Practical, Provably-Correct Interactive Learning in the Realizable Setting: The Power of True Believers

Abstract

We consider interactive learning in the realizable setting and develop a general framework to handle problems ranging from best arm identification to active classification. We begin our investigation with the observation that agnostic algorithms *cannot* be minimax-optimal in the realizable setting. Hence, we design novel algorithms for the realizable setting that are nearly minimax optimal, computationally efficient, and general-purpose, accommodating a wide variety of function classes including kernel methods, Hölder smooth functions, and convex functions. The sample complexities of our algorithms can be quantified in terms of well-known quantities like the extended teaching dimension and haystack dimension. However, unlike algorithms based directly on those combinatorial quantities, our algorithms are computationally efficient. To achieve computational efficiency, our algorithms sample from the version space using Monte Carlo "hit-and-run" algorithms instead of maintaining the version space explicitly. Our approach has two key strengths. First, it is simple, consisting of two unifying, greedy algorithms. Second, our algorithms have the capability to seamlessly leverage prior knowledge that is often available and useful in practice. In addition to our new theoretical results, we demonstrate empirically that our algorithms are competitive with Gaussian process UCB methods.

1 Introduction

In this paper, we study interactive learning where an algorithm makes a decision and observes feedback that it then uses to update its behavior. Interactive learning problems are becoming increasingly widespread in the information era. Examples include A/B/n testing where technology companies perform large-scale experiments to adaptively collect data to optimize their products on platforms like websites or smart phone applications [1]; active classification where learning algorithms adaptively collect data with the hope of learning high-quality predictive models using a much smaller number of labels than is typically required in supervised learning [2]; and environmental monitoring using sensor networks [3].

At a high-level, there are two main algorithmic paradigms for interactive learning: *agnostic* algorithms and *realizability-based* algorithms. Agnostic algorithms may use a model class $\mathcal{F}$ to guide learning, but do not assume that the true data-generating process is well-modeled by $\mathcal{F}$. Because of this, agnostic algorithms tend to have the advantages of being robust to model specification and noise. Due to these virtues, agnostic algorithms have received much attention in the literature on interactive learning, e.g., in active classification [4, 5, 6]. By contrast, realizability-based algorithms assume that the model class $\mathcal{F}$ accurately models the real-world and leverages the structure in $\mathcal{F}$ to guide and potentially accelerate learning. Computationally efficient realizability-based algorithms have only been developed for *specific* model classes for problems like best arm identification [7, 8, 9] and

regret minimization [10], and the literature lacks a general framework for developing computationally efficient minimax optimal algorithms for generic function classes in the realizable setting.

The starting point of this paper is the basic question: in the realizable setting, can agnostic algorithms compete with realizability-based algorithms? In this paper, we begin by giving a series of negative results that demonstrate that agnostic algorithms pay a significant cost for their robustness to model mispecification. As an example, we show that *any agnostic active classification algorithm* is minimax suboptimal for a class of realizable instances and thus has no hope of competing with realizability-based algorithms in the realizable setting. These results motivate us to develop *a general framework for computationally efficient and nearly minimax algorithms for generic function classes in the realizable setting*. In doing so, we solve an open problem dating back to the work of [11] on the Haystack Dimension, developing the first computationally efficient and nearly minimax optimal algorithm for best arm identification with generic function classes. Finally, we empirically demonstrate the generality and practicality of our new approach, GRAILS, for function classes ranging from vanilla kernel methods to kernel methods with side information and to the class of convex functions.

2 Problem Setup

Let $\mathcal{X}$ denote the input space and $\mathcal{Y} \subset \mathbb{R}$ the output space. We assume that $|\mathcal{Y}| < \infty$, but will relax this assumption later. Let $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$ be a fixed pool of n measurements (or arms) with associated scores $y_1, \ldots, y_n \in \mathcal{Y}$. At each round t, the learner selects (or queries) $I_t \in [n]$ and observes y_{I_t}. We assume that the learner is given a function class $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$ where $\mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$ denotes the set of all functions mapping $\mathcal{X}$ to $\mathcal{Y}$. We say that *realizability* holds if there exists $f^* \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $f^*(x_i) = y_i$ for all $i \in [n]$. An algorithm is *realizability-based* if it assumes realizability. We focus on the noiseless setting here, but it is straightforward to extend our algorithms to handle the case where y_{I_t} is perturbed by independent, additive noise by simple repeated sampling.

We consider the following three objectives:

- **Best arm identification:** The goal is to identify $\operatorname{argmin}_{i \in [n]} y_i$ using as few queries as possible.

- **Cumulative Loss Minimization:** The goal is to identify $\operatorname{argmin}_{i \in [n]} y_i$ while minimizing the loss $\sum_{t=1}^{T} y_{I_t}$ incurred where T is the round that the agent identifies $\operatorname{argmin}_{i \in [n]} f^*(x_i)$.

- **Active Classification:** The goal is to identify $\operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}\{y_i \neq f(x_i)\}$ using as few queries as possible.

Best-arm identification is a well-studied problem with applications ranging from clinical trials to A/B/n testing. Cumulative loss minimization is a new problem. Applications include running a clinical trial to determine which of a collection of drugs is most effective while, due to ethical concerns about giving patients ineffective drugs, minimizing the number of participants with bad outcomes. It is closely related to regret minimization where the goal is instead to minimize $\sum_{t=1}^{T_0} y_{I_t} - \min_{i \in [n]} y_i$ for a fixed time horizon T_0. Finally, active classification is a mature field whose goal is to minimize the number of labels required to learn a high-quality classifier.

