Blessings of Many Good Arms in Multi-Objective Linear Bandits

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Abstract

Multi-objective decision-making is often deemed overly complex in bandit settings, leading to algorithms that are both complicated and frequently impractical. In this paper, we challenge that notion by showing that, under a novel *goodness of arms* condition, multiple objectives can facilitate learning, enabling simple near-greedy methods to achieve sub-linear Pareto regret. To our knowledge, this is the first work to demonstrate the effectiveness of near-greedy algorithms for multi-objective bandits and also the first to study the regret of such algorithms for parametric bandits in the absence of context distributional assumptions.

1 Introduction

Multi-objective(MO) bandit problems have become increasingly prevalent in today's complex, real-world applications, which generalize the single-objective bandit framework by incorporating several objectives [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8]. Although this extension may seem conceptually straightforward, balancing exploration and exploitation across multiple objectives significantly increases the complexity of the problem [1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7]. While MO problems are generally more complex than their single-objective counterparts, it is natural to ask whether multiple objectives could, in some cases, *facilitate* learning rather than hinder it. Formally, we pose the following research question:

Can the presence of multiple objectives actually facilitate learning rather than hinder it?

A priori, the answer is not always *yes*. Nonetheless, there may be scenarios in which multiple objectives can be leveraged to achieve simpler, more efficient solutions, and to our knowledge, this perspective has been largely overlooked.

In this work, we show that the existence of *good arms for multiple objectives* can enable simpler near-greedy algorithms to achieve strong performance. Such "goodness" means that, for each objective, there is at least one arm that performs sufficiently well (and these arms may differ across objectives), a scenario commonly observed in practice. We show that this condition leads to what we call *free exploration*—the ability to collect informative feedback without incurring extra exploration cost. Concretely, we propose a novel near-greedy algorithm, MOG (Algorithm 1), and its variants(MOG-R, and MOG-WR), and prove that, under the suitable goodness assumption, they attain a regret bound of $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\sqrt{T})$. To our knowledge, these are the first *explosion-free* algorithms for MO bandits.

Recent research on single-objective linear contextual bandits with stochastic contexts has shown that when context diversity is sufficiently high, greedy algorithms can achieve near-optimal regret bounds in terms of T [9, 10, 11, 12]. However, the extension of these results to MO bandits has been limited by a diversity assumption on the context distribution, leaving a gap in understanding how exploration

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can occur without the this assumption. Our work addresses this gap by focusing on free exploration driven by good arms for different objectives, even in the absence of context stochasticity.

Our main contributions are as follows:

- We present and rigorously analyze a novel, sufficient condition on the *goodness of arms* (definition 5) under which near-greedy algorithms achieve statistical efficiency in MO bandit problems *without* relying on the commonly assumed context distributional assumptions in the greedy bandit literature [10, 11, 9, 12].
- We propose and analyze three practical algorithms, MOG, MOG-R, and MOG-WR, showing that under the goodness assumption, each algorithm attains $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\sqrt{T})$ Pareto regret, where T is the total number of rounds. Furthermore, through extensive numerical experiments, we demonstrate that MOG, MOG-R and MOG-WR consistently outperform existing MO methods across a wide range of scenarios, significantly reducing computational overhead.
- We introduce the notion of *objective fairness* (definitions 4 and 6) as a criterion, and prove that our algorithm satisfies objective fairness.

2 Problem settings

2.1 MO linear bandits

In each round $t \in [T]$, each feature vector $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ for $i \in [K]$ is associated with stochastic reward $y_{i,m}(t)$ for objective $m \in [M]$ with mean $x_i^\top \theta_m^*$ where $\theta_m^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a fixed, unknown parameter. While we present our problem setting in the fixed feature setup for a clear exposition of our main idea, we also present our results under a varying context setting in Appendix H. After the agent pulls an arm $a(t) \in [K]$, the agent receives a stochastic reward vector $y_{a(t)}(t) = (y_{a(t),1}(t), \ldots, y_{a(t),M}(t)) \in \mathbb{R}^M$ as a bandit feedback, where $y_{a(t),m}(t) = x_{a(t)}^\top \theta_m^* + \eta_{a(t),m}(t)$ and $\eta_{a(t),m}(t) \in \mathbb{R}$ is zeromean noise for objective $m \in [M]$. To simplify notation, we denote by $x(t) := x_{a(t)}$ and $y(t) := y_{a(t)}(t)$, the selected arm vector in round t and its rewards, respectively, with slight notational overloading. We assume that for all $m \in [M]$, $\eta_{a(t),m}(t)$ is conditionally σ^2 -sub-Gaussian for some $\sigma > 0$, i.e., for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, $\mathbb{E}[e^{\lambda \eta_{a(t),m}(t)}|\mathcal{F}_{t-1}] \leq \exp\left(\lambda^2 \sigma^2/2\right)$ where \mathcal{H}_t is the history $\{x(s)\}_{s \in [t]}, \{a(s)\}_{s \in [t]}, \{y(s)\}_{s \in [t]}\}$ and \mathcal{F}_t is the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{H}_t and x(t+1).

2.1.1 Pareto regret metric

In this work, we use the notion of Pareto regret [1, 13, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7] as the performance metric.

Definition 1 (Pareto order). For $u = (u_1, \ldots, u_M)$, $v = (v_1, \ldots, v_M) \in \mathbb{R}^M$, the vector u dominates v, denoted by $v \prec u$, if and only if $v_m \leq u_m$ for all $m \in [M]$, and there exists $m' \in [M]$ such that $v_{m'} < u_{m'}$. We use the notation $v \not\prec u$ when v is not dominated by u.

Definition 2 (Pareto front). Arm $i \in [K]$ is Pareto optimal if and only if the expected reward of arm i is not dominated by that of other arms in [K]. The Pareto front is the set of all Pareto optimal arms.

Definition 3 (Pareto regret). We denote **Pareto suboptimality gap** Δ_i for arm $i \in [K]$ as the infimum of the scalar $\epsilon \geq 0$ such that μ_i becomes Pareto optimal arm after adding ϵ to all entries of its expected reward. Formally,

$$\Delta_i := \inf \left\{ \epsilon \mid (\mu_i + \epsilon) \not\prec \mu_{i'}, \forall i' \in [K] \right\}.$$

Then, the cumulative **Pareto regret** is defined as $\mathcal{PR}(T) := \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E}[\Delta_{a(t)}]$, where $\mathbb{E}[\Delta_{a(t)}]$ represents the expected Pareto suboptimality gap of the arm pulled at round t.

The goal of the agent is to minimize the cumulative Pareto regret while ensuring fairness across objectives, which is described in the next section.

2.1.2 Objective fairness

Focusing solely on Pareto regret minimization itself allows algorithms to optimize for a single specific objective, potentially neglecting others. We propose a new notion of fairness in MO bandit problems.

Definition 4 (Objective fairness). Let $\mu_{i,m}$ be the expected reward of arm i for objective m, a_m^* be the arm that has the highest expected reward for objective m, and $\mu_m^* := \mu_{a_m^*,m}$. For all $\epsilon > 0$, we define the objective fairness index $OFI_{\epsilon,T}$ of an algorithm as

$$\mathrm{OFI}_{\epsilon,T} := \min_{m \in [M]} \left(\frac{1}{T} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{1} \{ \mu_m^* - \mu_{a(t),m} < \epsilon \} \right] \right).$$

Then, we say that an algorithm satisfies **objective fairness** if for a given ϵ , there exists a positive lower bound L_{ϵ} such that $\lim_{T\to\infty} \mathsf{OFI}_{\epsilon,T} \geq L_{\epsilon}$.

Intuitively, our perspective of objective fairness makes sure that the algorithms consistently consider all optimal arms for each objective, ensuring that no objective is neglected over time(Appendix C).

3 Algorithms and Main Results

3.1 MO Greedy (MOG) algorithm

We propose a new algorithm named the MOG algorithm, that greedily selects arms based on a target objective in each round. The default setting for determining the target objective is a round-robin approach(Line 3), however, various selection strategies can also be employed(Appendix F and G).

Algorithm 1 MO Greedy algorithm (MOG)

```
Require: Total rounds T, Eigenvalue threshold B
 1: Initialize V_0 \leftarrow 0 \times I_d, and \beta_1, \dots, \beta_M \in \mathbb{R}^d
 2: for t = 1 to T do
        Select the target objective m \leftarrow t \mod M {If m = 0, then m \leftarrow M}
 4:
        if \lambda_{\min}(V_{t-1}) < B then
            Select action a(t) \in \arg\max_{i \in [K]} x_i^{\top} \beta_m
 5:
 6:
            Update the OLS estimators \hat{\theta}_1(t), \dots, \hat{\theta}_M(t)
 7:
            Select action a(t) \in \arg\max_{i \in [K]} x_i^{\top} \hat{\theta}_m(t)
 8:
 9:
        Observe y(t) = (y_{a(t),1}(t), \dots, y_{a(t),M}(t))
10:
        Update V_t \leftarrow V_{t-1} + x(t)x(t)^{\top}
11:
12: end for
```

3.2 Analysis

Assumption 1 (Boundedness). For all $i \in [K]$ and $m \in [M]$, $||x_i||_2 \le 1$ and $||\theta_m^*||_2 = 1$.

