Active Learning with Safety Constraints

Abstract

Active learning methods have shown great promise in reducing the number of
samples necessary for learning. As automated learning systems are adopted into
real-time, real-world decision-making pipelines, it is increasingly important that
such algorithms are designed with *safety* in mind. In this work we investigate
the complexity of learning the best *safe* decision in interactive environments. We
reduce this problem to a constrained linear bandits problem, where our goal is to
find the best arm satisfying certain (unknown) safety constraints. We propose an
adaptive experimental design-based algorithm, which we show efficiently trades
off between the difficulty of showing an arm is unsafe vs suboptimal. To our
knowledge, our results are the first on best-arm identification in linear bandits with
safety constraints. In practice, we demonstrate that this approach performs well on
synthetic and real world datasets.

1 Introduction

In many problems in online decision-making the goal of the learner is to take measurements in such
a way as to learn a best policy. Oftentimes, though the space of policies may be large, the set of
feasible, or safe policies could be much smaller, effectively constraining the search space of the
learner. Furthermore, these constraints may themselves depend on unknown problem parameters.

For example, consider the problem of bidding sequentially in a series of auctions where the bidder
bids a price s_t, the value of winning an item t is denoted v_t, and the utility of winning that item and
paying price p_t is $v_t - p_t$. The goal of the bidder is to choose an optimal strategy amongst bidding
strategies $s \in S, s : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. When a bidder is deciding how to choose these strategies, they often
face constraints: they may have a budget B they must abide; they may wish to have those auctions
they win be well-distributed across time (e.g. in the case of advertising campaigns); they may want to
ensure the set of items they win satisfy some other property (e.g. for advertisements, they might want
to ensure they are not over-targeting any demographic group).

As another example, inventory management systems may face similar issues of deciding amongst
strategies, where there is some objective function (such as revenue) and a variety of constraints at play
in this choice (e.g. capacity of a set of warehouses, employee scheduling constraints, or limits on the
duration of delivery lag). They also operate in markets with changing demand and other uncertainties,
leading to uncertainty about which strategies are feasible or safe (satisfy constraints) and uncertainty
about the revenue they generate.

Both of these scenarios motivate understanding the sample complexity of selecting an action or
strategy which approximately maximizes an objective while also satisfying some constraints, where
samples are needed to both learn the objective value of actions and whether or not they satisfy said
constraints. In this work, we study the *active* sample complexity of this task—if the learner can
choose which examples to observe and have labeled, how many fewer samples might they need
compared to the number needed in a passive setting? We pose this as a best-arm identification linear
bandits problem with safety constraints, where the goal is to estimate the best arm, subject to it
meeting certain (initially unknown) safety constraints. We propose an experiment design-based

algorithm which efficiently learns the best safe decision, and show the efficacy of this approach in practice through several experimental examples. To the best of our knowledge, ours is the first approach to handle best-arm identification in linear bandits with safety constraints.

1.1 Linear Bandits with Safety Constraints

Let $\delta \in (0,1)$ be a confidence parameter, $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ be finite known sets of vectors, and assume there exists $\theta_* \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $\mu_* \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ unknown to the learner. For simplicity, we assume that $\|\theta_*\|_2 \leq 1$, and $\|\mu_{*,i}\|_2 \leq 1, i \in [m]$ and $\|x\|_2 \leq 1, \|z\|_2 \leq 1, \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, z \in \mathcal{Z}$. The learner plays according to the following protocol: at each time step t the learner chooses some action $x_t \in \mathcal{X}$, observes $(r_t, \{s_{t,i}\}_{i=1}^m)$ where $r_t = \theta_*^\top x_t + w_t^\theta$ and $s_{t,i} = \mu_{*,i}^\top x_t + w_{t,i}^\mu$ for all $i \in [m]$, where $w_t^\theta, w_{t,i}^\mu$ are i.i.d. mean zero 1-subGaussian noise. The choice of action x_t is measurable with respect to the history $\mathcal{F}_t = \{(x_j, r_j, \{s_{j,i}\}_{i=1}^m)\}_{j=1}^{t-1}$. The learner stops at a stopping time τ_δ which is measurable with respect to the filtration generated by $\mathcal{F}_{t \leq \tau}$, and returns $\widehat{z}_\tau \in \mathcal{Z}$. In general, when referring to any expectation $\mathbb{E}$ or probability $\mathbb{P}$, the underlying measure will be with respect to the actions, observed rewards, and internal randomness of the algorithm.

We are interested in the *safe transductive best-arm identification problem* (**STBAI**), where the goal of the learner is to identify

$$z_* := \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} z^\top \theta_* \quad \text{s.t.} \quad z^\top \mu_{*,i} \leq \gamma, \forall i \in [m]$$

for some (known) threshold γ. In words, our goal is to identify the best *safe* arm in $\mathcal{Z}$, z_*, where we say an arm z is safe if it satisfies every linear constraint: $z^\top \mu_{*,i} \leq \gamma, \forall i \in [m]$. We are interested in obtaining learners that take the fewest number of samples possible to accomplish this. In practice, we will consider a slightly easier objective. Fix some tolerance $\epsilon > 0$ and let

$$\mathcal{Z}_\epsilon := \{z \in \mathcal{Z} \ : \ z^\top \theta_* \geq z_*^\top \theta_* - \epsilon, \ z^\top \mu_{*,i} \leq \gamma + \epsilon, \forall i \in [m]\}.$$

Then our goal is to obtain an (ϵ, δ)-PAC learner defined as follows:

Definition 1 ((ϵ, δ)-PAC Learner). *A learner is (ϵ, δ)-PAC if for any instance it returns $\widehat{z}_\tau$ such that* $\mathbb{P}[\widehat{z}_\tau \in \mathcal{Z}_\epsilon] \geq 1 - \delta$.

We define the *optimality gap* for any $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ as $\Delta(z) := \theta_*^\top(z_* - z)$, and the *safety gap* for constraint i as $\Delta_{\text{safe}}^i(z) := \gamma - \mu_{*,i}^\top z$. Note that either $\Delta(z)$ or $\Delta_{\text{safe}}^i(z)$ can be negative. If $\Delta(z) < 0$, it follows that z has larger *value*—$z^\top \theta_*$—than the best safe arm z_*, which implies it must be unsafe. If $\Delta_{\text{safe}}^i(z) < 0$ for some i, then arm z is unsafe. We also define the ϵ-*safe optimality gap* as:

$$\Delta^\epsilon(z) = \max_{z' \in \mathcal{Z}}(z' - z)^\top \theta_* \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \min_{i \in [m]} \Delta_{\text{safe}}^i(z) \geq \epsilon. \tag{1}$$

$\Delta^\epsilon(z)$ is then the gap in value between arm z and the best arm with minimum safety gap at least ϵ.