Our main focus in this work is on minimax optimality for a fixed $\mathcal{F}$ in the realizable setting:

- **Best arm identification:** $\Lambda_{best}(\mathcal{F})$ is the smallest integer q such that there exists some algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ such that for every $f^* \in \mathcal{F}$, $\mathcal{A}$ outputs an element of $\operatorname{argmin}_{i \in [n]} f^*(x_i)$ after at most q queries.
- **Cumulative Loss Minimization:** $\Lambda_{loss}(\mathcal{F})$ is the smallest real number q such that there exists some algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ such that for every $f^* \in \mathcal{F}$, $\mathcal{A}$ outputs an element of $\operatorname{argmin}_{i \in [n]} f^*(x_i)$ after incurring a loss of at most q.
- **Active Classification:** $\Lambda_{class}(\mathcal{F})$ is the smallest integer q such that there exists some algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ such that for every $f^* \in \mathcal{F}$, $\mathcal{A}$ outputs f^* after at most q queries.

We emphasize that the above notion of minimax optimality is with respect to the class $\mathcal{F}$. Next, we briefly summarize our contributions:

- **Active Classification:** We show that there exists a class of realizable instances such that any agnostic algorithm must query $\tilde{\Omega}(\sqrt{n})$ examples to identify the best arm, but our proposed

realizability-based algorithm requires $O(\log(n))$ queries. This demonstrates an exponential gap between agnostic active classification and realizable active classification algorithms.

- **Best arm identification:** Assuming we can sample efficiently from a distribution π with support $\mathcal{F}$, we give a greedy and computationally efficient algorithm that obtains a sample complexity of $\log(n)\log(\frac{1}{\mathbb{P}_\pi(\mathcal{S}_{f^*})})v_{best}^*$ where $\mathbb{P}_\pi(\mathcal{S}_{f^*})$ is the probability of sampling f^* and v_{best}^* is a combinatorial quantity related to the extended teaching dimension and is a minimax lower bound. This is the first computationally efficient and nearly minimax optimal algorithm for best arm identification with generic function classes.

- **Loss minimization:** We propose a new algorithm that achieves a loss of $v_{loss}^* \log(|\mathcal{F}|)$ in the worst case where v_{loss}^* is the minimax lower bound. We show that when applied to the regret minimization setting with general function classes, our algorithm achieves a state-of-the-art regret bound that is always better than the regret bound in [11], and can be arbitrarily better. Furthermore, using our techniques from our algorithm for best arm identification, we make this algorithm computationally efficient by leveraging a sampling oracle.

3 Related Work

Best arm identification has received much attention in the literature but predominantly for special classes of functions (e.g., linear) [12, 13, 7, 8, 9]. By contrast, our work concerns best arm identification with *general function classes*, which has received much less attention, and is most closely related to [11]. [11] introduce a combinatorial quantity HD($\mathcal{F}$) known as the *haystack dimension*, and propose a greedy algorithm that achieves a sample complexity of HD($\mathcal{F}$) $\log(|\mathcal{F}|)$, but is not computationally efficient. We build on this work by designing a greedy algorithm that achieves computational efficiency by appealing to [14] to sample functions from the function class $\mathcal{F}$. A key technical challenge is that the version space under a greedy algorithm is not convex and therefore standard sampling algorithms like "hit and run" cannot be directly applied to it.

[15] gives a general computationally efficient algorithm that solves many pure exploration problems such as active classification and clustering. Their algorithm requires specifying a distance d between functions in the function class $\mathcal{F}$ and proceeds by shrinking the average diameter of $\mathcal{F}$ as measured by d. Unfortunately, for problems such as best arm or ϵ-good arm identification, it is unclear how to construct the appropriate distance function to achieve optimal performance or even if such a function exists for a given application (see the appendix for a more detailed discussion).

Active Classification: There have been many works on active classification [6, 2], both in the realizable setting (e.g., [16, 17, 18]) and on agnostic algorithms (e.g., [5, 19, 4]). Theorem 1 shows that agnostic algorithms are minimax suboptimal in the realizable setting, suggesting that they may never be able to match the performance of realizability-based algorithms. Our work is closely related to the problem of *Exact learning* where a learning algorithm is required to identify the true f^* with probability 1 [20, 21], in contrast to the PAC requirement where a failure probability of δ is permitted. While this requirement is certainly strong, this framework enables the design of practical algorithms, as suggested by our experiments.

Bayesian Optimization Work: Our work is also related to the vast field of Bayesian optimization. We review a few relevant theoretical results and refer readers to [3] for a thorough survey. [22] propose and analyze `GP-UCB`. Although `GP-UCB` is applied often to best arm identification problems, [22] only give a regret bound and optimality is unclear. Other notable works include [23] whose results are asymptotic and the recent paper [24], which gives a new algorithm for best arm identification for kernel bandits based on experimental design whose optimality is unclear.

4 No Free Lunch for Agnostic Algorithms

Many agnostic algorithms have been proposed in the active classification literature (e.g. [5, 19, 4]). We say an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is δ-*agnostic* if for any labeling of the data $y \in \mathcal{Y}^n$, $\mathcal{A}$ finds the best classifier, $\text{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}\{y \neq f(x_i)\}$, with probability at least $1 - \delta$. Despite considering a much larger class of possible labelings, agnostic algorithms have been shown to achieve the lower bound in the *realizable setting* for the well-studied problem of thresholds where $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, \ldots, f_n\}$ and $f_i(x_j) = 1$ if $j \leq i$ and $f_i(x_j) = 0$ otherwise [25]. This raises the question: *can agnostic algorithms be optimal*

137 *over classes of realizable instances in general*? The following Theorem shows that in fact the gap
138 between agnostic algorithm and the minimax lower bound is exponential.