We start with a boundedness assumption similar to prior linear bandit works [14, 15, 16, 17, 18], and relex this assumption to arbitrary bounds in Appendix I.

Assumption 2. We assume $\theta_1^*, \ldots, \theta_M^*$ span \mathbb{R}^d .

We work under a simple condition that there are enough objectives to span the feature space without loss of generality, however, we can actually relax Assumption 2 so that $\theta_1^*,\ldots,\theta_M^*$ span the space of feature vectors, $span(\{x_1,\ldots,x_K\})$ (Appendix J). We define $\lambda:=\lambda_{\min}(\frac{1}{M}\sum_{m=1}^M\theta_m^*(\theta_m^*)^\top)>0$.

Next, we introduce the γ -goodness condition that describes the goodness of arms in MO linear bandits. In brief, this condition ensures the presence of good arms for every objective.

Definition 5 (Goodness of arms). For fixed $\gamma \in (0,1]$, we say that the feature vectors of the arms $\{x_1, \ldots, x_K\}$ satisfy γ -goodness condition if there exists $\alpha > 0$ such that

for all
$$\beta \in \mathbb{B}_{\alpha}(\theta_1^*) \cup \ldots \cup \mathbb{B}_{\alpha}(\theta_M^*)$$
, there exists $k \in [K]$ such that $x_k^{\top} \beta / \|\beta\|_2 \ge \gamma$,

and denote such x_k as the γ -good arm for direction β .

Assumption 3 (γ -goodness). We assume the feature vectors $\{x_1, \ldots, x_K\}$ satisfy γ -goodness for some $\gamma \geq 1 - \lambda^2/18$.

We define α as the value that satisfies the goodness condition defined in Definition 5, together with γ as specified in Assumption 3. If α is greater than $\psi(\lambda,\gamma):=\sqrt{\frac{\lambda^2}{9}-\frac{\lambda^4}{324}}\,\gamma-\left(1-\frac{\lambda^2}{18}\right)\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}$, then we replace the value of α with $\psi(\lambda,\gamma)$.

The γ -goodness condition often arises in real-world applications where each objective has at least one arm (or item) that performs reasonably well. We compare the notion of γ -goodness with other assumptions which are used in the existing greedy bandit literature [10, 11, 19, 9, 20] in Appendix D.

The following theorem establishes the Pareto regret of MOG.

Theorem 1 (Pareto regret bound of MOG). Suppose that Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. If we run Algorithm 1 with $B = \min\left\{\frac{\sigma}{\alpha}\sqrt{2dT\log(dT^2)}, \frac{4\sigma^2}{\alpha^2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\log\left(1+\frac{2T}{d}\right)+\log\left(T\right)\right)\right\}$, then the Pareto regret of Algorithm 1 is upper-bounded by

$$\mathcal{PR}(T) \le \frac{24\sigma}{\lambda} \sqrt{2dT \log(dT)} + 4T_0 + 10M.$$

The proof of the theorem is provided in Appendix E.2.

Discussion of Theorem 1. The theorem shows that the cumulative Pareto regret bound of MOG is $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\sqrt{dT})$ in terms of d and T, which matches the established lower bound (Appendix K) under our problem setting. To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first to prove the frequentest regret bound of a greedy algorithm in the linear reward setting without relying on context stochasticity.

Corollary 1 (Number of initial rounds). Suppose that Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. If the feature set S selected during the initial rounds in Algorithm 1 spans \mathbb{R}^d , then T_0 can be bounded by $T_0 \leq \lfloor B/\lambda_{\min} \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_{x_i \in S} x_i(x_i)^\top\right) \rfloor + M = \mathcal{O}(B)$.

The proof of the corollary is given in Appendix E.4.

We have confirmed that the MOG algorithm satisfies objective fairness.

Theorem 2 (Objective fairness of MOG). Suppose that Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. If we run Algorithm 1 using B as given in Theorem 1, the objective fairness index of Algorithm 1 is bounded below by

$$\operatorname{OFI}_{\epsilon,T} \ge \left(\frac{T - T_{\epsilon} - M}{MT}\right) \left(1 - \frac{3M}{T}\right),$$

where $T_{\epsilon} = \max(\lfloor \frac{288\sigma^2 d \log(dT)}{\lambda^2 \epsilon^2} \rfloor + T_0 + M, \ 2T_0 + 2M).$

The proof of the theorem is provided in Appendix E.3. The theorem shows that Algorithm 1 satisfies objective fairness.

4 Experiment

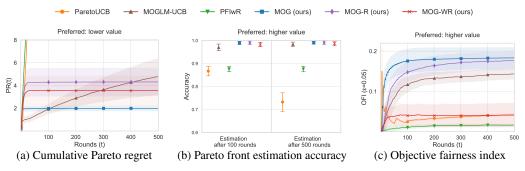


Figure 1: Evaluation of MO bandit algorithms where d = 5, K = 50, M = 5.

We evaluate our proposed algorithms –MOG, MOG-R, and MOG-WR- in both fixed and stochastic context settings, comparing them with ParetoUCB [1], MOGLM-UCB [3], and PFIwR [5] in the fixed feature setup. The result clearly demonstrates that our proposed algorithms outperform the others empirically from the perspective of cumulative Pareto regret, Pareto front estimation, and objective fairness despite their simpler structure. The details and additional results are presented in Appendix L.

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A Comparison tables with related works

Tables 1 and 2 compare our work with key works in the MO bandit and greedy bandit literature, respectively.

Table 1: Comparison with studies on MO bandits. K is the total number of arms, d is the dimension of feature vectors, T is the time horizon, and Δ denotes the minimum Pareto regret over suboptimal arms. In this work, λ denotes the regularity condition constant of objective parameters (see Section 3.2). The third column indicates whether the algorithm requires per-round empirical Pareto front estimation.

Paper	Features	Free exploration	Per-round PF estimation	Pareto regret bound
Drugan and Nowe [1]	×	×	P-UCB (O) S-UCB (X)	$\mathcal{O}(\frac{K}{\Delta}\log T)$
Lu et al. [3]	0	×	0	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(d\sqrt{T})$
Kim et al. [5]	0	×	0	$\mathcal{O}(d^3 \log dT + \frac{d}{\Lambda} \log \frac{dT}{\Lambda})$
Cheng et al. [6]	0	×	0	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}((dT)^{2/3})$
This work	0	0	×	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(rac{\sqrt{dT}}{\lambda})$

Table 2: Comparison with studies on free exploration. T is the time horizon. The fourth column indicates whether a diversity assumption on the context distribution is required.

Paper	Features	MO	Context diversity	Regret Bound
Kannan et al. [10]	0	×	0	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\sqrt{T})$
Bayati et al. [20]	×	×	×	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(V^T)$
Bastani et al. [9]	0	×	0	$\mathcal{O}(\operatorname{poly} \log T)$
Kim and Oh [12]	0	×	0	$\mathcal{O}(\operatorname{poly}\log T)$
This work	0	0	×	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\sqrt{T})$

[†] Bayesian regret, which is a weaker notion of regret compared to frequentest (worst-case) regret.

The MO bandit problem has been explored from various perspectives. Drugan and Nowe [1] were the first to study MO bandits and introduced two fundamental UCB-based algorithms: ParetoUCB (P-UCB) and ScalarizedUCB (S-UCB). Later, Yahyaa and Manderick [21] investigated Thompson Sampling algorithms for MO bandits, proposing PTS and LSF-TS. However, their work focused solely on empirical performance and did not provide regret analysis. In the contextual setting, Tekin and Turgay [13] addressed MO bandits with dominance relationships, but their approach was limited to problems with only two objectives. Turgay et al. [2] applied Contextual Zooming to learn Pareto (near-)optimal arms (PCZ), though their algorithm is complex and lacks sufficient implementation details. Lu et al. [3] introduced MOGLM-UCB, a UCB-type algorithm for generalized linear MO bandits, achieving a near-optimal Pareto regret bound. However, their method requires empirical Pareto front estimation and a parameter optimization step in every round, leading to potential computational overhead in practical applications. More recently, Kim et al. [5] studied Pareto front identification in linear MO bandits, proposing PFIwR, which exhibits weaker empirical performance in terms of regret compared to other algorithms. Cheng et al. [6] examined MO bandits with hierarchical objectives, introducing two algorithms: MOSLB-PC and MOSLB-PL. Zhang [8] applied hypervolume scalarization to linear MO bandits and analyzed a UCB-type algorithm (ExploreUCB) in terms of hypervolume regret.

Table 1 summarizes MO bandit studies relevant to our problem, however, direct regret bound comparisons are not feasible, as each study considers a different problem setting. Notably, none of these works have explored the conditions under which free exploration naturally arises or the potential benefits of having multiple objectives. Furthermore, while most studies on MO bandits

have proposed algorithms that compute the empirical Pareto front in each round, relatively few have focused on improving practicality by reducing the algorithm's computational complexity over time.

