PERRY: Policy Evaluation with Confidence Intervals using Auxiliary Data

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Abstract

Off-policy evaluation (OPE) methods estimate the value of a new reinforcement learning (RL) policy prior to deployment. Recent advances have shown that leveraging auxiliary datasets, such as those synthesized by generative models, can improve the accuracy of OPE methods. Unfortunately, such auxiliary datasets may also be biased, and existing methods for using data augmentation within OPE lack principled uncertainty quantification. In high stakes domains like healthcare, reliable uncertainty estimates are important for ensuring safe and informed deployment of RL policies. In this work, we propose two methods to construct valid confidence intervals for OPE when using data augmentation. The first provides a confidence interval over $V^\pi(s)$, the policy value conditioned on an initial state s. To do so we introduce a new conformal prediction method suitable for Markov Decision Processes (MDPs) with high-dimensional state spaces. Second, we consider the more common task of estimating the average policy performance over all initial states, V^π; we introduce a method that draws on ideas from doubly robust estimation and prediction powered inference. Across simulators spanning inventory management, robotics, healthcare, and a real healthcare dataset from MIMIC-IV, we find that our methods can effectively leverage auxiliary data and consistently produce confidence intervals that cover the ground truth policy values, unlike previously proposed methods. Our work enables a future in which OPE can provide rigorous uncertainty estimates for high-stakes domains.

1 Introduction

Off-policy evaluation (OPE) (Precup et al., 2000; Sutton & Barto, 2018) is used to estimate the value of a new (target) reinforcement learning (RL) policy prior to deployment using a historical (behavior) dataset from a distinct behavior policy. OPE is particularly important in high-stakes domains (Gottesman et al., 2020; Mandel et al., 2014; Fu et al., 2020), where directly deploying new policies without prior evaluation can be costly or even harmful to participants.

However, standard OPE methods frequently struggle when the target policy is very different than the behavior policy, due to limited dataset coverage (Jiang & Li, 2016). To address this, several recent works have proposed using synthetic auxiliary data to improve the coverage of the behavior dataset and subsequently the accuracy of OPE methods (Tang & Wiens, 2023; Gao et al., 2024; Mandyam et al., 2024). However, such approaches have either focused on the contextual bandit setting, or focused on promising empirical success in sequential settings but lack formal assurances on the quality of the proposed estimates.

In high stakes, multi-step domains, it is often of key importance to have confidence intervals (CIs) over the proposed policy estimates. Such intervals support safer, more informed policy selection and deployment. Therefore, we argue that principled uncertainty quantification is needed for OPE in RL in the emerging regime where both real and synthetic trajectories are used. While there is a notable body of prior work that developed CIs using *only* offline (real) data for OPE in RL (Thomas et al., 2015a;b; Taufiq et al., 2022; Foffano et al., 2023), to our knowledge, none provides guarantees in settings that combine offline and synthetic trajectories. In this paper we take steps towards addressing this gap.

We formalize uncertainty quantification for OPE with mixed (real and synthetic) behavior data and identify two settings that require uncertainty-aware OPE. First, in domains like healthcare, it is common for stakeholders to deliberate between decision policies to use for individuals that start in the same state: for example, a clinician may use the same treatment policy on all patients in the same stage of a disease. Estimating CIs for state-conditioned policy performance is thus an important task that can benefit substantially from data augmentation. Our first method, **CP-Gen**, provides conformal prediction intervals for such state-conditioned values. Second, we address evaluation of the target policy's expected value averaged over the distribution of initial states. This is relevant in settings where a single policy may be selected for the whole population, and a stakeholder wants to choose among different policies. We introduce a second method **DR-PPI**, which leverages techniques from doubly robust estimation and prediction-powered inference (Angelopoulos et al., 2023) to correct biases from synthetically generated trajectories and produce valid CIs.

Our empirical studies across inventory control, sepsis treatment, robotic control, and the MIMIC-IV electronic health records (EHR) dataset show that our methods, which can leverage synthetic data, can match or improve over state-of-the-art baselines that provide correct CIs using only real data. Our contributions follow.

1. **We formalize the problem of uncertainty quantification** for OPE in MDPs that leverage synthetically generated trajectories and introduce **CP-Gen** and **DR-PPI** (Section 3) for two natural settings where CIs are important.
2. **We prove that both methods yield valid CIs** and achieve the desired coverage probability either asymptotically or within a small margin of error for finite sample sizes (Section 4).
3. **We empirically evaluate the estimators** in four domains including a real-world EHR dataset, showing that our estimates which leverage auxiliary synthetic data produce CIs with the correct coverage that match or are tighter than baselines that do not use the auxiliary data. (Section 5).

2 Background

2.1 Problem setting

We consider a decision-making setting defined by the MDP $\mathcal{M} = (\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, P, R, d_0, \gamma, H)$. $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}$ denote the possibly infinite state and action spaces respectively. $P : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \to \Delta(\mathcal{S})$ represents the transition dynamics, $R : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \to \Delta(\mathbb{R})$ is the reward function, and $d_0 \in \Delta(\mathcal{S})$ is the initial state distribution. γ is the discount factor and H is the fixed horizon. A trajectory τ is defined as $\tau : \{s_t, a_t, r_t\}_{t=1}^{H}$ where s_t, a_t, r_t are the state, action, and instantaneous reward observed at timestep t. The return of a trajectory τ is $J(\tau) = \sum_{t=1}^{H} \gamma^{t-1} r_t$ where $\tau \sim \pi$ and π is the policy used to generate the trajectory. The value of the policy $V^\pi = \mathbb{E}_{\tau\sim\pi}[J(\tau)]$ is calculated as an expectation over the possible trajectories that could arise from π. The value of a policy conditioned on an initial starting state s is $V^\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau\sim\pi}[J(\tau)|s_0 = s]$.

2.2 Off-policy evaluation (OPE)

The goal of OPE is to estimate the value of a target policy π_e given a dataset of behavior trajectories D_{π_b} that arise from a distinct behavior policy π_b. In a typical OPE setup, we assume access to π_e. In our work, we also assume π_b is known similar to prior work (Thomas & Brunskill, 2016; Farajtabar et al., 2018), though we apply our methods empirically in settings where π_b must be estimated.

