Learning Two-Player Mixture Markov Games: Kernel Function Approximation and Correlated Equilibrium

Anonymous Author(s)
Affiliation
Address
email

Abstract

We consider learning Nash equilibria in two-player zero-sum Markov Games with nonlinear function approximation, where the action-value function is approximated by a function in a Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS). The key challenge is how to do exploration in the high-dimensional function space. We propose a novel online learning algorithm to find a Nash equilibrium by minimizing the duality gap. At the core of our algorithms are upper and lower confidence bounds that are derived based on the principle of optimism in the face of uncertainty. We prove that our algorithm is able to attain an $O(\sqrt{T})$ regret with polynomial computational complexity, under very mild assumptions on the reward function and the underlying dynamic of the Markov Games. We also propose several extensions of our algorithm, including an algorithm with Bernstein-type bonus that can achieve a tighter regret bound, and another algorithm for model misspecification that can be applied to neural network function approximation.

1 Introduction

Multi-agent reinforcement learning (MARL) has been the focus of research across a range of research communities (Shapley, 1953; Littman, 1994). The case of two-player Markov Games (MG) has been of particular interest. In this case, two players select their actions based on the current state simultaneously and independently. One player (the max-player) aims to maximize the return based on the reward provided by the environment, while the other (the min-player) aims to minimize it. A series of recent results have established polynomial sample complexity/regret guarantees that depend on the cardinality of state/action spaces for two-player zero-sum MGs (Wei et al., 2017; Bai & Jin, 2020; Bai et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020; Jia et al., 2019; Sidford et al., 2020; Cui & Yang, 2020; Lagoudakis & Parr, 2002; Perolat et al., 2015; Pérolat et al., 2016a,b, 2017).

Meanwhile, most of the recent successful applications of MARL deal with *large state/action spaces* that may be continuous or a fine-grained discretization of a continous space. Examples include GO (Silver et al., 2016), autonomous driving (Shalev-Shwartz et al., 2016), TexasHold'em poker (Brown & Sandholm, 2019), and AlphaStar for the game Starcraft (Vinyals et al., 2019). In order to tackle problems with large state/action spaces, researchers have designed MARL algorithms based on *function approximation* which approximate the original high-dimensional value function/policy by a function approximator. For instance, Xie et al. (2020) and Chen et al. (2021) studied RL for two-player zero-sum MGs with *linear function approximation*, where it is assumed that there are a set of *linear features* that span the transition kernel and reward function spaces. In contrast to RL with linear function approximation, RL with *nonlinear function approximation* (e.g., kernel and neural network approximation) aims to take advantage of the superior representational power of

Submitted to 36th Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS 2022). Do not distribute.

nonlinear function compared to linear parameterizations. For example, Jin et al. (2021b) studied neural-network-based RL in the setting of *MGs with low multi-agent Bellman eluder dimension*, obtaining algorithms that have polynomial dependence on the complexity of the underlying function class. Although this yields a strong theoretical guarantee, the algorithm that they propose is not computationally efficient due to the constructed highly nonconvex confidence sets. The following question is still open: *Can we design a computationally and statistically efficient RL algorithm for learning two-player Markov Games with nonlinear function approximation?*

In this paper, we give an affirmative answer to this question for a class of episodic Markov Games, dubbed *mixture Markov Games*, when using nonlinear approximation function in a Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS). We propose a novel kernel-based MARL algorithmic framework for general episodic two-player zero-sum MGs, which provides provable regret guarantees. We summarize the contributions of our work as follows:

- We propose a `KernelCCE-VTR` algorithm for two-player zero-sum MGs. In particular, at each episode, `KernelCCE-VTR` uses kernel function approximation to approximate the optimal value function and constructs corresponding confidence sets, following the *"Optimism-in-Face-of-Uncertainty"* principle (Abbasi-Yadkori et al., 2011) to select an action based on the current state. In contrast to algorithms in Jin et al. (2021b), which construct implicit confidence sets that are in general computationally intractable, our algorithm `KernelCCE-VTR` crafts a computationally efficient exploration bonus based on the gram matrix of the kernel function.
- Under the assumption that the transition dynamics belongs to some RKHS, we show that our algorithm `KernelCCE-VTR` is able to find a Nash equilibrium of the game with a $\widetilde{O}(d_{\mathcal{F}} H^2 \sqrt{T})$ regret bound on the duality gap, where H is the horizon, T is the number of the episodes, and $d_{\mathcal{F}}$ represents the complexity of the function class $\mathcal{F}$. We also propose an extension of `KernelCCE-VTR` that utilizes *weighted kernel ridge regression* and a *Bernstein-type bonus* to achieve $\widetilde{O}(d_{\mathcal{F}} H^{3/2} \sqrt{T})$ regret. When $\mathcal{F}$ reduces to the d-dimensional linear function class, our regret reduces to $\widetilde{O}(dH^{3/2}\sqrt{T})$, which almost matches the lower bound in Chen et al. (2021).
- We also study the general case where the transition dynamic belongs to some RKHS up to a misspecification error. We show that our `KernelCCE-VTR` can achieve a similar regret as in the well-specified case. In particular, we study the neural network function approximation case which can be regarded as a special instance of the misspecified RKHS case and derive the corresponding regret bound.

Notation. We use lower case letters to denote scalars, lower and upper case bold letters to denote vectors and matrices. We use $\|\cdot\|$ to indicate Euclidean norm, and for a semi-positive definite matrix $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ and any vector $\mathbf{x}$, $\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\mathbf{\Sigma}} := \|\mathbf{\Sigma}^{1/2}\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{x}}$. For real t and interval $[a, b]$, we use $\Pi_{[a,b]}[t]$ to indicate the projection of t onto $[a, b]$, i.e. $\Pi_{[a,b]}[t] = \max(a, \min(b, t))$. For positive integer N we sometimes define $[N] = \{1, \ldots, N\}$ for compactness. We also adopt the standard big-O and big-Ω notations: say $a_n = O(b_n)$ if and only if there exists $C > 0, N > 0$, for any $n > N$, $a_n \leq Cb_n$; $a_n = \Omega(b_n)$ if $a_n \geq Cb_n$. The notations $\widetilde{O}$ and $\widetilde{\Omega}$ are adopted when the C above hides a polylogarithmic factor.