On the other hand, in the 2020s, several studies in single-objective bandits have focused on free exploration. The idea was first introduced by Kannan et al. [10], who showed that when perturbations exist in the context, the greedy algorithm can achieve a sub-linear regret bound. Raghavan et al. [11] proved an improved regret bound, in terms of Bayesian regret, for the Gaussian perturbation. Building on the previous works, Bastani et al. [9] demonstrated that in a stochastic context setup, if the context distribution satisfies a diversity assumption, the greedy algorithm can achieve an $O(\text{poly} \log T)$ regret bound, given an appropriate margin condition. More recently, Kim and Oh [12] proposed a condition on the context distribution, known as the LAC condition, under which free exploration can occur. They proved that under this condition, the regret bound remains $O(\text{poly} \log T)$. To the best of our knowledge, the only study on free exploration without assuming a context distributional condition is that of Bayati et al. [20], which identified free exploration in scenarios where the number of arms is sufficiently large. However, whether their findings can be generalized to the contextual setting remains an open question.

Again, the studies listed in Table 2 were conducted under different problem settings, making direct comparison of regret bounds meaningless. Notably, studies that achieved an $O(\operatorname{poly}\log T)$ bound either explicitly assumed a margin condition or derived it through other conditions (e.g. LAC condition). As seen in Table 2, while free exploration has been actively studied in single-objective settings, additional free exploration mechanisms that may arise in MO settings remain unexplored. Furthermore, our study offers a new perspective not only in the MO bandit literature but also in the free exploration literature, as it represents the first investigation of free exploration in a contextual setting that does not rely on context distributional assumptions.

B Notations

We denote by [n] the set $\{1,\ldots,n\}$ for a positive integer n. We use $\|x\|_2$ to denote the l_2 norm of a vector $x\in\mathbb{R}^d$ and $\|x\|_A=\sqrt{x^\top Ax}$ to denote the weighted norm of x induced by a positive definite matrix $A\in\mathbb{R}^{d\times d}$. We define the d-dimensional ball $\mathbb{B}^d_R=\{x\in\mathbb{R}^d\mid \|x\|_2\leq R\}$ and the (d-1)-dimensional sphere $\mathbb{S}^{d-1}_R=\{x\in\mathbb{R}^d\mid \|x\|_2=R\}$. When d is clear in the context, we just use $\mathbb{B}_R:=\mathbb{B}^d_R$ and $\mathbb{S}_R:=\mathbb{S}^{d-1}_R$, and R can be omitted for simplicity if R=1, i.e. $\mathbb{B}^d:=\mathbb{B}^d_1$, and $\mathbb{S}^{d-1}:=\mathbb{S}^{d-1}_1$. We define Δ^M as the M-dimensional simplex, given by $\{(w_1,\ldots,w_M)\in\mathbb{R}^d\mid \sum_{m\in[M]}w_i=1,\ w_1,\ldots w_M\geq 0\}$. We also denote the positive orthant of \mathbb{R}^d by \mathbb{R}^d_+ . For matrices A and B, we write $A\succeq B$ to indicate that A-B is positive definite. The i-th unit vector in \mathbb{R}^d is denoted by $e_i^{(d)}$, and when the dimension d is clear from the context, we simply write e_i . We define the spanning space of feature vectors x_1,\ldots,x_K as S_x , and its orthogonal complement as S_x^\perp . The projection map onto S_x is denoted by $\pi_{S_x}:\mathbb{R}^d\to S_x$, and when the space S_x is clear from the context, we simply write π_s . Finally, $\mathbb{1}\{\text{condition}\}$ means the indicator function that takes the value 1 if the condition is true and 0 otherwise.

C Fairness Criterion

C.1 Objective Fairness

Additional considerations beyond Pareto regret. Pareto regret minimization is often a central goal in multi-objective bandit algorithms, but it does not fully capture the essence of the multi-objective problem. Paradoxically, focusing solely on Pareto regret minimization itself allows algorithms to optimize for a single specific objective, potentially neglecting others. Specifically, an algorithm that behaves with respect to a single-objective bandit problem may perform just as well in the Pareto optimal sense [4], hence the defeats the purpose of the multi-objective problem. Therefore, meaningful multi-objective bandit algorithms should aim to balance multiple objectives, typically incorporating additional considerations such as fairness, alongside Pareto regret minimization.

Existing fairness criterion [1]. In multi-objective bandits, how fairly an algorithm handles multiple objectives is considered an important factor. Fairness in multi-objective bandits was first introduced

by Drugan and Nowe [1], who defined it as how evenly the Pareto front is sampled (Definition 7). However, this definition requires tracking the selection frequency of each true Pareto optimal arm, making it unsuitable for theoretical analysis. Many previous studies have mentioned fairness in the selection process, but, to the best of our knowledge, none has provided a theoretical analysis of fairness [21, 2, 3].

Furthermore, in practice, the fairness principle requires multi-objective algorithms to compute the empirical Pareto front at each arm selection, resulting in significant computational overhead [1, 21, 2, 3]. Specifically, algorithms that construct the empirical Pareto front in each round incur a time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(K^2)$ per round. This indicates that such algorithms may encounter scalability challenges in real-world applications involving a significantly large arm set.

Objective fairness. To address these limitations, we propose a new notion of fairness in multi-objective bandit problems. The fairness we introduce provides theoretical guarantees without imposing additional computational overhead on the algorithms. We present a new notion of fairness based on the near-optimality in each objective in definition 4.

The objective fairness index measures the proportion of rounds in which the ϵ -optimal arms are selected for the least selected objective. Therefore, objective fairness is an asymptotic concept that ensures the consistent selection of near-optimal arms for each objective as time progresses. Conversely, if $\mathrm{OFI}_{\epsilon,T} \to 0$ as $T \to \infty$, this implies that the algorithm ultimately does not consider optimal arms for at least one objective.

Additionally, we extend Definition 4 to consider not only the directions of objective parameters but also the weighted sum of their directions, introducing the notion of *generalized objective fairness* (definition 6). This extended definition ensures that optimal arms on the positive side of the Pareto front (Figure 2) are selected in proportion to the total rounds T.

Pareto front approximation. We argue that algorithms pursuing objective fairness or generalized objective fairness can address many challenges in real-world problems more efficiently than traditional approaches. A major advantage of these algorithms is that they eliminate the need to construct the empirical Pareto front at each iteration, which is typically required by traditional methods to ensure fairness. Although algorithms that pursue objective fairness do not approximate the Pareto front in every round, they enable on-demand approximation by estimating the parameters of each objective.

Lemma 1 (Connection from objective parameter estimation to Pareto front approximation). Suppose $\|x_i\|_2 \leq 1$ holds for all arms $i \in [K]$. Let $\widetilde{\theta}_m(t)$ be an estimator for θ_m^* for $m = 1, \ldots, M$, and we define the empirical Pareto front $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(t)$ with respect to the estimated expected reward $(x_i^{\top}\widetilde{\theta}_1(t),\ldots,x_i^{\top}\widetilde{\theta}_M(t))$ for each arm $i \in [K]$ in round t. If $\|\widetilde{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\|_2 < \epsilon$ holds for all $m \in [M]$, then, for all arms $i \in \widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(t)$, the suboptimality gap satisfies $\Delta_i \leq 2\epsilon$.

C.2 Generalized objective fairness

In Section 2.1.2, we defined the objective fairness of a MO algorithm. Objective fairness guarantees that the near-optimal arms in each objective direction are consistently selected without neglecting any objective. Building on this principle, we propose a generalized objective fairness criterion that ensures a MO algorithm continues to select the near-optimal arms across all weight-sum directions of the objectives.

Definition 6 (Generalized objective fairness). Given a weight vector $w \in \Delta^M$, let $\mu_{i,w} := \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m x_i^\top \theta_m^*$ be the expect weighted reward of arm i, a_w^* be the arm that has the largest expected weighted reward with respect to the weight vector w, and $\mu_w^* := \mu_{a_w^*,m}$. For all $\epsilon > 0$, define the generalized objective fairness index $\mathrm{GOFI}_{\epsilon,T}$ of an algorithm as

$$\mathrm{GOFI}_{\epsilon,T} := \inf_{w \in \Delta^M} \left(\frac{1}{T} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{1} \{ \mu_w^* - \mu_{a(t),w} < \epsilon \} \right] \right).$$

Then, we say that the algorithm satisfies the **generalized objective fairness** if for given ϵ , there exists a positive lower bound L_{ϵ} that satisfies $\lim_{T\to\infty} \mathsf{GOFI}_{\epsilon,T} \geq L_{\epsilon}$.

Intuitively, generalized objective fairness considers intermediate arms on the Pareto front, which are not optimal for individual objectives. It ensures the consistent selection of the optimal arms

corresponding to some weight-sum reward functions. The next lemma explains that the generalized objective fairness criterion guarantees that the algorithm consistently selects Pareto near-optimal arms that lie within the *positive side* (Figure 2) of the Pareto front.

Lemma 2 (Boyd and Vandenberghe [22]). Consider a multi-criterion problem, minimizing $F(x) = (f_1(x), \ldots, f_m(x))$ with respect to \mathbb{R}^m_+ . In scalarization, we choose a positive vector \widetilde{w} , and minimize the scalar function $\widetilde{w}^\top F(x)$. Then, any minimizer for scalarization is guaranteed to be Pareto optimal, and conversely, every Pareto optimal of a convex multi-criterion problem minimizes the function $\widetilde{w}^\top F(x)$ for some nonnegative weight vector \widetilde{w} .