There are several standard approaches for OPE, including importance sampling (Precup et al., 2000), direct method (DM) (Li et al., 2010; Beygelzimer & Langford, 2009; van Seijen et al., 2009; Harutyunyan et al., 2016; Le et al., 2019; Voloshin et al., 2021), and doubly robust (DR) approaches (Farajtabar et al., 2018; Dudik et al., 2011; Jiang & Li, 2016). IS-based estimators re-weigh each trajectory in the D_{π_b} using an inverse propensity score (IPS) $\rho(\tau) = \prod_{t=1}^{H} \frac{\pi_e(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_b(a_t|s_t)}$. DM estimators learn a reward model using the behavior trajectories to directly estimate the value of the target policy. DR methods combine the advantages of IS and DM estimators and provide favorable guarantees when either the IPS ratio or the reward model is inaccurate.

2.3 Related Literature

OPE with data augmentation. As discussed in Section 1, standard OPE methods suffer when the behavior dataset has limited coverage. Because OPE methods are typically used with finite sample sizes, OPE estimates can be biased or have high variance (Precup et al., 2000; Jiang & Li, 2016; Thomas & Brunskill, 2016). To address this concern, several works have proposed using auxiliary information to enhance OPE estimators, using data augmentation either from a secondary dataset (Tang & Wiens, 2023; Mandyam et al., 2024) or by generating synthetic trajectories based on historical data (Gao et al., 2024; Sun et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2023). These works find that leveraging auxiliary data can substantially improve OPE estimates in some domains such as robotic control. However, these approaches may introduce additional bias due to errors in the auxiliary data, and lack theoretical guarantees or rigorous uncertainty quantification for the MDP setting. In contrast, our work emphasizes uncertainty quantification, which can provide more information to effectively compare between policies.

Conformal prediction for OPE. There are several strategies to perform uncertainty quantification, including conformal prediction. Conformal prediction is a technique used to produce statistically valid prediction regions for any point prediction that arises from a machine learning (ML) model. More specifically, the conformal prediction set contains the true outcome with probability at least $1 - \alpha$. Tibshirani et al. (2020) relaxed a limiting exchangeability assumption used in the original conformal prediction literature (Vovk et al., 2005), and Taufiq et al. (2022) applied conformal prediction to the OPE setting for contextual bandits through reweighting. Foffano et al. (2023) later extended this work to create conformal intervals for OPE in MDPs. Crucially, their approximation relies on an integral that is difficult to compute and implement in continuous high-dimensional state spaces. Our `CP-Gen`, is inspired by the last approach, but uses a novel technique to compute the weights needed for conformal prediction, allowing us to tackle settings with continuous and high-dimensional state spaces. In addition, this prior work did not consider data augmentation. Our new approach achieves tighter CIs through careful use of auxiliary synthetic datasets.

Prediction-powered inference. Prediction-powered inference (PPI) addresses a closely related problem to OPE, namely, performing valid inference when outcomes are only observed for a limited subset of of possible samples. In particular, PPI allows us to calculate CIs on downstream task performance given both an original dataset and predictions for unlabeled samples from an ML model (Angelopoulos et al., 2023). PPI produces accurate CIs across a variety of ML tasks and dataset domains. The PPI estimator also has strong overlap with doubly robust estimation techniques typically used for OPE.

In our work, we take inspiration from the construction of the standard PPI estimator, which yields an asymptotic CI. However, the problem setup in PPI is distinct from ours. PPI assumes that we have access to a large dataset of observations that are unlabeled; the role of the ML model is to label the observations. In contrast, in our setting, we must both generate synthetic samples (i.e., trajectories) and their corresponding labels (i.e., returns); this setting necessitates a distinct methodology.

3 Methods

In this work, we study a setting in which we have access to a real, offline dataset, and synthetically generated trajectories. In general, trajectories produced by generative models may be biased or drawn from a distribution distinct from π_b, which can introduce error and/or variance into the resulting OPE estimate for sequential decision processes. We propose two new methods for computing CIs for OPE in RL that use both offline and synthetically generated data for two common settings where CIs would be beneficial. For clarity, we summarize key notation in a table that can be referenced throughout the paper (Table 1).

3.1 `CP-Gen`: Confidence Intervals for OPE from a Starting State

First, we consider a setting in which our goal is to estimate an initial-state-conditioned policy value $V^{\pi_e} s$. Estimating state-conditioned policy values has been slightly understudied in the OPE literature, which tends to focus on estimators that average performance over the full population of initial states. The task of estimating state-conditioned policy values can benefit substantially from data augmentation, since data

Notation	Description
$J(\tau)$	Return of the trajectory τ, $\sum_{t=1}^{H} \gamma^{t-1} r_t$ where γ is a discount factor
V^{π}	Value of the policy π, $\mathbb{E}_{\tau\sim\pi}[J(\tau)]$, which is calculated as an expectation over trajectories sampled from the policy.
$V^{\pi}(s)$	Value of the policy π conditioned on a starting state s, $\mathbb{E}_{\tau\sim\pi}[J(\tau)\|s_0 = s]$
$p^{\pi_e}(\tau)$	Probability of observing trajectory τ under the target policy π_e.
$\tilde{p}^{\pi_e}(\tau)$	Probability of observing trajectory τ under the dynamics distribution of the generative model.
$\Delta_{rr'}$	Return difference of a pair of trajectories, one from the original behavior dataset and one generated. For example, $J(\tau_i) - J(\tilde{\tau}_j)$ where τ_i is an observed trajectory and $\tilde{\tau}_j$ is a generated trajectory. $\Delta_{rr'}$ represents the set of all return differences, and $\delta_{rr'}$ is the return difference for a single sample.
$\mathbb{P}^{\pi}_{(S,\Delta_{rr'})}$	Joint distribution of the initial state S and return-difference random variable $\Delta_{rr'}$ induced by trajectories drawn under the policy π.
$w(s, \delta_{rr'})$	Weight associated with sample that has an initial-state s and score (or return difference) $\delta_{rr'}$.
$w_{\epsilon}(s, \delta_{rr'})$	Approximated weight for sample with initial-state s and score $\delta_{rr'}$.
ϵ_s, ϵ_r	Radius of ball around a given state s and a given score $\delta_{rr'}$.
$F_n^{(s,\delta_{rr'})}$	Weighted empirical cumulative distribution function (CDF) of calibration scores (return differences) evaluated at $(s, \delta_{rr'})$, constructed using normalized importance weights.
$V_i^{(s,\delta_{rr'})}$	Non-conformity score for sample i, equal to the return difference of the paired trajectories, i.e. $V_i = \Delta_{rr',i} = J(\tau_i) - J(\tilde{\tau}_i)$.
$p_i^w(s, \delta_{rr'})$	Normalized weight assigned to sample i in the weighted conformal procedure; proportional to $w(S_i, \Delta_{rr',i})$ and normalized so weights sum to one (including the test point).
$C_{n,\alpha}(s)$	Weighted conformal prediction band for the return difference at state s, defined by the central $(1-\alpha)$ weighted quantiles of $F_n^{(s,\delta_{rr'})}$.
$\hat{C}_{n,\alpha}(s)$	Estimated conformal interval conditioned on an initial-state s learned using n offline trajectories with $1-\alpha$ confidence.
$\widehat{C}_{\alpha}$	Estimated confidence interval with confidence level $(1-\alpha)$.
d_0	Initial state-distribution
$\tilde{J}(\tau)$	Re-weighted return of trajectory $\tau \sim \pi_e$. Specifically, $\tilde{J}(\tau) = \rho(\tau) * J(\tau)$.
D_1, D_2	Two splits of the behavior dataset D_{π_b}