2 Related work

Online RL with function approximation. MARL with function approximation can be seen as an extension of RL with function approximation on MDPs. There are several lines of work studying RL with function approximation. The first line of work studies the so-called linear MDP which assumes the reward function and transition dynamics are linear functions of a feature mapping defined on the state and action spaces (Yang & Wang, 2020; Jin et al., 2020; Zanette et al., 2020). These works propose model-free algorithms with sublinear regret on the number of episodes K. The second line of work studies the linear mixture MDP which assumes the transition kernel is a linear combination of several base models (Modi et al., 2020; Jia et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2021b,a). These studies proposed model-based RL algorithms that estimate the transition kernel with finite sample complexity or sublinear regret guarantees. The third line of work studies general function approximation which assumes that either the value function or the transition kernel can be approximated by a general class of functions (Osband & Van Roy, 2014; Jiang et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2020; Du et al., 2021; Jin et al., 2021a). Algorithms proposed in this line enjoy finite regret or sample complexity bounds that depend on some general complexity measures such as Eluder

dimension (Russo & Van Roy, 2013; Osband & Van Roy, 2014), Bellman rank (Jiang et al., 2017), witness rank (Sun et al., 2019), information gain (Yang et al., 2020), bilinear class (Du et al., 2021) and Bellman eluder dimension (Jin et al., 2021a).

Learning two-player MGs with function approximation. There is a large body of literature on MARL for two-player MGs with function approximation. These works can be generally categorized into MARL with *linear function approximation* and MARL with *general function approximation*. For example, for linear function approximation, Xie et al. (2020) studied zero-sum simultaneous-move MGs where both the reward and transition kernel can be parameterized as linear functions of some feature mappings. They proposed an OMVI-NI algorithm with an $\widetilde{O}(\sqrt{d^3H^3T})$ regret, where d is the number of the feature dimension, H is the episode length and T is the total number of rounds. Chen et al. (2021) studied the linear mixture MGs and proposed a nearly minimax optimal Nash-UCRL-VTR algorithm with an $\widetilde{O}(dH\sqrt{T})$ regret and an $\Omega(dH\sqrt{T})$ matching lower bound. In contrast to this work, our `KernelCCE-VTR` does not assume the underlying transition dynamic or reward function have a linear structure. For MARL with general function approximation, Jin et al. (2021b) studied the two-player zero-sum MGs with low multi-agent Bellman Eluder dimension and proposed a "Golf with Exploiter" algorithm using a general function class. They showed their algorithm enjoys an $\widetilde{O}(H\sqrt{dK\log N})$ regret, where d is the multi-agent Bellman eluder dimension, K is the number of episodes. Huang et al. (2021) studied two-player MGs with a finite minimax Eluder dimension and proposed an ONEMG method with an $\widetilde{O}(H\sqrt{dK\log N})$ regret, where d is the minimax Eluder dimension. To obtain the desired function approximator, both Golf with Exploiter and ONEMG need to solve a constrained optimization problem, which is computationally intractable even in the linear function approximation setting. In contrast to Jin et al. (2021b) and Huang et al. (2021), our proposed algorithms are computationally efficient and nearly-optimal by using the Bernstein-type bonus. Qiu et al. (2021) also studied kernel function approximation for two-player MGs. However, there are two key differences between our work and theirs. First, Qiu et al. (2021) studied MGs where the expectation of the value function is in some RKHS; we, on the other hand, assume that the transition dynamic of the MG lies in an RKHS. Second, while the regret result in Qiu et al. (2021) depends on the covering number of the function space, our regret is *independent* of the covering number.

3 Preliminaries

In this section, we present the necessary definitions that will be adopted throughout the paper. Section 3.1 describes simultaneous-move games in the setting of zero-sum two-player Markov Games (MG) and recaps the concepts of equilibrium and duality gap that are employed in the game theory literature. Section 3.2 provides necessary definitions and notations in approximating action value function with functions belonging to a reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS) via modeling the transition probability.

3.1 Two-player Markov Games

A simpler instance of Markov Games, referred to as turn-based games, can be seen as a special case of simultaneous-move games.[1] In a zero-sum two-player simultaneous-move Markov Game, the dynamical structure can be captured by an MG, denoted $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, r, \mathbb{P}, H)$, where $\mathcal{S}$ is the space of available states of the environment, $\mathcal{A}_1$ is the action space of the first player and $\mathcal{A}_2$ is the action space of the second player. H is the time horizon representing the maximum step of each round of play. The reward function $r : \{r_h(x, a, b) : h \in [H]\}$ is a sequence of mappings from $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}_1 \times \mathcal{A}_2$ to $[-1, 1]$. The transition matrix $\mathbb{P} : \{\mathbb{P}_h(\cdot|x, a, b) : h \in [H]\}$ gives for each state actions triplet (x, a, b) and at each time h the stochastic response of the environment to the next $x' \in \mathcal{S}$. Here by "simultaneous move" we refer to the setting where at each round of game the two players P_1 and P_2 take actions $a \in \mathcal{A}_1, b \in \mathcal{A}_2$ simultaneously at a given state $x \in \mathcal{S}$, in contrast with the turn-based game where r_h and $\mathbb{P}_h$ are defined for a state-action pair (x, a) where the action can be taken by either players. In the context of this paper, for simplicity of notation we let $\mathcal{A}_1 = \mathcal{A}_2 = \mathcal{A}$, while the results can be easily generalized to the case when $\mathcal{A}_1 \neq \mathcal{A}_2$. Similar definitions of a zero-sum two-player simultaneous-move episodic Markov Games can be found in Wei et al. (2017); Perolat et al. (2018); Xie et al. (2020).

[1] We present a discussion of the implications of our results for turn-based games in the supplementary materials.

In the above setting, two players P_1 and P_2 take actions according to their own strategies. We use $\pi := \{\pi_h\}_{h\in[H]}$ to denote the stochastic policy of P_1 and use $\nu := \{\nu_h\}_{h\in[H]}$ to denote the stochastic policy of P_2. We note that at time h, $\pi_h : \mathcal{S} \mapsto \Delta_{\mathcal{A}}$ maps the current state x_h to a probability distribution of the actions, and similarly for ν_h. Given two agents' policies, π, ν, across h steps, the state value function is defined as the expected total reward through H steps where at step $h \in [H]$ player P_1 follows policy $\pi_h(\cdot|x_h)$ and player P_2 follows policy $\nu_h(\cdot|x_h)$,

$$V_h^{\pi,\nu}(x) := \mathbb{E}_{\pi,\nu}\left[\sum_{t=h}^{H} r_t(s_t, a_t, b_t) \mid x_h = x\right],$$

and where $V^{\pi,\nu}(x) := V_1^{\pi,\nu}(x)$. Note that the expectation is taken over all stochasticity in π_h, ν_h and $\mathbb{P}_h$. The action value function is defined as

$$Q_h^{\pi,\nu}(x, a, b) := \mathbb{E}_{\pi,\nu}\left[\sum_{t=h}^{H} r_t(x_t, a_t, b_t) \,\middle|\, x_h = x, a_h = a, b_h = b\right],$$

and $Q^{\pi,\nu}(x, a, b) := Q_1^{\pi,\nu}$. From the definition of two value functions, we observe that for any $x \in \mathcal{S}$, the state value function given policy pair (π, ν) is the expectation of the corresponding action value function

$$V_h^{\pi,\nu}(x) := \mathbb{E}_{(a,b)\sim(\pi,\nu)} Q_h^{\pi,\nu}(x, a, b),$$

where the expectation is taken over the action distribution induced by the policy pair.