Mathematical Notation. Let $\|x\|_A^2 = x^\top A x$ and $\mathfrak{p}(x) := \max\{x, 0\}$. $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\cdot)$ hides factors that are logarithmic in the arguments. $\lesssim$ denotes inequality up to constants. We denote the simplex as $\triangle_{\mathcal{X}} := \{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{|\mathcal{X}|} : \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \lambda_x = 1\}$.

2 Safe Best-Arm Identification in Linear Bandits

2.1 Algorithm Definition

The main challenge in algorithm design for the safe best-arm identification problem is ensuring that we are efficiently balancing our exploration between refining our estimates of both the safety gaps, as well as the optimality gaps. Our approach is given in Algorithm 1, BESIDE.

BESIDE relies on a round-based adaptive experimental design approach. In each round BESIDE consists of three phases. In the first phase, it solves an experimental design over $\lambda_\ell \in \triangle_{\mathcal{X}}$, with the goal of refining our estimates of the safety gaps. It then takes τ_ℓ samples from λ_ℓ. In the second phase these samples are used to estimate the safety constraints, $\widehat{\mu}^{i,\ell}$, and the safety gaps of each arm, $\widehat{\Delta}_{\text{safe}}^{i,\ell}(z)$. Finally, in Phase 3, an additional experimental design is solved which now aims to refine our estimates of the optimality gaps, and estimates of the optimality gaps $\widehat{\Delta}^\ell(z)$ for each $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ are computed. We encapsulate Phase 3 in a subroutine, RAGE$^\epsilon$, which we outline in the following. We now carefully describe each phase—we begin with Phase 2 to explain how our estimator works.

Algorithm 1 Best **S**afe **A**rm **Ide**ntification (BESIDE)

1: **input:** tolerance ϵ, confidence δ
2: $\iota_\epsilon \leftarrow \lceil \log(\frac{20}{\epsilon})\rceil$, $\widehat{\Delta}^{i,0}_{\text{safe}}(z) \leftarrow 0$, $\widehat{\Delta}^0(z) \leftarrow 0$ for all $z \in \mathcal{Z}$
3: **for** $\ell = 1, 2, \ldots, \iota_\epsilon$ **do**
4:     $\epsilon_\ell \leftarrow 20 \cdot 2^{-\ell}$
    // Phase 1: Solve design to reduce uncertainty in safety constraints
5:     Define
$$c_\ell(z) = \min_j |\widehat{\Delta}^{j,\ell-1}_{\text{safe}}(z)| + \max_j \mathfrak{p}(-\widehat{\Delta}^{j,\ell-1}_{\text{safe}}(z)) + \mathfrak{p}(\widehat{\Delta}^{\ell-1}(z))$$

6:     Let τ_ℓ be the minimal value of $\tau \in \mathbb{R}_+$ which is greater than $4 \log \frac{4m|\mathcal{Z}|\ell^2}{\delta}$ such that the objective to the following is no greater than $\epsilon_\ell/100$, and λ_ℓ the corresponding optimal distribution

$$\inf_{\lambda \in \triangle_\mathcal{X}} \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} -\frac{1}{100}(c_\ell(z) + \epsilon_\ell) + \sqrt{\tau^{-1} \cdot \|z\|^2_{A(\lambda)^{-1}} \cdot \log(\frac{4m|\mathcal{Z}|\ell^2}{\delta})}$$

7:     Sample $x_t \sim \lambda_\ell$, collect τ_ℓ observations $\{(x_t, r_t, s_{t,1}, \ldots, s_{t,m})\}_{t=1}^{\tau_\ell}$
    // Phase 2: Estimate safety constraints
8:     $\{\widehat{\mu}^{i,\ell}\}_{i=1}^m \leftarrow \mathsf{RIPS}(\{(x_t, s_{t,i})\}_{t=1}^{\tau_\ell}, \mathcal{Z}, \frac{\delta}{2m\ell^2})$
9:     $\widehat{\Delta}^{i,\ell}_{\text{safe}}(z) \leftarrow \gamma - z^\top \widehat{\mu}^{i,\ell} + \|z\|_{A(\lambda_\ell)^{-1}} \sqrt{\tau_\ell^{-1} \log(\frac{4m|\mathcal{Z}|\ell^2}{\delta})}$
    // Phase 3: Refine estimates of optimality gaps
10:     $\{\widehat{\Delta}^\ell(z)\}_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \leftarrow \mathsf{RAGE}^\epsilon\Big(\mathcal{Z}, \mathcal{Y}_\ell, \epsilon_\ell, \frac{\delta}{4\ell^2}, \{\widehat{\Delta}_{\text{safe}}(z) \leftarrow \max_j \mathfrak{p}(-\widehat{\Delta}^{j,\ell}_{\text{safe}}(z))\}_{z \in \mathcal{Z}}\Big)$

    // Perform final round of exploration to ensure we find ϵ-good arm
11: $\mathcal{Y}_{\text{end}} \leftarrow \{z \in \mathcal{Z} : c_\ell(z) \lesssim \widehat{\Delta}^{i,\ell}_{\text{safe}}(z) + \epsilon\}$
12: $\{\widehat{\Delta}^{\text{end}}(z)\}_{z \in \mathcal{Y}_{\text{end}}} \leftarrow \mathsf{RAGE}^\epsilon(\mathcal{Y}_{\text{end}}, \mathcal{Y}_{\text{end}}, \epsilon, \delta, \{\widehat{\Delta}_{\text{safe}}(z) \leftarrow \max_j \mathfrak{p}(-\widehat{\Delta}^{j,\ell}_{\text{safe}}(z))\}_{z \in \mathcal{Z}})$
13: **return** $\widehat{z} = \arg\min_{z \in \mathcal{Y}_{\text{end}}} \widehat{\Delta}^{\text{end}}(z)$

Phase 2:   In Phase 2 the algorithm would like to use the τ_ℓ samples drawn from the design λ_ℓ to estimate the constraints $\mu^{i,\ell}$ and, for each $z \in \mathcal{Z}$, $z^\top \mu^{i,\ell}$. Past works using adaptive experimental design in the linear bandits literature have utilized the least-squares estimator along with complicated rounding schemes [12] which may require an additional $\text{poly}(d)$ samples each round (this $\text{poly}(d)$ factor could be prohibitively large—for example, in active classification problems, d is the total number of data points). We instead utilize the RIPS estimator of [6] which gives us a guarantee of the form: with probability greater than $1 - \delta$, for all $z \in \mathcal{Z}$,

$$|z^\top(\widehat{\mu}^{i,\ell} - \mu_{*,i})| \lesssim \|z\|_{A(\lambda_\ell)^{-1}} \cdot \sqrt{\tau_\ell^{-1} \log(\frac{4m|\mathcal{Z}|\ell^2}{\delta})}. \tag{2}$$

We describe the RIPS estimator in more detail in Appendix B.