Table 1: Reference table for notation used throughout the paper.

from individual starting states is sparse, even though obtaining valid CIs is of particular importance for high-stakes domains. To address this, we propose `CP-Gen`, a new conformal prediction method for OPE used to estimate initial-state-conditioned policy values.

Given an initial state s, we estimate $V^{\pi_e}(s)$ by carefully manipulating the definition of the policy value as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
V^{\pi_e}(s) &= \mathbb{E}_{\tau\sim p^{\pi_e}|s_0=s}\left[J(\tau)\right] && (1)\\
&= \sum_{\tau\sim p^{\pi_e}|s_0=s} p^{\pi_e}(\tau) J(\tau) && (2)\\
&= \underbrace{\sum_{\tilde{\tau}\sim \tilde{p}^{\pi_e}|s_0=s} \tilde{p}^{\pi_e}(\tilde{\tau}) J(\tilde{\tau})}_{\text{simulator estimate}} + \underbrace{\left[\sum_{\tau\sim p^{\pi_e}|s_0=s} p^{\pi_e}(\tau) J(\tau) - \sum_{\tilde{\tau}\sim \tilde{p}^{\pi_e}|s_0=s} \tilde{p}^{\pi_e}(\tilde{\tau}) J(\tilde{\tau})\right]}_{\text{model bias / return discrepancy}} && (3)
\end{aligned}
$$

Here, $\tau \sim p^{\pi_e}$ is a trajectory drawn from the dynamics distribution associated with the policy π_e and $p^{\pi_e}(\tau)$ is the probability of observing trajectory τ under the policy π_e. In Equation (3), we add and subtract the simulator estimate of the state-conditioned policy value $\sum_{\tilde{\tau}\sim \tilde{p}^{\pi_e}|s_0=s} \tilde{p}^{\pi_e}(\tilde{\tau}) J(\tilde{\tau})$, where $\tilde{p}$ is the dynamics distribution induced by the generative model and $\tilde{\tau}$ is a synthetic trajectory sampled from a generative model that approximates the dynamics distribution of the target policy, $\tilde{p}^{\pi_e}$.

We can now approximate the "model bias/return discrepancy" term using empirical averages.

$$\approx \sum_{\tilde{\tau}\sim\tilde{p}^{\pi_e}|s_0=s} \tilde{p}^{\pi_e}(\tilde{\tau})J(\tilde{\tau}) + \underbrace{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} J(\tau_i|s_0=s) - \frac{1}{nM}\sum_{j=1}^{nM} J(\tilde{\tau}_j|s_0=s)}_{\text{approximate the expected value by empirical average}} \tag{4}$$

$$= \sum_{\tilde{\tau}\sim\tilde{p}^{\pi_e}|s_0=s} \tilde{p}^{\pi_e}(\tilde{\tau})J(\tilde{\tau}) + \frac{1}{nM}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{M} \underbrace{\left(J(\tau_i|s_0=s) - J(\tilde{\tau}_{ij}|s_0=s)\right)}_{\text{return difference of a pair of trajectories}}, \tag{5}$$

where n/M is the number of behavior/synthetic trajectories, and $J(\tau|s_0 = s)$ is the return of trajectory τ given initial state s.

Inspired by conformal prediction for regression, our goal is to produce an interval $\hat{C}_{n,\alpha}(s)$, which is specific to initial state s and the number of offline behavior trajectories n. This interval defines a band such that, with high probability, the return difference between any offline trajectory and its corresponding generated trajectory that starts from the same initial state s ("return difference of a pair of trajectories" in Equation (5)) lies within the band. More specifically,

$$P^{\pi_e}\left(\underbrace{J(\tau|s_0=s) - J(\tilde{\tau}|s_0=s)}_{\text{return difference of a pair of trajectories}} \in \hat{C}_{n,\alpha}(s)\right) \geq \alpha, \tag{6}$$

where P^{π_e} is the probability measure induced by the target policy π_e and α is the confidence level. Given this goal, the final conformal prediction interval for the value of the initial state s, $V^{\pi_e}(s)$, is

$$\sum_{\tilde{\tau}\sim\tilde{p}^{\pi_e},s_0=s} \tilde{p}^{\pi_e}(\tilde{\tau})J(\tilde{\tau}) + \hat{C}_{n,\alpha}(s). \tag{7}$$

Remark (Conformal band intuition). The role of conformal prediction in **CP-Gen** is to construct a distribution-free confidence interval for the return discrepancy between real and synthetic trajectories. By calibrating the return differences $J(\tau) - J(\tilde{\tau})$ using both offline and generated data, and reweighting to correct for the policy distribution shift between π_b and π_e, we obtain an interval that provably covers the unknown bias term. Adding this interval to the synthetic estimate therefore yields a valid confidence interval for $V^{\pi_e}(s)$.

Algorithm 1 **CP-Gen**

Require: Offline dataset $\mathcal{D}_{\pi_b}$, behavior policy π_b, target policy π_e, initial state x.