Nash equilibrium and duality gap. In a zero-sum two-player Markov Game, P_1 wants to maximize the expected reward $V^{\pi,\nu}(x)$ via the choice of the policy π. On the contrary, P_2 wants to minimize $V^{\pi,\nu}(x)$ by properly choosing ν. For fixed ν, we define the best response policy with respect to V and ν as $\text{br}(\nu)$ and define $V_h^{*,\nu} := V_h^{\text{br}(\nu),\nu}$ and $Q_h^{*,\nu} := Q_h^{\text{br}(\nu),\nu}$, We define $V_h^{\pi,*} := V_h^{\pi,\text{br}(\pi)}$ and $Q_h^{\pi,*} := Q_h^{\pi,\text{br}(\pi)}$ similarly. A Nash equilibrium is a pair of policies (π^*, ν^*) that are the best response policy for each other, which we write as $V^{\pi^*,*}(x) = V^{\pi^*,\nu^*}(x) = V^{*,\nu^*}(x)$. For notational simplicity we write $V^* := V^{\pi^*,\nu^*}, Q^* := Q^{\pi^*,\nu^*}$. By definition of the best response policy, we obtain weak duality:

$$V_h^{\pi,*}(x) \le V_h^*(x) \le V_h^{*,\nu}(x).$$

For any policy pair (π, ν), we define the duality gap as $V_1^{*,\nu^t}(x_1^t) - V_1^{\pi^t,*}(x_1^t)$. We call a pair an *$\epsilon$-approximate Nash equilibrium (NE)* if $V_1^{*,\nu^t}(x_1^t) - V_1^{\pi^t,*}(x_1^t) \le \epsilon$. We also define the *Regret* in the MG setting as follows:

$$\text{Regret}(T) := \sum_{t=1}^{T} V_1^{*,\nu^t}(x_1^t) - V_1^{\pi^t,*}(x_1^t).$$

Coarse Correlated Equilibrium. We introduce the *Coarse Correlated Equilibrium (CCE)* notion which will be used in our proposed algorithms. Given payoff matrices $Q_1, Q_2 : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, we define the CCE of the game as a joint distribution σ on $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A}$ satisfying:

$$\mathbb{E}_{(a,b)\sim\sigma}\left[Q_1(x, a, b)\right] \ge \mathbb{E}_{b\sim\mathcal{P}_2\sigma}\left[Q_1\left(x, a', b\right)\right], \quad \forall a' \in \mathcal{A},$$
$$\mathbb{E}_{(a,b)\sim\sigma}\left[Q_2(x, a, b)\right] \le \mathbb{E}_{a\sim\mathcal{P}_1\sigma}\left[Q_2\left(x, a, b'\right)\right], \quad \forall b' \in \mathcal{A},$$

where $\mathcal{P}_1\sigma$ denotes the marginal of σ on the first coordinate (min-player) and $\mathcal{P}_2\sigma$ denotes the marginal of σ on the second coordinate (max-player).

3.2 Nonlinear function approximation by reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces

For simplicity of notation, we use $z = (x, a, b)$ to denote a state-action triplet in $\mathcal{Z} := \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A}$. An RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ with kernel $K(\cdot,\cdot) : \mathcal{Z} \times \mathcal{Z} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is a general form of linear function class. Every RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ consists of functions on $\mathcal{Z}$, with a feature mapping $\phi : \mathcal{Z} \mapsto \mathcal{H}$, such that $\forall f \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\forall z \in \mathcal{Z}$, $f(z) = \langle f, \phi(z)\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$. The kernel K is thus defined for every $x, y \in \mathcal{Z} \times \mathcal{Z}$ as $K(x, y) = \langle \phi(x), \phi(y)\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$. We call ϕ the feature mapping induced by the RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ with kernel K. In the following sections, we use $f^\top g$ as a simplification of $\langle f, g\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ when $f, g \in \mathcal{H}$. We make no distinction in notation between the vector product and the product $\langle\cdot,\cdot\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$; the distinction can be read

out from the nature of the two objects in the product. For every RKHS $\mathcal{H}$, there exists a natural eigenvalue decomposition in $\mathcal{L}^2(\mathcal{Z})$. RKHS approximation is a generalization of the linear function approximation of finite dimension d which can be infinite dimensional. In the following, we define the so-called *kernel mixture MG*, which can be regarded as an extension from the linear mixture MDP (Jia et al., 2020; Ayoub et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2021a) and linear mixture MG (Chen et al., 2021) to their kernel counterpart.

Kernel mixture MG. In a kernel mixture MG model, we model the transition probability $\mathbb{P}_h(s'|z) : \mathcal{Z} \mapsto \Delta(\mathcal{S})$ as an element in an RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ with feature mapping $\phi(s'|z) : \mathcal{Z} \times \mathcal{S} \to \mathcal{H}$, such that for an unknown parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}_h^* \in \mathcal{H}$, $\mathbb{P}_h(s'|z) = \langle \phi(s'|z), \boldsymbol{\theta}_h^* \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ for all $s' \in \mathcal{S}$ and $z \in \mathcal{Z}$. A similar MG structure called kernel MG has been studied by Qiu et al. (2021), which assumes that the transition probability satisfies $\mathbb{P}_h(s'|z) = \langle \phi(z), \mu_h(s') \rangle$ for some $\phi(\cdot), \mu_h(\cdot) \in \mathcal{H}$. The single-agent MDP counterparts of kernel MGs and kernel Mixture MGs are linear MDPs and linear Mixture MDPs. Zhou et al. (2021b) have shown that linear MDPs and linear Mixture MDPs are different classes of MDPs and one cannot be covered by the other. Following a similar argument, we can also show that kernel mixture MGs and kernel MGs are different classes of MGs and cannot imply each other.