Phase 1:   By our definition of the experimental design on Line 6, our safety gap estimation error bound in (2) satisfies, for each $z \in \mathcal{Z}$:

$$|z^\top(\widehat{\mu}^{i,\ell} - \mu_{*,i})| \lesssim \|z\|_{A(\lambda_\ell)^{-1}} \cdot \sqrt{\tau_\ell^{-1} \log(\frac{4m|\mathcal{Z}|\ell^2}{\delta})} \lesssim c_\ell(z) + \epsilon_\ell. \tag{3}$$

Note that our design chooses an allocation that minimizes the variance in our estimate of each safety constraint (up to some tolerance), which scales as $\|z\|^2_{A(\lambda)^{-1}}$. This can be thought of as a form of $\mathcal{X}\mathcal{Y}$-*design*—a design of the form $\inf_{\lambda \in \triangle_\mathcal{X}} \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \|y\|^2_{A(\lambda)^{-1}}$—where here $\mathcal{Y} \leftarrow \mathcal{Z}$ is chosen to reduce our uncertainty in estimating the safety value for each $z \in \mathcal{Z}$. We refer to such a design objective henceforth as $\mathcal{X}\mathcal{Y}_{\text{safe}}$. Assume that at round $\ell - 1$, we can guarantee

$$c_\ell(z) = \min_j |\widehat{\Delta}^{j,\ell-1}_{\text{safe}}(z)| + \max_j \mathfrak{p}(-\widehat{\Delta}^{j,\ell-1}_{\text{safe}}(z)) + \mathfrak{p}(\widehat{\Delta}^{\ell-1}(z)) + \epsilon_\ell$$

$$\lesssim \min_j |\Delta^j_{\text{safe}}(z)| + \max_j \mathfrak{p}(-\Delta^j_{\text{safe}}(z)) + \mathfrak{p}(\Delta^{\epsilon_{\ell-1}}(z)) + \epsilon_\ell. \tag{4}$$

Then combining the above inequalities, we see that the experiment design on Line 6 aims to minimize the uncertainty in our estimate of $z^\top \mu_{*,i}$ up to a tolerance that scales as the maximum of the four

terms in (4). It follows that if any of these terms is large, we will only allocate a small number of samples to refining our estimate of arm z. Each one of these terms can be intuitively motivated by thinking through what is needed to prove that an arm $z \neq z_*$.

- z **has small safety gap** $\min_j |\Delta_{\text{safe}}^j(z)|$**:** if this term is large, it implies that minimum safety gap for z is large. To show an arm is safe or unsafe, it suffices to learn each safety gap up to a tolerance a constant factor from its value—regularizing by this term ensures we do just that.

- z **fails some safety constraint** $\max_j \mathfrak{p}(-\Delta_{\text{safe}}^j(z))$**:** if this term is large, it implies that arm z is very unsafe for some constraint. In this case, we can easily determine z is unsafe, and therefore do not need to reduce our uncertainty in the safety gap any more.

- z **is sub-optimal** $\mathfrak{p}(\Delta^{\epsilon_{\ell-1}}(z))$**:** if this term is large, it implies that z is very suboptimal compared to some safe arm with safety gap at least $\epsilon_{\ell-1}$. In this case, we do not need to estimate z's safety gap, as we will have already eliminated it.

It remains to ensure that (4) holds. As we show in Appendix E through a careful inductive argument, combining (3) with our guarantee on the estimates of the optimality gaps obtained in Phase 3, $\widehat{\Delta}^\ell(z)$, is sufficient to guarantee (4) holds. In particular, if any gap is greater than ϵ_ℓ it is estimated up to a constant factor, and otherwise it is estimated up to $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon_\ell)$. This ensures that our gaps are estimated at the correct rate while guaranteeing we do not collect too many samples in each round.

Phase 3: In this phase we estimate the suboptimality gaps using RAGE$^\epsilon$. RAGE$^\epsilon$ is inspired by the RAGE algorithm of [12] for best-arm identification. In the interest of space, we defer the full definition of RAGE$^\epsilon$ to Appendix D but provide some intuition here. After Phase 2, by (3) the set of arms $\mathcal{Y}_\ell := \{z \in \mathcal{Z} : c_s(z) \lesssim \widehat{\Delta}^{i,s}(z), \forall i \in [m]\}$ for $s \leq \ell$ are precisely the ones that we can certify are safe (note that we do not need to ever explicitly construct such a set—we can instead maintain an implicit definition through the constraints). RAGE$^\epsilon$ uses an adaptive experimental design procedure to sample in such a way as to optimally estimate the gaps $(z - \widehat{y})^\top \theta_*, \forall z \in \mathcal{Z}$ and some $\widehat{y} \in \mathcal{Y}_\ell$ up to some (sufficient) tolerance. In particular, it also solves an $\mathcal{XY}$-design, but now on the set $\mathcal{Y} \leftarrow \{z - \widehat{y} : z \in \mathcal{Z}\}$. Thus, rather than minimizing $\|z\|_{A(\lambda)^{-1}}^2$, we minimize $\|z - \widehat{y}\|_{A(\lambda)^{-1}}^2$. This design reduces uncertainty on the *differences* between arms, which allows us to refine our estimates of their optimality gaps. Henceforth we refer to such a design as $\mathcal{XY}_{\text{diff}}$. We describe the importance of the choice of design in more detail in Section 2.4. Ultimately, if an arm z has value within a factor of ϵ_ℓ of the best safe arm in $\mathcal{Y}_\ell$, and if we have not yet shown arm z is unsafe, then we will estimate its optimality gap up to a constant factor of ϵ_ℓ. If we were maintaining arm sets explicitly (similar to the original RAGE algorithm of [12]) we would eliminate arms at this point.