Corollary 2. In a MO bandit problem, the optimal arms corresponding to weight-sum scalarized reward functions are contained in Pareto Front. Conversely, every Pareto optimal arms that lie within the positive side of the Pareto front are optimal for some weight-sum scalarized reward function.

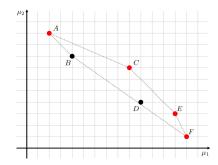


Figure 2: The two axes in the graph represent the expected rewards for each objective in a two-objective MO problem. The six points, A, B, C, D, E, and F, in the figure represent the Pareto front, while the dashed polygon outlines the convex hull of the Pareto front. Within the Pareto front, the positive side of the Pareto front refers to the points located on the positive side of the convex hull, highlighted in red, corresponding to points A, C, E, and F.

Remark 1. In a MO bandit problem, if the true Pareto front is convex, the generalized objective fairness ensures consistent selection of the entire Pareto front.

In some cases, it may be important to determine whether an algorithm fully explores the entire Pareto front. If we aim to evaluate whether an algorithm consistently selects the entire Pareto front, we can further extend the concept of GOF. In such cases, fairness can be redefined by employing alternative scalarization methods that enable full exploration of the Pareto front [23, 24, 8], rather than relying on the weighted sum.

C.3 Generalized objective fairness vs fairness suggested by Drugan and Nowe [1]

In this section, we explain how our fairness criterion differs from and improves upon the one proposed by Drugan and Nowe [1]. The fairness criterion defined by Drugan and Nowe [1] is as follows, and we refer to it as *Pareto front fairness*.

Definition 7 (Pareto front fairness [1]). Let $T_i^*(n)$ be the number of rounds an optimal arm i is pulled, and $\mathbb{E}[T^*(n)]$ be the expected number of times optimal arms are selected. The unfairness of a MO bandit algorithm is defined as the variance of the arms in Pareto front A^* ,

$$\phi = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}^*|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{A}^*} (T_i^*(n) - \mathbb{E}[T^*(n)])^2.$$

For a perfectly fair usage of optimal arms, we have that $\phi \to 0$.

Now, we compare our generalized objective fairness (GOF) with Pareto front fairness (PFF). The key differences and improvements are summarized as follows:

• GOF guarantees consistent selection of Pareto-optimal arms lies within the positive side of the Pareto front, while PFF considers the entire Pareto front (see Corollary 2).

- Statistical analysis is feasible with GOF but not with PFF, as PFF requires the number of times each true optimal arm is pulled, which can only be computed in simulated studies. In contrast, the definition of GOF incorporates an *ϵ* argument, enabling theoretical analysis. Detailed theoretical analysis of fairness is provided in Appendices E.3, F.3, and G.4.
- GOF accommodates differences in the importance of objectives, whereas PFF assumes equal importance across objectives. These differences are reflected in the indices of the two fairness criteria. GOF uses the lower bound of the selection ratio for each optimal arm as its index, whereas PFF employs the variance in the frequency of selecting each optimal arm.
- Algorithms based on the GOF perspective do not require computing the empirical Pareto front, whereas PFF-based algorithms incur additional computational costs for empirical Pareto front estimation.

D γ -goodness

In this section, we introduce the concept of γ -goodness, compare it with the alternative regularity condition employed in another greedy bandit study Bayati et al. [20], and clarify the distinction between γ -goodness and context diversity (Assumption 3 in Bastani et al. 9) assumption, which is commonly used in the existing greedy bandit literature.

We first extend the definition of a γ -good arm in Definition 5 to an arbitrary vector.

Definition 8 (γ -good vectors). For fixed $\gamma \in (0,1]$, we say that the vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is γ -good for the direction of $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ if $x^{\top} \frac{\theta}{\|\theta\|_2} \geq \gamma$ holds.

The following naturally arises from the definition; however, it plays a pivotal role in applying the goodness assumption to the analysis.

Proposition 1. If there exists a γ -good arm for θ , then the optimal arm for θ is also γ -good.

Proposition 2. Suppose x is a random variable that can only take values corresponding to γ -good arms for θ . Then, $\mathbb{E}[x]$ is also γ -good for θ .

The above proposition holds because the region $\{x \in \mathbb{B}^d \mid x^\top \frac{\theta}{\|\theta\|_2} \ge \gamma\}$ is convex.

D.1 γ -goodness condition for stochastic contexts setup

Before explaining the meaning of γ -goodness, we first extend the γ -goodness condition to be applicable in a stochastic context setup. In a MO linear contextual bandit framework, the stochastic context setup assumes that the context set $\chi(t) = \{x_i(t) \in \mathbb{R}^d, i \in [K]\}$ in each round t is drawn from some unknown distribution $P_\chi(t)$. Detailed explanations regarding this problem can be found in Section H.1. Under the stochastic context setup, we introduce the definition of goodness with respect to the context distribution and present the γ -goodness assumption as follows.

Definition 9 (Goodness of arms – stochastic context version). For fixed $\gamma \leq 1$, we say that the distribution $P_{\chi}(t)$ of feature vector set $\chi(t)$ satisfies γ -goodness condition if there exists a positive number q_{γ} that satisfies

$$\textit{for all } \beta \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}, \; \mathbb{P}_{\chi(t)}[\exists i \in [K], \; x_i(t)^\top \beta \geq \gamma] \geq q_\gamma.$$

Assumption 4 (γ -goodness – stochastic context version). We assume $P_{\chi}(t)$ satisfies γ -goodness condition for all $t \in [T]$, with $\gamma > 1 - \frac{\lambda^2}{18}$.

Different from fixed version, the goodness condition requires only the positive probability q_{γ} of the presence of γ -good arms not the existence of them (i.e. $q_{\gamma}=1$). Instead, the condition requires γ -good arms for not only the neighborhood of objective parameters but also all directions. In other words, γ -goodness signifies that for any direction $\beta \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$, there exists at least one γ -good arm with a probability of at least q_{γ} . Intuitively, if the union of the supports of each arm $x_i(t)$ for $i \in [K]$ covers all of \mathbb{S}^{d-1} , γ -goodness will be guaranteed for all $\gamma < 1$. The following lemma formalizes this concept.

Lemma 3. Suppose $x_1(t), \ldots, x_K(t)$ are continuous variables with density function f_1, \ldots, f_K . If $f = f_1 + \ldots + f_K$ is a bounded function and positive near \mathbb{S}^{d-1} (i.e., there exist $r \in (0,1)$ satisfies f is always positive at $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid r < \|x\|_2 < 1\}$), then $P_\chi(t)$ satisfies γ -goodness for all $\gamma \in (0,1)$.

Proof. Fix $\gamma \in (0,1)$. From the definition of f, f/K is the probability density function of $X = \text{Uniform}(x_1(t), \dots, x_K(t))$. Define $p_\beta = \mathbb{P}_{\chi(t)}[X^\top \beta \geq \gamma]$ for unit vector $\beta \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$. Then,

$$p_{\beta} = \mathbb{P}_{\chi(t)}[X^{\top}\beta \ge \gamma] = \int_{\{x \in \mathbb{B}^R \mid x^{\top}\beta \ge \gamma\}} \frac{f(x)}{K} dx \ge \int_{\{x \in \mathbb{B}^R \mid x^{\top}\beta \ge \max(\gamma, r)\}} \frac{f(x)}{K} dx > 0,$$

for all $\beta \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$.

Consider the function $F: \beta \xrightarrow{F} p_{\beta}$. From the boundedness of f, we can easily check F is continuous. By the fact that the compactness is preserved by continuous functions, $\{p_{\beta} \mid \beta \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}\}$ is compact. Define $q_{\gamma} := \min\{p_{\beta} \mid \beta \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}\}$, then we have $q_{\gamma} > 0$ since $p_{\beta} > 0$ for all $\beta \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$. Then, for all $\beta \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$

 $\mathbb{P}_{\chi(t)}[\exists i \in [K], \ x_i(t)^\top \beta \ge \gamma] \ge \mathbb{P}_{\chi(t)}[X^\top \beta \ge \gamma] = p_\beta \ge q_\gamma$

Remark 2. The above lemma states that if the set of arm $\chi(t)$ includes just a single continuous variable that can cover \mathbb{S}^{d-1} , then γ -goodness will hold for all $\gamma < 1$ regardless of the distributions of the remaining arms.

D.2 γ -goodness vs β -regularity

In Bayati et al. [20], they assume the prior distribution Γ of the expected reward μ of each arm satisfies $\mathbb{P}_{\mu}[\mu>1-\epsilon]=\Theta(\epsilon^{\beta})$ for all $\epsilon>0$ in non-contextual MAB setting. Let's compare this with γ -goodness when m=d=1. We claim that γ -goodness can be considered weaker than β -regularity from three perspectives.