At time h, for any estimate of the value function $V_h(\cdot) : \mathcal{S} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, we note that the expectation of value function at time $h+1$, $\mathbb{P}_h V_{h+1}$ is an element in the RKHS $\mathbb{P}_h V_{h+1}(z) = \left\langle \phi_{V_{h+1}}(z), \boldsymbol{\theta}_h^* \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$, where $\phi_{V_{h+1}}(z) := \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} \phi(s'|z) V_{h+1}(s')$ integrates the product of the feature mapping with the estimated value of s' over $\mathcal{S}$. It is worth noting that the quantity $\phi_V(\cdot)$ plays an important role in previous linear mixture model-based algorithms (Jia et al., 2020; Ayoub et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2021a; Chen et al., 2021). We assume that for any bounded value function $V(\cdot) : \mathcal{S} \mapsto [-1, 1]$ and any $z \in \mathcal{Z}$, $\|\phi_V(z)\|_{\mathcal{H}} \leq 1$. Given that the reward function $r_h(z)$ is known, we obtain through the Bellman equation that

$$Q_h^{*,\nu}(\cdot) = r_h(\cdot) + (\mathbb{P}_h V_{h+1}^{*,\nu})(\cdot) = r_h(\cdot) + \left\langle \phi_{V_{h+1}^{*,\nu}}(\cdot), \boldsymbol{\theta}_h^* \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}},$$
$$Q_h^{\pi,*}(\cdot) = r_h(\cdot) + (\mathbb{P}_h V_{h+1}^{\pi,*})(\cdot) = r_h(\cdot) + \left\langle \phi_{V_{h+1}^{\pi,*}}(\cdot), \boldsymbol{\theta}_h^* \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}.$$

Weighted kernel function. In this work, we consider a general RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ and do not assume that we can access the feature mapping ϕ directly. Instead, we assume that we can access the *weighted kernel function* $k_{V_1,V_2}(\cdot,\cdot)$, which is defined as follows:

Definition 1. For any function pairs $V_1, V_2 : \mathcal{S} \to [0, 1]$ which map states to real numbers, the weighted kernel function $k_{V_1,V_2}(\cdot,\cdot)$ is defined as follows:

$$k_{V_1,V_2}(z_1, z_2) := \sum_{s_1,s_2 \in \mathcal{S}} V_1(s_1) V_2(s_2) \langle \phi(s_1|z_1), \phi(s_2|z_2) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}},$$

for all $z_1, z_2 \in \mathcal{Z}$.

It is easy to see from Definition 1 that

$$k_{V_1,V_2}(z_1, z_2) = \left\langle \sum_{s_1 \in \mathcal{S}} V_1(s_1)\phi(s_1|z_1), \sum_{s_2 \in \mathcal{S}} V_2(s_2)\phi(s_2|z_2) \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle \phi_{V_1}(z_1), \phi_{V_2}(z_2) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}},$$

which suggests that the weighted kernel function $k_{V_1,V_2}(\cdot,\cdot)$ indeed captures the inner product relation between $\phi_{V_1}(z_1)$ and $\phi_{V_2}(z_2)$. We assume that we can access an integration oracle that can calculate $k_{V_1,V_2}(z_1, z_2)$ for any function V_1, V_2 and state-action tuples z_1, z_2 efficiently.

4 Algorithm

In this section, we introduce our value-targeted iteration algorithm for the zero-sum two-player Markov Game setting with RKHS function approximation. We follow the *value-targeted regression* framework and the confidence set design as in UCRL (Jia et al., 2020; Ayoub et al., 2020), and combine the CCE technique (Xie et al., 2020) to deal with the zero-sum sub-game brought by upper confidence bound (UCB) and lower confidence bound (LCB) value functions. These techniques enable us to adapt the results from the linear setting to the nonlinear RKHS regime (Chowdhury & Gopalan, 2017; Yang et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020) to get a structure-dependent regret bound that is both computationally simple and statistically efficient.

Algorithm 1 `KernelCCE-VTR`

Input: bonus parameter $\beta > 0$.
for episode $t = 1, 2, \ldots, T$ **do**
  Receive initial state x_1^t
  for step $h = H, H-1, \ldots, 1$ **do**
    Calculate $\overline{Q}_h^t(\cdot), \underline{Q}_h^t(\cdot)$ as in Eq. (4.3)
    Let $\sigma_h^t(\cdot) = \texttt{FIND_CCE}(\overline{Q}_h^t, \underline{Q}_h^t, \cdot)$
    Let $\overline{V}_h^t(\cdot) = \mathbb{E}_{(a,b)\sim\sigma_h^t(\cdot)}\overline{Q}_h^t(\cdot, a, b)$ and $\underline{V}_h^t(\cdot) = \mathbb{E}_{(a,b)\sim\sigma_h^t(\cdot)}\underline{Q}_h^t(\cdot, a, b)$
  end for
  for step $h = 1, 2, \ldots, T$ **do**
    Sample $(a_h^t, b_h^t) \sim \sigma_h^t(x_h^t)$.
    P_1 takes action a_h^t, P_2 takes action b_h^t
    Observe next state x_{h+1}^t.
  end for
end for

To find an equilibrium (π^*, ν^*) of the value function $V_1^{\pi,\nu}(x_1)$, we design an algorithm using value-targeted regression (VTR) and upper/lower confidence bound-based exploration. As the min-player aims to minimize the value function while the max-player targets to maximize the value function, we use upper confidence bound to encourage the exploration of the max-player and use a lower confidence bound to encourage the exploration of the min-player. Thus we need to define two value functions for the min/max-players respectively, i.e., $\overline{Q}_h^t, \underline{Q}_h^t, \overline{V}_h^t, \underline{V}_h^t$, where we adopt the overline notation for the over-estimation by the max-player and the underline notation for the under-estimation by the min-player. In the following, we only describe how to estimate the value functions for the max-player, while the value functions for the min-player can be estimated analogously. At each round of the game, we solve the following ridge regression problem for minimizing the Bellman error:

$$\overline{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_h^t = \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}\in\mathcal{H}} \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} \left[\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}(x_{h+1}^{\tau}) - \left\langle \phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}}(z_h^{\tau}), \boldsymbol{\theta}\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}\right]^2 + \lambda \left\|\boldsymbol{\theta}\right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2. \tag{4.1}$$

Note that in (4.1), $\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}$ only depends on the previous trajectories $\left\{x_i^j, a_i^j, b_i^j : j \in [\tau-1], i \in [H]\right\}$. We denote the corresponding σ-algebra as $\mathcal{F}_{\tau-1}$. Thus we have $\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau} \in \mathcal{F}_{\tau-1}$. As each $\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}(x_{h+1}^{\tau})$ can be seen as a stochastic sample of $(\mathbb{P}_h\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau})(z_h^{\tau})$, the regularized regression problem of the max-player in (4.1) can be seen as solving a linear bandit problem with context $\phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}}(z_h^{\tau})$, reward function $(\mathbb{P}_h\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau})(z_h^{\tau})$ and noise term $\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}(x_{h+1}^{\tau}) - (\mathbb{P}_h\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau})(z_h^{\tau})$. From the solution to the ridge regression problem (4.1), we can define the upper/lower confidence bound of the action-value functions $Q_h^{*,\nu}, Q_h^{\pi,*}$ respectively. For the simplicity of notation, we define the vectors $\overline{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_h^t := \left(\phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^1}(z_h^1), \ldots \phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^{t-1}}(z_h^{t-1})\right)^{\top} \in \mathcal{H}^{t-1}$.