1: Split D_{π_b} (size K) into D_{tr} $(K/2)$ and D_{cal} $(K/2)$
2: Fit a generative model $\mathcal{T}$ using D_{tr}.
3: For each trajectory $\tau_i \in D_{tr}$, generate M trajectories $\{\tilde{\tau}_{i,m}\}_{m=1}^{M}$ under π_b with the same initial state as τ_i, record the pairs as $\{(\tau_i, \tilde{\tau}_{i,m})\}_{m=1}^{M}$.
4: For each trajectory $\tau_j \in D_{cal}$, generate N trajectories $\{\tilde{\tau}_{j,n}\}_{n=1}^{N}$ under π_b with the same initial state as τ_j, record the pairs as $\{(\tau_j, \tilde{\tau}_{j,n})\}_{n=1}^{N}$.
5: For each $(\tau_j, \tilde{\tau}_{j,n})$, calculate the weight $\hat{w}_\epsilon(x_j, J(\tau_j) - J(\tilde{\tau}_{j,n}))$ using $(\tau_i, \tilde{\tau}_{i,m})$ (Equation (10)).
6: Given an initial state x, calculate $p_{j,n}^{\hat{w}}(x, y)$ and $p_{\frac{KN}{2}+1}^{\hat{w}}$ using Equation (13).
7: For each $(\tau_j, \tilde{\tau}_{j,n})$, calculate the score $V_{j,n} = J(\tau_j) - J(\tilde{\tau}_{j,n})$.
8: Calculate $F^{(x,y)}$ using Equation (12).
9: Calculate confidence interval $\hat{C}_{n,\alpha}$ over the value of trajectories starting in initial state x using Equation (11).
10: Rollout trajectories under π_e from $\mathcal{T}$ and get the first term in Equation (7).

Now, we use conformal prediction to calculate the band. Unlike standard conformal prediction, we must tackle the distribution shift induced by the difference between the behavior and target policies. To do so, prior work (Foffano et al., 2023), which builds on related work (Tibshirani et al., 2020; Taufiq et al., 2022), proposed CP methods for MDPs that weigh the calibration scores using estimates of the likelihood ratio.

However, this prior work does not consider the use of generated trajectories. Therefore we introduce a new sample reweighting technique that accounts for the distribution shift (between π_b and π_e) in both the real and generated trajectories (see full derivation in Appendix F). To simplify notation, let $s \in S$ be the initial state and $\delta_{rr'} \in \Delta_{rr'}$ be the return difference of a pair of trajectories (one from the original behavior dataset, and one generated). Then, the weight for a given sample is

$$w(s, \delta_{rr'}) := \mathbb{P}^{\pi_e}_{(S,\Delta_{rr'})}(s, \delta_{rr'}) / \mathbb{P}^{\pi_b}_{(S,\Delta_{rr'})}(s, \delta_{rr'}) \tag{8}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim p^{\pi_b}, \tilde{\tau} \sim \tilde{p}^{\pi_b}} \left[\underbrace{\frac{\prod_{t=1}^{H} \pi_e(a_t|s_t)\pi_e(\tilde{a}_t|\tilde{s}_t)}{\prod_{t=1}^{H} \pi_b(a_t|s_t)\pi_b(\tilde{a}_t|\tilde{s}_t)}}_{\substack{\text{product of IPS ratios} \\ \text{of real and generated trajectories}}} \;\middle|\; \underbrace{s_0 = s, \delta_{J(\tau)J(\tilde{\tau})} = \delta_{rr'}}_{\substack{\text{conditioned on same initial state} \\ \text{and reward difference}}} \right]. \tag{9}$$

This weight is an expectation of the IPS ratio over all observations that share the same input (s) and score ($\delta_{rr'}$). However, calculating this will become intractable as the size of the MDP increases.

To mitigate this, and allow us to compute valid conformal prediction intervals in continuous state and action spaces, we use $\epsilon-$approximation to estimate the weight for a given sample:

$$w_\epsilon(s, \delta_{rr'}) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim p^{\pi_b}, \tilde{\tau} \sim \tilde{p}^{\pi_b}} \left[\frac{\prod_{t=1}^{H} \pi_e(a_t|s_t)\pi_e(\tilde{a}_t|\tilde{s}_t)}{\prod_{t=1}^{H} \pi_b(a_t|s_t)\pi_b(\tilde{a}_t|\tilde{s}_t)} | \underbrace{s_0 \in B(s, \epsilon_s), \delta_{J(\tau)J(\tilde{\tau})} \in B(\delta_{rr'}, \epsilon_r)}_{\epsilon\text{-balls around } s \text{ and } \delta_{rr'}} \right], \tag{10}$$

where $B(s, \epsilon_s)$ and $B(\delta_{rr'}, \epsilon_r)$ represent a ball around the input s of radius ϵ_s and a ball around the output $\delta_{rr'}$ of radius ϵ_r. This setup allows for small perturbations around s and $\delta_{rr'}$. In particular, $B(s, \epsilon_s)$ captures any input s that is within a small distance ϵ_s of s, and likewise for $B(\delta_{rr'}, \epsilon_r)$.

Remark (Weight approximation in high-dimensional MDPs). The weight $w(s, \delta_{rr'})$ in equation 8 is a population quantity that correctly accounts for distribution shift between the behavior and evaluation policies for both real and generated trajectories. If this weight were known exactly, **CP-Gen** would yield exact conformal prediction intervals. However, in continuous or high-dimensional state and return spaces, the event $\{S = s, \Delta_{rr'} = \delta_{rr'}\}$ has probability zero, making direct estimation of $w(s, \delta_{rr'})$ infeasible from finite data.

To address this, we introduce an ϵ-approximation that replaces exact conditioning with conditioning on local neighborhoods. Specifically, the balls $B(s, \epsilon_s)$ and $B(\delta_{rr'}, \epsilon_r)$ collect trajectories whose initial states and return differences are close to $(s, \delta_{rr'})$, thereby pooling nearby samples to enable stable estimation. That is, the weight $w_\epsilon(s, \delta_{rr'})$ is estimated using trajectories that are ϵ_s-close in the initial state and ϵ_r close in the trajectory return (Algorithm 1). This approximation trades a controlled amount of bias for statistical tractability, and is essential for applying conformal prediction in MDPs with continuous or infinite state and action space. Our theoretical analysis in Section 4 shows that the resulting loss in coverage is explicitly bounded as a function of ϵ_s and ϵ_r. We emphasize that this ϵ-based reweighting is a key technical contribution of **CP-Gen**, enabling conformal OPE with synthetic trajectories in settings where exact likelihood-ratio weighting is computationally or statistically infeasible.