Remark 1 (Computational Complexity)**.** *The main computational challenge in* BESIDE *and* RAGE$^\epsilon$ *is the calculation of the experimental designs (i.e. Line 6 and the corresponding design in* RAGE$^\epsilon$*). In general, the presence of the square root implies that the resulting optimization problem may not be convex in λ. To handle this issue we note that $2\sqrt{xy} = \min_{\alpha > 0} \alpha x + \frac{y}{\alpha}$—thus we can replace the existing design with $\inf_{\lambda \in \triangle_\mathcal{X}} \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \min_{\alpha > 0} -\frac{1}{100} (c_\ell(z) + \epsilon_\ell) + \alpha \|z\|_{A(\lambda)^{-1}}^2 + \log(\frac{4m|\mathcal{Z}|\ell^2}{\delta})/(\alpha \tau)$. By appropriately discretizing the space we search over for τ and α we can then apply the Frank-Wolfe algorithm to minimize over λ. While computationally efficient in theory, this procedure is quite complicated and impractical for large problems. In the experiments section we provide a practical heuristic that is motivated by the above algorithm and is computationally efficient for larger problems.*

2.2 Main Result

BESIDE achieves the following complexity.

Theorem 1. BESIDE *is (ϵ, δ)-PAC. In other words, with probability at least $1 - \delta$,* BESIDE *returns an arm $\widehat{z} \in \mathcal{Z}$ such that*

$$\widehat{z}^\top \theta_* \geq z_*^\top \theta_* - \epsilon, \quad \min_{i \in [m]} \Delta_{\text{safe}}^i(\widehat{z}) \geq -\epsilon$$

and terminates after collecting at most

$$C \cdot \sup_{\widetilde{\epsilon} \geq \epsilon} \inf_{\lambda \in \triangle_\mathcal{X}} \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \frac{\|z\|_{A(\lambda)^{-1}}^2 \cdot \log(\frac{m|\mathcal{Z}|}{\delta})}{\left(\min_j |\Delta_{\text{safe}}^j(z)| + \max_j \mathfrak{p}(-\Delta_{\text{safe}}^j(z)) + \mathfrak{p}(\Delta^{\widetilde{\epsilon}}(z)) + \widehat{\epsilon} \right)^2} \quad \text{(safety)}$$

$$+ C \cdot \sup_{\widetilde{\epsilon} \geq \epsilon} \inf_{\lambda \in \triangle_{\mathcal{X}}} \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \frac{\|z - z_*\|^2_{A(\lambda)^{-1}} \cdot \log(\frac{|\mathcal{Z}|}{\delta})}{\left(\max_j \mathfrak{p}(-\Delta^j_{\mathrm{safe}}(z)) + \mathfrak{p}(\Delta^{\widetilde{\epsilon}}(z)) + \widetilde{\epsilon} \right)^2} + C_0 \qquad \text{(optimality)}$$

samples for some $C = \mathrm{poly} \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ and $C_0 = \mathrm{poly} \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon}, |\mathcal{Z}|) \cdot \log \frac{1}{\delta}$.

The complexity bound given in Theorem 1 may, at first glance, appear rather opaque, yet it in fact yields a very intuitive interpretation. The first term in the complexity, the safety term, is the complexity needed to show each arm is safe or unsafe, *if they have not otherwise been eliminated*. As described in the previous section, if $\mathfrak{p}(\Delta^{\widetilde{\epsilon}}(z))$ is large, this implies we have found an arm better than z, so learning its safety value is irrelevant.

The second term in the complexity, the optimality term, corresponds to the difficulty of showing an arm is worse *than the best arm we can guarantee is safe*. Note that we can only guarantee an arm is suboptimal if we can find a safe arm with higher value. Recall the definition of $\Delta^{\widetilde{\epsilon}}(z)$ given in (1). Intuitively, $\Delta^{\widetilde{\epsilon}}(z)$ denotes the gap in value between arm z and the best arm with safety gap at least $\widetilde{\epsilon}$. As we make $\widetilde{\epsilon}$ smaller, we can show additional arms are safe, which increases $\Delta^{\widetilde{\epsilon}}(z)$. While this makes it easier to show z is suboptimal, it comes at a cost—the extra samples necessary to decrease our safety tolerance, given by the first term in the complexity. BESIDE trades off between optimizing for each of these terms—gradually decreasing its tolerance on both the safety and optimality terms to more easily eliminate suboptimal arms, while not allocating too many samples to guarantee safety.

To help illustrate this complexity, we consider a simple example with orthogonal arms, i.e. a multi-armed bandit example.

Example 1 (BESIDE on Multi-Armed Bandits). *In the multi-armed bandit setting, we have $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Z} = \{e_1, \dots, e_d\}$. Let $m = 1$, $d = 3$, and consider the settings of θ_* and μ_* given in Figure 1. Here we see that arm e_1 is safe and has value much higher than any other arm, so $z_* = e_1$, and can be shown to be safe relatively easily; arm e_2 has near-optimal value but is very unsafe; and arm e_3 is unsafe with very small safety gap, but has the smallest value.*

Figure 1: Multi-Armed Bandit Instance

Showing e_2 is Suboptimal. *As e_2 has near-optimal value, $\Delta(e_2)$ is very small and it is very difficult to show e_2 is suboptimal. However, $-\Delta_{\mathrm{safe}}(e_2) = \mathcal{O}(1)$, so it is very easy to show e_2 is unsafe. It follows that $\mathfrak{p}(-\Delta_{\mathrm{safe}}(e_2)) = \mathcal{O}(1)$ so both denominators in our complexity will always be $\mathcal{O}(1)$ for $z = e_2$—BESIDE does not attempt to show e_2 is suboptimal, but instead shows it is unsafe.*

Showing e_3 is Suboptimal. *Recall the definition of $\Delta^{\epsilon}(z) = \max_{z' : \Delta_{\mathrm{safe}}(z') \geq \epsilon} \theta_*^{\top}(z' - z)$. In this case, for $\epsilon = \mathcal{O}(1)$, we will have $\Delta_{\mathrm{safe}}(e_1) \geq \epsilon$, which implies that $\Delta^{\epsilon}(e_3) = \theta_*^{\top}(e_1 - e_2) = \Delta(e_3) = \mathcal{O}(1)$. To show e_3 is suboptimal, we could either show it is unsafe (which is very difficult) or suboptimal (which is very easy). Observing the sample complexity of Theorem 1, we see that the denominator of both terms will always be $\mathcal{O}(1)$ for $z = e_3$ since $\Delta^{\epsilon}(e_2) = \mathcal{O}(1)$—BESIDE never pays for the small safety gap of e_3, it instead takes advantage of the fact that e_3 can easily be shown to be suboptimal, and uses this to eliminate it.*

In both of these cases we see that BESIDE does the "right" thing, always using the easier of the two criteria—either showing an arm is unsafe or suboptimal—to show that $z \neq z_*$. Combining the above observations, for $\epsilon \approx \min\{\Delta(e_3), -\Delta_{\mathrm{safe}}(e_2), \Delta_{\mathrm{safe}}(e_1)\}$, it follows that on this example the total sample complexity of BESIDE given by Theorem 1 scales as:

$$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}} \left(\left(\frac{1}{\Delta_{\mathrm{safe}}(e_1)^2} + \frac{1}{\Delta_{\mathrm{safe}}(e_2)^2} + \frac{1}{\Delta(e_3)^2} \right) \cdot \log \frac{1}{\delta} \right)$$

184   *where the $1/\Delta_{\mathrm{safe}}(e_1)^2$ arises because we must also show e_1 is safe.*

2.3   Optimality of BESIDE

Optimality in Best-Arm Identification.   Consider applying BESIDE to a problem instance where $m = 1$, $\mu_{*,1} = 0$, and $\gamma = 1$. In this case, every arm is safe, and the safety constraints are essentially vacuous—every arm can easily be shown safe. We can therefore think of this as simply an instance of the best-arm identification problem. In this setting, we obtain the following corollary.