For a positive parameter $\beta_t > 0$ that will be chosen in later analysis, the confidence region centered at $\overline{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_h^t$ in the RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ is defined as

$$\overline{\mathcal{C}}_h^t = \left\{\boldsymbol{\theta} : \sqrt{\lambda\left\|\boldsymbol{\theta} - \overline{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_h^t\right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 + \left\|\left\langle \overline{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_h^t, \boldsymbol{\theta} - \overline{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_h^t\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}\right\|^2} \le \beta_t\right\}, \tag{4.2}$$

We omit the definition of $\underline{\mathcal{C}}_h^t$ which is an analogue of Eq. (4.2) by changing all overline symbols to underline ones.

Based on the confidence regions, we construct an optimistic/pessimistic estimate of $Q_h^{*,\nu}$ as

$$\overline{Q}_h^t := \Pi_{[-H,H]}\left[r_h + \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}\in\overline{\mathcal{C}}_h^t}\left\langle \phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^t}, \boldsymbol{\theta}\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}\right], \quad \underline{Q}_h^t := \Pi_{[-H,H]}\left[r_h + \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}\in\underline{\mathcal{C}}_h^t}\left\langle \phi_{\underline{V}_{h+1}^t}, \boldsymbol{\theta}\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}\right], \tag{4.3}$$

where $\Pi_{[-H,H]}$ is the projection operator onto $[-H, H]$, which is by definition the range of value functions. Given the estimation of $\overline{Q}_h^t, \underline{Q}_h^t$, the next step is to estimate the corresponding state value functions $\overline{V}_h^t, \underline{V}_h^t$. We utilize the `FIND_CCE` algorithm in Xie et al. (2020) to find a coarse-correlated equilibrium of the payoff pair $(\overline{Q}_h^t(z), \underline{Q}_h^t(z))$.

Computational efficiency. By substituting the closed-form solutions to the maximization/minimization problems in (4.3), we can derive the analytic-form for $\overline{Q}_h^t$ and $\underline{Q}_h^t$. Take $\overline{Q}_h^t$

as an example, we have

$$\overline{Q}_h^t(z) = \Pi_{[-H,H]}\left[r_h(z) + \overline{k}_h^t(z)^\top(\overline{K}_h^t + \lambda I)^{-1}\overline{y}_h^t + \beta_t \cdot \overline{b}_h^t(z)\right], \tag{4.4}$$

where the gram matrix $\overline{K}_h^t$ and vector-valued function $\overline{k}_h^t$ are defined as

$$\overline{K}_h^t = \left(\overline{\mathbf{\Psi}}_h^t\right)\left(\overline{\mathbf{\Psi}}_h^t\right)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{(t-1)\times(t-1)}, \quad \overline{k}_h^t = \left(\overline{\mathbf{\Psi}}_h^t\right)\phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^t}(z) = \left(k_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^i, \overline{V}_{h+1}^t}(z_h^i, z)\right)_i \in \mathbb{R}^{t-1}.$$

Also, we have $\overline{y}_h^t := \left[\overline{V}_{h+1}^1(x_h^1), \ldots \overline{V}_{h+1}^{t-1}(x_h^{t-1})\right]^\top$ and $\overline{b}_h^t(z) = \lambda^{-1/2}[k_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^t, \overline{V}_{h+1}^t}(z,z) - \overline{k}_h^t(z)^\top\left(\overline{K}_h^t + \lambda \cdot \mathbf{I}\right)^{-1}\overline{k}_h^t(z)]^{1/2}$. Therefore, by the assumption that the weighted kernel function k_{V_1,V_2} can be evaluated efficiently, $\overline{Q}_h^t$ and $\underline{Q}_h^t$ can also be computed efficiently. Furthermore, given $\overline{Q}_h^t$ and $\underline{Q}_h^t$, `FIND_CCE` can also be implemented efficiently (Xie et al., 2020). Thus, Algorithm 1 is computationally efficient.

5 Main results

In this section, we present the regret bound of our algorithm for the kernel mixture Markov Game. Recall that for the linear function class, the regret upper bound is characterized by the dimension of the linear function, the horizon of the game, and the number of episodes (Chen et al., 2021). Our analysis in the RKHS function approximation setting aligns with the linear function approximation setting when $K(z,z') = \phi(z)^\top\phi(z')$.

When considering the nonlinear function class as an approximator of the value function, we need to develop a new concept analogous to the dimension d that characterizes the intrinsic complexity of the function class $\mathcal{F}$. We do so by making use of the maximal information gain, $\Gamma_K(T,\lambda)$ (Srinivas et al., 2009), where T is the episode number and H is the time horizon. In particular, we define the *effective dimension* of the RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ with respect to the mixture MG as follows:

Definition 2. We define the effective dimension $\Gamma_K(T,\lambda)$ as follows:

$$\Gamma_K(T,\lambda) := \sup_{(V_i)_i,(z_i)_i} \frac{1}{2}\log\det(\mathbf{I} + K(\{V_i\}_i, \{z_i\}_i)/\lambda),$$

for any $1 \le i \le T,\ V_i : \mathcal{S} \to [-H,H],\ z_i \in \mathcal{Z}$, where V_i's are functions mapping from $\mathcal{S}$ to $[-H,H]$ and z_i's are state-action tuples. Here, $K(\{V_i\}_i, \{z_i\}_i) \in \mathbb{R}^{T\times T}$ and its (p,q)-th entry for any $1 \le p,q \le T$ is $[K(\{V_i\}_i, \{z_i\}_i)]_{p,q} = k_{V_p,V_q}(z_p, z_q)$.

By the boundedness of ϕ_V as in Section 3.2, it is easy to verify that both the tabular MG and the linear mixture MG enjoy a finite effective dimension. Specifically, for finite RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ with rank d, $\Gamma_K(T,\lambda) = O(d \cdot \log T)$ approximately depicts the rank of $\mathcal{H}$. Via a concentration argument, we first present our main lemma for bounding the estimation error when choosing $\beta_t = \beta$ for all $t \ge 1$:

Lemma 3. Assuming that for any $h \in [H]$, $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_h^*\|_{\mathcal{H}} \le B$. Let $\lambda = 1 + 1/T$ and β satisfies

$$(\beta/H)^2 \ge 2\Gamma_K(T,\lambda) + 2 + 4\cdot\log(1/\delta) + 2\lambda(B/H)^2.$$

Then, for any $\delta > 0$, with probability at least $1-\delta$ the following holds for any $(t,h) \in [T]\times[H]$ and any $(x,a,b) \in \mathcal{S}\times\mathcal{A}\times\mathcal{A}$:

$$\left|\left\langle \phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^t}(x,a,b), \overline{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_h^t - \boldsymbol{\theta}_h^*\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}\right| \le \beta\cdot\overline{b}_h^t(x,a,b),\ \left|\left\langle \phi_{\underline{V}_{h+1}^t}(x,a,b), \overline{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_h^t - \boldsymbol{\theta}_h^*\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}\right| \le \beta\cdot\underline{b}_h^t(x,a,b).$$

We are now ready to present our main theorem.