Using these weights w_ϵ, the conformal band is as follows:

$$\hat{C}_{n,\alpha}(s) = \{\delta_{rr'} : \underbrace{Q(\frac{\alpha}{2}, F_n^{(s,\delta_{rr'})})}_{\frac{\alpha}{2} \text{ quantile of the CDF } F_n} \leq \underbrace{V_{n+1}^{(s,\delta_{rr'})}}_{\text{score of this pair of trajectories}} \leq \underbrace{Q(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}, F_n^{(s,\delta_{rr'})})}_{(1-\frac{\alpha}{2}) \text{ quantile of the CDF } F_n} \}, \tag{11}$$

where

$$F_n^{(s,\delta_{rr'})}(v) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \underbrace{p_i^w(s, \delta_{rr'})}_{\text{weighted quantile}} \mathbb{1}\{V_i \leq v\} + \underbrace{p_{n+1}^w(s, \delta_{rr'})}_{\text{weighted quantile}} \mathbb{1}\{\infty \leq v\}, \tag{12}$$

$$p_i^w(s, \delta_{rr'}) = \begin{cases} \frac{w(S_i, \Delta_{rr',i})}{\sum_{j=1}^n w(S_j, \Delta_{rr',j}) + w(s, \delta_{rr'})} & \text{if } i \leq n, \\ \frac{w(s, \delta_{rr'})}{\sum_{j=1}^n w(S_j, \Delta_{rr',j}) + w(s, \delta_{rr'})} & \text{if } i = n+1, \end{cases} \tag{13}$$

Q is a quantile function, and $V_i^{(S_i, \Delta_{rr',i})} = \text{score}(S_i, \Delta_{rr',i}) = \Delta_{rr',i}$. We also note that typical conformal prediction methods do not provide coverage guarantees for individual samples. In our setting, however, the target of interest is $V^\pi(s)$, which is itself an expectation, so marginal coverage is sufficient.

Remark (Construction of the conformal band). The conformal band in equation 11 is constructed by applying weighted conformal prediction to the return differences $\Delta_{rr'}$. The weight $w(s, \delta_{rr'})$ plays the role of a likelihood-ratio correction, ensuring that calibration scores computed under the π_b are properly reweighted to reflect the distribution induced by π_e.

The weighted empirical distribution function $F_n^{(s,\delta_{rr'})}$ aggregates these calibrated scores using normalized weights p_i^w, and includes an additional mass at $+\infty$ corresponding to the test point, as in standard conformal prediction. The confidence band $\hat{C}_{n,\alpha}(s)$ is then defined by the central $(1-\alpha)$ quantiles of this weighted distribution. By construction, this guarantees that a new return difference drawn under the target policy falls within the band with high probability.

Finally, adding the conformal band to the synthetic estimate in equation 7 propagates this uncertainty to the state-conditioned policy value $V^{\pi_e}(s)$, yielding a valid confidence interval that accounts for both the distribution shift observed in OPE and model bias.

Algorithm 2 DR-PPI

Require: Offline dataset $\mathcal{D}_{\pi_b}$, behavior policy π_b, target policy π_e.

1: Split D_{π_b} (size n) into D_1 and D_2 (each with size $\frac{n}{2}$).
2: Fit a generative model f_1 using D_1.
3: Use f_1 to generate N_f rollouts $\{\tilde{\tau}_i\}_{i=1}^{N_f}$ from π_e.
4: For each $\tau_j \in D_2$, use f_1 to generate M rollouts $\{\tilde{\tau}_{m,j}\}_{m=1}^{M}$ with the same initial state $s_{0,j}$.
5: Estimate $\widehat{V}_{\text{DR-PPI:1}}$ using Equation (14).
6: Fit a generative model using D_2, and estimate $\widehat{V}_{\text{DR-PPI:2}}$ in the same way.
7: Estimate $\hat{V}^{\pi_e}$ using Equation (23).
8: Estimate the variance of $\hat{V}^{\pi_e}$ using Equation (24).
9: Provide confidence interval $\hat{C}_\alpha$ using Equation (15).

3.2 DR-PPI: Confidence Intervals for Unconditional OPE Value Estimation

In Section 3.1, we derived a valid confidence interval for the initial-state-conditioned policy value. Now, we study the more common task for OPE, which is instead to estimate the policy value averaged over the initial state distribution. A natural approach would be to aggregate the CP-Gen estimates across initial states, for example by applying a union bound. Unfortunately, this approach would result in confidence intervals that are impractically wide. Thus, we introduce a second estimator tailored to this setting, DR-PPI, which builds on ideas from doubly robust estimation and prediction-powered inference. Our goal is to construct an estimator of $V^{\pi_e} = \mathbb{E}_{s_0}[V^{\pi_e}(s_0)]$ together with valid confidence intervals.

First, we assume that the initial-state distribution d_0 is known (though our results extend to settings in which d_0 must be estimated). Now, we construct a cross-fitted, doubly-robust estimate of the policy value V^{π_e} as follows. First, we split the behavior dataset D_{π_b} into two equal parts, which we refer to as D_1 and D_2. We first use D_1 to fit a generative model f_1; this procedure is agnostic to the generative model used, and reasonable approaches include a diffusion model or a variational auto-encoder (VAE). Then, we use f_1 to generate N_f rollouts $\{\tilde{\tau}_i\}_{i=1}^{N_f}$ where each rollout uses actions as sampled from the target policy π_e. The rollouts are used to calculate the model-based return; however since we expect this return to be biased, we add a correction term using the trajectories observed in D_2 as follows

$$\widehat{V}^{\pi_e}_{\text{DR-PPI:1}} = \frac{1}{N_f}\sum_{i=1}^{N_f} J(\tilde{\tau}_i) \;+\; \frac{1}{n/2}\sum_{j\in D_2}\Big(\tilde{J}(\tau_j) \;-\; \frac{1}{M}\sum_{m=1}^{M} J(\tilde{\tau}_{m,j} \mid s_{0,j})\Big). \tag{14}$$

Here, n is the number original behavior trajectories, and $\tilde{J}(\tau_i)$ is the re-weighted return of the behavior trajectory τ_i. We note that there are several possible ways to perform this re-weighting: IS (e.g., $\tilde{J}(\tau_i) = \rho(\tau_i)J(\tau_i)$), weighted IS (WIS), and per-decision IS (PDIS). Because the trajectory τ_i arises from the behavior policy, the re-weighting technique allows us to estimate its value as if it was generated from the target policy. Regardless of the re-weighting technique, our asymptotic theoretical results hold.

The importance-sampling based correction relies on the generation of an additional set of trajectories $\{\tilde{\tau}_{m,j}\}_{m=1}^{M}$, which all begin in the same initial state as the corresponding behavior trajectory τ_j but are instead generated from the target policy. The correction over M generated trajectories does not need to be re-weighted because the trajectories are generated using f_1 which samples trajectories from π_e.

