearly bounded from below by her utility in our strategy due to  
 804 optimality. For the agent, the total utility is determined by the stopping point. Since the agent's utility  
 805 at  $\alpha_i$  is increasing with  $i$  in our game, we conclude that the agent's utility in an optimal contract is at  
 806 least  $\frac{1}{2} \log n$ .

807 Now let us calculate the average utilities for the players under our dynamic strategy, averaged over  
 808 the whole sequence of play. The agent's average utility at the last step is the same as the utility that  
 809 would have been obtained under the average contract at that time, which is  $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \lceil \frac{1}{2} \log(n) \rceil)$ . To  
 810 calculate the utility for the principal, we define  $t_i$  to be the time when the agent switches from action  
 811  $i$  to action  $i - 1$ . We know that the transition from action  $n$  to  $n - 1$  happens at time  $t_n = \lambda T$ , and  
 812 until that time the principal gains a utility of one per time unit. After that time, the average contract  
 813 at time  $t$  is the weighted average until  $t$  of the contract  $\alpha_n$  with weight  $\lambda T$  and zero contract with  
 814 weight  $t - \lambda T$ . Therefore, the transition times from each action  $i$  are given by  $t_i = \lambda T \frac{\alpha_n}{\alpha_i}$ . After  
 815 time  $\lambda T$ , the principal pays zero and extracts the full welfare from the agents actions, and so the  
 816 overall utility for the principal is  $\lambda T + \sum_{i=\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log(n) \rceil}^n (t_{i-1} - t_i) R_{i-1}$ .

817 **Claim C.2.** *The utility for the principal in the free-fall contract  $(\alpha_n, \lambda)$  is  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ .*

<sup>10</sup>In this example we shift the rewards with an additive constant such that the reward for the principal when the agent takes the null action equals some constant instead of zero. This simplifies the following analysis and is without loss of generality.

*Proof.* The utility from region  $i$  is  $\lambda T + \sum_{i=\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log(n) \rceil}^n (t_{i-1} - t_i) R_{i-1}$ . The time intervals are

$$(t_{i-1} - t_i) = \lambda T \alpha_n \left( \frac{1}{\alpha_{i-1}} - \frac{1}{\alpha_i} \right) = \frac{\lambda T \alpha_n 2^i}{(2^i - 2)(2^i - 1)}.$$

The utility for the principal from region  $i > \frac{1}{2} \log(n)$  and large  $n$  is thus:

$$\frac{\lambda T \alpha_n 2^{2i}}{2(2^i - 2)(2^i - 1)} = \Theta(1).$$

818 Summing over  $n - \frac{1}{2} \log(n)$  such terms yields a utility of  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ . □

819 The above arguments hold similarly also for perturbed versions of this game. For example, shifting  
820 the rewards by arbitrary and independent values in the range  $[-1, 1]$ , as well as re-scaling the reward  
821 parameter  $v$ , yielding a positive measure in the parameter space. □

### 822 C.1 Proof of Claim C.1

823 *Proof.* We execute this proof in two parts. In the first part of the proof, we will show that any optimal  
824 dynamic (free fall) contract must begin at  $\alpha_n$ . In the second part of the proof, we show that an optimal  
825 dynamic (free fall) contract that begins at  $\alpha_n$  must end at  $\alpha^{\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log n \rceil}$  or higher, if  $n$  is sufficiently  
826 large. This is enough to imply the claim because if the optimal free fall contract stops at a higher  
827 action than  $\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log n \rceil$ , then the principal has higher utility due to optimality and the agent has higher  
828 utility since their utility is increasing in actions.

829 We now prove that any optimal dynamic contract must begin at  $\alpha_n$ . For the sake of contradiction,  
830 suppose that it instead begins at  $\alpha_i$  for some action  $i \in [1, n - 1]$ . In particular, it begins with the  
831 segment  $(p^1 = \alpha_i R, \tau^1, a^1 = i)$  for some  $i \in [1, n - 1]$ . To achieve a contradiction, we will show  
832 that this dynamic contract is not optimal by producing a better dynamic contract.

833 In particular, let us consider replacing this first segment with the following two segments:  
834  $(\alpha_{i+1} R, x \triangleq \frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_{i+1}} \tau^1, i + 1), (0, y \triangleq \left[ 1 - \frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_{i+1}} \right] \tau^1, i)$  (and re-indexing all subsequent segments  
835 appropriately). We claim that this will achieve strictly greater principal utility, while leaving the total  
836 time unaffected. We first show how we solved for the appropriate time-split  $(x, y)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} x + y &= \tau^1 && ((x, y) \text{ is a time split}) \\ x \alpha_{i+1} &= \tau^1 \alpha_i && (\text{At time } \tau^1, \text{ the cumulative linear contract is still } \alpha_i) \\ x &= \frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_{i+1}} \tau^1 \\ y &= \left[ 1 - \frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_{i+1}} \right] \tau^1 \end{aligned}$$

837 By construction, our choice of  $x$  and  $y$  keeps the total time invariant, so it remains to prove that this  
838 results in strictly more principal utility. Since all subsequent segments are the same and generate  
839 the same amount of principal utility, we only need to compare the principal utility of these three  
840 segments.

841 The (cumulative) principal utility of the original segment  $(\alpha_i R, \tau^1, i)$  is just  $\tau^1$  since the contract  
842 problem is designed so that all indifference contracts  $\alpha_i$  result in one unit of utility to the principal.  
843 The exception is action one, which was adjusted to have  $1 + O(\varepsilon)$  principal utility and therefore has  
844 cumulative principal utility  $\tau^1(1 + O(\varepsilon))$ .

845 Next, we consider the cumulative principal utility of our two new segments  $(\alpha_{i+1} R, x, i + 1)$  and  
846  $(0, y, i)$ . The first segment has (cumulative) principal utility equal to just  $x$  for the same reason as  
847 above (but now  $i + 1$  cannot be the first action). The second segment has (cumulative) principal  
848 utility equal to  $y(R_{i+1})$  where  $R_{i+1}$  is the expected reward from action  $i + 1$ , due to the fact that this  
849 segment offers the zero contract. Together, these two segments generate (cumulative) principal utility  
850 equal to the following.

$$\begin{aligned} x + y(R_{i+1}) &= (x + y) + y(R_{i+1} - 1) \\ &= \tau^1 + y(2^{i+1} - 1) \end{aligned}$$

851 However, we can see from our choice of  $y$  that  $y > 0$  and  $(2^{i+1} - 1) > 0$  since  $i \geq 1$ . Hence this  
852 strictly beats the cumulative principal utility of the original segment as long as  $\varepsilon$  is sufficiently small.  
853 This completes our contradiction, since the original dynamic contract was assumed to be optimal but  
854 we found a strictly better one. Hence the optimal dynamic contract must free fall from  $\alpha_n$  (which  
855 there is no higher action to start from instead), completing the first part of the proof.

856 We now use this fact to prove that the optimal dynamic (free fall) contract must end at  $\alpha_{\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log n \rceil}$  or  
857 higher, if  $n$  is sufficiently larger. The proof plan is to consider the effect of free falling through an  
858 additional action, and determining when that might improve the free fall contract. As a first step, we  
859 observe that the objective function of the continuous setting,  $\text{Util}(\pi)$ , is invariant when we equally  
860 scale all times  $\tau^k$ . As a result, we can assume without loss of generality that the first segment of  
861 free-fall ( $p^1 = \alpha_n R, \tau^1, a^1 = n$ ) uses  $\tau^1 = 1$ . We can also assume without loss of generality that  
862 the other segments  $\{(p^k = 0, \tau^k, a^k = n - k + 1)\}_{k=2}^K$  begin and end at region boundaries, which is  
863 enough to work out their durations  $\tau^k$  based on when the average linear contract reaches a particular  
864 indifference point.

$$\begin{aligned} \tau^k &= \frac{\alpha_n}{\alpha_{n-k+1}} - \frac{\alpha_n}{\alpha_{n-k+2}} = \frac{1 - 2^{-n}}{1 - 2^{-n+k-1}} - \frac{1 - 2^{-n}}{1 - 2^{-n+k-2}} \\ &= [1 - 2^{-n}] \frac{2^{-n+k-1} - 2^{-n+k-2}}{(1 - 2^{-n+k-1})(1 - 2^{-n+k-2})} \\ &= [1 - 2^{-n}] \frac{2^{-n+k-2}}{(1 - 2^{-n+k-1})(1 - 2^{-n+k-2})} \end{aligned}$$

865 Hence segment  $k \in [2, K]$  contributes the following (cumulative) principal utility.

$$\begin{aligned} \tau^k u_P(p^k, a^k) &= \tau^k 2^{n-k+1} = 2^{n-k+1} \cdot [1 - 2^{-n}] \frac{2^{-n+k-2}}{(1 - 2^{-n+k-1})(1 - 2^{-n+k-2})} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} [1 - 2^{-n}] \frac{1}{(1 - 2^{-n+k-1})(1 - 2^{-n+k-2})} \end{aligned}$$

866 Let  $\pi_K$  be the trajectory that uses  $K$  segments. We can compute its objective value to be the following.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Util}(\pi_K) &= \frac{1 + \frac{1}{2} [1 - 2^{-n}] \sum_{k=2}^K \frac{1}{(1 - 2^{-n+k-1})(1 - 2^{-n+k-2})}}{(1 - 2^{-n}) / (1 - 2^{-n+K-1})} \\ &= (1 - 2^{-n+K-1}) \left[ 1 / (1 - 2^{-n}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=2}^K \frac{1}{(1 - 2^{-n+k-1})(1 - 2^{-n+k-2})} \right] \end{aligned}$$

867 We can take the difference of two such expressions to decide whether  $\pi_{K+1}$  is better than  $\pi_K$ . For  
868  $n - \lceil \frac{1}{2} \log n \rceil \leq K \leq n - 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Util}(\pi_{K+1}) - \text{Util}(\pi_K) &= (1 - 2^{-n+K}) \left[ 1/(1 - 2^{-n}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=2}^{K+1} \frac{1}{(1 - 2^{-n+k-1})(1 - 2^{-n+k-2})} \right] \\
&\quad - (1 - 2^{-n+K-1}) \left[ 1/(1 - 2^{-n}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=2}^K \frac{1}{(1 - 2^{-n+k-1})(1 - 2^{-n+k-2})} \right] \\
&= (1 - 2^{-n+K}) \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{(1 - 2^{-n+K})(1 - 2^{-n+K-1})} \\
&\quad - 2^{-n+K-1} \left[ 1/(1 - 2^{-n}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=2}^K \frac{1}{(1 - 2^{-n+k-1})(1 - 2^{-n+k-2})} \right] \\
&\leq \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{(1 - 2^{-n+(n-1)})(1 - 2^{-n+(n-1)-1})} \\
&\quad - 2^{-n+(n-\frac{1}{2} \log n)-1} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=2}^{n-\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log n \rceil} 1 \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{(1/2)(3/4)} - \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} (n - \lceil \frac{1}{2} \log n \rceil - 1) \right]
\end{aligned}$$

869 Since the positive term has magnitude  $O(1)$  and the negative term has magnitude  $O(\sqrt{n})$ , this bound  
870 will always be negative when  $n$  is sufficiently large. Hence it is strictly not worth it to free fall below  
871  $\alpha^{\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log n \rceil}$ , as desired. This completes the proof.  $\square$

## 872 D General Contracts with Single-Dimensional Scaling

873 Here we consider general contracts, and in Theorem D.1 generalize the result of Theorem 3.1 to  
874 families of one-dimensional (yet non-linear) dynamic contracts for which free-fall contracts are  
875 optimal.