Proposition 1. *Let $\delta \in (0, \min(\frac{1}{20}, \frac{1}{n}))$. Consider the active classification setting. There exists*
140 $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ *and $\mathcal{F}$ forming a class of instances $\mathcal{I} = \{(x_i, f(x_i))_{i=1}^n : f \in \mathcal{F}\}$ such that*

141 • *the expected number of samples of any δ-agnostic algorithm is at least $\Omega(\log(1/\delta) \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\log(n/\delta)})$ on*
142 *one of the instances in $\mathcal{I}$, and*

143 • *there exists a realizability-based algorithm that solves each instance in $\mathcal{I}$ in $O(\log(n))$ queries.*

144 It turns out agnostic algorithms are also minimax suboptimal for regret minimization, a problem
145 closely related to loss minimization as we will discuss in more detail in Section 6. Here, we say
146 that a regret minimization algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is ϵ-*agnostic* if for any $y \in \mathcal{Y}^n \min_{j \in [n]} y_* - y_j \geq \epsilon$ where
147 $y_* = \max_i y_i$, $\mathcal{A}$ suffers at most bounded regret independent of the time horizon.

Proposition 2. *There exists $\mathcal{F}$ such that any 1-agnostic algorithm suffers regret at least $O(|\mathcal{F}|)$*
149 *for some instance in $\mathcal{F}$ while there exists a realizability-based algorithm suffering regret at most*
150 $O(\log(|\mathcal{F}|))$.

151 For best-arm identification, a fully agnostic algorithm must consider any $y \in \mathcal{Y}^n$ and it is therefore
152 trivial that it would need to query every x_i. Therefore, we consider a weaker notion of agnostic
153 algorithm. For $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in (0, 1)$, we say an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is (δ, k)-*agnostic* if for any $y \in \mathcal{Y}^n$ such
154 that $\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}\{f(x_i) \neq y_i\} \leq k$, $\mathcal{A}$ identifies $\text{argmin}_{i \in [n]} y_i$ with probability at least $1 - \delta$.
155 Despite only allowing for small amounts of misspecification, there is still an exponential gap between
156 agnostic algorithms and the minimax lower bound.

Proposition 3. *Let $\delta \in (0, \min(\frac{1}{20}, \frac{1}{n}))$. There exists $\mathcal{F}$ such that for any algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that is $(\delta, 1)$-*
158 *agnostic with respect to $\mathcal{F}$, $\mathcal{A}$ takes at least $\Omega(\frac{n}{\log(n/\delta)})$ queries in expectation on some instance in*
159 *$\mathcal{F}$, while there exists a realizability-based algorithm requiring $O(1)$ samples on all instances in $\mathcal{F}$.*

160 **Techniques:** The above results rely on a novel approach for constucting instance-dependent lower
161 bounds for the noiseless setting. The key idea is a reduction of the noiseless setting to a setting where
162 observations are corrupted with a Gaussian random variable, that is, when the arm $i \in [n]$ is queried,
163 the agent observes $y_i + \eta$ where $\eta \sim N(0, 1)$, instead of y_i. This reduction enables the application
164 of the transportation Lemma from the multi-armed bandit literature [26] to the noiseless setting and
165 thereby to construct instances where agnostic algorithms *necessarily* perform poorly.

5 Efficient Algorithm for Best Arm Identification

167 Given the limitations of agnostic algorithms for interactive learning in the realizable setting established
168 in the prior section, we now turn to developing *realizability-based* algorithms that are computationally
169 efficient and minimax optimal. In this section, we focus on the best arm identification problem in
170 which the goal is to identify an $i_* \in \text{argmin}_{i \in [n]} y_i$ using as few queries as possible. We begin by
171 introducing a new quantity, inspired by the extended teaching dimension, for quantifying the difficulty
172 of identifying the best arm in a worst-case sense:

$$v_{best}^*(\mathcal{F}) = \max_{g:\mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{Y}} \min_{I \subset [n]} |I|$$
$$\text{s.t. } \exists j \in [n] : \{f \in \mathcal{F} : f(x_i) = g(x_i) \forall i \in I\} \subset \{f \in \mathcal{F} : j \in \text{argmin}_{l \in [n]} f(x_l)\}.$$

173 We occasionally write v_{best}^* instead of $v_{best}^*(\mathcal{F})$ when the context leaves no ambiguity. In words, v_{best}^*
174 is the minimum number of samples required so that whatever the function $g : \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{Y}$ is, there is a
175 subset of queries of size v_{best}^* that can make the best arm $i_* \in [n]$ unambiguous by eliminating all
176 $f \in \mathcal{F}$ that do not put i_* as the best. The following theorem establishes v_{best}^* as a lower bound to the
177 optimal minimax sample complexity Λ_{best}.

Theorem 1. *For any $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$, $v_{best}^*(\mathcal{F}) \leq \Lambda_{best}(\mathcal{F})$.*

179 The setting of best arm identification in general function classes was previously studied in [11] in
180 which the sample complexity results were quantified in terms of the Haystack dimension. Specifically,
181 letting $\mathcal{F}' \subset \mathcal{F}$ define $\mathcal{F}'((x_i, y)) = \{f \in \mathcal{F} : f(x_i) \neq y\}$, the subset of functions in $\mathcal{F}'$ that

disagree with the label y on x_i, and $\mathcal{F}'(x_i) = \{f \in \mathcal{F} : i \in \arg\min_{j \in [n]} f(x_j)\}$, the set of functions in $\mathcal{F}'$ that are minimized at x_i. Define $\gamma(\mathcal{F}) := \sup_{i \in [n]} \inf_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \frac{|\mathcal{F}'(x_i) \cup \mathcal{F}((x_i, y))|}{|\mathcal{F}|}$. The Haystack dimension is defined as:

$$\mathrm{HD}(\mathcal{F}) := \frac{1}{\inf_{\mathcal{F}' \subset \mathcal{F}} \gamma(\mathcal{F}')}.$$

We have the following relationship between the Haystack dimension $\mathrm{HD}(\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{R}})$ and the extended teaching dimension v_{best}^*.