To ensure that the data is used efficiently, we use cross-fitting (Chernozhukov et al., 2018) with two splits of the data. $\widehat{V}_{\texttt{DR-PPI}:1}$ uses D_1 to fit the generative model f_1 and uses D_2 to provide the correction. Similarly, we fit the generative model on D_2 to produce f_2 and correct the estimator using D_1, which yields $\widehat{V}_{\texttt{DR-PPI}:2}$. The final estimate (Algorithm 2) is the average of $\widehat{V}_{\texttt{DR-PPI}:1}$ and $\widehat{V}_{\texttt{DR-PPI}:2}$.

The variance can then be calculated by combining plug-in estimates of the variance of the model-based term and the IS-term for each dataset split (details in Appendix E). Using this variance, an approximate CI for a given choice of coverage $(1-\alpha)$ is

$$\widehat{C}_\alpha = \widehat{V}^{\pi_e}_{\texttt{DR-PPI}} \pm z_{1-\alpha/2}\sqrt{\mathbb{V}\left[\widehat{V}^{\pi_e}_{\texttt{DR-PPI}}\right]} \tag{15}$$

where $\mathbb{V}\left[\widehat{V}^{\pi_e}_{\texttt{DR-PPI}}\right]$ is the variance of the OPE estimate learned by DR-PPI, and $z_{1-\alpha/2}$ is the z-score corresponding to the $1-\alpha/2$ quantile of the standard normal distribution.

We note that DR-PPI differs from traditional PPI in two key ways. First, in PPI, one typically has access to large quantities of unlabeled data, and an ML model is used to predict labels for these samples. In contrast, in our setting, the machine learning model (e.g., a generative model) is used to produce new samples, which can then be comparatively easily labeled via a reward function. Second, our setting involves distribution shift; we observe trajectories generated by a behavior policy, while our goal is to infer the value of a target policy that induces a different trajectory distribution. In contrast, PPI assumes that labeled and unlabeled samples are drawn from the same underlying distribution.

3.3 Practical considerations

Before discussing the practical considerations when fitting the estimators, we first compare their constructions. When all trajectories in an environment begin from the same initial state, the point estimates of both methods are identical, differing only in their confidence intervals. The re-weighting schemes, however, are distinct: DR-PPI re-weights only the real behavior trajectories, whereas CP-Gen uses a product of IPS ratios averaged across a set of trajectories. Finally, the return differences used to compute the CI in CP-Gen may exhibit higher variance than subtracting the mean of a set of trajectories from the return of a single trajectory in DR-PPI. However, this effect depends on the stochasticity of the generated trajectories and may vary across domains.

There are several practical considerations to enable OPE in environments with large state and action spaces as well as settings in which π_b and π_e differ substantially. First, it is occasionally necessary to clip the largest IPS ratios to avoid extremely large intervals. Ionides (2008) shows that using a clip constant set to $n^{1/2}$ where n is the number of dataset samples, provides an optimal first order rate in the resulting mean-squared error of the OPE estimator, balancing the bias introduced by the clipping with the variance reduction. This clipping constant also ensures the resulting estimate is still consistent. Following this, we set the clipping constant at a rate of $n^{1/2}$.

Additionally, in Algorithm 2, we propose splitting the behavior dataset into two portions and aggregating the OPE estimate calculated using each portion. If a pre-trained generative model is available, we use the full dataset to construct the CI, and no data splitting for generative model training is necessary. However, if no pre-trained model exists, we divide the data: one half is used to train the generative model, and the other

half is used to compute the CI. Because these two subsets are independent, this preserves the exchangeability criterion for conformal prediction and the validity of DR-PPI. However, in practice, it may not possible to split the behavior dataset due to its size. For these settings, we choose not to perform cross-fitting, and instead report results without sub-dividing the dataset. As discussed in Section 5, this can still result in valid, but higher variance CIs.

Finally, for CP-Gen, we must set ϵ_s and ϵ_r depending on the environment. We view ϵ_s and ϵ_r as hyperparameters that need. One way to do this is via cross-validation, where we split the behavior dataset into training and validation sets, and choose the ϵ_r, ϵ_s that yields the most accurate estimate of the value function $V^{\pi_b}(s)$ on the validation set.

4 Theoretical Results

Now, we discuss the theoretical guarantees of our approaches. As is standard in prior OPE literature, we assume that the target and behavior policies share common support, and that the instantaneous rewards and IPS ratios are bounded (Farajtabar et al., 2018; Thomas & Brunskill, 2016).

4.1 CP-Gen produces valid conformal prediction intervals

We make a few additional assumptions to analyze CP-Gen. These assumptions balance theoretical rigor with practical relevance, allowing us to derive meaningful guarantees in high-dimensional, structured settings. Importantly, they still encompass a broad class of real-world MDPs.

Assumption 1 (Lipschitz Continuity of the Policy)**.** There exist constants $L_\pi, L_{\pi,s}, L_{\pi,a}$ such that for $\pi \in \{\pi_b, \pi_e\}$ and all $s, s_1 \in \mathcal{S}, a, a_1 \in \mathcal{A}$,

$$TV(\pi(\cdot|s), \pi(\cdot|s_1)) \leq L_\pi ||s - s_1|| \tag{16}$$

$$|\pi(a|s) - \pi(a_1|s_1)| \leq L_{\pi,s}||s - s_1|| + L_{\pi,a}||a - a_1||. \tag{17}$$

Assumption 2 (Lipschitz Transition Dynamics)**.** For all $s, s_1 \in \mathcal{S}$, $a, a_1 \in \mathcal{A}$,

$$TV(p(\cdot|s,a), p(\cdot|s_1,a_1)) \leq L_{p,s}\|s - s_1\| + L_{p,a}\|a - a_1\|. \tag{18}$$

Assumption 3 (Score Smoothness)**.** The map $(s, \delta_{rr'}) \mapsto w(s, \delta_{rr'})$ is L_r-Lipschitz in its second argument: $|w(s, \delta_{rr'}) - w(s, \delta'_{rr'})| \leq L_r|\delta_{rr'} - \delta'_{rr'}|$.

We consider Assumptions 1 and 2 mild. In most cases, Assumption 1 holds with a sufficiently large Lipschitz constant; in practice, these constants are small when similar states are assigned similar actions, a condition often justified in domains like healthcare, where similar patients receive similar treatments. A comparable assumption has been studied in prior work (Liu et al., 2022). Similarly, Assumption 2 is a smoothness assumption on the transition dynamics which has been used in prior work (Asadi et al., 2018). For example, in healthcare, patients with comparable clinical profiles often respond similarly to similar treatments; small changes in dosage or patient characteristics typically produce gradual, not abrupt, differences in outcomes.