876 Given any contract  $\mathbf{p}$ , the set of  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled contracts are the one-dimensional family of contracts of  
877 the form  $\alpha \mathbf{p}$  for some  $\alpha \geq 0$ . We will consider a principal that is restricted to only play  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled  
878 contracts. In the continuous-time formulation of Section 2.2, this means that each contract  $p^k$  must  
879 be  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled. We will let  $p^k = \alpha^k \mathbf{p}$ , and we will often abuse notation and write  $\alpha^k$  as shorthand for  
880 this contract (e.g., we will specify segments of the trajectory  $\pi$  in the form  $(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)$ ). Recall that  
881 a free-fall contract denotes such a dynamic contract for the principal where  $\alpha^k = 0$  for all  $k > 1$ .

882 As with linear contracts, note that as  $\alpha$  increases from 0, the contract  $\alpha \mathbf{p}$  incentivizes the agent to play  
883 an action in  $\text{BR}_{\mathbf{p}}(\alpha)$  (which is unique except for at most  $n$  “breakpoint” values of  $\alpha$ , where the agent is  
884 indifferent between two actions). This induces an ordering over the actions; we will relabel the actions  
885 so that actions 1 (the null action), 2, 3,  $\dots$  are incentivized for increasing values of  $\alpha$ . Formally, if  
886 the agent has  $n$  actions, we have  $n$  “breakpoints”  $0 = \alpha_{0,1} < \alpha_{1,2} < \alpha_{2,3} < \dots < \alpha_{n-1,n}$ , where  
887 action  $i$  belongs to  $\text{BR}_{\mathbf{p}}(\alpha)$  iff  $\alpha \in [\alpha_{i-1,i}, \alpha_{i,i+1}]$  (with  $\alpha_{n,n+1} = \infty$ ).

888 Our main result in this section is the following theorem, by which free-fall  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled contracts are  
889 optimal  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled dynamic contracts.

890 **Theorem D.1.** *Let  $\pi$  be any  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled dynamic contract. Then there exists a free-fall  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled*  
891 *contract  $\pi'$  where  $\text{Util}(\pi') \geq \text{Util}(\pi)$ .*

892 To prove Theorem D.1, we will establish a sequence of lemmas constraining the potential geometry of  
893 an optimal  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled dynamic contract. Note that since linear contracts are a specific case of  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled  
894 contracts, this also provides an alternate proof of Theorem 3.1.

895 We begin our proof with the observation that, similar to linear contracts,  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled contracts cannot  
896 “skip over” actions for the agent (c.f. Lemma B.1, which has an essentially identical proof).

897 **Lemma D.2.** *If  $\pi = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}$  is a  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled dynamic contract, then  $\forall k, |a^k - a^{k+1}| \leq 1$ .*

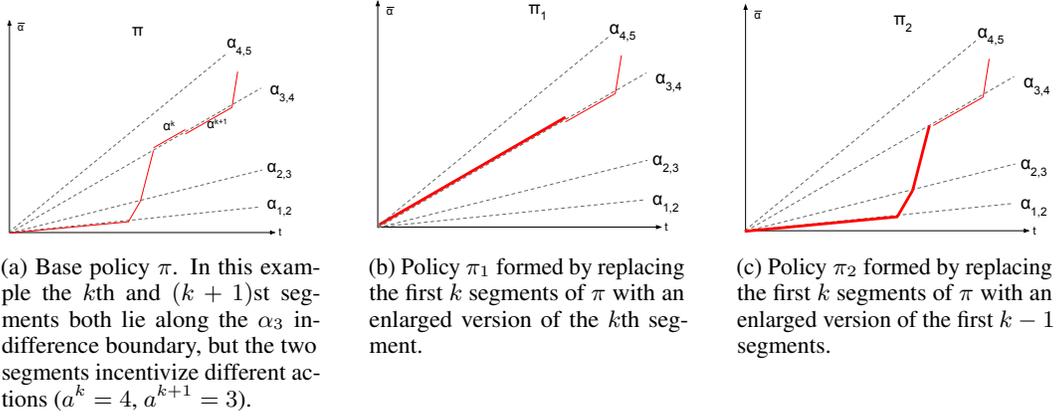


Figure 6: Figures for the proof of Lemma D.3.

902 *Proof.* Note that  $a^k$  and  $a^{k+1}$  both must be best-responses to the average historical contract  $\bar{p}^k$  after  
 903 segment  $k$ , which is a  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled contract with parameter  $\bar{\alpha}^k = \sum_{k'=1}^k \alpha^{k'} \tau^{k'} / \sum_{i=1}^k \tau^{k'}$ . In other  
 904 words,  $a^k$  and  $a^{k+1}$  belong to  $\text{BR}_{\mathbf{p}}(\bar{\alpha}^k)$ . Since  $\text{BR}_{\mathbf{p}}(\alpha)$  is always of the form  $\{i\}$  or  $\{i, i+1\}$  the  
 905 conclusion follows.  $\square$

902 Now, recall that in Lemma B.2 we show that (for general contract problems) we can restrict our  
 903 attention to trajectories where no two consecutive segments have the same agent best response (i.e.,  
 904  $a^k \neq a^{k+1}$  for any  $k$ ). The following lemma proves a strengthening of this fact specific to  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled  
 905 contracts.

906 **Lemma D.3.** *Let  $\pi$  be any  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled dynamic contract. Then there exists a  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled dynamic*  
 907 *contract  $\pi' = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}$  with the property that for all  $k$ ,  $a^k \neq a^{k+1}$  and  $a^k \neq a^{k+2}$ , and that*  
 908  *$\text{Util}(\pi') \geq \text{Util}(\pi)$ .*

909 *Proof.* The fact that we can rewrite  $\pi$  into an equivalent contract where  $a^k \neq a^{k+1}$  follows from  
 910 the proof of Lemma B.2. Therefore, assume without loss of generality that  $\pi$  already has this form.  
 911 We will show how to rewrite it into a new dynamic contract  $\pi'$  with the additional property that  
 912  $a^k \neq a^{k+2}$ .

913 We will induct on the number of segments in the path (it is obviously true when there is only  
 914  $K = 1$  segment). Assume that for some  $k$ ,  $\pi$  has the property that  $a^k = a^{k+2} \neq a^{k+1}$ . This  
 915 implies that  $\text{BR}_{\mathbf{p}}(\bar{\alpha}^k) = \text{BR}_{\mathbf{p}}(\bar{\alpha}^{k+1}) = \{a^k, a^{k+1}\}$ . Since there is a unique value of  $\alpha$  for which  
 916  $\text{BR}_{\mathbf{p}}(\alpha) = \{a^k, a^{k+1}\}$  (namely, one of the breakpoints  $\alpha_{i, i+1}$ ), this can only happen if  $\bar{\alpha}^k = \bar{\alpha}^{k+1}$ ,  
 917 which in turn means that  $\alpha^{k+1} = \bar{\alpha}^k = \bar{\alpha}^{k+1}$ . Pictorially, this is because if a dynamic contract  
 918 spends only one segment in a best-response region, this segment must lie along the boundary of the  
 919 best-response region (see Figure 6).

920 Now, consider the following two modifications of  $\pi$ :

- 921 1. In  $\pi_1$ , we replace the first  $k+1$  segments of  $\pi$  with a scaled up version of the  
 922  $(k+1)$ st segment. That is, remove the first  $k+1$  segments of  $\pi$  and replace them with  
 923  $(\alpha^{k+1}, \mathcal{T}^{k+1}, a^{k+1})$ . To see that this is a valid contract, note that since  $\alpha^{k+1} = \bar{\alpha}^{k+1}$ ,  $\alpha^{k+1}$   
 924 incentivizes action  $a^{k+1}$  so the first segment of this contract is valid. Moreover, after  $\mathcal{T}^{k+1}$   
 925 time units have elapsed, both  $\pi$  and  $\pi_1$  resume the same sequence of segments from the  
 926 same state  $\bar{\alpha}^{k+1}$ .
- 927 2. In  $\pi_2$ , we replace the first  $k+1$  segments of  $\pi$  with a scaled up version of the first  $k$  segments.  
 928 That is, remove the segment  $(\alpha^{k+1}, \tau^{k+1}, a^{k+1})$ , and scale up  $\tau^{k'}$  (for each  $1 \leq k' \leq k$ )  
 929 to  $\tau^{k'} (\mathcal{T}^{k+1} / \mathcal{T}^k)$ . Again, this is a valid dynamic contract because scaling up a (prefix  
 930 of a) dynamic contract results in a valid dynamic contract, and  $\pi$  and  $\pi_2$  both resume the  
 931 remainder of segments at the same time and from the same state  $\bar{\alpha}^{k+1}$ .

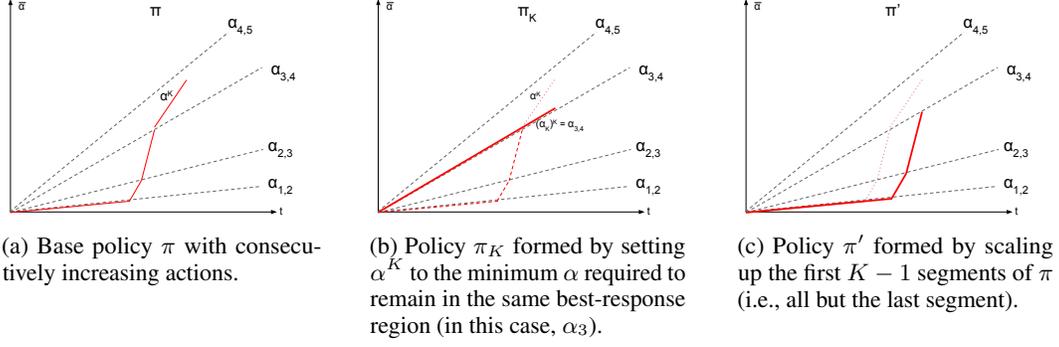


Figure 7: Figures for the proof of Lemma D.4.

932 Finally, note that  $\text{Util}(\pi)$  is a convex combination of  $\text{Util}(\pi_1)$  and  $\text{Util}(\pi_2)$  – specifically,  $\text{Util}(\pi) =$   
 933  $(\tau^{k+1}\pi_1 + \mathcal{T}^k\pi_2)/\mathcal{T}^{k+1}$  – and so is less than or equal to one of them. But both  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  have  
 934 strictly fewer segments than  $\pi$ , so by applying the inductive hypothesis, we are finished.  $\square$

935 As a consequence of Lemmas D.2 and D.3, we can restrict ourselves to dynamic contracts whose  
 936 sequences of actions are either consecutively increasing ( $a^{k+1} = a^k + 1$ ) or consecutively decreasing  
 937 ( $a^{k+1} = a^k - 1$ ). We show that we can ignore the first case – such contracts can never be better than  
 938 static contracts.

939 **Lemma D.4.** *Let  $\pi = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}$  be a  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled dynamic contract where the  $a^k$  are consecutively  
 940 increasing. Then there exists a static  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled contract  $\pi'$  (i.e., a single segment dynamic contract of  
 941 the form  $(\alpha', 1, a')$ ) where  $\text{Util}(\pi') \geq \text{Util}(\pi)$ .*

942 *Proof.* As in the proof of Lemma D.3, we will again induct on the number of segments of  $\pi$ . If  $\pi$  has  
 943 one segment, we are done.

944 Now consider a  $\pi$  with  $K$  segments, whose last segment is  $(\alpha^K, \tau^K, a^K)$ . Recall that for any  $i$ ,  
 945  $\alpha_{i-1,i}$  is the smallest value of  $\alpha$  for which  $\alpha\mathbf{p}$  incentivizes action  $i$ . Note that if  $\alpha^K > \alpha_{a^K-1,a^K}$ ,  
 946 we can improve the utility of the principal by decreasing  $\alpha^K$  to  $\alpha_{a^K-1,a^K}$  (this pays strictly less to  
 947 the agent but still incentivizes the same action  $a^K$ ). We'll therefore assume the last segment is of  
 948 the form  $(\alpha_{a^K-1,a^K}, \tau^K, a^K)$ ; note that this segment by itself is a valid static  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled contract, as  
 949  $\alpha_{a^K-1,a^K}$  incentivizes action  $a^K$ . Call this contract  $\pi_K$ .