The most significant difference is that in β -regularity, the probability that the expected reward μ_i exceeds $1-\epsilon$ is required for all arm $i\in [K]$, along with the assumption that μ_i 's are drawn independently from prior Γ . In contrast, in γ -goodness, it is sufficient to ensure that the probability that one of the K arms satisfies $x_i(t)^\top\beta \geq \gamma$, without the need for the independence assumption between arm vectors. Secondly, unlike β -regularity, γ -goodness does not require a specific relationship like $\Theta(1-\gamma)$ between the probability of the existence of near-optimal arms $\mathbb{P}_{\chi(t)}[\exists i\in [K], x_i(t)^\top\beta \geq \gamma]$ and the threshold γ ; instead, it focuses on the existence of a positive lower bound q_γ . Lastly, the β -regularity assumes the probability of $\mu > 1 - \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$, while this work does not mandate γ -goodness for γ very close to 1; it is sufficient to hold γ -goodness only for some $\gamma \geq 1 - (\frac{\lambda}{18})^2$.

D.3 γ -goodness vs context diversity

In recent years, there has been significant interest in the optimality of the Greedy algorithm in single-objective bandit problems [9, 10, 11, 19]. A common theme among these studies is the assumption that feature vectors follow a distribution satisfying specific diversity conditions. For example, Bastani et al. [9] assume the existence of a positive constant λ such that for each vector $u \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and context vector $x_i(t)$, $\lambda_{\min} \left(\mathbb{E}[x_i(t)x_i(t)^{\top}\mathbb{I}\{x_i(t)^{\top}u \geq 0\} \right) \geq \lambda$. The γ -goodness condition fundamentally differs from traditional context diversity assumptions. Below, we provide examples where the γ -goodness condition holds, while traditional diversity conditions do not.

Example 1 (Containing fixed arms) Imagine a situation where one feature vector is a continuous variable while the other arms are fixed. For example, let $x_1(t)$ be uniformly distributed over \mathbb{B}^d while $x_2(t) = x_2, \dots, x_K(t) = x_K$ are fixed at some points in \mathbb{S}^{d-1} . By Lemma 3, $P_\chi(t)$ satisfies γ -goodness for all $\gamma \in (0,1)$. However, it is easy to see that diversity is not satisfied because $\lambda_{\min} \left(\mathbb{E}[x_2(t)x_2(t)^{\top}\mathbb{1}\{x_2(t)^{\top}u \geq 0\} \right) = \lambda_{\min}(x_2x_2^{\top}\mathbb{1}\{x_2^{\top}u \geq 0\}) \leq \lambda_{\min}(x_2x_2^{\top}) = 0$.

Example 2 (Low-randomness distribution) Consider a scenario where the feature vectors are drawn from a finite set of discrete points. Despite the lack of diversity, if these points are strategically chosen to cover \mathbb{S}^{d-1} adequately, the goodness condition can still be satisfied. For example, suppose there is a set of points $P = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_N\}$ that contains $\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}$ -net of \mathbb{S}^{d-1} . Assume that $x_1(t)$ be chosen uniformly from the d-1 points and other arms $x_2(t), \ldots, x_K(t)$ be chosen from the remaining points. Obviously, $P_\chi(t)$ satisfies γ -goodness with $q_\gamma \geq \frac{1}{N}$. In contrast, $\lambda_{\min} \left(\mathbb{E}[x_1(t)x_1(t)^\top \mathbb{I}\{x_1(t)^\top u \geq 0\} \right) = 0$ since there are only d-1 candidates that can be $x_1(t)$. Therefore, context diversity does not hold in this scenario.

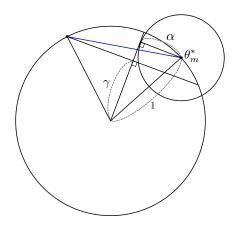


Figure 3: The larger circle represents the unit sphere in \mathbb{R}^d while the interior of smaller circle indicates the region where $\hat{\theta}_m(s)$ may exist. Then, the blue line illustrates the case when x that satisfies $x^{\top} \frac{\hat{\theta}_m(s)}{\|\hat{\theta}_m(s)\|} \geq \gamma$ is farthest from the θ_m^* .

Although γ -goodness encompasses cases where the traditional context diversity assumption is not covered, there is no inclusion relationship between the two conditions. Here is an example where γ -goodness does not hold, but context diversity does.

Example 3 (Proper support) Consider a case where 1 is given as the upper bound of the l_2 norm of feature vectors, but the actual support of feature vectors is smaller. For instance, if $x_i(t)$ follows a uniform distribution over $\mathbb{B}^d_{1/2}$ for all $i \in [K]$ and $t \in [T]$, then context diversity still holds (Bastani et al. [9]), but γ -goodness does not hold for $\gamma > 1/2$.

E Analysis of MOG with fixed features

E.1 Linear growth of minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix

We establish the lower bound of the minimum eigenvalue on the Gram matrix that grows linearly with respect to t. Let T_0 denote the number of initial rounds required until $\lambda_{\min}(V_{t-1}) \geq B$ holds.

Lemma 4 (Increment of the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix). Suppose that Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. If the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$, for all $m \in [M]$ and for all $s \ge T_0 + 1$, then the selected arms for a single cycle $s = t_0, t_0 + 1, \ldots, t_0 + M - 1$ ($t_0 \ge T_0 + 1$) by Algorithm 1 satisfy

$$\lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{s=t_0}^{t_0+M-1} x(s)x(s)^{\top} \right) \ge \frac{\lambda}{3}M.$$

The proof of Lemma 4 is presented in Section E.1.2 and its supporting lemmas are presented in Section E.1.1.

E.1.1 Technical lemmas for Lemma 4

The following lemma states that, after sufficient exploration rounds, the distance between the γ -good arms for the OLS estimator of the objective parameters and the respective true objective parameters can be bounded.

Lemma 5. Given Assumptions 1, assume the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$, for $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$. If $x \in \mathbb{B}^d$ is γ -good for $\hat{\theta}_m(s)$, then the distance between x and θ_m^* is bounded by

$$\|\theta_m^* - x\|_2 \le \sqrt{2 + 2\alpha\sqrt{1 - \gamma^2} - 2\gamma\sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}}.$$

Proof. Consider the case when x is the farthest from θ_m^* . As we easily can see from Figure 3,

$$\|\theta_m^* - x\|_2^2 \le (\alpha + \sqrt{1 - \gamma^2})^2 + (\sqrt{1 - \alpha^2} - \gamma)^2 = 2 + 2\alpha\sqrt{1 - \gamma^2} - 2\gamma\sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}.$$

Now, we will demonstrate that the γ -good arms for multiple objectives spans \mathbb{R}^d by deriving a lower bound on the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix constructed from γ -good arms.

Lemma 6. Given Assumptions 1 and 2, assume the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$, for all $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$. If $x_{r(1)}, \ldots, x_{r(M)} \in \mathbb{B}^d$ are γ -good for $\hat{\theta}_1(s_1), \ldots, \hat{\theta}_M(s_M)$ for some $s_1, \ldots, s_M \ge T_0 + 1$, respectively, then the following holds

$$\lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{m \in [M]} x_{r(m)} (x_{r(m)})^{\top} \right) \ge \frac{\lambda}{3} M.$$

Proof. For all $m \in [M]$, we can get $||x_{r(m)} - \theta_m^*|| \le \sqrt{2 + 2\alpha\sqrt{1 - \gamma^2} - 2\gamma\sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}}$ by Lemma 5.

Then, for any unit vector $u \in \mathbb{B}^d$,

$$u^{\top} \left(\sum_{m \in [M]} x_{r(m)} (x_{r(m)})^{\top} \right) u = \sum_{m \in [M]} \left\langle u, x_{r(m)} \right\rangle^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{m \in [M]} \left\langle u, \theta_{m}^{*} + (x_{r(m)} - \theta_{m}^{*}) \right\rangle^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{m \in [M]} \left\{ \left\langle u, \theta_{m}^{*} \right\rangle^{2} + \left\langle u, x_{r(m)} - \theta_{m}^{*} \right\rangle^{2} + 2 \left\langle u, \theta_{m}^{*} \right\rangle \left\langle u, x_{r(m)} - \theta_{m}^{*} \right\rangle \right\}$$

$$\geq u^{\top} \left(\sum_{m \in [M]} \theta_{m}^{*} (\theta_{m}^{*})^{\top} \right) u + 0 - 2\sqrt{2 + 2\alpha\sqrt{1 - \gamma^{2}} - 2\gamma\sqrt{1 - \alpha^{2}}} M$$

$$\geq \lambda M - 2\sqrt{2 + 2\alpha\sqrt{1 - \gamma^{2}} - 2\gamma\sqrt{1 - \alpha^{2}}} M.$$

We define α in Section 3.2 as having a value less than or equal to $\psi(\lambda,\gamma):=\sqrt{\frac{\lambda^2}{9}-\frac{\lambda^4}{324}}$ $\gamma-\left(1-\frac{\lambda^2}{18}\right)\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}$. This leads the inequality $\lambda-2\sqrt{2+2\alpha\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}-2\gamma\sqrt{1-\alpha^2}}\geq \frac{\lambda}{3}$. Therefore, we have

$$\lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{m\in[M]} x_{r(m)} \left(x_{r(m)}\right)^{\top}\right) \ge \left(\lambda - 2\sqrt{2 + 2\alpha\sqrt{1 - \gamma^2} - 2\gamma\sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}}\right) M \ge \frac{\lambda}{3} M.$$

E.1.2 Proof of Lemma 4.

The previous lemma shows that the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix increases at a rate of $\mathcal{O}(\lambda)$. It is well known that if the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix increases linear with t, a regret bound of $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\sqrt{T})$ can be derived.