Proposition 4. *For any $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$, $HD(\mathcal{F}) \leq v_{best}^*(\mathcal{F}) \leq HD(\mathcal{F}) \log(|\mathcal{F}|)$.*

5.1 Sampling Oracles for Efficient Realizable Active Learning

In this section we introduce the concept of a *sampling oracle*, a key tool for achieving computational efficiency. In contrast to prior active methods that enumerate an intractably large version space, we instead place a measure over the version space to track its size without explicitly storing it and use sampling to approximate this measure. Let $\mathcal{R} \subset \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$ be a convex compact set of functions where $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$ denotes the set of all functions $r : \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. Given $\mathcal{R} \subset \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$, we say that we have access to a *sampling oracle* for $\mathcal{R}$ if there exists a distribution π on $\mathcal{R}$

- such that we can draw $r \sim \pi$, and

- for any $\widetilde{\mathcal{R}} = \mathcal{R} \cap \mathcal{H}$ where $\mathcal{H}$ is the intersection of $\mathrm{poly}(n, d)$ halfspaces of the form $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : w^\top x \leq b\}$, we can sample $r \sim \pi_{\widetilde{\mathcal{R}}}$ where for any measurable $A \subset \widetilde{\mathcal{R}}$ $\pi_{\widetilde{\mathcal{R}}}(A) = \frac{\pi(A)}{\pi(\widetilde{\mathcal{R}})}$.

By representing constraints as a set $\mathcal{H}$ in the second bullet, we can leverage sampling techniques to estimate the measure over the version space efficiently. We show in the appendix that non-trivial sampling oracles are available for many useful function classes such as linear models, kernel methods, and convex functions. To keep the presentation simple, we assume here that we can compute probabilities exactly and show that approximation suffices in the appendix.

For $z \in \mathbb{R}$, let $\mathcal{D}[z]$ denote the $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ that is closest to z, tiebreaking by rounding down. The set of regressors $\mathcal{R}$ induces a set of discretized functions mapping $\mathcal{X}$ to $\mathcal{Y}$

$$\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{R}} = \{\mathcal{D}[r] : r \in \mathcal{R}\}.$$

Our algorithmic approach is to use $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{R}}$ as our predictors and to leverage the convexity of $\mathcal{R}$ to achieve computational efficiency. Our algorithm relies on greedy volume reduction, which requires that the $f \in \mathcal{F}$ have nonzero measure and the discretized setting ensures this. In the appendix, we extend our algorithms to the continuous setting but at the cost of potentially suboptimal sample complexity. We make the realizability assumption that there exists $r^* \in \mathcal{R}$ such that $\mathcal{D}[r^*(x_i)] = y_i$ for all $i \in [n]$.

5.2 The Algorithm

`GRAILS` (see Algorithm 1) implicitly maintains a version space $\mathcal{R}_t$ at each round over the $\mathcal{R}$ and thus we define

$$\mathcal{R}_t(x_i, y) = \{r \in \mathcal{R}_t : \mathcal{D}[r(x_i)] = y\}, \ \mathcal{R}_t(x_i) = \{r \in \mathcal{R}_t : i \in \arg\min_{j \in [n]} \mathcal{D}[r(x_j)]\},$$

defined analogously to the set $\mathcal{F}'(x_i, y)$ and $\mathcal{F}'(x_i)$ above. $\mathcal{R}_t(x_i, y)$ consists of functions in the version space that are inconsistent with the observation (x_i, y) and $\mathcal{R}_t(x_i)$ is the set of functions that are minimized at x_i and therefore no longer need to be considered (since their minimizer has already been queried). Algorithm 1 takes the greedy approach. At each round t, our algorithm queries a point $I_t \in [n]$ that maximizes the measure of the functions removed from the version space under P_k, namely $\mathbb{P}_{r \sim P_k}(r \in \mathcal{R}_t(x_i) \cup \mathcal{R}_t((x_i, y))$, in the worst case observation $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. Once the algorithm queries I_t, it adds I_t to O_t, the set of observations up to time t. We may decompose the version space $\mathcal{R}_t$ as the union of $O(n)$ sets:

$$\mathcal{R}_t = \{r \in \mathcal{R} : \mathcal{D}[r(x_i)] = y_i \forall i \in O_t \wedge \mathcal{D}[r(x_i)] > \min_{j \in [n]} \mathcal{D}[r(x_j)] \forall i \in O_t\}$$

$$= \cup_{l \in [n] \setminus O_t} \{r \in \mathcal{R} : \mathcal{D}[r(x_i)] = y_i \forall i \in O_t\} \cap \{\mathcal{D}[r(x_l)] < \mathcal{D}[r(x_i)] \forall i \in O_t\}$$

$$=: \cup_{l \in [n] \setminus O_t} C_l(O_t)$$

```
P_1 ⟵ π, R_1 ⟵ R, k ⟵ 1, t_1 = 1;
for t = 1, 2, . . . do
    Let I_t ∈ arg max_{i∈[n]\O_t} min_{y∈Y} P_{r∼P_k}(r ∈ R_t(x_i) ∪ R_t((x_i, y)));
    Query x_{I_t} and observe y_{I_t} and set O_{t+1} ⟵ O_t ∪ {I_t} ;
    Let R_{t+1} ⟵ R_t \ (R_t(x_{I_t}) ∪ R_t((x_{I_t}, y_{I_t})));
    if P_{r∼P_k}(r ∈ R_{t+1}) ≤ 1/2n then
        k ⟵ k + 1;
        t_k ⟵ t + 1, P_{k+1} ⟵ 1/(n−|O_{t_k}|) ∑_{l∈[n]\O_{t_k}} π_{C_l(O_{t_k})};
    if STOP(F_R, O_t) then
        return argmin_{i∈O_t} y_i
```