950 Let  $\pi'$  be the dynamic contract formed by the first  $K - 1$  segments of  $\pi$  (see Figure 7 for examples of  
 951  $\pi_K$  and  $\pi'$ ). But now,  $\text{Util}(\pi)$  is a convex combination of  $\text{Util}(\pi')$  and  $\text{Util}(\pi_K)$ , so it is at most the  
 952 maximum of these two quantities. If this maximum is  $\text{Util}(\pi_K)$ , we are done ( $\pi_K$  is a static contract);  
 953 if it is  $\text{Util}(\pi')$ , we are also done by the inductive hypothesis ( $\pi'$  has  $K - 1$  segments).  $\square$

954 Finally, we show that in the case where the sequence of actions are consecutively decreasing, such a  
 955 contract is no better than some free-fall contract.

956 **Lemma D.5.** *Let  $\pi = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}$  be a  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled dynamic contract where the  $a^k$  are consecutively  
 957 decreasing. Then there exists a free-fall  $\mathbf{p}$ -scaled contract  $\pi'$  where  $\text{Util}(\pi') \geq \text{Util}(\pi)$ .*

958 *Proof.* Assume that  $\pi$  is not a free-fall contract. We will show we can rewrite  $\pi$  in a way so that  
 959 either the first agent action  $a^1$  strictly decreases or the first non-free-fall occurs strictly later. Since  
 960 the number of segments in  $\pi$  is bounded (by  $n$ , since the actions are consecutively decreasing), this  
 961 implies the theorem statement.

962 Let  $(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)$  be the first segment in  $\pi$  with  $k \geq 2$  where  $\alpha^k > 0$  (so, the dynamic contract is  
 963 not free-falling here). Note that since this segment ends on the boundary between the best-response  
 964 regions for  $a^k$  and  $a^{k+1} = a^k - 1$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}^k = \alpha_{a^k-1,a^k}$ .

965 The main observation of this proof is that we can rewrite this segment as a combination of a free-fall  
 966 segment (with  $\alpha = 0$ ) and a segment along the boundary of these two best-response regions (with

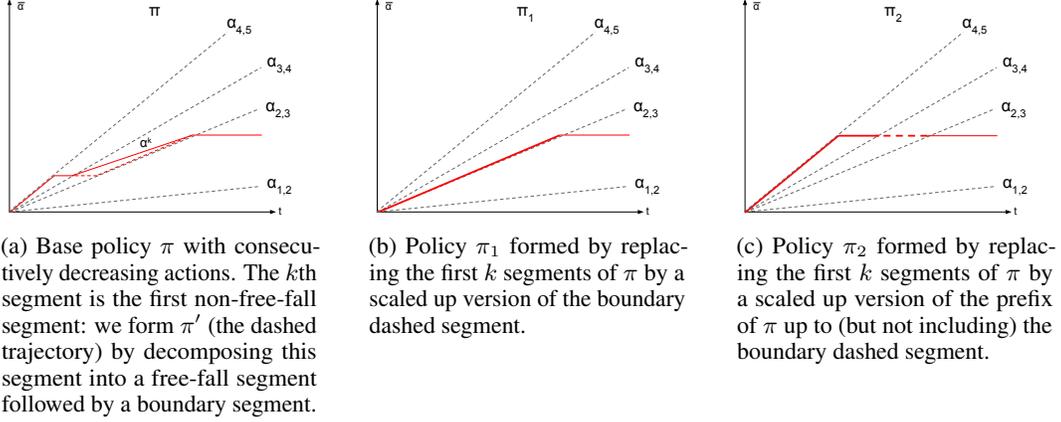


Figure 8: Figures for the proof of Lemma D.5.

967  $\alpha = \bar{\alpha}^k$ ). Specifically, form a new dynamic contract  $\pi'$  by replacing  $(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)$  in  $\pi$  with the  
 968 two consecutive segments  $(0, \lambda\tau^k, a^k)$  and  $(\alpha_{a^{k-1}, a^k}, (1-\lambda)\tau^k, a^k)$ , where  $\lambda$  is chosen so that  
 969  $(1-\lambda)\alpha_{a^{k-1}, a^k} = \alpha^k$ . Note that by doing this  $\pi'$  now has  $K+1$  segments, where segments  $k$  and  
 970  $k+1$  are this new free-fall and boundary segment respectively. Note that we will let quantities like  
 971  $\tau^k, \mathcal{T}^k$ , and  $\bar{\alpha}^k$  still refer to the relevant quantities for  $\pi$ , not  $\pi'$ .

972 This allows us to proceed via a similar technique as in Lemma D.3. Consider the following two  
 973 modifications of  $\pi'$  (see Figure 8 for examples):

- 974 1. In  $\pi_1$ , we replace the first  $k+1$  segments of  $\pi'$  with a scaled-up version of the boundary  
 975 segment of the form  $(\bar{\alpha}^k, \mathcal{T}^k, a^k)$ .
- 976 2. In  $\pi_2$ , we replace the first  $k+1$  segments of  $\pi'$  with a scaled up version of the first  $k$   
 977 segments (the first  $k-1$  segments of  $\pi$  and the free-fall segment, but not the boundary  
 978 segment). Specifically, let  $C = \mathcal{T}^k / (\mathcal{T}^{k-1} + \lambda\tau^k)$ . Then the first  $k-1$  segments of  $\pi_2$  are  
 979 of the form  $(\alpha^{k'}, C\tau^{k'}, a^{k'})$ , and the  $k$ th segment of  $\pi_2$  is of the form  $(0, C\lambda\tau^k, a^k)$ .

980 As in the proof of Lemma D.3, we can check that both  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are valid dynamic contracts: in  
 981 particular, after  $\mathcal{T}^k$  units of time, they are both in the state  $\bar{\alpha}^k$ , so the remaining suffix of  $\pi$  is a valid  
 982 extension for both contracts.

983 Again,  $\text{Util}(\pi)$  can be written as a convex combination of  $\text{Util}(\pi_1)$  and  $\text{Util}(\pi_2)$ , specifically,

$$\text{Util}(\pi) = \frac{(1-\lambda)\tau^k \text{Util}(\pi_1) + (\mathcal{T}^{k-1} + \lambda\tau^k) \text{Util}(\pi_2)}{\mathcal{T}^k}.$$

984 But  $\pi_1$  starts at a later action than  $\pi$  (since  $a^k = a^1 - (k-1)$ ), and  $\pi_2$  is a free-fall contract for one  
 985 further step than  $\pi$  (since  $\alpha^2 = \alpha^3 = \dots = \alpha^{k-1} = 0$ , and the  $k$ th segment in  $\pi_2$  also has  $\alpha = 0$ ).  
 986 This completes the proof.  $\square$

987 We can now conclude the proof of Theorem D.1.

988 *Proof of Theorem D.1.* Because of Lemmas D.2 and D.3, we can assume without loss of generality  
 989 that the actions  $a^k$  in  $\pi$  are either consecutively increasing or decreasing. The conclusion now  
 990 immediately follows from Lemmas D.4 and D.5.  $\square$

## 991 E Proof of Theorem 4.2 (Unknown Time Horizon)

992 *Proof.* Due to Theorem H.3, it suffices to show that there exists some  $\underline{\gamma}$  such that  $U_\gamma^* < (1+\varepsilon)R_*$ .  
 993 This lets us focus on the continuous-time setting.

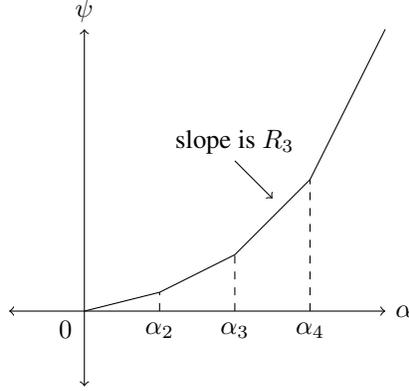


Figure 9: We use a “raw” potential function  $\psi(\alpha)$  which maps time-averaged linear contracts  $\alpha$  to (raw) potentials.

994 The high-level plan from here is to focus on a particular continuous trajectory  $\pi = \{(p^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_k$   
 995 apply a potential argument to it. We will then show our analysis extends to distributions  $\mathcal{D}$  for free.  
 996 We will define a potential function  $\psi(\alpha)$  that maps time-averaged linear contracts  $\alpha$  to potentials  
 997 in  $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ . This potential is based only on the principal-agent problem  $(c, F, r)$ . There are some  
 998 peculiarities about our potential argument, relating to the passage of time. Consider a principal  
 999 managing to produce a time-averaged linear contract of  $\alpha$  after  $t$  units of time, and compare that  
 1000 with a principal that has managed to arrive a time-averaged linear contract of  $\alpha$  after  $2t$  units of time  
 1001 instead, i.e. twice the time. In terms of absolute (not time-averaged) units of profit we can extract  
 1002 from this point, it is twice as good to be in the latter situation. With this in mind, our proof will  
 1003 carefully distinguish between the *raw potential*  $\psi(\alpha)$  and the *time-weighted potential*  $\psi(\alpha) \cdot t$ . If a  
 1004 principal maintains a steady time-averaged linear contract, then the raw potential will remain constant  
 1005 while the time-weighted potential will grow.

1006 The purpose of the time-weighted potential is to model the ability of a principal to extract additional  
 1007 profit by gradually lowering time-averaged linear contract. It will be used to demonstrate that this  
 1008 extra profit produced by using up a finite resource, which will imply the desired theorem result.

1009 We now give our raw potential function  $\psi(\alpha)$ . We begin by writing down the linear contract  
 1010 breakpoints of  $(c, F, r)$ ; without loss of generality<sup>11</sup> they are  $0 < \alpha_2 < \alpha_3 < \dots < \alpha_n$ , where the  
 1011 linear contract  $\alpha_i$  leaves the agent indifferent between actions  $i - 1$  and  $i$ . For notational convenience,  
 1012 we also define an  $\alpha_1 \triangleq 0$  as the minimum linear contract to incentivize the first action. We also  
 1013 denote the expected reward of action  $i$  with  $R_i$ . With this notation in place, our raw potential function  
 1014  $\psi : [0, \alpha_n] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  is the following piecewise-linear function. Note that we can assume without loss  
 1015 of generality that the average linear contract never exceeds  $\alpha_n$ , because capping it to this quantity  
 1016 only improves principal utility at all moments in time.

$$\psi(\alpha) \triangleq \begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^{i'-1} (\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i) R_i + (\alpha - \alpha_{i'}) R_{i'} & \text{if } \alpha \in [\alpha_{i'}, \alpha_{i'+1}) \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i) R_i & \text{if } \alpha = \alpha_n \end{cases}$$

1017 The potential above is depicted in Figure 9 and can be seen as the product of the following thought  
 1018 experiment: what if the principal was allowed to offer unbounded payments (in particular, payments  
 1019 can be negative and can exceed the payment bound  $P$ )? In our continuous-time setting, this gives the  
 1020 principal the ability to produce segments of play  $(p^k, \tau^k, a^k)$  which have near-instantaneous times  
 1021  $\tau^k \rightarrow 0$  while using large-magnitude cumulative contracts  $p^k \tau^k$  to move between the boundaries  
 1022 between actions. If these near-instantaneous actions are used at time  $t$ , then the time-weighted  
 1023 potential  $\psi(\alpha) \cdot t$  captures the necessary payments to alter the time-averaged linear contract. One  
 1024 interesting aside about this thought experiment is that the necessary payment to near-instantaneously  
 1025 move up from  $\alpha_i$  to the next  $\alpha_{i+1}$ , namely  $[\psi(\alpha_{i+1}) - \psi(\alpha_i)] t$ , is equal to the payout received for  
 1026 near-instantaneously using a negative contract to move down from  $\alpha_{i+1}$  to  $\alpha_i$ .