Proof. For $s=t_0,\ldots,t_0+M-1$ $(t_0\geq T_0+1), \|\hat{\theta}_m(s)-\theta_m^*\|<\alpha$ for all $m\in[M]$. Then, by Assumption 3 and Proposition 1, the selected arm x(s) are γ -good arms for the corresponding target objectives in round $s=t_0,\ldots,t_0+M-1$. Since the target objectives in round $s=t_0,\ldots,t_0+M-1$ are all different M objectives, we have

$$\lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{s=t_0}^{t_0+M-1} x(s)x(s)^{\top}\right) \ge \frac{\lambda}{3}M,$$

by Lemma 6. □

E.2 Proof of the regret bound

Theorem 1 is proven by deriving an l_2 bound on $\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*$. This is enabled by Lemma 4, which shows that the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix grows linearly with t with high probability, thereby allowing us to obtain the desired bound. The proof of Theorem 1 is presented in Section E.2.2 and its supporting lemmas are presented in Section E.2.1.

E.2.1 Technical lemmas for Theorem 1

To apply Lemma 4, a sufficient number of initial exploration is required to ensure its preconditions are satisfied. We discuss this requirement in the next section (Section E.4). In the current section, we assume this condition is met via Lemma 9, and proceed to prove Theorem 1.

Lemma 7 (Minimum eigenvalue growth). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold, and fix $\delta > 0$. If we run Algorithm 1 with $B = \min \left[\frac{\sigma}{\alpha} \sqrt{2dT \log(\frac{dT}{\delta})}, \frac{4\sigma^2}{\alpha^2} \left(\frac{d}{2} \log\left(1 + \frac{2T}{d}\right) + \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right) \right) \right]$, then with probability $1 - 2M\delta$, the following holds for the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix

$$\lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s)x(s)^{\top}\right) \ge B + \frac{\lambda}{3}(t - T_0 - M),$$

for $T_0 + M \le t \le T$.

Proof. If we choose B as stated in the lemma, the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$ for all $s \ge T_0 + 1$ and $m \in [M]$ with probability $1 - 2M\delta$, by Lemma 9. Thus, by applying Lemma 4 to every single round after exploration, we have, for $t \ge T_0 + M$,

$$\lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) x(s)^{\top} \right) \ge \lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{T_0} x(s) x(s)^{\top} \right) + \lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{s=T_0+1}^{t-1} x(s) x(s)^{\top} \right)$$

$$\ge B + \left[\frac{t-1-T_0}{M} \right] \times \frac{\lambda}{3} M,$$

$$\ge B + \frac{\lambda}{3} (t-T_0-M).$$

With Lemma 7, we are ready to derive the l_2 bound of $\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*$ for $m \in [M]$.

Lemma 8. Fix $\delta > 0$. Under the same conditions as those in Lemma 7, with probability at least $1 - 3M\delta$, for all $m \in [M]$ and $t \ge 2T_0 + 2M$, the OLS estimator $\hat{\theta}_m(t)$ of θ_m^* satisfies

$$\left\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\right\|_2 \le \frac{6\sigma}{\lambda} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dt/\delta)}{t - T_0 - M}}$$

Proof. From the closed form of the OLS estimators, for all $m \in [M]$,

$$\left\| \hat{\theta}_{m}(t) - \theta_{m}^{*} \right\|_{2} = \left\| \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) x(s)^{\top} \right)^{-1} \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) \eta_{a(s),m}(s) \right\|_{2}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{\lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) x(s)^{\top} \right)} \left\| \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) \eta_{a(s),m}(s) \right\|_{2}$$

For the denominator, we have $\lambda_{\min}\left(V_{t-1}\right) \geq B + \frac{\lambda}{3}(t-T_0-M)$ for $t \geq T_0+M$, with probability at least $1-2M\delta$, by Lemma 7. To bound the l_2 norm of $S_{t-1,m}:=\sum_{s=1}^{t-1}x(s)\eta_{a(s),m}(s)$, we can use Lemma 23, the martingale inequality of Kannan et al. [10]. The lemma states that for fixed

 $m \in [M]$, $||S_{t-1,m}||_2 \le \sigma \sqrt{2dt \log(dt/\delta)}$ holds with probability at least $1 - \delta$. Therefore, with probability at least $1 - 3M\delta$, for all $m \in [M]$ and $t \ge 2T_0 + 2M$,

$$\left\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\right\|_2 \le \frac{\sigma\sqrt{2dt\log(dt/\delta)}}{B + \lambda(t - T_0 - M)/3} \le \frac{6\sigma}{\lambda}\sqrt{\frac{d\log(dt/\delta)}{t - T_0 - M}}.$$

The last inequality holds when $t \geq 2T_0 + 2M$.

E.2.2 Proof of Theorem 1

Proof. Let E be the event that $\left\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\right\|_2 \leq \frac{6\sigma}{\lambda} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dtT)}{t - T_0 - M}}$ holds for all $m \in [M]$ and $t \geq 2T_0 + 2M$. Then, $\mathbb{P}(\bar{E}) \leq \frac{3M}{T}$ by Lemma 8 with $\delta = \frac{1}{T}$.

Let m(t) be the target objective for round t and a_m^* be the optimal arm with respect to objective m. Then, the suboptimality gap on round t is bounded by

$$\Delta_{a(t)}(t) \le (x_{a_{m(t)}^*})^\top \theta_{m(t)}^* - x(t)^\top \theta_{m(t)}^* \le 2 \|\hat{\theta}_{m(t)}(t) - \theta_{m(t)}^*\|_2.$$

Let Δ_{\max} be the maximum suboptimality gap. For $t \geq 2T_0 + 2M$,

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[\Delta_{a(t)}(t)] &\leq \mathbb{E}[\Delta_{a(t)}(t) \mid E] + \mathbb{P}(E)\Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq 2\mathbb{E}[\ \|\hat{\theta}_{m(t)}(t) - \theta^*_{m(t)}\|_2 \mid E] + \frac{3M}{T}\Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq \frac{12\sigma}{\lambda} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dtT)}{t - T_0 - M}} + \frac{3M}{T}\Delta_{\max}. \end{split}$$

Then, the Pareto regret is bounded by

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{PR}(T) &= \sum_{t=2T_0+2M+1}^{T} \mathbb{E}[\Delta_{a(t)}(t)] + (2T_0 + 2M)\Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq \sum_{t=2T_0+2M+1}^{T} \frac{12\sigma}{\lambda} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dtT)}{t - T_0 - M}} + \{(\frac{3M}{T})T + 2T_0 + 2M\}\Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq \frac{12\sigma}{\lambda} \sqrt{2d \log(dT)} \int_{0}^{T} \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} dt + \{2T_0 + 5M\}\Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq \frac{24\sigma}{\lambda} \sqrt{2dT \log(dT)} + 2\{2T_0 + 5M\}. \end{split}$$

The last inequality holds because we have $\Delta_{\max} \leq 2$ under Assumption 1.

E.3 Proof of Theorem 2

Proof. Define the event $\Omega_{m,t}$ for all $m \in [M]$ as

 $\Omega_{m,t} := \{ \omega \in \Omega \mid \text{Objective } m \text{ is a target objective for round } t \}.$

Then, $\mathbb{P}(\Omega_{m,t}) = \mathbb{1}\{t \equiv m \mod M\}$ from the Round-Robin process.

Let E be the event that $\left\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\right\|_2 \leq \frac{6\sigma}{\lambda} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dtT)}{t - T_0 - M}}$ holds for all $m \in [M]$ and $t \geq 2T_0 + 2M$. Then, $\mathbb{P}(\bar{E}) \leq \frac{3M}{T}$ by Lemma 8 with $\delta = \frac{1}{T}$. We know that on $\Omega_{m,t} \cap E$, for $t \geq 2T_0 + 2m$,

$$\mu_m^* - \mu_{a(t),m} \le 2\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\|_2 \le \frac{12\sigma}{\lambda} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dtT)}{t - T_0 - M}} \le \frac{12\sigma}{\lambda} \sqrt{\frac{2d \log(dT)}{t - T_0 - M}}$$

Let $T_{\epsilon} = \max(\lfloor \frac{288\sigma^2 d \log(dT)}{\lambda^2 \epsilon^2} \rfloor + T_0 + M, \ 2T_0 + 2M)$. Then, on $\Omega_{m,t} \cap E$, we have $\mu_m^* - \mu_{a(t),m} < \epsilon$ for all $t > T_{\epsilon}$. Therefore, for all $m \in [M]$,

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{T} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{1} \{ \mu_m^* - \mu_{a(t),m} < \epsilon \} \right] &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{1} \{ \mu_m^* - \mu_{a(t),m} < \epsilon \} \mid \Omega_{m,t} \right] \mathbb{P}(\Omega_{m,t}) \\ &\geq \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{1} \{ \mu_m^* - \mu_{a(t),m} < \epsilon \} \mid \Omega_{m,t} \right] \mathbb{P}(\Omega_{m,t}) \\ &\geq \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=T_\epsilon+1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{1} \{ \mu_m^* - \mu_{a(t),m} < \epsilon \} \mid \Omega_{m,t} \cap E \right] \mathbb{P}(E) \\ &\geq \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=T_\epsilon+1, \ M \mid t-m}^{T} \mathbb{P}(E) \\ &\geq \frac{1}{T} \left[\frac{T-T_\epsilon}{M} \right] \left(1 - \frac{3M}{T} \right) \\ &\geq \left(\frac{T-T_\epsilon-M}{MT} \right) \left(1 - \frac{3M}{T} \right) \end{split}$$

E.4 The parameter B and the number of initial rounds

In this section, we discuss the appropriate value of B, the threshold of the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix. For convenience, denote $V_t := \sum_{s=1}^t x(s)x(s)^{\top}$ and $S_t := \sum_{s=1}^t x(s)\eta_{a(s)}(s)^{\top}$. When the minimum eigenvalue of the empirical covariance matrix V_{T_0-1} exceeds a certain threshold, we can guarantee the l_2 bound of the OLS estimator $\hat{\theta}(t)$ of θ_* for $t \geq T_0$ with high probability. I.e.,

$$\lambda_{\min}(V_{T_0-1}) \ge f(a) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{for all } t \ge T_0, \quad \|\hat{\theta}(t) - \theta_*\|_2 \le a \tag{1}$$

If we set $B=f(\alpha)$, then with high probability, $\|\hat{\theta}_m(t)-\theta_m^*\|\leq \alpha$ after initial rounds.