Algorithm 1: GRAILS (GReedy Algorithm for Interactive Learning using Sampling)

where

$$C_l(O_t) := \{r \in \mathcal{R} : \mathcal{D}[r(x_i)] = y_i \forall i \in O_t\} \cap \{\mathcal{D}[r(x_l)] < \mathcal{D}[r(x_i)] \forall i \in O_t\}.$$

Note that each set $C_l(O_t)$ is an intersection of $\mathcal{F}$ with $O(n)$ halfspaces and is a convex set. Unfortunately, a union of convex sets need not be convex so one cannot directly apply algorithms like hit-and-run to efficiently sample from $\mathcal{R}_t$. To overcome this, the algorithm samples from a mixture with each component supported on $C_l(O_t)$, a convex set. Operating in stages, in stage k, it puts the measure P_k over the remaining functions in the version spaces where

$$P_k := \frac{1}{n - |O_t|} \sum_{l \in [n] \setminus O_t} \pi_{C_l(O_t)}.$$

Sampling from the mixture P_k is a key algorithmic innovation in this work and enables efficient sampling from a non-convex version space.

We make two final remarks. First, STOP($\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R}, O_t$) is a subroutine for terminating the algorithm. It essentially checks whether the version space $\mathcal{R}_t$ is empty. For the function classes of interest in this paper, this can be formulated as a convex optimization problem as shown in the appendix. Second, in practice, one may not know the version space precisely. For example, for the class of Lipschitz functions, one may not be given an upper bound on the Lipschitz constant. In these situations, one can apply a standard doubling trick on the Lipschitz constant.

5.3 The Upper Bound

We now introduce some notation necessary to state our upper bound. Define for every $f \in \mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R}$ the set

$$S_f = \{r \in \mathcal{R} : r \in \mathcal{R} \wedge \mathcal{D}[r(x_i)] = f(x_i) \forall i \in [n]\}.$$

The sets S_f induce a partition of $\mathcal{R}$.

Theorem 2. *Fix $\mathcal{R}$. There exists a universal constant $c > 0$ such that if t is greater than*

$$\tilde{O}(\Lambda_{best}(\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R})) = c v^*_{best}(\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R}) \log\left(\frac{1}{\mathbb{P}_\pi(\mathcal{S}_{f^*})}\right) \ln(n),$$

then Algorithm 1 has pulled an arm I_s at some $s \leq t$ such that $I_s \in argmin_{i \in [n]} y_i$.

By Proposition 4, $v^*_{best}(\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R})$ is upper bounded by $\text{HD}(\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R}) \log(|\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R}|)$. While [11] obtain a sample complexity of $\text{HD}(\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R}) \log(|\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R}|)$, which has better logarithmic factors than our upper bound, unlike Algorithm 1, their algorithm enumerates the version space and is therefore computationally inefficient. Algorithm 1 and Theorem 2 together solve the open problem from [11] of developing a computationally efficient and nearly minimax optimal algorithm for best arm identification for generic function classes.

We bound the minimum probability for linear models that are bounded in some arbitrary norm. We assume that there exists some function with positive margin:

Assumption 1. *There exists $r^* \in \mathcal{R}$ such that $\mathcal{D}[r^*(x_i)] = y_i$ for all $i \in [n]$ and $|r^*(x_i) - y_i| < \min_{y \neq y_i} |r^*(x_i) - y|$. Define the minimum margin:*

$$\gamma^* = \min_{i \in [n]} \min_{y \neq y_i} |r^*(x_i) - y| - |r^*(x_i) - y_i|.$$

```
P_1 ⟵ π, R_1 ⟵ R, k ⟵ 1, t_1 = 1;
for t = 1, 2, ... do
    Let I_t ∈ argmin_{i∈[n]\O_t} max_{y∈Y} \frac{y}{P_{r∼P_k}(r∈R_t(x_i)∪R_t((x_i,y)))};
    Query x_{I_t} and observe y_{I_t} and set O_{t+1} ⟵ O_t ∪ {I_t} ;
    Let R_{t+1} ⟵ R_t \ (R_t(x_{I_t}) ∪ R_t((x_{I_t}, y_{I_t})));
    if P_{r∼P_k}(r ∈ R_{t+1}) ≤ \frac{1}{2n} then
        k ⟵ k + 1;
        t_k ⟵ t + 1, P_{k+1} ⟵ \frac{1}{n-|O_{t_k}|} \sum_{l∈[n]\O_{t_k}} π_{C_l(O_{t_k})};
    if STOP(F_R, O_t) then
        return argmin_{i∈O_t} y_i
```

Algorithm 2: `GRAILS` for Loss Minimization

Proposition 5. *Let* $\mathcal{R} = \{⟨a, ·⟩ : a ∈ \mathbb{R}^d, \|a\| ≤ R_1\}$. *Let* $x_1, \ldots, x_n ∈ \mathbb{R}^d$ *such that* $max_{i∈[n]} \|x_i\|_* ≤ R_2$ *where* $\|·\|_*$ *denotes the dual norm of* $\|·\|$. *Let* $y_1, \ldots, y_n ∈ \mathcal{Y}$. *Suppose Assumption 1 holds. Let* $f^* = \mathcal{D}[⟨a_*, ·⟩]$ *for some* a_* *with* $\|a_*\| ≤ R_1$. *Let* $π$ *be the uniform distribution over* $\{a : \|a\| ≤ R_1\}$. *Then,*

$$\mathbb{P}_π(\mathcal{S}_{f^*}) ≥ \frac{volume(\{z ∈ \mathbb{R}^d : \|z\| ≤ \frac{γ^*}{R_2}\})}{volume(\{z ∈ \mathbb{R}^d : \|z\| ≤ R_1\})}.$$

In particular, if $\|·\| = \|·\|_2$, *then* $\mathbb{P}_π(\mathcal{S}_f) ≥ (\frac{γ^*}{R_1 R_2})^d$.