<sup>11</sup>Implicitly, this step prunes away all actions which cannot be incentivized by a linear contract.

1027 Potential function in hand, we return to the original problem where payments are bounded and  
 1028 nonnegative. Let us consider the  $k^{\text{th}}$  segment of play  $(p^k = \alpha^k R, \tau^k, a^k)$  and relate the total profit  
 1029 generated during this segment of play with the change in potential.

1030 For notational convenience we define shorthand for the cumulative linear contract offered.

$$\mathcal{A}^k \triangleq \sum_{k'=1}^k \tau^{k'} \alpha^{k'}$$

1031 We will also use  $u_P^k$  to denote the (time-weighted) principal utility for segment  $k$  and  $u_\star^k$  to denote  
 1032 the corresponding amount of principal utility that the optimal static contract obtains over  $\tau^k$  time.  
 1033 Using this notation, we can compute an upper bound on how much additional principal utility this  
 1034 segment manages to achieve over the optimal static contract.

$$\begin{aligned} u_P^k &= [(1 - \alpha^k) R_{a^k}] \tau^k \\ u_\star^k &= \left[ \max_a (1 - \alpha_a) R_a \right] \tau^k \\ &\geq [(1 - \alpha_{a^k}) R_{a^k}] \tau^k \\ (u_P^k - u_\star^k) &\leq [(\alpha_{a^k} - \alpha^k) R_{a^k}] \tau^k \end{aligned}$$

1035 At the same time, this contract has shifted the time-averaged linear contract and hence altered the  
 1036 time-weighted potential.

$$\begin{aligned} &\psi(\mathcal{A}^k / \mathcal{T}^k) \mathcal{T}^k - \psi(\mathcal{A}^{k-1} / \mathcal{T}^{k-1}) \mathcal{T}^{k-1} \\ &= \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{\alpha^k} (\alpha_i - \alpha_{i-1}) R_{i-1} + (\mathcal{A}^k / \mathcal{T}^k - \alpha_{a^k}) R_{a^k} \right] \mathcal{T}^k \\ &\quad - \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{\alpha^k} (\alpha_i - \alpha_{i-1}) R_{i-1} + (\mathcal{A}^{k-1} / \mathcal{T}^{k-1} - \alpha_{a^k}) R_{a^k} \right] \mathcal{T}^{k-1} \\ &= \left[ \mathcal{T}^k \sum_{i=1}^{\alpha^k} (\alpha_i - \alpha_{i-1}) R_{i-1} + (\mathcal{A}^k - \mathcal{T}^k \alpha_{a^k}) R_{a^k} \right] \\ &\quad - \left[ \mathcal{T}^{k-1} \sum_{i=1}^{\alpha^k} (\alpha_i - \alpha_{i-1}) R_{i-1} + (\mathcal{A}^{k-1} - \mathcal{T}^{k-1} \alpha_{a^k}) R_{a^k} \right] \\ &= \tau^k \sum_{i=1}^{\alpha^k} (\alpha_i - \alpha_{i-1}) R_{i-1} + [(\alpha^k \tau^k - \tau^k \alpha_{a^k}) R_{a^k}] \end{aligned}$$

1037 Interestingly, the expression for time-weighted potential has a term that perfectly cancels with our  
 1038 bound for how much additional principal utility this segment produces over the optimal static contract.

$$\begin{aligned} (u_P^k - u_\star^k) + \psi(\mathcal{A}^k / \mathcal{T}^k) \mathcal{T}^k - \psi(\mathcal{A}^{k-1} / \mathcal{T}^{k-1}) \mathcal{T}^{k-1} &\leq \tau^k \sum_{i=1}^{\alpha^k} (\alpha_i - \alpha_{i-1}) R_{i-1} \\ &\leq \int_{\mathcal{T}^{k-1}}^{\mathcal{T}^k} \psi \left( \frac{\mathcal{A}^{k-1} + (\mathcal{T} - \mathcal{T}^{k-1}) \alpha^k}{\mathcal{T}} \right) d\mathcal{T} \end{aligned}$$

1039 The right-hand side expression above is just the integral of the current raw potential as this segment  
 1040 advances the time from  $\mathcal{T}^{k-1}$  to  $\mathcal{T}^k$ . Conveniently, this upper bound still works out to the same  
 1041 amount even if we subdivide our segment  $(p^k, \tau^k, a^k)$  into two sub-segments  $(p^k, x, a^k), (p^k, y, a^k)$   
 1042 such that  $x, y \in [0, \tau^k]$  and  $x + y = \tau^k$  (and re-index the other segments appropriately). This means  
 1043 we can sum this bound to get an overall bound for any time  $t \in [0, \bar{T}]$ , just by splitting the last

1044 segment appropriately. To formalize this, we introduce some more parenthetical superscript notation  
 1045 to denote the corresponding objects when considering time from zero to  $t$ . In particular,  $u_\star^{(t)}$  denotes  
 1046 the optimal static contract's principal utility for  $t$  units of time,  $\mathcal{A}^{(t)}$  denotes the cumulative linear  
 1047 contract for  $t$  units of time.

$$(u_p^{(t)}(\pi) - u_\star^{(t)}) + \psi\left(\mathcal{A}^{(t)}/t\right)t \leq \int_0^t \psi\left(\frac{\mathcal{A}^{(\mathcal{T})}}{\mathcal{T}}\right)d\mathcal{T}$$

1048 Recall our notation where  $R_\star$  denotes the optimal static contract's principal utility. For  $t \in [\underline{T}, \bar{T}]$ ,  
 1049 we know that the excess principal utility needs to be at least  $\varepsilon R_\star t$ , which implies the following.

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon R_\star t + \psi\left(\mathcal{A}^{(t)}/t\right)t &\leq \int_0^t \psi\left(\frac{\mathcal{A}^{(\mathcal{T})}}{\mathcal{T}}\right)d\mathcal{T} \\ \psi\left(\mathcal{A}^{(t)}/t\right) &\leq -\varepsilon R_\star + \frac{1}{t} \int_0^t \psi\left(\frac{\mathcal{A}^{(\mathcal{T})}}{\mathcal{T}}\right)d\mathcal{T} \end{aligned}$$

1050 With this bound in mind, we can view every trajectory  $\pi$  that manages to successfully beat the optimal  
 1051 static contract by  $(1 + \varepsilon)$  in terms of how much raw potential it has as a function of time. Note  
 1052 that this bound controls the current raw potential based on the average raw potential up to this point  
 1053 (minus a constant). As a result, if we just consider trajectories  $\pi$  that obey this bound, the worst  
 1054 case for us would be a function that satisfies it with equality everywhere since greedily picking the  
 1055 maximum value for the function early on allow for higher values later on (greedy stays ahead). We  
 1056 now solve for this function  $f(t)$  which simultaneously maximizes raw potential everywhere.

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon R_\star t + f(t)t &= \int_0^t f(\mathcal{T})d\mathcal{T} \\ \varepsilon R_\star + f(t) + f'(t)t &= f(t) \\ f'(t) &= -\varepsilon R_\star/t \end{aligned}$$

1057 At time  $\underline{T}$ , we know the raw potential can be at most  $\psi(\alpha_n)$ . We want to choose  $\underline{\gamma}$  and hence  $\bar{T}$  so  
 1058 that  $f(\bar{T})$  is negative in order to create a contradiction. Because  $f$  yields the maximum possible  
 1059 function value attainable at time  $\bar{T}$ , this means that our actual raw potential will also be negative at  $\bar{T}$ .  
 1060 We now solve for the largest value of  $\gamma$  that does not actually create a contradiction.

$$\begin{aligned} f(\bar{T}) - f(\underline{T}) &= -\psi(\alpha_n) \\ \int_{\underline{T}}^{\bar{T}} f'(t)dt &= -\psi(\alpha_n) \\ -\varepsilon R_\star [\ln t]_{\underline{T}}^{\bar{T}} &= -\psi(\alpha_n) \\ \ln(\bar{T}/\underline{T}) &= \frac{\psi(\alpha_n)}{\varepsilon R_\star} \\ \gamma &= e^{\psi(\alpha_n)/(\varepsilon R_\star)} \end{aligned}$$

1061 Hence it suffices to pick a  $\underline{\gamma} > e^{\psi(\alpha_n)/(\varepsilon R_\star)}$ . This demonstrates that it is impossible for a *deterministic*  
 1062 trajectory  $\pi$  to beat the optimal static contract by a  $(1 + \varepsilon)$  multiplicative factor.

1063 What about *randomized* dynamic contracts  $\mathcal{D}$ ? We can just take the appropriate convex combination  
 1064 of our bounds according to drawing  $\pi \sim \mathcal{D}$ . In particular, this yields:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\pi \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[ (u_p^{(t)}(\pi) - u_\star^{(t)}) \right] + \mathbb{E}_{\pi \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[ \psi\left(\mathcal{A}^{(t)}/t\right)t \right] \leq \int_0^t \mathbb{E}_{\pi \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[ \psi\left(\frac{\mathcal{A}^{(\mathcal{T})}}{\mathcal{T}}\right) \right] d\mathcal{T}$$

1065 We can then re-execute the remainder of the proof in the same way, replacing the deterministic  
 1066 additional principal utility with expected additional principal utility and deterministic raw potential  
 1067 with expected raw potential. The expected potential function is still bounded everywhere by the same  
 1068 function  $f(T)$  and we reach the same conclusions about  $\underline{\gamma}$ . This completes the proof.  $\square$

1069 **Remark.** Due to Yao’s minimax principle, Theorem 4.2 implies that there exists an adversarial  
1070 distribution over times in  $[\underline{T}, \bar{T}]$  such that for any randomized principal strategy, the ratio between  
1071 expected principal utility and the principal utility of the optimal static contract for that duration of  
1072 time is strictly less than  $(1 + \varepsilon)$ . In order to apply Yao’s minimax principle, we need the set of relevant  
1073 principal strategies and the set of relevant adversary strategies to be finite. We already do this in  
1074 our proof of Theorem H.3: the latter can just be an  $\varepsilon$ -net since principal utility is Lipschitz with  
1075 Lipschitz constant depending on the contract problem, and after that the former then follows from  
1076 Carathéodory’s Theorem by treating each deterministic trajectory as a vector with one coordinate for  
1077 every point in our  $\varepsilon$ -net.

## 1078 F Proof of Theorem 4.3 (Unknown Time Horizon – Converse)

1079 *Proof.* We prove this by proving the contrapositive. Suppose for any fixed time  $T$  there is a dynamic  
1080 contract that can achieve an expected utility of  $(1 + \varepsilon)u_*T$  for some  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By Theorem 3.1, we can  
1081 assume without loss of generality that this is a free-fall linear contract. We will show that for any  $\gamma$   
1082 we will construct a dynamic contract such that for all  $\underline{T} \in \mathbb{R}$  and all  $t \in [\underline{T}, \gamma \cdot \underline{T}]$ , we can achieve an  
1083 expected utility of  $(1 + f(\varepsilon, \gamma)) \cdot u_* \cdot t$  where  $f(\varepsilon, \gamma) \geq \Omega\left(\min\left(\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{4}\right)^{O(\log(1+\gamma))}, \frac{\varepsilon}{\gamma}\right)\right)$ .

1084 As a first step, we will show that if there is a free-fall linear contract that beats the optimal static  
1085 contract, then there is a free-fall linear contract that beats the optimal static contract but also either  
1086 (1) ends at or above the optimal static contract or (2) begins at the optimal static contract. Afterwards,  
1087 we plan to analyze case (1) and (2) separately.