Theorem 4 (RKHS function approximation)**.** Under the same conditions as Lemma 3, with probability at least $1-\delta$, `KernelCCE-VTR` has the following regret

$$\mathrm{Regret}(T) = O\left(\beta H\sqrt{T\cdot\Gamma_K(T,\lambda)} + 1\right).$$

Remark 5. Theorem 4 suggests that by treating the norm B as a constant, `KernelCCE-VTR` achieves an $\widetilde{O}(\Gamma_K(T,\lambda)H^2\sqrt{T})$ regret bound. When the RKHS degenerates to the Euclidean space, the regret bound reduces to $\widetilde{O}(dH^2\sqrt{T})$, which matches the $\widetilde{O}(dH^{3/2}\sqrt{T})$ regret for linear mixture MGs presented by Chen et al. (2021) up to a $\sqrt{H}$ factor.

Similar to Xie et al. (2020), by using a standard online-to-batch conversion technique, we can convert the regret bound in Theorem 4 to a PAC bound. For simplicity, let the initial states of each episode be the same, i.e., $x_1^t = x_1$. After T episodes, we select $t_0 \in [T]$ satisfying

$$t_0 = \operatorname*{argmin}_{t\in[T]}\{\overline{V}_1^t(x_1) - \underline{V}_1^t(x_1)\}, \tag{5.1}$$

which yields the following sample complexity guarantee for finding an ϵ-approximate NE policy pair (π^{t_0}, ν^{t_0}).

Corollary 6 (Sample complexity)**.** Under the same condition as Theorem 4, by setting $T = O\big(\beta^2 H^2 \Gamma_K(T,\lambda)/\epsilon^2\big) = \widetilde{O}\big(H^4\Gamma_K^2(T,\lambda)/\epsilon^2\big)$ and selecting t_0 as in (5.1), the policy pair (π^{t_0}, ν^{t_0}) is an ϵ-approximate NE.

6 Bernstein-type bonus, misspecification, and neural function approximation

In this section, we propose several extensions of `KernelCCE-VTR`. Section 6.1 introduces `KernelCCE-VTR` with Bernstein-type bonus. Section 6.2 discusses kernel function approximation with misspecification. We also specialize the kernel function approximation with misspecification to the neural function approximation setting, which is deferred to Appendix C due to space limit.

6.1 `KernelCCE-VTR` with Bernstein-type bonus

Recall that in `KernelCCE-VTR`, we need to choose β in order to calculate the optimistic and pessimistic state-action value functions $\overline{Q}_h^t(\cdot), \underline{Q}_h^t(\cdot)$ defined in (4.3). The theoretical value of β is defined in Lemma 3, which controls the uncertainty of the action-value estimate. Such choice of β is due to a Hoeffding-type concentration used in the proof of Lemma 3. It has been shown in Zhou et al. (2021a) that by using a Bernstein-type bonus and a sharp analysis based on the total variance lemma, one can obtain an improved algorithm with a tighter regret bound. Following this idea, we propose a `KernelCCE-VTR+` algorithm, which replaces the Hoeffding-type bonus with a Bernstein-type bonus. To demonstrate the construction of the Bernstein-type bonus, we take the max player for example. In particular, we solve the following weighted kernel ridge regression problem:

$$\overline{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{h,1}^t = \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}\in\mathcal{H}} \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} \left[\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}(x_{h+1}^{\tau}) - \left\langle \phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}}(z_h^{\tau}), \boldsymbol{\theta}\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}\right]^2 / \left(\overline{R}_h^{\tau}\right)^2 + \lambda_1 \|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2, \tag{6.1}$$

where the input is the normalized feature mapping $\phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}}(z_h^{\tau})/\overline{R}_h^{\tau}$, the output is the normalized value function $\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}(x_{h+1}^{\tau})/\overline{R}_h^{\tau}$, and the normalization factor $\overline{R}_h^{\tau}$ is an upper bound on the conditional variance of $\overline{V}_{h+1}^{\tau}(x_{h+1}^{\tau})$. It is straightforward to verify that (6.1) admits a closed-form solution. Given that solution, we can compute the upper confidence bound of the action-value functions $Q_h^{*,\nu}$. In detail, we define $\overline{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_{h,1}^t := \left(\phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^1}(z_h^1)/\overline{R}_h^1, \ldots, \phi_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^{t-1}}(z_h^{t-1})/\overline{R}_h^{t-1}\right)^\top \in \mathcal{H}^{t-1}$. The gram matrix $\overline{K}_{h,1}^t$, vector-valued function $\overline{k}_{h,1}^t$ and the confidence region centered at $\overline{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{h,1}^t$ in the RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ can be calculated the same as in Algorithm 1, except that $\overline{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_h^t$ is replaced by $\overline{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_{h,1}^t$. Then the optimistic estimate of the action-value function $Q_h^{*,\nu}$ has the following form:

$$\overline{Q}_h^t(z) = \Pi_{[-H,H]}\left[r_h(z) + \overline{k}_{h,1}^t(z)^\top(\overline{K}_{h,1}^t + \lambda I)^{-1}\overline{y}_{h,1}^t + \beta_t \cdot \overline{b}_{h,1}^t(z)\right], \tag{6.2}$$

where $\overline{y}_{h,1}^t := \left[\overline{V}_{h+1}^1(x_h^1)/\overline{R}_h^1, \ldots \overline{V}_{h+1}^{t-1}(x_h^{t-1})/\overline{R}_h^{t-1}\right]^\top$ and

$$\overline{b}_{h,1}^t(z) = \lambda_1^{-1/2} \cdot \left[k_{\overline{V}_{h+1}^t, \overline{V}_{h+1}^t}(z,z) - \overline{k}_{h,1}^t(z)^\top \left(\overline{K}_{h,1}^t + \lambda_1 \cdot \mathbf{I}\right)^{-1} \overline{k}_{h,1}^t(z)\right]^{1/2}.$$

Due to space limit, we defer the conditional variance estimator $\overline{R}_h^t$ to Appendix B. Similarly, we can construct the pessimistic estimate of the action-value function $Q_h^{\pi,*}$ for the min player. We have the following informal result for `KernelCCE-VTR+`. The full algorithm and its formal result can be found in Appendix B.