Kveton et al. [25] suggest f(a) that satisfies Eq.(1) using a bound of $\|S_t\|_{V_{t-1}^{-1}}$. However, a small mistake was made in their process: the bound they derived by modifying Theorem 1 of Abbasi-Yadkori et al. [14] is actually a bound for $\|\sum_{s=\tau_0+1}^t x(s)\eta_{a(s)}(s)^\top\|_{V_{t-1}^{-1}}$, where $\tau_0=\min\{t\geq 1: V_t\succ 0\}$, not $\|S_t\|_{V_{t-1}^{-1}}$. To address this problem, the simplest approach would be to use the bound of $\|S_t\|_2$ suggested by Kannan et al. [10]. Alternatively, we can use the bound of $\|S_t\|_{V_{t-1}^{-1}}$ proposed by Li et al. [18]. The following lemma explains how the theoretical value of the initial parameter B, given by $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\min(\sqrt{dT},d\log T))$, can be derived through these two approaches.

Lemma 9. Given Assumption 1, for any a > 0 and $\delta > 0$, if we run Algorithm 2 with

$$B = \min \left[\frac{\sigma}{\alpha} \sqrt{2dT \log(\frac{dT}{\delta})}, \ \frac{4\sigma^2}{\alpha^2} \left(\frac{d}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{2T}{d} \right) + \log \left(\frac{1}{\delta} \right) \right) \right],$$

then with probability at least $1 - 2M\delta$, the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\|_2 \le \alpha$ for all $m \in [M]$ and $t \ge T_0 + 1$.

Proof. First we will bound B using the fact

$$\left\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\right\|_2 = \left\| (V_{t-1})^{-1} S_{t-1,m} \right\|_2 \le \frac{1}{\lambda_{\min}(V_{t-1})} \|S_{t-1,m}\|_2,$$

where $S_{t,m} := \sum_{s=1}^{t} x(s) \eta_{a(s),m}(s)^{\top}$.

Since for fixed $m \in [M]$, $||S_{t-1,m}||_2 \le \sigma \sqrt{2dt \ln(td/\delta)}$ holds for all $t \le T$ with probability at least $1 - \delta$ by Lemma 23 and it is obvious that $\lambda_{\min}(V_{t-1}) \ge \lambda_{\min}(V_{T_0-1})$ for $t \ge T_0$, we have $\left\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\right\|_2 \le \alpha$ for all $m \in [M]$ and $t \ge T_0 + 1$ with probability at least $1 - M\delta$ when the value of B set to $\frac{\sigma}{a} \sqrt{2dT \log(dT/\delta)}$.

Alternatively, we can use the fact

$$\left\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\right\|_2^2 = (S_{t-1,m})^\top V_{t-1}^{-1} V_{t-1}^{-1} S_{t-1,m} \le \frac{1}{\lambda_{\min}(V_{t-1})} \|S_{t-1,m}\|_{V_{t-1}^{-1}}^2.$$

By Lemma 24, for fixed $m \in [M]$, $||S_{t-1,m}||^2_{V_{t-1}^{-1}} \le 4\sigma^2(\frac{d}{2}\log(1+\frac{2t}{d})+\log(\frac{1}{\delta}))$ holds for all $t \le T$ with probability at least $1-\delta$, and hence, we have $\left\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\right\|_2 < a$ for all $m \in [M]$ and $t \ge T_0 + 1$ with probability at least $1 - M\delta$ by setting B to $\frac{4\sigma^2}{a^2}(\frac{d}{2}\log(1+\frac{2T}{d})+\log(\frac{1}{\delta}))$.

Therefore, if we set
$$B = \min \left[\frac{\sigma}{\alpha} \sqrt{2dT \log(\frac{dT}{\delta})}, \frac{4\sigma^2}{\alpha^2} \left(\frac{d}{2} \log\left(1 + \frac{2T}{d}\right) + \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right) \right) \right]$$
, we have $\left\| \hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^* \right\|_2 < a$ for all $m \in [M]$ and $t \geq T_0 + 1$ with probability at least $1 - 2M\delta$.

E.4.1 Proof of Corollary 1

Proof. Let S be the feature set selected during initial rounds and $\lambda_S := \lambda_{\min} \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_{x_i \in S} x_i(x_i)^\top \right)$ Then, for any $T_1 \ge \lfloor \frac{B}{\lambda_S} \rfloor + M$, if we keep playing with feature vectors in S in a Round-Robin manner for T_1 rounds,

$$\lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{s=1}^{T_1-1} x(s)x(s)^{\top}\right) \ge \left[\frac{T_1-1}{M}\right] \times \lambda_S M \ge \lambda_S (T_1-M) \ge B.$$

Hence, we have $T_0 \leq \lfloor \frac{B}{\lambda_S} \rfloor + M$.

F Randomized version of MOG algorithm

F.1 MO Greedy algorithm – Randomized version

We propose a randomized version of MOG algorithm named the MOG-R algorithm, which selects target objective randomly for each round (Line 3). The algorithm takes as input the probability mass function (p_1,\ldots,p_M) of selecting each objective, which can be uniformly set to $\frac{1}{M}$ in the absence of specific information. The other aspects remain identical to the original MOG algorithm.

Algorithm 2 MO Greedy algorithm - Randomized version (MOG-R)

```
Require: Total rounds T, Eigenvalue threshold B, Objective distribution (p_1, \ldots, p_M)
 1: Initialize V_0 \leftarrow 0 \times I_d, and \beta_1, \dots, \beta_M \in \mathbb{R}^d
 2: for t = 1 to T do
        Randomly select the target objective m \in [M] from the distribution (p_1, \ldots, p_M).
        if \lambda_{\min}(V_{t-1}) < B then
 5:
            Select action a(t) \in \arg\max_{i \in [K]} x_i^{\top} \beta_m
 6:
            Update the OLS estimators \hat{\theta}_1(t), \dots, \hat{\theta}_M(t)
 7:
           Select action a(t) \in \arg\max_{i \in [K]} x_i^{\top} \hat{\theta}_m(t)
 8:
 9:
        Observe y(t) = (y_{a(t),1}(t), \dots, y_{a(t),M}(t))
10:
        Update V_t \leftarrow V_{t-1} + x(t)x(t)^{\top}
12: end for
```

The MOG-R algorithm can be interpreted as a greedy algorithm operating in a MO setting, where the prioritized objective changes in each round. The statistical guarantees of the MOG-R algorithm

demonstrate that applying a greedy algorithm to the prioritized objective can be an efficient strategy when there exist good arms for multiple objectives. This suggests that in real-world scenarios where the dominant objective changes across rounds, an algorithm can still achieve strong performance in terms of regret, even when solely exploiting the dominant objective in each round.

F.2 Pareto regret bound of MOG-R

The following theorem demonstrates that the MOG-R algorithm possesses near optimal regret with respect to T.

Theorem 3 (Pareto regret bound of MOG-R). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. If we run Algorithm 1 with $B = \min \left[\frac{\sigma}{\alpha} \sqrt{2dT \log(dT^2)}, \frac{4\sigma^2}{\alpha^2} \left(\frac{d}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{2T}{d} \right) + \log \left(T \right) \right) \right]$, then the Pareto regret of Algorithm 2 is bounded by

$$\mathcal{PR}(T) \le \frac{48\sigma}{\lambda p^*} \sqrt{2dT \log(dT)} + 4T_0 + 6M + \frac{60d}{\lambda p^*},$$

where $p^* = \min_{m \in [M]}(p_m)M$.

Discussion of Theorem 3. The theorem establishes that MOG-R has $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}\left(\frac{\sqrt{dT}}{\lambda}\right)$ Pareto regret bound, which matches the bound for the original deterministic version of MOG. In other words, this implies that even when the target objective in MOG is determined stochastically, a similar level of statistical guarantee can be maintained.

Remark 3. The value of p^* becomes smaller as the probability differences among the objectives selected by the algorithm increase. Conversely, if a uniform distribution is used for selecting the target objective, p^* takes a value of 1.