1088 If our free-fall linear contract does not already satisfy case (1) or (2), then it must do one of the  
1089 following; (a) begin at a higher breakpoint than the optimal static contract and end at a lower  
1090 breakpoint than the optimal static contract or (b) being and end at lower breakpoints than the optimal  
1091 static contract. We now analyze these two cases. In the process, we will lose a constant factor which  
1092 is folded into our  $\Omega$  notation.

1093 **Case A: Dynamic contracts beginning above  $\alpha_*$  and ending below  $\alpha_*$ .** We write our free-  
1094 fall linear contract in the usual form  $\pi = \{(\mathbf{p}^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^K$ . By virtue of being in this case, we  
1095 know there is some index  $2 \leq i < K$  such that the average linear contract after  $i$  segments,  $\bar{\mathbf{p}}^i$ ,  
1096 is exactly  $\alpha_*$ . We “cut” the trajectory  $\pi$  at this point to produce two new trajectories  $\pi'$  and  $\pi''$ .  
1097 Specifically,  $\pi' = \{(\mathbf{p}^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^i$  and  $\pi'' = \{(\alpha_*, \mathcal{T}^i, a^i)\} \circ \{(\mathbf{p}^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=i+1}^K$  where  $\circ$  denotes  
1098 concatenation. In other words, we construct  $\pi'$  by ending at this point and we construct  $\pi''$  by  
1099 taking the optimal static contract to this point and continuing as normal. Observe that the combined  
1100 performance of  $\pi'$  and  $\pi''$  is equal to the combined performance of  $\pi$  and just playing the single  
1101 segment  $\{(\alpha_*, \mathcal{T}^i, a^i)\}$ :  $(1 + \varepsilon)u_*\mathcal{T}^K + u_*\mathcal{T}^i$ . This results in a combined time-averaged performance  
1102 of

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(1 + \varepsilon)u_*\mathcal{T}^K + u_*\mathcal{T}^i}{\mathcal{T}^K + \mathcal{T}^i} &= u_* \left[ (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\mathcal{T}^K}{\mathcal{T}^K + \mathcal{T}^i} + (1) \frac{\mathcal{T}^i}{\mathcal{T}^K + \mathcal{T}^i} \right] \\ &\geq (1 + \varepsilon/2)u_* \end{aligned}$$

1103 since  $\mathcal{T}^K \geq \mathcal{T}^i$ . Since  $\pi'$  and  $\pi''$  have this combined average, one of them must have at least this  
1104 average (and we only lost a factor  $1/2$  on our  $\varepsilon$ , which is indeed a constant. Since  $\pi'$  matches case (1)  
1105 and  $\pi''$  matches case (2), this completes the analysis of case (a).

1106 **Case B: Dynamic contracts beginning and ending below  $\alpha_*$ .** We take the obvious approach  
1107 and choose to begin at  $\alpha_*$  instead. Specifically, we replace the first segment with a sequence of  
1108 segments that begins at  $\alpha_*$  and then undergoes the appropriate number of free-fall segments to arrive  
1109 at the same endpoint as before (same total time and average linear contract). We argue that each new  
1110 segment has at least as much principal utility per unit time as the original segment. Since the total  
1111 time is the same, this is a direct improvement over the original dynamic contract, both in terms of  
1112 total principal utility and time-averaged principal utility. The argument that each new segment does  
1113 at least as well per unit time is similar to before. The first new segment just hovers at the optimal  
1114 static contract, which by definition is better than any other static contract (which our original segment  
1115 must be). The remaining new segments are freefall segments, and achieve principal utility per unit  
1116 time equal to the expected revenue of the actions they fall through. We observe that we fall through  
1117 segments in order of decreasing expected utility, meaning all of these segments have higher expected  
1118 utility than the action we originally began with, and expected revenue is at least the principal utility

1119 of the static contract that achieves a particular action. We finish this case by noting that we did not  
 1120 diminish  $\epsilon$  at all, which trivially a constant factor.

1121 This completes our analysis of cases (a) and (b). In all cases, we managed to reduce to either case (1)  
 1122 or (2), which we now consider.

1123 **Case 1: Dynamic contracts ending at or above  $\alpha_*$ .** First, we consider the case where for any fixed  
 1124  $T$  there is a dynamic contract  $\pi(T) = ((\alpha^1, \tau^1, a^1), \dots, (\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k))$  which ends at or above the  
 1125 optimal static action:  $a^k \geq a_*$ . Given any  $\gamma$  and time period  $[\underline{T}, \overline{T} = \gamma \cdot \underline{T}]$ , consider the dynamic  
 1126 contract which starts with  $\pi(\underline{T})$ , free falls to the optimal static contract, and then plays the optimal  
 1127 static contract for the remaining time period. We again observe (as we did for case (b)) that free  
 1128 falling through actions that are at least the  $a_*$  results in at least  $u_*$  principal profit per unit time.  
 1129 Hence the total revenue for any time  $t \in [\underline{T}, \overline{T}]$  for the principal is  $(1 + \epsilon) \cdot u_* \underline{T} + (t - \underline{T}) \cdot u_*$ , which  
 1130 is at least  $(1 + \epsilon/\gamma)R_*t$ .

1131 **Case 2: Dynamic contracts starting in  $\alpha_*$ .** By Theorem 3.1, we know any dynamic con-  
 1132 tract can be transformed into a free-fall dynamic contract with no loss in revenue. There-  
 1133 fore, we assume that for any fixed time horizon  $T$ , there is a dynamic contract form  $\pi(T) =$   
 1134  $(\alpha_*, \tau^1, a^1), (0, \tau^2, a^2), \dots, (0, \tau^k, a^k)$  which achieves a total revenue of  $(1 + \epsilon)R_*T$ . Since  
 1135 this is a free-fall contract, the optimal revenue from this contract can be characterized as  
 1136  $(1 - \alpha_*)R_*\tau^1 + \sum_{i=2}^k \tau^i R_{a_i}$  which is at least  $(1 + \epsilon)R_*t > (1 + \epsilon)(1 - \alpha_*)R_*$ . Let  $\mu$  be the  
 1137 minimum fraction of time such that for any time  $T$ , the dynamic contract  $\pi(T)$  achieves revenue at  
 1138 least  $(1 + \epsilon/2)\mu u_*T$ . Since we know that  $\pi(T)$  achieves a total revenue of  $(1 + \epsilon)u_*T$  and starts  
 1139 out at the optimal static contract, we know that  $\mu \geq \tau^1 / \sum_{i=1}^k \tau^i$  and it is a constant bounded away  
 1140 from 1. Let  $S_i = \lceil \mu^i \overline{T} \rceil$  and let  $p$  be the first index where  $S_p$  is less than  $\underline{T}$  (i.e.,  $p = \lceil \frac{\log(1+\gamma)}{\log(\mu)} \rceil$ ).  
 1141 By construction,  $S_i$  satisfy two properties:

- 1142 1.  $S_p \leq \underline{T} \leq S_{p-1} \leq \dots \leq S_1 \leq \overline{T}$ .
- 1143 2. If the principal runs dynamic contract ending at  $S_i$ , namely  $\pi(S_i)$ , then they are guaranteed  
 1144 revenue  $(1 + \epsilon/2)tR_*$  for any  $t \in [S_{i+1}, S_i]$ .

We will construct a sequence of dynamic contracts  $\pi^i$  which have the property that for any  $t \in [S_i, \gamma \underline{T}]$   
 achieves revenue that is at least  $(1 + (\epsilon/4)^i)R_*t$ . We do this via induction. For the base case, let  
 $\pi^1 = \pi(\overline{T})$ . By construction, we know that for all  $t \in [S_1, \overline{T}]$ , the principal will get revenue  
 $(1 + \epsilon/2)u_*t$ . Now suppose we have such a dynamic contract  $\pi^i$ , then we construct  $\pi^{i+1}$  by taking a  
 convex combination of  $\pi^i$  and the optimal dynamic contract ending at  $\pi(S_i)$ . In particular, let

$$\pi^{i+1} = \frac{1 + \epsilon/2}{1 + \epsilon/2 + (\epsilon/4)^i} \pi^i + \frac{(\epsilon/4)^i}{1 + \epsilon + (\epsilon/4)^i} \pi(S_i).$$

1145 For any  $t \in [S_i, \overline{T}]$ , we have that revenue we attain is at least the revenue from the contract

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1 + \epsilon/2}{1 + \epsilon/2 + (\epsilon/4)^i} \text{Revenue}(\pi^i(t)) &\geq \frac{1 + \epsilon/2}{1 + \epsilon/2 + (\epsilon/4)^i} (1 + (\epsilon/4)^i) u_* t \geq \\ &1 + \frac{\epsilon^{i+1}/2 \cdot 4^i}{1 + \epsilon/2 + (\epsilon/4)^i} \geq (1 + (\epsilon/4)^{i+1}) u_* t. \end{aligned}$$

1146 For any  $t \in [S_{i+1}, S_i]$ , observe that we get at least  $u_*t$  from the first contract  $\pi^i$  and at least  
 1147  $(1 + \epsilon/2)u_*t$  in the second contract. Therefore we get at least

$$\frac{1 + \epsilon/2}{1 + \epsilon/2 + (\epsilon/4)^i} u_* t + \frac{(\epsilon/4)^i}{1 + \epsilon/2 + (\epsilon/4)^i} (1 + (\epsilon/2)) u_* t \geq (1 + (\epsilon/4)^i) u_* t.$$

1148 □

## 1149 G General Contracts

1150 In this section, we give a general contract instance with  $n = 4$  actions (3 non-null actions) and  $m = 4$   
 1151 outcomes (3 non-null outcomes), where the best dynamic contract provably outperforms the best  
 1152 free-fall dynamic contract. The instance in question is defined as follows:

- 1153 • The cost vector  $c = (c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4) = (0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.5)$ .
- 1154 • The reward vector  $r = (r_1, r_2, r_3) = (0, 1.0, 1.6, 2.0)$ .
- 1155 • The forecast matrix is given by  $F = \begin{pmatrix} 1.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.45 & 0.20 & 0.25 & 0.10 \\ 0.35 & 0.05 & 0.25 & 0.35 \\ 0.15 & 0.30 & 0.30 & 0.25 \end{pmatrix}$

1156 This instance was found by a programmatic search over a large collection of instances. For this  
 1157 instance, we can (again, programmatically) compute that the best free-fall dynamic contract achieves  
 1158 a net asymptotic utility for the principal of at most 0.753 per round. At the same time, we can  
 1159 exhibit a non-free-fall dynamic contract for this instance that achieves a utility of at least 0.764 per  
 1160 round. For conciseness, we present the details of our approach in Appendix G.1, where we construct  
 1161 well-tailored linear programs that provide the aforementioned intricate instance.

## 1162 G.1 Programmatic LP Search for Sub-Optimal Free Fall Against Non-Linear Contracts

1163 At a high level, the verification of the example of section 3.3 relies on the following fact: given a  
 1164 sequence of actions  $(a^1, a^2, \dots, a^K)$ , we can construct a polynomial-sized linear program to find the  
 1165 optimal continuous-time dynamic (general or free-fall) contract  $\{(\mathbf{p}^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^K$  with this specific  
 1166 action sequence.

1167 The variables of this LP are the  $\tau^k$  and  $\mathbf{p}^k$  corresponding to each action  $a^k$ . The constraints follow  
 1168 from the definition of a valid trajectory of play in Section 2.2 and are as follows:

- 1169 • **(Non-negativity)**  $\mathbf{p}^k, \tau^k \geq 0$ .
- 1170 • **(Time normalization)**  $\sum_{k=1}^K \tau^k = 1$ . We normalize the total duration of the trajectory to 1.
- 1171 • **(Beginning of segment is best response)**  $\sum_{k'=1}^{k-1} \tau^{k'} u_L(\mathbf{p}^{k'}, a^k) \geq$   
 1172  $\sum_{k'=1}^{k-1} \tau^{k'} u_L(\mathbf{p}^{k'}, a')$  for any  $a' \in [n]$ . This represents the constraint  $a^k \in \text{BR}(\bar{\mathbf{p}}^{k-1})$ .
- 1173 • **(End of segment is best response)**  $\sum_{k'=1}^k \tau^{k'} u_L(\mathbf{p}^{k'}, a^k) \geq \sum_{k'=1}^k \tau^{k'} u_L(\mathbf{p}^{k'}, a')$  for  
 1174 any  $a' \in [n]$ . This represents the constraint  $a^k \in \text{BR}(\bar{\mathbf{p}}^k)$ .