Corollary 1. *Consider running* BESIDE *on a problem instance where $m = 1$, $\mu_{*,1} = 0$, and $\gamma = 1$, and set $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}\max_{z \neq z_*}\theta_*^\top(z_* - z)$. Then with probability at least $1 - \delta$,* BESIDE *returns z_* and has sample complexity bounded by:*

$$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}\left(\inf_{\lambda \in \triangle_{\mathcal{X}}}\max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}}\frac{\|z - z_*\|_{A(\lambda)^{-1}}^2}{\Delta(z)^2} \cdot \log\frac{|\mathcal{Z}|}{\delta} + \inf_{\lambda \in \triangle_{\mathcal{X}}}\max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}}\|z\|_{A(\lambda)^{-1}}^2 \cdot \log\frac{|\mathcal{Z}|}{\delta}\right).$$

Up to lower-order terms, this exactly matches the lower bound on best-arm identification given in [12]. Thus, in settings where the safety constraint is vacuous, BESIDE hits the optimal rate.

Worst-Case Performance of BESIDE.   We next consider the worst-case performance of BESIDE in settings when $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Z}$. We have the following result.

Corollary 2. *Assume that $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Z}$. Then for any θ_* and $(\mu_{*,i})_{i=1}^m$, the sample complexity of* BESIDE *necessary to return an ϵ-good and ϵ-safe arm is bounded as $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\frac{d}{\epsilon^2} \cdot (\log(m|\mathcal{X}|) + \log\frac{1}{\delta}))$.*

Theorem 2 of [34] shows a worst-case lower bound of $\Omega(d^2/\epsilon^2)$ on the sample complexity of identifying an ϵ-optimal arm in the standard linear bandit setting. Safe best-arm identification problems in which the safety constraint is vacuous are at least as hard as the standard best-arm identification problem, since at minimum we need to find the best arm out of every safe arm. Thus, $\Omega(d^2/\epsilon^2)$ is also a worst-case lower bound for the safe best-arm identification problem. The hard instance of [34] has $|\mathcal{X}| = \mathcal{O}(2^d)$, so it follows that on this instance, BESIDE achieves a complexity of $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\frac{d}{\epsilon^2} \cdot (d + \log\frac{1}{\delta}))$, and therefore BESIDE has optimal dimensionality dependence. In addition, this also implies that safe best-arm identification, in the worst-case, is no harder than the standard best-arm identification problem—it is no harder to find the best *safe* arm, regardless of the number of safety constraints, than to find the best arm, ignoring safety constraints.

2.4   The Role of Experiment Design

We can think of the safe best-arm identification problem, in some sense, as an interpolation of the standard best-arm identification problem, as well as the level-set estimation problem, where the goal is to identify $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ satisfying $z^\top\mu_* \leq \gamma$ [25]. In the former problem, [12] shows that the instance-optimal rate can be attained by running a round-based algorithm and at every round solving an instance of the $\mathcal{XY}_{\mathrm{diff}}$ experiment design, as defined in Section 2.1. In the latter problem, [25] also show that a round-based algorithm can hit the instance-optimal rate, but instead solving the $\mathcal{XY}_{\mathrm{safe}}$ problem at each round. It is natural to ask whether either of these strategies could be applied to the safe best-arm identification problem directly, or if it is necessary to alternate between them. The following results show that, on their own, each of these designs is unable to hit the optimal rate.

Proposition 2. *Fix some small enough $\epsilon > 0$. Then there exist instances of the safe best-arm identification problem, $\mathcal{I}_i = (\theta_*^i, \mu_*^i, \mathcal{X}^i, \mathcal{Z}^i)$, $i = 1, 2$, with $d = |\mathcal{X}^i| = |\mathcal{Z}^i| = 2$, $m = 1$, such that:*

- *On $\mathcal{I}^1$, any (ϵ, δ)-PAC algorithm which plays only allocations minimizing $\mathcal{XY}_{\mathrm{diff}}$ must have $\mathbb{E}[\tau_\delta] \geq \Omega\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^3} \cdot \log\frac{1}{\delta}\right)$, while* BESIDE *identifies an ϵ-optimal arm after $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \cdot \log 1/\delta)$ samples.*

- *On $\mathcal{I}^2$, any (ϵ, δ)-PAC algorithm which plays only allocations minimizing $\mathcal{XY}_{\mathrm{safe}}$ must have $\mathbb{E}[\tau_\delta] \geq \Omega\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^{3/2}} \cdot \log\frac{1}{\delta}\right)$, while* BESIDE *identifies an ϵ-optimal arm after $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \cdot \log 1/\delta)$ samples.*

Proposition 2 implies that, to solve the safe best-arm identification problem optimally, more care must be taken in exploring than either standard experiment design induces—we must trade off between $\mathcal{XY}_{\mathrm{diff}}$ and $\mathcal{XY}_{\mathrm{safe}}$ as BESIDE does. We remark briefly on the instance $\mathcal{I}^1$. On this instance we have $\mathcal{X} = \{e_1, e_2\}$ and $\mathcal{Z} = \{z_1, z_2\}$ with $z_1 = [1/4, 1/2]$ and $z_2 = [3/4, 1/2 + \alpha]$. We set $\theta_*^1 = [1, 0]$,

$\mu_*^1 = [0, 1]$, and $\gamma = 1/2 + \alpha/2$. Here z_2 is unsafe while z_1 is safe, so it follows that $z_* = z_1$. As $z_2^\top \theta_*^1 > z_1^\top \theta_*^1$, to show $z_2 \neq z_*$, we must show it is unsafe. However, if we solve the design $\mathcal{X}\mathcal{Y}_{\mathrm{diff}}$, we see that it places nearly all of the mass on the first coordinate. While this would be optimal if both z_1 and z_2 were safe and we simply wished to determine which has a higher value, to show z_2 is unsafe, the optimal strategy places (roughly) the same mass on each coordinate, since each coordinate could contribute to the safety value. This is precisely the allocation BESIDE will play, so it is able to show that z_2 is unsafe much more efficiently than a naive $\mathcal{X}\mathcal{Y}_{\mathrm{diff}}$ approach.