Theorem 7 (Informal)**.** Let $d_{\text{eff}} = \Gamma_K(T, \lambda)$, with proper choice of $\overline{R}_h^t$, $\underline{R}_h^t$ and β_t, with probability at least $1 - \delta$, `KernelCCE-VTR+` has the following regret

$$\text{Regret}(T) = \widetilde{O}\left(d_{\text{eff}}^2 H^3 + \sqrt{d_{\text{eff}} H^4 + d_{\text{eff}}^2 H^3}\sqrt{T} + \left(d_{\text{eff}}^7 H^7 + d_{\text{eff}}^4 H^9\right)^{1/4} T^{1/4}\right).$$

Remark 8. When T is sufficiently large and $\Gamma_K(T, \lambda)$ is larger than H, the regret bound in Theorem 7 is dominated by $\widetilde{O}(\Gamma_K(T, \lambda) H^{3/2}\sqrt{T})$, which improves the $\widetilde{O}(\Gamma_K(T, \lambda) H^2\sqrt{T})$ regret derived in Theorem 4 by a factor of $\sqrt{H}$. Compared with the $\widetilde{\Omega}(dH^{3/2}\sqrt{T})$ lower bound proposed in Chen et al. (2021), our `KernelCCE-VTR+` algorithm is almost optimal when it reduces to the linear mixture MG.

6.2 Kernel function approximation with misspecification

In this subsection, we consider the case where the function class may not be confined to an RKHS, but instead the distance to it can be bounded. This can be formulated as kernel function approximation with misspecification. We assume that there exists a misspecification error between the RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ and the true transition probability $\mathbb{P}_h(s'|z)$.

Assumption 9. There exists an $\iota_{\text{mis}} > 0$, an RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ with feature mapping $\phi : \mathcal{Z} \mapsto \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{H}$, and an unknown parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}_h^* \in \mathcal{H}$ satisfying $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_h^*\|_{\mathcal{H}} \leq B$ such that for any $h \in [H]$, the distance of the transition probability $\mathbb{P}_h$ to $\mathcal{H}$ can be bounded by ι_{mis}, which is $\left\|\mathbb{P}_h(\cdot|z) - \langle \phi(\cdot|z), \boldsymbol{\theta}_h^* \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}\right\|_{\text{TV}} \leq \iota_{\text{mis}}$.

In order to deal with model misspecification, the key idea is to enlarge β_t in the definition of the optimistic action-value function in (4.3). More specifically, we will add an extra $\mathcal{O}(H\iota_{\text{mis}}\sqrt{t})$ term brought by misspecification error to β specified in Lemma 3. We can show that `KernelCCE-VTR` with such enlarged β will have a sublinear regret in the presence of misspecification.

Theorem 10 (RKHS function approximation with misspecification)**.** Assuming that for any $h \in [H]$, $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_h^*\|_{\mathcal{H}} \leq B$. Set $\lambda = 1 + 1/T$ in the `KernelCCE-VTR` Algorithm. For any $\delta > 0$ and any β_t satisfying

$$(\beta_t/H)^2 \geq 2\Gamma_K(T, \lambda) + 3 + 6 \cdot \log(1/\delta) + 3\lambda (B/H)^2 + 3\iota_{\text{mis}}^2 t,$$

there exists a global constant $c > 0$ such that with probability at least $1 - \delta$, we have

$$\text{Regret}(T) \leq c\left(\beta_T H\sqrt{T \cdot \Gamma_K(T, \lambda)} + 1 + H^2 T \iota_{\text{mis}}\right).$$

In words, Theorem 10 suggests that in the misspeficified case, `KernelCCE-VTR` can achieve the same regret as that in the well-specified case up to an $O(\sqrt{\Gamma_K(T, \lambda)} H^2 T \iota_{\text{mis}})$ error. Such a linear dependence on ι_{mis} matches the result of single agent RL for the finite dimensional case (Jin et al., 2020; Zanette et al., 2020).

7 Conclusions

In this work, we studied learning for two-player mixture MGs using a kernel function approximation. We introduced a new formulation of kernel mixture MGs and proposed an algorithm `KernelCCE-VTR` that exploits the kernel function of the MG. We show that our `KernelCCE-VTR` is able to achieve a sublinear $\widetilde{O}(d_K H^2\sqrt{T})$ regret. We further improve our algorithm with a *Bernstein-type bonus* and *weighted kernel ridge regression*, which enjoys a better $\widetilde{O}(d_K H^{3/2}\sqrt{T})$ regret and nearly matches the regret lower bound in Chen et al. (2021) when reducing to linear mixture MGs. Finally, we extend our analysis of the basic RKHS setting to a more general nonlinear function approximation setting with misspecification errors and demonstrate that neural networks can be treated as a special instance of this misspecification framework. We believe our framework and analysis greatly broadens the expressiveness of the function classes. We leave to study learning general-sum MGs by kernel function approximation as future work.

References

Abbasi-Yadkori, Y., Pál, D., & Szepesvári, C. (2011). Improved algorithms for linear stochastic bandits. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* (pp. 2312–2320).

Ayoub, A., Jia, Z., Szepesvari, C., Wang, M., & Yang, L. F. (2020). Model-based reinforcement learning with value-targeted regression. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2006.01107*.

Bai, Y. & Jin, C. (2020). Provable self-play algorithms for competitive reinforcement learning. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 551–560).: PMLR.

Bai, Y., Jin, C., & Yu, T. (2020). Near-optimal reinforcement learning with self-play. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33.

Brown, N. & Sandholm, T. (2019). Superhuman AI for multiplayer poker. *Science*, 365(6456), 885–890.

Cao, Y. & Gu, Q. (2019). Generalization bounds of stochastic gradient descent for wide and deep neural networks. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 32, 10836–10846.

Chen, Z., Zhou, D., & Gu, Q. (2021). Almost optimal algorithms for two-player Markov games with linear function approximation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2102.07404*.

Chowdhury, S. R. & Gopalan, A. (2017). On kernelized multi-armed bandits. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 844–853).: PMLR.

Cui, Q. & Yang, L. F. (2020). Minimax sample complexity for turn-based stochastic game. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2011.14267*.

Du, S., Kakade, S., Lee, J., Lovett, S., Mahajan, G., Sun, W., & Wang, R. (2021). Bilinear classes: A structural framework for provable generalization in rl. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 2826–2836).: PMLR.

Huang, B., Lee, J. D., Wang, Z., & Yang, Z. (2021). Towards general function approximation in zero-sum Markov games. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2107.14702*.

Jia, Z., Yang, L., Szepesvari, C., & Wang, M. (2020). Model-based reinforcement learning with value-targeted regression. In *Learning for Dynamics and Control* (pp. 666–686).: PMLR.

Jia, Z., Yang, L. F., & Wang, M. (2019). Feature-based Q-learning for two-player stochastic games. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1906.00423*.