1175 The objective of the LP is the optimizer utility  $\sum_{k=1}^K \tau^k u_O(\mathbf{p}^k, a^k)$ . If we want to further impose  
 1176 that the contract is a free-fall contract, we can add the constraint that  $\mathbf{p}^k = 0$  for  $k > 1$ .

1177 For free-fall contracts, we have an additional constraint on what sequences of actions are possible.  
 1178 Note that a free-fall contract will never repeat an action – in particular, after the initial segment,  
 1179 the cumulative utility of each action  $i \in [n]$  decreases by  $c_i$  per round, so the sequence of actions  
 1180  $(a^1, a^2, \dots, a^K)$  a free-fall contract passes through must be sorted in *decreasing order of cost*. This  
 1181 means there are at most  $2^n$  sequences of actions to check, and by checking all of them we can  
 1182 provably compute the optimal free-fall contract for a given general contract instance.

1183 On the other hand, it's not clear if there are any constraints on how complex the sequence of actions  
 1184 for the optimal general dynamic contract can be – it is an interesting open question whether there  
 1185 exists any efficient (or even computable) algorithm for computing  $U^*$  for a general contract instance.  
 1186 Luckily, in order to show this separation, we need only exhibit a single general contract which  
 1187 outperforms the best free-fall contract. In the example above, we compute the best general contract  
 1188 for the same action sequence that the optimal free-fall contract passes through, and observe that the  
 1189 general contract obtains strictly larger utility.

## 1190 H Simplifying Tool: Reductions from Discrete to Continuous Time

### 1191 H.1 Proof of Theorem 2.4

1192 In this section we prove Theorem 2.4, showing that instead of working with discrete-time learning  
 1193 algorithms, it instead suffices to work with the set of continuous-time trajectories piecewise-linear  
 1194 trajectories described in Section 2.2. Our proof will generally follow the proof structure of [26]  
 1195 (which proves a similar reduction in the case of two-player bi-matrix games), with a few slight

1196 additional complexities due to some differences in notation (namely, we do not insist that every  
1197 segment lies in the interior of a best-response region).

1198 Before we begin the proof, it will be useful to establish a helpful auxiliary lemma about trajectories.  
1199 Call a segment  $(p^k, \tau^k, a^k)$  of a trajectory  $\pi$  *degenerate* if it lies on the boundary of two best-response  
1200 regions (i.e.,  $|\text{BR}(\bar{\mathbf{p}}^{k-1}) \cap \text{BR}(\bar{\mathbf{p}}^k)| \geq 2$ ), and *non-degenerate* otherwise. Let  $\text{Util}_0(\pi)$  be the utility  
1201 contributed by just non-degenerate segments. We begin by showing that starting with any trajectory  
1202  $\pi$ , we can construct a mostly non-degenerate trajectory  $\pi_0$  with  $\text{Util}_0(\pi_0)$  almost as large as  $\text{Util}(\pi)$ .

1203 **Lemma H.1.** *For any trajectory  $\pi$  and any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a trajectory  $\pi_0$  such that  $\text{Util}_0(\pi_0) \geq$   
1204  $(1 - \varepsilon)\text{Util}(\pi)$ .*

1205 *Proof.* Let  $\pi = \{(p^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}$ . We will produce  $\pi_0$  by interleaving a sequence of small perturbations  
1206  $(q^k, \delta^k)$  into  $\pi$  for some  $q^k \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^m$  and  $\delta^k > 0$ ; that is, we will let  $\pi_0$  be defined by the sequence of  
1207 segments  $(q^1, \delta^1), (p^1, \tau^1, a^1), (q^2, \delta^2), \dots, (q^k, \delta^k), (p^k, \tau^k, a^k)$ . Note that we have not specified  
1208 the best-response of the learner for the perturbation segments  $(q^k, \delta^k)$ , because we will not count the  
1209 utility from these segments (in fact, these perturbation segments might cross best-response boundaries,  
1210 in which case we can split them into smaller segments). We will show that if we choose  $q^i$  and  $\delta^i$   
1211 correctly,  $a^k$  is the unique best-response for each of the shifted  $(p^k, \tau^k, a^k)$  segments.

1212 Without loss of generality, assume  $\sum_k \tau^k = 1$ . For any  $t \in [0, 1]$ , we will let  $\bar{\mathbf{p}}(t)$  be the average  
1213 contract at time  $t$  under trajectory  $\pi$ . That is, if  $t = \tau^1 + \tau^2 + \dots + \tau^{i-1} + \tau$  with  $0 \leq \tau < \tau^i$ , then

$$\bar{\mathbf{p}}(t) = \frac{\tau^1 p^1 + \tau^2 p^2 + \dots + \tau^{i-1} p^{i-1} + \tau p^i}{t}.$$

1214 For each  $i \in [k]$ , we will also let  $\Delta^i = \delta^1 + \delta^2 + \dots + \delta^i$ , and  $Q^i = (\delta^1 q^1 + \delta^2 q^2 + \dots + \delta^i q^i) / \Delta^i$ .  
1215 Now, if  $t = \tau^1 + \tau^2 + \dots + \tau^{i-1} + \tau$  with  $0 \leq \tau < \tau^i$ , we will let  $\bar{\mathbf{p}}_0(t)$  be the average contract  
1216 under trajectory  $\pi_0$  at time  $\Delta^i + \tau$  (i.e., time  $\tau$  into segment  $(p^i, \tau^i, a^i)$ ). It is the case that for such  $t$ ,

$$\bar{\mathbf{p}}_0(t) = \frac{Q^i \Delta^i + t \bar{\mathbf{p}}(t)}{\Delta^k + t} = \bar{\mathbf{p}}(t) + \frac{\Delta^i}{\Delta^i + t} (Q^i - \bar{\mathbf{p}}(t)).$$

1217 We would like to choose  $Q^i$  and  $\Delta^i$  such that for each  $i \in [k]$ , for a large sub-interval of  $\tau \in [0, \tau^i]$ ,  
1218 the unique best response to  $\bar{\mathbf{p}}_0(t)$  is exactly  $a^i$ . To begin, note that for any sequence of *strictly positive*  
1219 *contracts*  $Q^i \in \mathbb{R}_{> 0}^m$ , there is a sequence of  $q^i$  and  $\delta^i$  that implements it (because we can make each  
1220  $Q^i$  any convex combination of  $Q^{i-1}$  and  $q^i$ ). Moreover, we can make  $\Delta^k$  arbitrarily small, because  
1221 scaling all the  $\delta^i$  simultaneously does not affect the values of the  $Q^i$ .

1222 Now, for each  $i$ , we will set  $Q^i$  to a positive contract that uniquely incentivizes action  $a^i$ . Note that  
1223 a non-negative contract exists by our assumption in Section 2; but since infinitesimal perturbations  
1224 maintain the property that the contract uniquely incentivizes  $a^i$ , there must also be a positive contract  
1225 with this property. We claim that if  $\text{BR}(Q^k) = \{a^k\}$  and  $a^k \in \text{BR}(\bar{\mathbf{p}}(t))$ , then for any  $\lambda \leq 1$ ,  
1226  $\text{BR}(\bar{\mathbf{p}}(t) + \lambda(Q^k - \bar{\mathbf{p}}(t))) = \{a^k\}$ . To see this, note that we can write  $\bar{\mathbf{p}}(t) + \lambda(Q^k - \bar{\mathbf{p}}(t)) =$   
1227  $(1 - \lambda)\bar{\mathbf{p}}(t) + \lambda Q^k$ . Since the utility of the agent is an affine linear function in the contract they are  
1228 offered, for any action  $a' \neq a$  we have that  $u_A((1 - \lambda)\bar{\mathbf{p}}(t) + \lambda Q^k, a^k) = (1 - \lambda)u_A(\bar{\mathbf{p}}(t), a^k) +$   
1229  $\lambda u_A(Q^k, a^k) > (1 - \lambda)u_A(\bar{\mathbf{p}}(t), a') + \lambda u_A(Q^k, a') = u_A((1 - \lambda)\bar{\mathbf{p}}(t) + \lambda Q^k, a^k)$ .

1230 It follows that if we choose the  $Q^i$  in this way,  $\text{BR}(\bar{\mathbf{p}}_0(t)) = \{a^k\}$ , and therefore each of the segments  
1231  $(p^i, \tau^i, a^i)$  is non-degenerate. We will set  $\Delta^k$  equal to  $\varepsilon$ . Doing so, we have that:

$$\text{Util}_0(\pi_0) \geq \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k u_P(p^i, a^i) \tau^i}{1 + \Delta_k} \geq (1 - \varepsilon) \text{Util}(\pi)$$

1232 □

1233 Equipped with Lemma H.1, we can now prove Theorem 2.4.

1234 *Proof of Theorem 2.4.* We follow the proof structure of [26] and prove both parts separately.

1235 **Part 1.** Let  $\pi = \{(p^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^K$  represent a valid strategy for the principal in the continuous-time  
 1236 problem. Without loss of generality, assume  $\sum_k \tau^k = 1$  (if not, we can divide all  $\tau^k$  through by  
 1237  $\sum_k \tau_k$  without changing the value of this strategy). We will convert  $\pi$  into the following discrete-time  
 1238 strategy for the principal: for each  $i \in [K]$  (in order), the principal offers the contract  $p^k$  for  $\tau^k T$   
 1239 rounds.

1240 Our goal is to show that for any  $\delta > 0$  and any mean-based algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$ , the above strategy results in  
 1241 at least  $(\text{Util}_0(\pi) - \delta)T - o(T)$  utility for the optimizer. The conclusion then follows by choosing a  
 1242 trajectory  $\pi$  for which  $\text{Util}_0(\pi) > U^* - \varepsilon/2$  (such a  $\pi$  exists by Lemma H.1 and the definition of  
 1243  $U^*$ ) and some  $\delta < \varepsilon/2$ . In the remainder of this proof, we will fix a specific mean-based algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$   
 1244 that is  $\gamma(T)$ -mean-based for some  $\gamma(T) = o(1)$ .

1245 As in Definition 2.2, let  $\sigma_{i,t}$  denote the aggregate utility of action  $i$  to the agent over the first  $t$  rounds.  
 1246 Let  $T^k = \sum_{j=1}^k \tau^j T$ , and consider the values of  $\sigma_t$  for rounds  $t \in [T^{k-1}, T^k]$  corresponding to the  
 1247  $k$ th segment. Note that  $\sigma_t$  is linear in this interval and so we can interpolate

$$\sigma_t = \frac{(t - T^{k-1})\sigma_{T^{k-1}} + (T^k - t)\sigma_{T^k}}{\tau^k T}. \quad (1)$$

1248 Furthermore, assume that segment  $k$  is non-degenerate, and so  $\text{BR}(\bar{\mathbf{p}}^{k-1}) \cap \text{BR}(\bar{\mathbf{p}}^k) = \{a^k\}$ . In  
 1249 particular, for any  $t \in [T^{k-1}, T^k]$  and  $a' \neq a^k$ , either  $\sigma_{T^{k-1}, a^k} > \sigma_{T^{k-1}, a'}$  or  $\sigma_{T^k, a^k} > \sigma_{T^k, a'}$ .  
 1250 As a consequence of (1), this means that for any  $\varepsilon_k > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta_k > 0$  such that for  
 1251  $t \in [T^{k-1} + \varepsilon_k \tau^k, T^k - \varepsilon_k \tau^k]$ ,  $\sigma_{t, a^k} \geq \sigma_{t, a'} + \delta_k T$ . For sufficiently large  $T$ ,  $\delta_k T > \gamma(T)T$ , and so  
 1252 the learner will put weight at least  $(1 - n\gamma(T))$  on action  $a^k$ . The total utility of the principal from  
 1253 these rounds is therefore at least

$$(1 - n\gamma(T))(1 - 2\varepsilon_k)\tau^k u_P(p^k, a^k) \geq \tau^k u_P(p^k, a^k) - (n\gamma(T) + 2\varepsilon_k)T. \quad (2)$$

1254 Summing over all non-degenerate segments  $k$ , we find the total utility of the principal is at least

$$\sum_k \tau^k u_P(p^k, a^k) - \sum_k k(n\gamma(T) + 2\varepsilon_k)T = \text{Util}_0(\pi) - \sum_k k(n\gamma(T) + 2\varepsilon_k)T.$$

1255 By choosing  $\varepsilon_k$  sufficiently small, we can guarantee that this is at least  $\text{Util}_0(\pi) - \delta T$  for sufficiently  
 1256 large  $T$ , as desired.