3 Experiments for Safe Best Arm Identification in Linear Bandits

We next present experimental results on BESIDE to demonstrate the advantage of experimental design—especially combining $\mathcal{X}\mathcal{Y}_{\mathrm{diff}}$ and $\mathcal{X}\mathcal{Y}_{\mathrm{safe}}$ designs. As there are no existing algorithms that consider safe best-arm identification, as a benchmark we consider the naive adaptive approach BASELINE that first solves the problem of estimating the safety gap of each arm up to a desired tolerance, and then solves the problem of finding the best (safe) arm among the arms that were found to be safe. We first describe instances on which we test BESIDE. Our experimental details and precise implementation of BESIDE using elimination are described in Section C.

Multi-Armed Bandit. We consider a best-arm identification problem in which every arm is safe, but the arm with highest value is very difficult to identify as safe, while the second-best arm can easily be shown safe. We vary the total number of arms and run BESIDE and BASELINE with $\epsilon = 0.5$ and $\delta = 0.1$. From Figure 2, we observe that the sample complexity of BESIDE is smaller (up to about two times for 100 arms) than the sample complexity of its baseline.

Linear Response Model. *Random Instance*: We also consider the more general setup where $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Z} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are randomly generated from independent Gaussian random variables with mean 0 and variance 1. We set $|\mathcal{X}| = 50$ and vary the size of $|\mathcal{Z}|$. In Figure 3, we see again that BESIDE significantly outperforms the baseline.

Hard Instance: We last consider the instance of Proposition 2 and benchmark against the strategy playing only allocations minimizing $\mathcal{X}\mathcal{Y}_{\mathrm{diff}}$. In Figure 4, we see again that BESIDE significantly outperforms this baseline, corroborating the theoretical result of Proposition 2.

Figure 2: Total arm pulls to termination vs. number of arms

Figure 3: Total arm pulls to termination vs. $|\mathcal{Z}|$

Figure 4: Total arm pulls to termination vs. ϵ

3.1 Practical Algorithms for Active Classification Under Constraints

Next, we provide an application of the above ideas to pool-based active classification with constraints—namely, adaptive sampling to learn the highest accuracy classifier with a constraint on the false discovery rate (FDR). We first explain how this problem maps to the linear bandit setting. Precisely, let $\mathcal{X}$ be the example space and $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ the label space. Fix a hypothesis class $\mathcal{H}$ such that each $h \in \mathcal{H}$ is a classifier $h : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$. We represent each h with an associated indicator vector $z_h \in \{0, 1\}^{|\mathcal{X}|}$ where $z_h(x) = 1 \iff h(x) = 1$. Similarly, let $\eta \in [0, 1]^{|\mathcal{X}|}$ represent the label distribution, i.e. $\eta(x) = \mathbb{P}(Y = 1 | X = x)$. Then the risk of a classifier $R(h) := \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathrm{Unif}(\mathcal{X}), Y \sim \mathbf{Ber}(\eta(x))}[\mathbb{1}[h(x) \neq Y]] = z_h^\top (2\eta - 1)$ and the FDR is defined as $\mathrm{FDR}(h) := (\mathbf{1} - \eta)^\top z / \mathbf{1}^\top z$. In the case when $\eta \in \{0, 1\}^{|\mathcal{X}|}$, $\mathrm{FDR}(h)$ is the proportion of examples that h incorrectly labels as 1 out of all examples h labels as 1. Our goal is to solve the following constrained best arm identification problem:

$$\widehat{h} = \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} R(h) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \mathrm{FDR}(h) \leq q \iff \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} z_h^\top \eta \quad \text{s.t.} \quad ((\mathbf{1} - \eta)^\top - q\mathbf{1}^\top)^\top z \leq 0. \quad (5)$$

The main challenge in running BESIDE on this problem directly is a potentially high computational cost from computing a design over an extremely large hypothesis class $\mathcal{H}$ (e.g. neural networks of a bounded width). In this section we provide an alternative approach motivated by BESIDE. Algorithm 2 follows a similar design as BESIDE and relies on an oracle, CERM, that can solve (5), i.e. given a dataset it returns the highest accuracy classifier under an FDR constraint. Such oracles are available in, for example in [1, 9]. In each round of Algorithm 2 we perform *randomized exploration* by perturbing the labels on our existing dataset with mean zero Gaussian noise, and then training k classifiers $\widehat{h}_i, i \in [k]$, on the resulting datasets. Implicitly, we are making the assumption that the loss function in the training of ERM can handle continuous labels, such as the MLE of logistic regression. As described in [22], randomized exploration emulates sampling from a posterior distribution on our possible set of classifiers. We then use the labels generated from these classifiers to compute safe classifiers $h_i, i \in [k]$. Finally, mimicking the strategy of BESIDE, we compute $\mathcal{XY}_{\text{safe}}$ and $\mathcal{XY}_{\text{diff}}$ designs on these k safe classifiers and repeat (note that the designs computed on Line 5 are equivalent to $\mathcal{XY}_{\text{safe}}$ and $\mathcal{XY}_{\text{diff}}$ in the classification setting).

Algorithm 2 `Active constrained classification with randomized exploration`

Require: Batch size n, initial (labeled) data $x_1^{(0)}, \ldots, x_n^{(0)}$, number of rounds L, number of classifiers per round k, perturbation variance σ

1: **for** $\ell = 1, \ldots, L$ **do**
2:     **for** $i = 1, \ldots, k$ **do**
3:         $\widehat{h}_i = \text{ERM}(\{(x_t^{(\ell)}, y_t^{(\ell)} + \epsilon_t^{(i)})\}_{t=1}^n)$, where $\{\epsilon_t^{(i)}\}_{1 \leq t \leq n} \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
4:         $h_i = \text{CERM}(\{(x, \widehat{h}_i(x))\}_{x \in \mathcal{X}})$
5:     Compute designs: $\lambda_{\text{safe}} = \arg\min_{\lambda \in \triangle_{\mathcal{X}}} \max_{1 \leq i \leq k} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \frac{\mathbb{1}\{h_i(x) \neq 0\}}{\lambda_x}$, $\lambda_{\text{diff}} = \arg\min_{\lambda \in \triangle_{\mathcal{X}}} \max_{1 \leq i \neq j \leq k} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \frac{\mathbb{1}\{h_i(x) \neq h_j(x)\}}{\lambda_x}$
6:     Sample $x_1^{(\ell)}, \ldots, x_n^{(\ell)}$ from a uniform mixture of $\lambda_{\text{safe}}, \lambda_{\text{diff}}$
7:     Observe corresponding labels $y_1^{(\ell)}, \ldots, y_n^{(\ell)}$
    return $\widetilde{h} = \text{CERM}(\{(x_t^{(\ell)}, y_t^{(\ell)})\}_{1 \leq t \leq n, 0 \leq \ell \leq L})$

To validate Algorithm 2, we experiment against a passive baseline that selects points uniformly at randoms from the pool of examples $\mathcal{X}$, retrains the model using the same Constrained Empirical Risk Minimization oracle (CERM) as Algorithm 2 on its current samples, and report the accuracy and FDR. We evaluate on the adult income data set [24] (48,842 examples) where the goal is to predict whether someone's income is above $50k per year.