6 An Efficient Algorithm for Cumulative Loss Minimization

In this Section, we consider the task of loss minimization. To interpret each y_i as a loss, we assume $\min_{y∈\mathcal{Y}} y ≥ 0$. Recall that in this setting, when the learner identifies an element $i^* ∈$ $argmin_{i∈[n]} f^*(x_i)$, she declares that the game is over. We stress that the learner can identify an element $i^* ∈ argmin_{i∈[n]} f^*(x_i)$ by eliminating all $f ∈ \mathcal{F}$ such that $i^* ∉ \arg\min_{i∈[n]} f(x_i)$.

To begin, we introduce the following novel quantity for quantifying the worst-case difficulty of cumulative loss minimization, inspired by the extended teaching dimension:

$$v^*_{loss}(\mathcal{F}) := \max_{g:\mathcal{X}↦\mathcal{Y}} \min_{I⊂[n]} \min_{\widetilde{I}⊂I:|\widetilde{I}|=|I|-1} \sum_{i∈\widetilde{I}} g(x_i)$$

$$\text{s.t. } ∃j ∈ [n] : \{f ∈ \mathcal{F} : f(x_i) = g(x_i) \forall i ∈ [I]\} ⊂ \{f ∈ \mathcal{F} : j ∈ argmin_{i∈[n]} f(x_i)\}.$$

We occasionally write v^*_{loss} instead of $v^*_{loss}(\mathcal{F})$ when the context leaves no ambiguity. In words, v^*_{loss} is the loss that must be incurred (up to the penultimate round) for some scoring function $g : \mathcal{X} ↦ \mathcal{Y}$ in order to identify the best arm. Next, we show that v^*_{loss} is a minimax lower bound.

Theorem 3. *For all* $\mathcal{F} ⊂ \mathcal{Y}^\mathcal{X}$, $v^*_{loss}(\mathcal{F}) ≤ Λ_{loss}(\mathcal{F})$.

v^*_{loss} can be related to v^*_{best} in the following way.

Proposition 6. *For all* $\mathcal{F} ⊂ \mathcal{Y}^\mathcal{X}$, $v^*_{loss}(\mathcal{F}) ≤ v^*_{best}(\mathcal{F}) max_{y∈\mathcal{Y}} y$.

6.1 The Algorithm and Upper Bound

Algorithm 2 is similar to Algorithm 1: it is greedy and operates in phases, sampling from the mixture P_k in the kth phase due to the nonconvexity of the version space. The main difference is the objective for selecting I_t: it queries the arm I_t that for the worst case $y ∈ \mathcal{Y}$ minimizes the ratio of the loss incurred in round t and the volume of the functions removed under the measure P_k. This objective is inspired by the greedy algorithm for weighted set cover.

Define $S_{\min} = argmin_{S_f:f∈\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R}, \mathbb{P}_π(S_f)>0} \mathbb{P}_π(S_f)$. $S_{\min}$ is the subset of $\mathcal{F}$ in the partition that has the least probability under $π$.

Theorem 4. *Fix* $\mathcal{R}$. *Algorithm 2 identifies* $argmin_{i∈[n]} f^*(x_i)$ *after incurring a loss of at most*

$$\widetilde{O}(Λ_{loss}(\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R})) = 2(v^*_{loss}(\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R}) + max_{i∈[n],f∈\mathcal{F}_\mathcal{R}} f(x_i)) \log(n) \log(\frac{1}{\mathbb{P}(S_{min})}).$$

The above guarantee is optimal up to a multiplicative factor of $\log(n)\log(\frac{1}{\mathbb{P}(S_{\min})})$ and an additive factor of $\max_{i\in[n],f\in\mathcal{F}}f(x_i)$, which is typically lower order. We also give an algorithm that enumerates the function class and therefore is not efficient when $|\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{R}}|$ is exponential in problem-dependent parameters, but has a stronger guarantee.. Due to space constraints and the similarity to Algorithm 2, we defer the algorithm presentation to the supplementary material and provide the result here.

Theorem 5. *Fix $\mathcal{F}$. Algorithm 2 identifies $\arg\min_{i\in[n]}f^*(x_i)$ after incurring a loss of at most*

$$\widetilde{O}(\Lambda_{loss}(\mathcal{F})) = 2(\upsilon^*_{loss}(\mathcal{F}) + max_{i\in[n],f\in\mathcal{F}}f(x_i))\log(|\mathcal{F}|).$$

Theorems 4 and 5 are the first nearly minimax optimal algorithms for cumulative loss minimization and also yield as a corollary results for *regret minimization*, in which the goal is to identify $\arg\min_{i\in[n]}f^*(x_i)$ while minimizing the regret $\sum_{t=1}^{T}f^*(x_{I_t}) - \min_{i\in[n]}f^*(x_i)$ incurred where T is the round that the agent identifies $\arg\min_{i\in[n]}f^*(x_i)$.

Remark 1. *If $\min_j f(x_j) = 0$ for all $f \in \mathcal{F}$, then loss minimization is equivalent to regret minimization. Then, Theorem 5 gives nearly optimal minimax bounds for the regret minimization metric. Furthermore, if $\min_j f(x_j) = \min_j f'(x_j) = opt$ for all $f, f' \in \mathcal{F}$, then by subtracting opt from each f, we reduce to the setting where $\min_j f(x_j) = 0$ for all $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and obtain a nearly optimal minimax bound.*

To the best of our knowledge, *these are the first nearly optimal minimax regret bounds for a large and general class of function classes.*

Comparison to [11]. [11] give an algorithm that in the noiseless setting first uses a greedy algorithm to identify the best arm and then exploits the best arm. Their regret scales as $\Delta_{\max}\mathrm{HD}(\mathcal{F})\ln(|\mathcal{F}|)$. The following Proposition shows that our cumulative regret bound is never worse than theirs by more than a polylogarithmic factor. Let $y_* = \arg\min_{y\in\mathcal{Y}}y$ and $\Delta_{\max} = \max_{y\neq y'\in\mathcal{Y}}y - y_*$ and $\Delta_{\min} = \min_{y\in\mathcal{Y}:y\neq y_*} y - y_*$.