1257 **Part 2.** Fix any  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Assume that for some sufficiently large  $T_0$ , there exists a (possibly  
 1258 adaptive) dynamic strategy for the principal that guarantees utility at least  $(U^* + \varepsilon)T_0$  against every  
 1259 mean-based agent. We will show that this implies the existence of a continuous trajectory  $\pi$  and  
 1260  $\text{Util}(\pi) \geq U^* + \varepsilon$ , contradicting the definition of  $U^*$ . Fix  $\gamma(T) = T^{-1/2}$  and at any time  $t$ , let  
 1261  $J_t = \{j \in [n] \mid (\max_i \sigma_{t,i}) - \sigma_{t,j} < \gamma(T)T\}$  be the set of actions for the learner whose historical  
 1262 performance are within  $\gamma(T)T$  of the optimally performing action. The set  $J_t$  contains exactly the  
 1263 set of actions that the mean-based guarantee implies the agent must play with high probability. Our  
 1264 agent will do the following: if the principal is about to play contract  $p^t$ , the agent will play the action  
 1265  $j \in J_t$  that minimizes  $u_L(p^t, j)$  (note that because we are tailoring the agent to this principal, we can  
 1266 do this).

1267 Assume that this results in the principal playing the sequence of contracts  $p^1, p^2, \dots, p^{T_0}$ . Consider  
 1268 the trajectory  $\pi$  defined by the sequence of tuples  $(p^1, 1/T_0), (p^2, 1/T_0), \dots, (p^{T_0}, 1/T_0)$ . In this  
 1269 description of the trajectory, we've omitted the response action for the agent, which can be any  
 1270 best-response action for that segment. In fact, some segments may not be valid, as they start in one  
 1271 best response region and end in another; for those, we can subdivide them into however many parts  
 1272 are necessary to form a valid trajectory.

1273 Now, note that the sub-segments corresponding to the step  $(p^t, 1/T_0)$  only contain agent actions in  
 1274 the set  $J_t$ . This is since the agent utility at the start of this segment is  $\sigma_t$ , the agent utility at the end  
 1275 of this segment is  $\sigma_{t+1}$ , each component of  $\sigma_{t+1} - \sigma_t$  is at most 1 (since the problem is bounded),  
 1276 but any action  $j$  not in  $J_t$  is at least  $\gamma(T)$  away from optimal. The principal's utility contributed by  
 1277 this segment is therefore at least  $\frac{1}{T_0} \min_{j \in J_t} u_P(p^t, j)$ . But this is exactly the utility the principal

1278 obtained in round  $t$  of the discrete-time game. Therefore the total utility  $\text{Util}(\pi)$  of this trajectory is  
 1279 at least  $U^* + \varepsilon$  – but this contradicts the definition of  $U^*$ , as desired.  $\square$

1280 We will need the following lemma which says we can restrict our attention to finite-support  $\mathcal{D}$  without  
 1281 loss of generality.

1282 **Lemma H.2.** *Fix a principal-agent problem, a  $\gamma > 1$ , and an  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Let  $\mathcal{D}$  be any distribution over*  
 1283 *trajectories. Then there exists a finite-support distribution  $\mathcal{D}'$  over trajectories with the property that*  
 1284  *$\text{Util}_\gamma(\mathcal{D}') \geq \text{Util}_\gamma(\mathcal{D})$ .*

1285 *Proof.* We first claim the following: if a distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  has the property that  $\mathbb{E}_{\pi \sim \mathcal{D}}[u_P^{(t)}(\pi)] \geq Ut$  for  
 1286 each  $t$  in the discretized set of time-intervals  $S_{\varepsilon, \gamma} = \{1/\gamma, 1/\gamma + \varepsilon/\gamma, 1/\gamma + 2\varepsilon/\gamma, \dots, 1 - \varepsilon/\gamma, 1\}$ ,  
 1287 then it is the case that  $\mathbb{E}_{\pi \sim \mathcal{D}}[u_P^{(t)}(\pi)] \geq (U - \varepsilon)t$  for all  $t \in [1/\gamma, 1]$ . This follows from the fact that  
 1288 the principal's profit per round is bounded above by 1, so  $|u_P^{(t')}\pi - u_P^{(t)}\pi| \leq |t' - t|$ . In particular,  
 1289 if  $t'$  is the closest element of  $S_{\gamma, \varepsilon}$  to a  $t \in [1/\gamma, 1]$ , it is the case that  $|u_P^{(t')}\pi - u_P^{(t)}\pi| \leq \varepsilon/\gamma \leq \varepsilon t$ .

1290 Now, associate to each trajectory  $\pi$  the  $|S_{\varepsilon, \gamma}|$ -tuple of real numbers  $f(\pi) = \{u_P^{(t)}(\pi)\}_{t \in S_{\varepsilon, \gamma}}$ ; define  
 1291  $f(\mathcal{D}) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi \sim \mathcal{D}}[f(\pi)]$ . Define  $\mathcal{X} = \{f(\pi) \mid \pi \text{ is a trajectory}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{|S|}$  to be the set of all such tuples.  
 1292 By Caratheodory's theorem, we can construct a distribution over at most  $|S| + 1$  elements of  $\mathcal{X}$   
 1293 that (is arbitrarily close to)  $f(\mathcal{D})$ , for any  $\mathcal{D}$ . If we let  $\mathcal{D}'$  be the corresponding distribution over  
 1294 trajectories, this satisfies the constraints of the theorem statement.  $\square$

## 1295 H.2 Reduction from Discrete to Continuous Time with Unknown Time Horizons

1296 In this section, we extend the previous reduction to the case where the time horizon can belong to an  
 1297 interval. One of the biggest differences is the introduction of this parameter  $\gamma \geq 1$  which equals the  
 1298 multiplicative ratio  $(\overline{T}/\underline{T})$ . Instead of a trajectory  $\pi = \{(p^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^K$  being solely evaluated at  
 1299 its end time  $\mathcal{T}^K$ , we now care about its performance over its final interval of multiplicative width  $\gamma$ ,  
 1300 namely  $[\frac{1}{\gamma}\mathcal{T}^K, \mathcal{T}^K]$ .

1301 In order to quantify the performance of a trajectory at a certain time  $t$ , we will introduce some  
 1302 corresponding parenthetical superscript notation. In particular,  $u_P^{(t)}(\pi)$  will denote the cumulative  
 1303 expected principal utility of trajectory  $\pi$  from time zero to  $t$ , and is formally defined as

$$u_P^{(t)}(\pi) \triangleq \begin{cases} \sum_{k=1}^{k'-1} \tau^k u_P(p^k, a^k) + (t - \mathcal{T}^{k'}) u_P(p^{k'}, a^{k'}) & \text{if } t \in [\mathcal{T}^{k'}, \mathcal{T}^{k'+1}) \\ \sum_{k=1}^{k'-1} \tau^k u_P(p^k, a^k) & \text{if } t = \mathcal{T}^K. \end{cases}$$

Then, the worst-case (under possible time horizons) expected (under drawing from the distribution and actions producing random outcomes) utility of the principal for distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  is given by

$$\text{Util}_\gamma(\mathcal{D}) = \min_{x \in [1/\gamma, 1]} \mathbb{E}_{\pi \sim \mathcal{D}} \frac{u_P^{(x\mathcal{T}^K)}(\pi)}{x\mathcal{T}^K},$$

1304 where each  $\mathcal{T}^K$  is according to the drawn trajectory  $\pi$ .

1305 Finally, let  $U_\gamma^* = \sup_{\mathcal{D}} \text{Util}_\gamma(\mathcal{D})$ , where the sup runs over all distributions of valid trajectories of  
 1306 arbitrary finite length. We can think of  $U_\gamma^*$  as the maximum possible worst-case utility of the principal  
 1307 in the unknown time horizon continuous setting game.

1308 **Theorem H.3.** *Fix any principal-agent problem and  $\gamma \geq 1$ . We have the following two results:*

- 1309 1. *For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an oblivious strategy for the principal that gets at least  $(U_\gamma^* -$   
 1310  $\varepsilon)t - o(t)$  utility for the principal for all  $t \in [T, \lceil \gamma T \rceil]$  for sufficiently large  $T$ .*
- 1311 2. *For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a mean-based algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  such that no (even adaptive<sup>12</sup>)  
 1312 principal can get more than  $(U_\gamma^* + \varepsilon)t + o(t)$  utility against an agent running  $\mathcal{A}$  for all  
 1313  $t \in [T, \lceil \gamma T \rceil]$  for any  $T$ .*

<sup>12</sup>As with the known time-horizon result, this holds against adaptive principals in the full-feedback setting, or if the principal is deterministic. See Appendix H.3 for details.

1314 *Proof of Theorem H.3. Part 1.* Begin by picking a strategy  $\mathcal{D}$  for the optimizer in the continuous-  
1315 time game that achieves utility at least  $U_\gamma^* - \varepsilon/2$ . This strategy  $\mathcal{D}$  is a distribution over trajectories  $\pi$ ;  
1316 by Lemma H.2, we can assume (at the cost of losing an arbitrarily small  $O(\varepsilon)$  term) that  $\mathcal{D}$  has finite  
1317 support. For each of these trajectories, we apply Lemma H.1 to transform  $\pi$  into a new trajectory  $\pi'$   
1318 which obtains at least  $(1 - \varepsilon)$  fraction of the utility of  $\pi$  on non-degenerate segments. We will also  
1319 normalize the total duration of each  $\pi'$  to 1.

1320 Now, note that since inequality (2) holds per segment (and indeed, even fractionally per segment), we  
1321 can convert each resulting trajectory  $\pi'$  to a discrete-time strategy over  $\bar{T}$  rounds, with the property  
1322 that for sufficiently large values of  $\bar{T}$ , for any  $t \in [\underline{T} = \bar{T}/\gamma, \bar{T}]$ , the utility of this discrete-time  
1323 strategy until time  $t$  is at least  $u_P^{(t)}(\pi)$ . Taking the corresponding distribution over these discrete-time  
1324 strategies (choosing a sufficiently large  $\bar{T}$  for all such strategies – note that we can do this because  $\mathcal{D}$   
1325 has finite support), we obtain a discrete-time randomized (but otherwise oblivious) strategy for the  
1326 principal that satisfies the theorem statement.

1327 **Part 2.** As in the previous proof, fix an  $\varepsilon > 0$ , assume to the contrary there exists a  $T_0$  along with a  
1328 discrete-time (possibly randomized / adaptive) dynamic strategy which achieves at least  $(U_\gamma^* + \varepsilon)t$   
1329 utility for the principal for all  $t \in [T_0/\gamma, T_0]$  against any mean-based bidder. Construct the same  
1330 mean-based bidder as in the proof of part 2 of Theorem 2.4, which always picks the action in the set  
1331 of approximate best-responses that least to the minimum expected utility for the principal.