We report in Figure 5 the accuracy and the FDR obtained when varying the number of labels given to each method. We observe that for any desired accuracy Algorithm 2 allows us to provide a classifier with lower FDR. Also, for any chosen number of total labels—such as 500, 750, 2000 as reported in Figure 5—the Algorithm 2 gives a classifier with higher accuracy and lower FDR. In general we found that the active method needed half the number of samples as the passive sampling to achieve a given FDR. This

Figure 5: FDR vs accuracy for active (Algorithm 2) and passive sampling, ticks report number of samples

demonstrates the effectiveness of Algorithm 2 to learn simultaneously the objective (risk) and the constraint (FDR), in a similar favorable way as characterized by our theoretical findings. We provide additional experimental details in Section C.

4   Related works

Constrained Bandits. A growing body of work seeks to address the question of safe learning in interactive environments. In particular, the majority of such works have considered the problem of regret minimization in linear bandits with linear safety constraints. Here, the goal is to maximize online reward, $x_t^\top \theta_*$, by choosing actions $x_t \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, while ensuring a safety constraint of the

form $x_t^\top \mu_* \leq \gamma$ is met at all times (either in expectation or with high probability). A variety of algorithms have been proposed, including UCB-style [21, 2, 28], and Thompson Sampling [26, 27]. While these works show that $\sqrt{T}$ regret is attainable, they only provide worst-case bounds (while we obtain instance-dependent bounds) and do not study the pure-exploration best-arm identification problem.

To our knowledge, only several existing works consider the question of best-arm identification with safety constraints [32, 33, 35]. [32, 33] consider a general constrained optimization setting where the goal of the learner is to minimize some function $f(x)$ over a domain $x \in \mathcal{D}$, while only having access to noisy samples of $f(x)$, $f(x_t) + w_t$, and guaranteeing that a safety constraint $g(x_t) \geq h$ is met for every query point x_t. While they do provide a sample complexity upper bound, they give no lower bound, and, as shown in [35], their approach can be very suboptimal. [35] considers the setting of best-arm identification in multi-armed bandits. In their setting, at every step t they query a value $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$ for a particular coordinate i_t, and their goal is to identify the coordinate i^* such that $a_{i^*}^* \theta_{i^*} \geq \max_i a_i^* \theta_i$, where a_i^* is the largest value respecting the safety constraint: $a_i^* = \arg\max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} a\theta_i$ s.t. $a\mu_i \leq \gamma$. Similar to [32, 33], they require that the safety constraint $a_t \mu_{i_t} \leq \gamma$ must be met while learning. Though they do show matching upper and lower bounds, and in addition consider a slightly more general setting that allows for nonlinear (but monotonic) response functions, they treat every coordinate as independent, and do not allow for information-sharing between coordinates—the key generalization the linear bandit setting targets. We remark as well that in our setting, unlike these works, we allow the learner to query unsafe points during exploration, and only require that they output a safe decision at termination.

Best-Arm Identification in Linear Bandits.   The best-arm identification problem in multi-armed bandits (without safety constraints) is a classical and well-studied problem [3, 29, 11, 5], and near-optimal algorithms exist [16, 20]. More recently, there has been a growing interest in understanding the sample complexity of best-arm identification in linear bandits [31, 17, 36, 12, 18, 10]. We highlight in particular the work of [12] which proposes an experiment-design based algorithm, RAGE, that our approach takes inspiration from. While much progress has been made in understanding best-arm identification in linear bandits, to our knowledge, no existing works consider the setting of best-arm identification in linear bandits with safety constraints, the setting of this work.

Active Classification under FDR constraints   We finally mention one other related body of work—the problem of actively sampling to find a classifier with high accuracy or recall under precision constraints. Motivated by the experimental design approach of our main algorithm, BESIDE, we provide a heuristic algorithm for this problem with good empirical performance in Section 3.1. There is an extensive body of work on active learning (see the survey [13]) but only recently have works made the connection between best-arm identification for linear bandits and classification [19, 14, 7]. Precision constraints has been less studied in the adaptive context, we only know of [14, 4].

5   Conclusion

In this work we have shown that it is possible to efficiently find the best *safe* arm in linear bandits with a carefully designed adaptive experiment design-based approach. Our results open up several interesting directions for future work.

Instance Optimality.   While BESIDE is worst-case optimal, in Appendix A we show an instance-dependent lower bound which BESIDE does not, in general, seem to hit. We conjecture that this lower bound may be loose—addressing this discrepancy and showing matching instance-dependent upper and lower bounds is an exciting direction for future work.

Safety During Exploration.   Though there are many interesting applications where we may not require safety during exploration (i.e. only querying safe arms), in other cases we may need to ensure safety is met during exploration. Extending our work to this setting is an interesting open problem.

Potential Impacts.   As with any algorithm making stochastic assumptions, if assumptions are not met we can not guarantee the performance. In this case, one limitation is that if the underlying environment is changing (i.e. the constraints vary over time) the algorithm could have unexpected behavior with unintended consequences. Such a situation could lead to harmful results in examples such as the online advertising bidding example from the introduction. To mitigate this limitation of our setting, practitioners are encouraged to monitor many metrics, both short and long-term.

References

[1] Alekh Agarwal, Alina Beygelzimer, Miroslav Dudík, John Langford, and Hanna Wallach. A reductions approach to fair classification, 2018.

[2] Sanae Amani, Mahnoosh Alizadeh, and Christos Thrampoulidis. Linear stochastic bandits under safety constraints. In Hanna M. Wallach, Hugo Larochelle, Alina Beygelzimer, Florence d'Alché Buc, Edward A. Fox, and Roman Garnett, editors, *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 32: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2019, NeurIPS 2019, 8-14 December 2019, Vancouver, BC, Canada*, pages 9252–9262, 2019. URL `http://papers.nips.cc/paper/9124-linear-stochastic-bandits-under-safety-constraints`.