Proposition 7. *Let $\mathcal{F}$ such that $\upsilon^*_{best}(\mathcal{F}) \geq 1$. There exists a universal constant $c > 0$ such that for large enough T_0, if Algorithm 3 is run for T_0 rounds, the regret of Algorithm 3 is bounded above by*

$$c\upsilon^*_{best}(\mathcal{F})\ln(|\mathcal{F}|)\Delta_{max} \leq c\mathrm{HD}(\mathcal{F})\ln(|\mathcal{F}|)^2\Delta_{max}.$$

On the other hand, there exists an example where our regret has significantly better scaling than the regret of the algorithm in [11].

Proposition 8. *For any $\xi > 0$, there exists an instance with $\Delta_{max} \geq \Delta_{\min} + \xi$ where (ignoring logarithmic factors) the regret minimization algorithm from [11] obtains a regret of at least $\Delta_{max}n/2$ while the guarantee in Theorem 5 is $n\Delta_{\min} + \Delta_{max}$.*

Thus, the regret of [11] scales as $\Delta_{\max}n$, while the regret of Algorithm 3 scales as $\Delta_{\min}n$, and the gap between $\Delta_{\max}$ and $\Delta_{\min}$ can be made aribtrarily large. *The key advantage of our algorithm over the work of [11] is that their algorithm is an explore-and-then-commit algorithm, ignoring the cost of information gain, whereas Algorithm 3 is cost-aware weighing the tradeoff between information gain and loss incurred.*

Relation to Regret Minimization. Loss minimization is closely related to regret minimization, as defined above. Any minimax-optimal regret-minimizing algorithm is also a minimax-optimal loss-minimizing algorithm, as shown by the following Proposition.

Proposition 9. *Let $loss(\mathcal{A}; f) = \sum_{t=1}^{T_f} f(x_{I_t})$ and $regret(\mathcal{A}; f) = \sum_{t=1}^{T_f} f(x_{I_t}) - \min_{j\in[n]} f(x_j)$ denote the loss and regret incurred by an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ and T_f denotes the round at which it declares the game over for $f \in \mathcal{F}$. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be an algorithm such that $\max_{f\in\mathcal{F}}regret(\mathcal{A}; f) \leq c\min_{\mathcal{A}}\max_{f\in\mathcal{F}}regret(\mathcal{A}; f)$. Then,*

$$max_{f\in\mathcal{F}}loss(\mathcal{A}; f) \leq (c+1)\min_{\mathcal{A}}max_{f\in\mathcal{F}}loss(\mathcal{A}; f).$$

On the other hand, a minimax optimal algorithm for loss minimization can have regret that is arbitrarily worse than the minimax lower bound, implying that regret minimization subsumes loss minimization.

Proposition 10. *For any $\xi > 0$, there exists $\mathcal{F}$ such that the minimax regret is 1, but a loss minimizing algorithm obtains a regret of ξ.*

As discussed above, *we provide the first nearly minimax-optimal results for loss minimization and state-of-the-art results for regret minimization with general function classes.*

Figure 1: Varying σ Figure 2: Prior Knowledge   Figure 3: Convex Functions

7 Experiments

In this Section, we present experiments comparing `GRAILS` to uniform sampling (`UNIF`), `GP-UCB` [22], and `OFUL` [27]. We consider a version of `GRAILS` that is designed for continuous output spaces, and which we present and analyze in the appendix. For `OFUL`, we construct the lower confidence bound by solving a constrained optimization problem based on the prior feedback and the function class structure. Our algorithm outperforms the other algorithms and demonstrates the ability to seamlessly incorporate prior knowledge to accelerate learning, and works for function classes ranging from kernel methods to convex functions. While `OFUL` tends to perform only slightly worse than `GRAILS`, unlike `GRAILS`, *it does not have general theoretical guarantees* that can handle the incorporation of constraints given by prior knowledge or specially structured spaces like the set of convex functions, and therefore we consider it a strong, if heuristic, baseline. Due to space constraints, we provide additional implementation details in the appendix.

Varying σ. In Figure 1, we plot the average number of samples necessary to achieve a simple regret of less than 0.01 with the shaded region showing 1 standard error taken over 36 independent trials. We generated random 2d functions living in a RBF RKHS with parameter σ varying. We evaluate the function at 400 points taken in a grid of $[0, 1]^2$. As σ decreases and the effective dimension increases, the performance of all methods becomes similar to uniform sampling. Conversely, when σ is large and the dimension decreases, the active methods improve markedly upon uniform sampling. In all cases, `GRAILS` matches or slightly exceeds the performance of the baseline methods.

Kernel Methods with Prior Knowledge: In many practical settings, prior knowledge is available to practitioners, e.g., of the form $f^*(x) \geq f^*(x')$. It is straightforward to incorporate into our algorithm any prior knowledge that can be expressed in terms of a polyhedron in the output space $\mathbb{R}^n$. By contrast, while there are a variety of approaches to incorporate constraints into GP regression methods [28], it is not immediately clear how to use constrained GP models in adaptive sampling methods. In this experiment, we use $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in [0, 6]$ equally spaced with $n = 250$. We use the Gaussian RBF kernel with $\sigma = 0.075$. For each of the 60 trials, we draw a random function from the RKHS. We vary the number of random pairwise constraints that given to `GRAILS` and `OFUL`. Figure 2 depicts the average number of samples required to achieve a simple regret of 0.005 and shows that as `GRAILS` and `OFUL` obtain more prior knowledge, their performance improves.