1332 When this principal plays against this agent, this leads to a distribution over sequences of con-  
1333 tracts  $(p^1, p^2, \dots, p^{T_0})$ . Each such sequence can be converted to a trajectory  $\pi$  of the form  
1334  $\{(p^1, 1/T_0), (p^2, 1/T_0), \dots, (p^{T_0}, 1/T_0)\}$ . This trajectory  $\pi$  not only has the property that  $\text{Util}(\pi)T$   
1335 upper bounds the utility of the discrete-time agent (as in the proof of part 2 of Theorem 2.4), but  
1336 in fact  $u_P^{(t)}(\pi)$  is at least the utility of the agent discrete-time agent at time  $tT_0$  (by exactly the  
1337 same logic). It follows that if we let  $\mathcal{D}$  be the distribution over such trajectories, it is the case that  
1338  $\text{Util}_\gamma(\mathcal{D}) \geq U_\gamma^* + \varepsilon$ . This contradicts the definition of  $U_\gamma^*$ , as desired.  $\square$

1339 Finally, we conclude this supplementary section with the proof of a preliminary lemma exploited in  
1340 Section 3.1

1341 **Lemma H.4.** (*Restated Lemma B.2*) Consider any dynamic contract. For any time interval in which  
1342 a mean-based agent plays a single action, we can replace the contracts in this interval with their  
1343 average and obtain overall a revenue-equivalent dynamic contract.

1344 *Proof.* The result follows since the utility for the principal  $u_P$  is affine in its first argument.  
1345 Formally, let  $\pi = \{(p^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^K$  be a dynamic contract, with  $a^k = a^{k+1} = a$  for  
1346 some  $k$ . Consider a different contract  $\pi'$  where we replace the consecutive pair of segments  
1347  $(p^k, \tau^k, a^k)$  and  $(p^{k+1}, \tau^{k+1}, a^{k+1})$  with the their average segment, i.e.,  $(\bar{p}, \tau^k + \tau^{k+1}, a)$ , where  
1348  $\bar{p} = (p^k \tau^k + p^{k+1} \tau^{k+1}) / (\tau^k + \tau^{k+1})$ , and all other segments remain the same as in  $\pi$ . Then,  
1349 we have  $\text{Util}(\pi') - \text{Util}(\pi) = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^K \tau^k} (\tau^k u_P(p^k, a) + \tau^{k+1} u_P(p^{k+1}, a) - (\tau^k + \tau^{k+1}) \bar{p}) = 0$ .  
1350 That is, both contracts give same utility for the principal. A similar argument holds for the discrete  
1351 formulation of the model as well.  $\square$

### 1352 H.3 Mean-Based Algorithms in the Partial-Feedback Setting

1353 We conclude with some clarifying remarks on the definition of a mean-based learning algorithm  
1354 in a stochastic, partial-feedback setting (the bandits setting). The proofs of Theorems 2.4 and H.3  
1355 continue to hold essentially as written, but there are some subtleties that are worth pointing out.

1356 We begin by clarifying the definition of mean-based in a partial-information setting. Formally, we  
1357 write it as follows. Recall that  $\sigma_i^t = \sum_{t'=1}^{t-1} u_i^{t'}$  is equal to the expected utility the learner would  
1358 receive if they had played action  $i$  for the first  $t - 1$  rounds, assuming the sequence of contracts the  
1359 principal offers the learner remains static (so in particular, for an adaptive / stochastic principal,  $\sigma^t$  is  
1360 a random variable).

1361 **Definition H.5.** (*Mean-based algorithms in partial-information settings*) A learning algorithm in a  
1362 partial-information setting is  $\gamma(T)$ -mean-based if the following conditions hold: Fix any adaptive  
1363 dynamic strategy of the principal and let (for each round  $t \in [T]$ ),  $X_t$  be the event that  $\sigma_i^t <$

1364  $\sigma_{i'}^t - \gamma(T) \cdot T$ , and  $Y_t$  be the event that the algorithm takes action  $i$  in round  $t$ . Then the algorithm is  
 1365 mean based if the probability  $\Pr[X_t \wedge Y_t]$  (over all randomness in the learner’s algorithm, principal’s  
 1366 strategy, and problem setting) is at most  $\gamma(T)$ . We say an algorithm is mean-based if it is  $\gamma(T)$ -mean-  
 1367 based for some  $\gamma(T) = o(1)$ .

1368 The above definition is very similar to Definition 2.2; the main reason for stating it like this is  
 1369 to avoid implying the slightly stronger constraint that event  $X_t$  deterministically implies that the  
 1370 probability of  $Y_t$  is small conditioned on the current history of play. This implication is fine in the  
 1371 full-information setting where algorithms like multiplicative weights will indeed deterministically  
 1372 place small weight on action  $i'$  if the event  $X_t$  holds; but in the partial-information setting, there is  
 1373 always a chance that the learner is unable to accurately observe whether  $X_t$  holds, and therefore  
 1374 no partial-information algorithm can achieve that guarantee. On the other hand, standard bandit  
 1375 algorithms with high-probability guarantees such as EXP3 (see [16]) satisfy the above definition of  
 1376 mean-based learning.

1377 The proof of Theorem 2.4 works equally well with Definition H.5. The only subtlety is in Part 2,  
 1378 where to show a principal cannot do well against all mean-based agents, we design a mean-based  
 1379 agent that foils this specific principal. If the principal is randomized and adaptive, the agent cannot  
 1380 accurately predict the expected contract  $p^t$  the principal will play in round  $t$  (note that if the principal  
 1381 is adaptive but deterministic, the agent can still simulate the principal’s behavior – likewise, if the  
 1382 principal is oblivious and randomized, the agent can compute the expected contract  $p^t$  at any round).  
 1383 The proof of Theorem H.3 is similar.

## 1384 I Final Remarks

1385 The following are observations about our repeated contract games with learning agents that arise  
 1386 from our analysis and from known results on learning agents in general games.

1387 **Observation I.1.** *In the fixed contract setting, for any regret-minimizing agent in the limit  $T \rightarrow \infty$*   
 1388 *the support of the average empirical distribution of play includes only best-response actions with*  
 1389 *probability one. Therefore, the repeated game with a static contract against a regret-minimizing*  
 1390 *agent is essentially equivalent to the single-shot game against a rational agent.*

1391 *Proof.* This follows directly from the regret-minimization property. Indeed, suppose, for the sake of  
 1392 contradiction, that there exists an action  $a$  in the support which is not a best response. Denote the  
 1393 best-response utility by  $OPT$ . Action  $a$  is played with probability  $p > 0$ . Notice that since there is  
 1394 only one player, the regret from any other action cannot be negative. Then we have that the regret is  
 1395  $\text{Regret} \geq p(OPT - u(a))T = \mathcal{O}(T)$ , a contradiction.  $\square$

1396 **Observation I.2.** *If the agent is using a no-swap-regret algorithm, then the optimal static contract*  
 1397 *played repeatedly is also optimal in the dynamic setting. As a corollary, this is the case also for*  
 1398 *general no-regret algorithms if the agent has at most two actions.*

1399 *Proof.* The result follows from [26], who show that in any game between an optimizer and a no-  
 1400 swap-regret algorithm, the optimizer cannot extract higher payoff than the Stackelberg value of the  
 1401 game where the optimizer plays the first move. The corollary is since with (at most) two actions  
 1402 internal regret and external regret are equivalent.  $\square$

1403 Below we show that in our analysis of dynamic linear contracts, it suffices to only examine linear  
 1404 contracts with  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ . Note that although this is obvious in the static setting (offering  $\alpha > 1$   
 1405 requires the principal to suffer negative utility), it is not a priori clear that the principal cannot benefit  
 1406 via a dynamic strategy which offers a contract with  $\alpha > 1$  for some fraction of the time horizon  
 1407 (perhaps counterbalancing it by offering a contract with a much smaller  $\alpha$  later on). In fact, [41]  
 1408 show that when the agents have private information (“types”) the principal *can* benefit by offering a  
 1409 randomized menu of linear contracts which possibly contains linear contracts with  $\alpha > 1$ .

1410 Nonetheless, we show that the principal cannot benefit by doing this in the dynamic setting. The  
 1411 proof below follows from a slight modification of Lemma B.3 in our proof of Theorem 3.1.

1412 **Observation I.3.** *Let  $\pi = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)_{k=1}^K\}$  be any linear dynamic contract with some linear*  
 1413 *contract  $\alpha^i > 1$ . Then there exists a dynamic linear contract  $\pi' = \{(\alpha^k, \tau^k, a^k)\}_{k=1}^K$  with  $\text{Util}(\pi') \geq$*   
 1414  *$\text{Util}(\pi)$  and where  $\alpha^k \leq 1$  for all  $k$ .*

1415 *Proof.* We first observe that in Lemma B.3, when an agent is indifferent between actions  $i$  and  $i + 1$   
1416 then the change in utility for the principal by choosing an action  $i + 1$  over  $i$  is proportional to  
1417  $(1 - \alpha^i)$ . This is negative if  $\alpha^i > 1$  and therefore the principal will prefer to agent to play action  $i$   
1418 when  $\alpha^i > 1$ . However if  $\alpha^i < 1$ , then the principal will prefer that the agent play action  $i + 1$ . Thus  
1419 in this modified rewriting lemma, contracts with breakpoints greater than 1, will prefer the lower  
1420 action and breakpoints lower than 1, will prefer the higher action. By modifying Lemma B.3, we can  
1421 rewrite any linear contract  $\pi$  using the rewriting rules of Theorem 3.1 into a new linear contract  $\pi'$   
1422 with a breakpoints that are at most 1, without any loss in utility.  $\square$

## 1423 J Conclusion

1424 In this paper, we provide a clean and tractable answer to our main question. When the agent’s choice  
1425 among  $n$  actions can lead to the success or failure of a project, the principal’s optimal dynamic  
1426 contract is surprisingly simple. Specifically, the principal should offer a carefully designed contract  
1427 for a certain fraction of the  $T$  rounds (both the contract and the fraction are poly-time computable),  
1428 then switch to a zero contract (i.e., pay the agent nothing) for the remaining rounds. Our main result  
1429 also generalizes to settings with a rich set of outcomes beyond success/failure, as long as the principal  
1430 changes the contract dynamically by scaling it (“single-dimensional scaling”). However, we show  
1431 that without this single-dimensional scaling restriction, there exist principal-agent instances where  
1432 the optimal dynamic contract does not take this form. In these cases, with non-linear contracts, the  
1433 principal can do strictly better than offering the same contract for several rounds before switching to  
1434 a zero contract.

1435 As our second main result, we address a significant gap in the current literature on optimizing against  
1436 no-regret learners: the assumption that the optimizer knows the time horizon  $T$ . We show that when  
1437 there is uncertainty about  $T$ , even if limited, the principal’s ability to use dynamic contracts to  
1438 guarantee more revenue than the optimal static contract diminishes. We characterize the optimal  
1439 dynamic contract under uncertainty of  $T$ , demonstrating that the principal’s added value from being  
1440 dynamic sharply degrades with an appropriate measure of uncertainty.

1441 **Open Problems.** The computational study of repeated contracts, particularly with learning agents,  
1442 raises many open questions. These include determining the optimal dynamic contract when the  
1443 principal is not restricted to one-dimensional dynamics, and the computational complexity of finding  
1444 it. Additionally, it involves identifying the optimal dynamic contract against a learning agent with a  
1445 hidden type, thereby unifying our contract model with the auction model of [14]. Another intriguing  
1446 area is understanding what the optimal dynamic contract would be against a team of multiple learning  
1447 agents. Finally, it is crucial to explore the effects on welfare and utilities when there are two learning  
1448 players, rather than a learner and an optimizer.

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