Jiang, N., Krishnamurthy, A., Agarwal, A., Langford, J., & Schapire, R. E. (2017). Contextual decision processes with low bellman rank are pac-learnable. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 1704–1713).: PMLR.

Jin, C., Liu, Q., & Miryoosefi, S. (2021a). Bellman eluder dimension: New rich classes of rl problems, and sample-efficient algorithms. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34.

Jin, C., Liu, Q., & Yu, T. (2021b). The power of exploiter: Provable multi-agent rl in large state spaces. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2106.03352*.

Jin, C., Yang, Z., Wang, Z., & Jordan, M. I. (2020). Provably efficient reinforcement learning with linear function approximation. In *Conference on Learning Theory* (pp. 2137–2143).

Lagoudakis, M. G. & Parr, R. (2002). Value function approximation in zero-sum Markov games. In *Proceedings of the Eighteenth Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence* (pp. 283–292).: Morgan Kaufmann Publishers Inc.

Littman, M. L. (1994). Markov games as a framework for multi-agent reinforcement learning. In *Machine learning proceedings 1994* (pp. 157–163). Elsevier.

Liu, Q., Yu, T., Bai, Y., & Jin, C. (2020). A sharp analysis of model-based reinforcement learning with self-play. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.01604*.

Modi, A., Jiang, N., Tewari, A., & Singh, S. (2020). Sample complexity of reinforcement learning using linearly combined model ensembles. In *International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics* (pp. 2010–2020).: PMLR.

Osband, I. & Van Roy, B. (2014). Model-based reinforcement learning and the eluder dimension. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1406.1853*.

Pérolat, J., Piot, B., Geist, M., Scherrer, B., & Pietquin, O. (2016a). Softened approximate policy iteration for Markov games. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 1860–1868).: PMLR.

Perolat, J., Piot, B., & Pietquin, O. (2018). Actor-critic fictitious play in simultaneous move multistage games. In *International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics* (pp. 919–928).

Pérolat, J., Piot, B., Scherrer, B., & Pietquin, O. (2016b). On the use of non-stationary strategies for solving two-player zero-sum Markov games. In *Artificial Intelligence and Statistics* (pp. 893–901).

Perolat, J., Scherrer, B., Piot, B., & Pietquin, O. (2015). Approximate dynamic programming for two-player zero-sum Markov games. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 1321–1329).

Pérolat, J., Strub, F., Piot, B., & Pietquin, O. (2017). Learning Nash equilibrium for general-sum Markov games from batch data. In *Artificial Intelligence and Statistics* (pp. 232–241).: PMLR.

Qiu, S., Ye, J., Wang, Z., & Yang, Z. (2021). On reward-free RL with kernel and neural function approximations: Single-agent MDP and Markov game. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 8737–8747).: PMLR.

Russo, D. & Van Roy, B. (2013). Eluder dimension and the sample complexity of optimistic exploration. In *NIPS* (pp. 2256–2264).: Citeseer.

Shalev-Shwartz, S., Shammah, S., & Shashua, A. (2016). Safe, multi-agent, reinforcement learning for autonomous driving. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1610.03295*.

Shapley, L. S. (1953). Stochastic games. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 39(10), 1095–1100.

Sidford, A., Wang, M., Yang, L., & Ye, Y. (2020). Solving discounted stochastic two-player games with near-optimal time and sample complexity. In *International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics* (pp. 2992–3002).: PMLR.

Silver, D., Huang, A., Maddison, C. J., Guez, A., Sifre, L., Van Den Driessche, G., Schrittwieser, J., Antonoglou, I., Panneershelvam, V., Lanctot, M., et al. (2016). Mastering the game of Go with deep neural networks and tree search. *Nature*, 529(7587), 484.

Srinivas, N., Krause, A., Kakade, S. M., & Seeger, M. (2009). Gaussian process optimization in the bandit setting: No regret and experimental design. *arXiv preprint arXiv:0912.3995*.

Sun, W., Jiang, N., Krishnamurthy, A., Agarwal, A., & Langford, J. (2019). Model-based RL in contextual decision processes: PAC bounds and exponential improvements over model-free approaches. In *Conference on Learning Theory* (pp. 2898–2933).: PMLR.

Vinyals, O., Babuschkin, I., Czarnecki, W. M., Mathieu, M., Dudzik, A., Chung, J., Choi, D. H., Powell, R., Ewalds, T., Georgiev, P., et al. (2019). Grandmaster level in starcraft ii using multi-agent reinforcement learning. *Nature*, 575(7782), 350–354.

Wang, R., Salakhutdinov, R. R., & Yang, L. (2020). Reinforcement learning with general value function approximation: Provably efficient approach via bounded eluder dimension. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33.

Wei, C.-Y., Hong, Y.-T., & Lu, C.-J. (2017). Online reinforcement learning in stochastic games. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* (pp. 4987–4997).

Xie, Q., Chen, Y., Wang, Z., & Yang, Z. (2020). Learning zero-sum simultaneous-move Markov games using function approximation and correlated equilibrium. In *Conference on Learning Theory, to appear*.

Yang, L. & Wang, M. (2020). Reinforcement learning in feature space: Matrix bandit, kernels, and regret bound. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 10746–10756).: PMLR.

Yang, Z., Jin, C., Wang, Z., Wang, M., & Jordan, M. I. (2020). On function approximation in reinforcement learning: Optimism in the face of large state spaces. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2011.04622*.

Zanette, A., Lazaric, A., Kochenderfer, M., & Brunskill, E. (2020). Learning near optimal policies with low inherent bellman error. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 10978–10989).: PMLR.

Zhou, D., Gu, Q., & Szepesvari, C. (2021a). Nearly minimax optimal reinforcement learning for linear mixture Markov decision processes. In *Conference on Learning Theory*: PMLR.

Zhou, D., He, J., & Gu, Q. (2021b). Provably efficient reinforcement learning for discounted mdps with feature mapping. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 12793–12802).: PMLR.

Zhou, D., Li, L., & Gu, Q. (2020). Neural contextual bandits with ucb-based exploration. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 11492–11502).: PMLR.

Checklist

1. For all authors...
   (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope? [Yes]
   (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] Section 7
   (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [N/A]
   (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to them? [Yes]
2. If you are including theoretical results...
   (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [Yes]
   (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [Yes]
3. If you ran experiments...
   (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [N/A]
   (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen)? [N/A]
   (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experiments multiple times)? [N/A]
   (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [N/A]
4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
   (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [N/A]
   (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [N/A]
   (c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [N/A]
   (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you're using/curating? [N/A]
   (e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable information or offensive content? [N/A]
5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...

(a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable? [N/A]

(b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A]

(c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount spent on participant compensation? [N/A]