[3] Robert E Bechhofer. A sequential multiple-decision procedure for selecting the best one of several normal populations with a common unknown variance, and its use with various experimental designs. *Biometrics*, 14(3):408–429, 1958.

[4] Paul N Bennett, David M Chickering, Christopher Meek, and Xiaojin Zhu. Algorithms for active classifier selection: Maximizing recall with precision constraints. In *Proceedings of the Tenth ACM International Conference on Web Search and Data Mining*, pages 711–719, 2017.

[5] Sébastien Bubeck, Rémi Munos, and Gilles Stoltz. Pure exploration in multi-armed bandits problems. In *International conference on Algorithmic learning theory*, pages 23–37. Springer, 2009.

[6] Romain Camilleri, Julian Katz-Samuels, and Kevin Jamieson. High-dimensional experimental design and kernel bandits, 2021.

[7] Romain Camilleri, Zhihan Xiong, Maryam Fazel, Lalit Jain, and Kevin Jamieson. Selective sampling for online best-arm identification, 2021.

[8] Olivier Catoni. Challenging the empirical mean and empirical variance: a deviation study. In *Annales de l'IHP Probabilités et statistiques*, volume 48, pages 1148–1185, 2012.

[9] Andrew Cotter, Maya Gupta, Heinrich Jiang, Nathan Srebro, Karthik Sridharan, Serena Wang, Blake Woodworth, and Seungil You. Training well-generalizing classifiers for fairness metrics and other data-dependent constraints, 2018. URL `https://arxiv.org/abs/1807.00028`.

[10] Rémy Degenne, Pierre Ménard, Xuedong Shang, and Michal Valko. Gamification of pure exploration for linear bandits. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 2432–2442. PMLR, 2020.

[11] Eyal Even-Dar, Shie Mannor, and Yishay Mansour. Pac bounds for multi-armed bandit and markov decision processes. In *International Conference on Computational Learning Theory*, pages 255–270. Springer, 2002.

[12] Tanner Fiez, Lalit Jain, Kevin Jamieson, and Lillian Ratliff. Sequential experimental design for transductive linear bandits, 2019.

[13] Steve Hanneke. Theory of active learning. *Foundations and Trends in Machine Learning*, 7 (2-3), 2014.

[14] Lalit Jain and Kevin Jamieson. A new perspective on pool-based active classification and false-discovery control, 2020.

[15] Kevin Jamieson and Lalit Jain. Interactive machine learning. 2022.

[16] Kevin Jamieson, Matthew Malloy, Robert Nowak, and Sébastien Bubeck. lil'ucb: An optimal exploration algorithm for multi-armed bandits. In *Conference on Learning Theory*, pages 423–439. PMLR, 2014.

[17] Zohar S Karnin. Verification based solution for structured mab problems. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 29, 2016.

[18] Julian Katz-Samuels, Lalit Jain, Kevin G Jamieson, et al. An empirical process approach to the union bound: Practical algorithms for combinatorial and linear bandits. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:10371–10382, 2020.

[19] Julian Katz-Samuels, Jifan Zhang, Lalit Jain, and Kevin Jamieson. Improved algorithms for agnostic pool-based active classification, 2021. URL `https://arxiv.org/abs/2105.06499`.

[20] Emilie Kaufmann, Olivier Cappé, and Aurélien Garivier. On the complexity of best arm identification in multi-armed bandit models, 2016.

[21] Abbas Kazerouni, Mohammad Ghavamzadeh, Yasin Abbasi Yadkori, and Benjamin Van Roy. Conservative contextual linear bandits. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 30, 2017.

[22] Branislav Kveton, Manzil Zaheer, Csaba Szepesvari, Lihong Li, Mohammad Ghavamzadeh, and Craig Boutilier. Randomized exploration in generalized linear bandits, 2019. URL `https://arxiv.org/abs/1906.08947`.

[23] Tor Lattimore and Csaba Szepesvári. *Bandit algorithms*. Cambridge University Press, 2020.

[24] M Lichman. Uci machine learning repository,, 2013. URL `http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml`.

[25] Blake Mason, Romain Camilleri, Subhojyoti Mukherjee, Kevin Jamieson, Robert Nowak, and Lalit Jain. Nearly optimal algorithms for level set estimation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2111.01768*, 2021.

[26] Ahmadreza Moradipari, Sanae Amani, Mahnoosh Alizadeh, and Christos Thrampoulidis. Safe linear thompson sampling with side information, 2019. URL `https://arxiv.org/abs/1911.02156`.

[27] Ahmadreza Moradipari, Christos Thrampoulidis, and Mahnoosh Alizadeh. Stage-wise conservative linear bandits. 2020. doi: 10.48550/ARXIV.2010.00081. URL `https://arxiv.org/abs/2010.00081`.

[28] Aldo Pacchiano, Mohammad Ghavamzadeh, Peter Bartlett, and Heinrich Jiang. Stochastic bandits with linear constraints, 2020. URL `https://arxiv.org/abs/2006.10185`.

[29] Edward Paulson. A sequential procedure for selecting the population with the largest mean from k normal populations. *The Annals of Mathematical Statistics*, pages 174–180, 1964.

[30] Max Simchowitz, Kevin Jamieson, and Benjamin Recht. The simulator: Understanding adaptive sampling in the moderate-confidence regime. In *Conference on Learning Theory*, pages 1794–1834. PMLR, 2017.

[31] Marta Soare, Alessandro Lazaric, and Rémi Munos. Best-arm identification in linear bandits. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 27:828–836, 2014.

[32] Yanan Sui, Alkis Gotovos, Joel Burdick, and Andreas Krause. Safe exploration for optimization with gaussian processes. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 997–1005. PMLR, 2015.

[33] Yanan Sui, Joel Burdick, Yisong Yue, et al. Stagewise safe bayesian optimization with gaussian processes. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 4781–4789. PMLR, 2018.

[34] Andrew Wagenmaker, Yifang Chen, Max Simchowitz, Simon S Du, and Kevin Jamieson. Reward-free rl is no harder than reward-aware rl in linear markov decision processes. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2201.11206*, 2022.

[35] Zhenlin Wang, Andrew Wagenmaker, and Kevin Jamieson. Best arm identification with safety constraints, 2021. URL `https://arxiv.org/abs/2111.12151`.

[36] Liyuan Xu, Junya Honda, and Masashi Sugiyama. A fully adaptive algorithm for pure exploration in linear bandits. In *International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, pages 843–851. PMLR, 2018.