Convex Functions: In this experiment, the algorithms use the function class $\mathcal{F}$ consisting of all convex functions. We generate 300 points in an equally spaced grid on the interval $[0, 1]$. $f^*(x) = 5(x - x_{\min})^2$ where for each of the 30 trials $x_{\min}$ is drawn uniformly at random from $[0, 1]$. We only consider `GRAILS`, `OFUL`, and `UNIF`. Figure 3 depicts the average number of samples that each algorithm uses to obtain an ϵ-accurate solution, showing that `GRAILS` does slightly better than `OFUL`, while, as expected, the sample complexity of `UNIF` blows up as ϵ decreases.

8 Conclusion

Our work leaves many open questions. First, while `GRAILS` is computationally efficient as evidenced by our experiments, it becomes computationally burdensome as n grows very large. Further work is required to scale `GRAILS` to the regime where n is extremely large (e.g., $n \approx 10,000$). Second, we have designed computationally efficient nearly optimal minimax algorithms for the noiseless setting and it remains an open question how to achieve minimax optimality in the noisy setting. We defer a discussion of potential negative social impacts to the appendix.

References

[1] Kevin Jamieson and Lalit Jain. A bandit approach to multiple testing with false discovery control. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1809.02235*, 2018.

[2] Burr Settles. Active learning literature survey. 2009.

[3] Bobak Shahriari, Kevin Swersky, Ziyu Wang, Ryan P Adams, and Nando De Freitas. Taking the human out of the loop: A review of bayesian optimization. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 104(1):148–175, 2015.

[4] Sanjoy Dasgupta, Daniel J Hsu, and Claire Monteleoni. *A general agnostic active learning algorithm*. Citeseer, 2007.

[5] Maria-Florina Balcan, Alina Beygelzimer, and John Langford. Agnostic active learning. *Journal of Computer and System Sciences*, 75(1):78–89, 2009.

[6] Steve Hanneke et al. Theory of disagreement-based active learning. *Foundations and Trends® in Machine Learning*, 7(2-3):131–309, 2014.

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

[8] Tanner Fiez, Lalit Jain, Kevin G Jamieson, and Lillian Ratliff. Sequential experimental design for transductive linear bandits. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 10666–10676, 2019.

[9] 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, 2020.

[10] Tor Lattimore and Csaba Szepesvári. *Bandit Algorithms*. Cambridge University Press, 2020.

[11] Kareem Amin, Michael Kearns, and Umar Syed. Bandits, query learning, and the haystack dimension. In *Proceedings of the 24th Annual Conference on Learning Theory*, pages 87–106. JMLR Workshop and Conference Proceedings, 2011.

[12] 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, 2014.

[13] Emilie Kaufmann, Olivier Cappé, and Aurélien Garivier. On the complexity of best-arm identification in multi-armed bandit models. *The Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 17(1):1–42, 2016.

[14] László Lovász and Santosh Vempala. Fast algorithms for logconcave functions: Sampling, rounding, integration and optimization. In *2006 47th Annual IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science (FOCS'06)*, pages 57–68. IEEE, 2006.

[15] Christopher Tosh and Daniel Hsu. Diameter-based interactive structure discovery. In *International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, pages 580–590. PMLR, 2020.

[16] David Cohn, Les Atlas, and Richard Ladner. Improving generalization with active learning. *Machine learning*, 15(2):201–221, 1994.

[17] Sanjoy Dasgupta. Coarse sample complexity bounds for active learning. In *NIPS*, volume 18, pages 235–242, 2005.

[18] Christopher Tosh and Sanjoy Dasgupta. Diameter-based active learning. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 3444–3452. PMLR, 2017.

[19] Alina Beygelzimer, Daniel Hsu, John Langford, and Tong Zhang. Agnostic active learning without constraints. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1006.2588*, 2010.

[20] Tibor Hegedus. Generalized teaching dimensions and the query complexity of learning. In *Proceedings of the eighth annual conference on Computational learning theory*, pages 108–117, 1995.

[21] José L Balcázar, Jorge Castro, and David Guijarro. A new abstract combinatorial dimension for exact learning via queries. *Journal of Computer and System Sciences*, 64(1):2–21, 2002.

[22] Niranjan Srinivas, Andreas Krause, Sham M Kakade, and Matthias Seeger. Gaussian process optimization in the bandit setting: No regret and experimental design. *arXiv preprint arXiv:0912.3995*, 2009.

[23] Adam D Bull. Convergence rates of efficient global optimization algorithms. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 12(10), 2011.

[24] Romain Camilleri, Julian Katz-Samuels, and Kevin Jamieson. High-dimensional experimental design and kernel bandits. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2105.05806*, 2021.

[25] Lalit Jain and Kevin G Jamieson. A new perspective on pool-based active classification and false-discovery control. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 13992–14003, 2019.

[26] Aurélien Garivier and Emilie Kaufmann. Optimal best arm identification with fixed confidence. In *Conference on Learning Theory*, pages 998–1027, 2016.

[27] Yasin Abbasi-Yadkori, Dávid Pál, and Csaba Szepesvári. Improved algorithms for linear stochastic bandits. In *NIPS*, volume 11, pages 2312–2320, 2011.

[28] Laura P Swiler, Mamikon Gulian, Ari L Frankel, Cosmin Safta, and John D Jakeman. A survey of constrained gaussian process regression: Approaches and implementation challenges. *Journal of Machine Learning for Modeling and Computing*, 1(2), 2020.

[29] Bernhard Schölkopf, Ralf Herbrich, and Alex J Smola. A generalized representer theorem. In *International conference on computational learning theory*, pages 416–426. Springer, 2001.

[30] Tor Lattimore and Csaba Szepesvari. The end of optimism? an asymptotic analysis of finite-armed linear bandits. In *Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, pages 728–737. PMLR, 2017.

[31] Julian Katz-Samuels and Kevin Jamieson. The true sample complexity of identifying good arms. In *International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, pages 1781–1791. PMLR, 2020.