Assumption 3 requires that the return differences between trajectories are smooth in their expected IPS ratios. However, in domains with a large number of samples, where we can use a more fine-grained ϵ_r, the Lipschitz assumption here (which is multiplied by ϵ_r in our theoretical bound) will have much less impact. Overall, our assumptions are used to account for potential errors introduced by ϵ-approximation, used in large or continuous state spaces and ensure that the resulting averaging error is bounded.

Under the stated assumptions, we now demonstrate that CP-Gen produces valid conformal prediction intervals within a small margin of error (Theorem 1, proof in Appendix F).

Theorem 1 (CP-Gen calculates a valid conformal prediction interval)**.** *Under Assumptions 1 to 3, suppose that $\mathbb{E}_{\pi_b}[|\hat{w}_\epsilon(S, \Delta_{rr'})|^k] \leq d^{2k}$ for some $k \geq 2$ and finite d. The conformal band has a lower bounded coverage*

$$P^{\pi_e}(\Delta_{rr'} \in \hat{C}_{n,\alpha}(S)) \geq 1 - \alpha - \Delta_w, \tag{19}$$

where $\Delta_w = \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}^{\pi_b}|\hat{w}_\epsilon(S, \Delta_{rr'}) - w(S, \Delta_{rr'})|$ *is the estimation error with scale*

$$\Delta_w = \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(n^{-1/2}\epsilon_s^{-3d_s/2}\epsilon_r^{-3/2} + \epsilon_s + \epsilon_r), \tag{20}$$

where d_s *is the dimension of* $\mathcal{S}$*.*

In addition, if the non-conformity scores $\{V_i\}_{i=1}^n$ *have no ties almost surely, then*

$$P^{\pi_e}(\Delta_{rr'} \in \hat{C}_{n,\alpha}(S)) \leq 1 - \alpha - \Delta_w + cn^{1/k-1} \tag{21}$$

for some positive constant c *depending on* d *and* k *only.*

Remark (Implications). Theorem 1 shows that ϵ-approximation results in a loss of coverage specified by Δ_w, which depends primarily on ϵ_s and ϵ_r. In environments where these constants are small, or there are a large number of samples, or ϵ_s, ϵ_r are optimally selected, we can get a smaller loss of coverage. We also note that the guarantee is similar in form to prior conformal intervals for MDPs (Foffano et al., 2023), but our construction has significant benefits over prior work: it can leverage synthetic data and allows us to compute conformal bands for high-dimensional, continuous states with our approximation of w.

4.2 DR-PPI produces asymptotically valid confidnece intervals

In Section 3.2, we mention several choices for the importance-sampling correction including IS, WIS, and PDIS. Regardless of the correction style, we achieve asymptotically valid CIs (Theorem 2, proof in Appendix F).

Theorem 2 (DR-PPI calculates an asymptotically valid CI)**.** *For all possible corrections* $\tilde{R}_{IS}$*,* $\tilde{R}_{WIS}$ *and* $\tilde{R}_{PDIS}$*,*

$$\liminf_{n,M,N_f \to \infty} P(V^{\pi_e} \in \hat{C}_\alpha) \geq 1 - \alpha. \tag{22}$$

Remark (Implications). Theorem 2 guarantees that DR-PPI produces confidence intervals with correct asymptotic coverage even when the generative model is misspecified. In particular, incorporating synthetic trajectories does not compromise validity, provided the importance-sampling correction is consistent. Different choices of correction affect efficiency in finite samples, but does not affect asymptotic coverage.

5 Empirical Results

Our theoretical analyses demonstrated that CP-Gen and DR-PPI can calculate valid CIs under mild assumptions. To complement this analysis, we seek to answer the following questions using empirical results: **1)** Does the ϵ-approximation used in CP-Gen cause the estimated interval to be biased? **2)** Do DR-PPI and CP-Gen produce intervals that cover the ground truth policy value? **3)** Under what conditions do the DR-PPI estimates outperform baseline approaches?

5.1 Datasets

To answer our empirical questions, we use the following domains.

Inventory Control (Foffano et al., 2023): We adapt this simulator to accommodate a continuous state and reward space.
Sepsis (Oberst & Sontag, 2019): In this popular sepsis simulator, the goal is to successfully discharge a simulated patient. We approximate the dynamics using a feed-forward network.
D4RL HalfCheetah (Fu et al., 2020): The HalfCheetah environment is a Mujoco task in the D4RL suite where the goal is to get the cheetah to move forward. Here, we approximate the dynamics using a variational auto-encoder (VAE) (Gao et al., 2023).
MIMIC-IV (Johnson et al., 2020; Goldberger et al., 2000): We consider a subset of patients from MIMIC-IV that receive potassium repletion. To emulate a setting in which we have access to both a behavior and target cohort, we construct two sub-cohorts. The behavior sub-cohort consists of patients who receive lower dosages

(<20 mEq/L), and the target sub-cohort consists of patients who receive higher dosages (>= 20mEq/L). We use a VAE to generate synthetic trajectories. Our goal is to learn the value of the target policy (i.e., repletion strategy in the higher-dosage cohort).

The domains we consider range in complexity and relevance to real-world settings. This breadth allows us to understand how specific environmental factors, including simulator quality and the size of the state and action space, impact estimator performance.

5.2 Baselines

In addition to the baseline proposed in Foffano et al. (2023), we compare to the following approaches:
Importance Sampling (IS): We use standard IS, deriving a bound using central limit theorem (CLT) or bootstrapping.
Augmented Importance Sampling (AugIS): We use both the original dataset and a set of synthetic trajectories to calculate an IS estimate, with bounds estimated using either CLT or boostrapping.
Direct Method (DM): We use rollouts from the learned model and calculate the expectation of the trajectory returns. DM estimates do not produce CIs.
Doubly Robust (DR): Here, we compute a DR estimated using DQL to learn the reward model.
Augmented Doubly Robust (AugDR): Here, we use both offline trajectories and synthetic trajectories to learn a Deep Q-learning (DQL) reward model and then compute a DR estimate.
Q-Bootstrap: Here, we fit a Q-function using the behavior dataset and use it to learn a bootstrapped estimate of $V^{\pi_e}(s)$.

Setting	**Ground truth** $\mathbf{V^{\pi_e}(s)}$	**DM** (Point Estimate)	**Foffano et al.** Interval Length	**Q-bootstrap** Interval Length	CP-Gen Interval Length
Inventory	-412.85	-120.57	8550.00	520.64*	**5531.60**
Sepsis	-0.40	-0.12	**1**	0.02*	1.90
D4RL Half Cheetah	1990.39	1393.98	190.00	60.00*	**40.07**
MIMIC-IV	1	0.689	1.00	2.20	**0.13**

Table 2: **CP-Gen outperforms baselines across domains with continuous state-spaces**, producing conformal prediction intervals for policy value estimation. For methods that produce an interval, we report the interval length for $\alpha = 0.05$. The interval length that is shortest that also covers the ground truth policy value $V^{\pi_e}(s)$ is in **bold**. Intervals that do not cover the ground truth policy are marked with an asterisk (*).

Setting	$\mathbf{V^{\pi_e}}$	**IS (CLT)**	**IS (Bootstrap)**	**AugIS (CLT)**	**AugIS (Bootstrap)**	**DR (CLT)**	**AugDR (CLT)**	**DM**	DR-PPI
Inventory	-428.51	1929.7	1982.14	54.66*	49.68*	2744.46	107.22*	-100.53	**1918.38**
Sepsis	-0.56	1.58	1.48	0.008*	0.007*	1.23	1.272e+11	-0.4	**1.19**
D4RL Half Cheetah	1975.75	281.88	**271.67**	151.93*	142.14*	5.514e+31	1.17e+32	1423.57	281.81
MIMIC-IV	0.746	1.19	**1.09**	0.008*	0.007*	7.566e+21	0.011*	0.69	1.19

Table 3: **DR-PPI produces valid confidence intervals across all domains.** For methods that produce an interval, we report interval lengths for the same coverage ($\alpha = 0.05$), and **bold** the interval with the smallest size that also covers the ground truth policy value V^{π_e}. Intervals that do not cover the ground truth value of the policy are marked with an asterisk (*).

5.3 Results

CP-Gen produces valid CP intervals. As discussed in Section 3, to scale prior conformal prediction approaches to large MDPs, we use an ϵ-approximation strategy. Despite this approximation, we find that CP-Gen still results in conformal prediction intervals that cover $V^{\pi_e}(s)$ with the specified confidence level, often with a smaller interval size than baseline approaches (Table 2, full intervals reported in Table 6). We compare to a DM-style baseline where we average the return of synthetic trajectories that start in the given initial state. We find that the DM baseline can produce a biased result with a poor generative model (e.g., in D4RL, MIMIC-IV). We also evaluate the baseline reported in Foffano et al. (2023). This baseline covers the ground truth value but produces wider intervals than CP-Gen in all environments with continuous state

spaces (e.g., all environments except Sepsis). These results suggest that CP-Gen newly enables conformal prediction for OPE in MDP settings with large or continuous state and action spaces.

Setting	Method	Coverage Rate	Average Length of Interval
Inventory	CP-Gen	98%	5576.85
Inventory	DR-PPI	96%	1951.14
Sepsis	CP-Gen	92%	1.442
Sepsis	DR-PPI	96%	1.172

Table 4: **Empirical coverage rates across the Inventory and Sepsis settings for CP-Gen and DR-PPI.** We report coverage rates (out of 50 iterations) corresponding to $\alpha = 0.05$.

DR-PPI **identifies valid confidence intervals that cover V^{π_e} across all domains**. Across all domains, DR-PPI produces valid CIs that cover V^{π_e}, as our theoretical results suggest (Table 3). In contrast, most baseline approaches either have wide CIs or have intervals that do not cover V^{π_e}. In fact, any baseline approach that uses generated trajectories (e.g., AugIS, AugDR) produces a biased interval, which suggests that naively incorporating auxiliary synthetic trajectories results in a biased estimator. Furthermore, we find that in the D4RL and MIMIC-IV settings, DQL is unable to identify an accurate Q-learning function; as a result, the CIs become exponentially large.

DR-PPI **performs best in stochastic domains with high quality generative models**. Finally, we clarify the settings in which DR-PPI outperforms baselines. When the environment is deterministic (e.g., D4RL HalfCheetah), or the generative model is of poor quality (e.g., D4RL HalfCheetah, MIMIC-IV) DR-PPI performs similarly to the IS baselines. In such settings we do not get a favorable variance reduction from the synthetic trajectories because they are often highly deterministic. In contrast, in settings where the environment is stochastic and our learned generative model is good (e.g., Inventory, Sepsis), DR-PPI has tighter CIs. Given that both IS with bootstrapping and DR-PPI produce valid CIs, we recommend a simple rule: use the estimator with the narrower interval. We defer a rigorous selection criterion to future work.

Empirical coverage rates. Finally, we investigate empirical coverage rates for both methods in the Inventory and Sepsis settings (Table 4). We note that in both environments, DR-PPI covers the ground truth value of the policy, and that CP-Gen achieves the requested coverage in Inventory. We believe that the slight loss of coverage for CP-Gen in the Sepsis setting is due to a higher Δ_w. In particular, the Sepsis environment, due to its discrete state and reward space, exhibits weak Lipschitz continuity, with a large Lipschitz constant. Furthermore, in this setting, C_{ips}, the upper bound of the IPS ratios, is large given that the target and behavior policies are quite distinct. As suggested in Theorem 1, these two factors contribute to a higher Δ_w, which results in a small loss of coverage.

6 Conclusion

Here, we take steps toward uncertainty-aware OPE in settings that combine real and synthetic trajectories. We present two complementary approaches, CP-Gen and DR-PPI, that use auxiliary data to construct CIs for OPE. CP-Gen calculates state-conditioned policy values, while DR-PPI estimates unconditional policy values. We provide theoretical guarantees (Section 4) and examine behavior in four empirical domains(Section 5). Our results illustrate that obtaining valid CIs for OPE with auxiliary data is feasible across a variety of domains, from fully synthetic settings to real-world EHR data.

Limitations and future work. Future work can explore alternative classes of generative models such as diffusion models, develop principled procedures for setting ϵ_s and ϵ_r, and investigate strategies to mitigate the impact of poor-quality generated trajectories. More broadly, we see value in analyzing these approaches under distribution shift and partial observability.

Broader Impact Statement

In this work, we propose two strategies to estimate confidence intervals for off-policy evaluation when used with both real and synthetic data. We believe this work is foundational and acknowledge that it has the potential to improve the downstream application of RL policies in high-stakes domains.

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