Corollary 3 (Number of initial rounds). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. If the feature set S selected during the initial rounds in Algorithm 2 spans \mathbb{R}^d , then T_0 can be bounded by $T_0 \leq \left\lfloor 2B/p^* \lambda_{\min} \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_{x_i \in S} x_i(x_i)^\top \right) \right\rfloor$.

The proof of Theorem 3 is presented in Section F.2.2 and its supporting lemmas are presented in Section F.2.1, and the proof of corollary 3 is presented in Section F.2.3

F.2.1 Technical lemmas for Theorem 3

To prove Theorem 3, we first establish the lower bound of the minimum eigenvalue of Gram matrix that increases linearly with respect to t, in a slightly different way from the case of MOG. In the previous analysis for MOG, we construct a constant lower bound for the increment of minimum eigenvalue during one round robin cycle. For the randomized version, we make a constant lower bound for $\lambda_{\min}\left(\mathbb{E}[x(t)x(t)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{t-1}]\right)$ in each round, like existing greedy bandit approaches. However, it is important to note that the expectation of the lemma below arises not from the randomness of the contexts, but rather from the randomness associated with the selection of the target objective in each round.

Lemma 10 (Increment of the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. If the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$, for all $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$, then the arm selected by Algorithm 2 satisfies

$$\lambda_{\min}(\mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]) \ge \frac{\lambda p^*}{3},$$

where $p^* = \min_{m \in [M]} (p_m) M$.

Proof. For all $s \geq T_0 + 1$ and $m \in [M]$, let $E_m(s)$ be the event that the objective m is a target objective in round s. Then,

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}] &= \sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|E_{m}(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}] \mathbb{P}[E_{m}(s)|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}] \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^{M} p_{m} \mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|E_{m}(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}] \\ &\succeq \min_{m \in [M]}(p_{m}) \sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{E}[x(s)|E_{m}(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}] \mathbb{E}[x(s)|E_{m}(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]^{\top}. \end{split}$$

, The final line is validated by Lemma 27.

By Assumption 3, there always exists γ -good arm for $\hat{\theta}_m(s)$ for all $m \in [M]$. Hence, on the event $E_m(s)$, the selected arm x(s) is γ -good for $\hat{\theta}_m(s)$ by Proposition 1. Therefore, $\mathbb{E}[x(s)|E_m(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]$ is also γ -good for $\hat{\theta}_m(s)$ by Proposition 2, and so we can apply Lemma 6 to derive the minimum eigen value of above matrix by

$$\lambda_{\min}(\mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]) \ge \min_{m \in [M]}(p_m) \lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{E}[x(s)|E_m(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]\mathbb{E}[x(s)|E_m(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]^{\top}\right)$$
$$\ge \frac{\min_{m \in [M]}(p_m)\lambda M}{3}.$$

The following lemma shows that the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix increases at a rate $O(\lambda)$.

Lemma 11 (Minimum eigenvalue growth of Gram matrix). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. Assume the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$ for all $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$. Then for $t \ge T_0$, the following holds for the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix of arms selected by Algorithm 1

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{s=1}^{t} x(s)x(s)^{\top}\right) \le B + \frac{\lambda q^{*}}{6}(t - T_{0})\right] \le de^{\frac{-\lambda q^{*}(t - T_{0})}{30}},$$

where
$$C = \lambda - 2\sqrt{2 + 2\alpha\sqrt{1 - \gamma^2} - 2\gamma\sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}}$$
 and $p^* = \min_{m \in [M]}(p_m)M$.

Proof. By the subadditivity of minimum eigenvalue and Lemma 10, for $t \ge T_0 + 1$,

$$\lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{s=T_0+1}^t \mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^\top | \mathcal{H}_{s-1}] \right) \ge \sum_{s=T_0+1}^t \lambda_{\min} (\mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^\top | \mathcal{H}_{s-1}]) \ge \frac{\lambda p^*}{3} (t - T_0)$$

In other words, $\mathbb{P}[\lambda_{\min}(\sum_{s=T_0+1}^t \mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^\top | \mathcal{H}_{s-1}]) \geq \frac{\lambda p^*}{3}(t-T_0)] = 1$ holds for $t \geq T_0+1$. By applying Lemma25 to compute the lower bound of the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix after exploration, we have

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{s=T_0+1}^t x(s)x(s)^\top\right) \le \frac{\lambda p^*}{6}(t-T_0)\right] \le d(\frac{e^{0.5}}{0.5^{0.5}})^{-\frac{\lambda p^*}{3}(t-T_0)} \le de^{\frac{-\lambda p^*(t-T_0)}{30}}.$$

Therefore, by subadditivity of minimum eigenvalue, for $t \geq T_0$

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{s=1}^{t} x(s)x(s)^{\top}\right) \le B + \frac{\lambda p^{*}}{6}(t - T_{0})\right] \le de^{\frac{-\lambda p^{*}(t - T_{0})}{30}}.$$

The following lemma establishes the l_2 -bound for the estimated objective parameters, a critical requirement for solving greedy bandit problems.

Lemma 12. Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. Assume the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$ for all $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$ for some $\alpha > 0$. Then for any $\delta > 0$, $m \in [M]$ and $t \ge T_0$, with probability at least $1 - M\delta - de^{\frac{-\lambda p^*(t - T_0)}{30}}$, the OLS estimator $\hat{\theta}_m(t)$ of θ_m^* satisfies

$$\left\| \hat{\theta}_m(t+1) - \theta_m^* \right\|_2 \le \frac{12\sigma}{\lambda p^*} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dt/\delta)}{t - T_0}},$$

where $p^* = \min_{m \in [M]} (p_m) M$.

Proof. From the closed form of the OLS estimators, for all $m \in [M]$,

$$\left\| \hat{\theta}_{m}(t+1) - \theta_{m}^{*} \right\|_{2} = \left\| \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t} x(s)x(s)^{\top} \right)^{-1} \sum_{s=1}^{t} x(s)\eta_{a(s),m}(s) \right\|_{2}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{\lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t} x(s)x(s)^{\top} \right)} \left\| \sum_{s=1}^{t} x(s)\eta_{a(s),m}(s) \right\|_{2}$$

For the denominator, we have $\lambda_{\min}\left(V_t\right) \geq B + \frac{\lambda p^*}{6}(t-T_0)$ for $t \geq T_0$, with probability at least $1-de^{\frac{-\lambda p^*(t-T_0)}{30}}$, by Lemma 7. To bound the l_2 norm of $S_{t,m}:=\sum_{s=1}^t x(s)\eta_{a(s),m}(s)$, we can use Lemma 23, the martingale inequality of Kannan et al. [10]. The lemma states for fixed $m \in [M]$, $\|S_{t,m}\|_2 \leq \sigma \sqrt{2dt \log(dt/\delta)}$ holds with probability at least $1-\delta$. Therefore, with probability at least $1-M\delta-de^{\frac{-\lambda p^*(t-T_0)}{30}}$, for all $m \in [M]$ and $t \geq 2T_0$,

$$\left\|\hat{\theta}_m(t+1) - \theta_m^*\right\|_2 \le \frac{\sigma\sqrt{2dt\log(dt/\delta)}}{B + \lambda p^*(t-T_0)/6} \le \frac{12\sigma}{\lambda p^*}\sqrt{\frac{d\log(dt/\delta)}{t-T_0}}.$$

The last inequality holds when $t \geq 2T_0$.

F.2.2 Proof of Theorem 3

Proof. By Lemma 9, if B is set by $B=\min\left[\frac{\sigma}{\alpha}\sqrt{2dT\log(dT^2)},\ \frac{4\sigma^2}{\alpha^2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\log\left(1+\frac{2T}{d}\right)+\log\left(T\right)\right)\right]$, we have $\|\hat{\theta}_m(t)-\theta_m^*\|\leq \alpha$ for all $m\in[M]$ and $t\geq T_0+1$ with probability at least $1-\frac{2M}{T}$. Let E be the event that $\|\hat{\theta}_m(t+1)-\theta_m^*\|\leq \frac{12\sigma}{\lambda p^*}\sqrt{\frac{d\log(dtT)}{t-T_0}}$ holds for all $t\geq 2T_0$ and $m\in[M]$. Then, $\mathbb{P}(\bar{E})\leq \frac{2M}{T}+\frac{M}{T}+de^{\frac{-\lambda p^*(t-T_0)}{30}}$ by Lemma 12.

Let Δ_{\max} be the maximum suboptimality gap and m(t) be the target objective in round t. For $t \geq 2T_0$,

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[\Delta_{a(t+1)}(t+1)] &\leq \mathbb{E}[\Delta_{a(t+1)}(t+1) \mid E] + \mathbb{P}(E)\Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq 2\mathbb{E}[\|\hat{\theta}_{m(t+1)}(t+1) - \theta^*_{m(t+1)}\|_2 \mid E] + \left(\frac{3M}{T} + de^{\frac{-\lambda_p^*(t-T_0)}{30}}\right) \Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq \frac{24\sigma}{\lambda p^*} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dtT)}{t-T_0}} + \left(\frac{3m}{T} + de^{\frac{-\lambda_p^*(t-T_0)}{30}}\right) \Delta_{\max}. \end{split}$$

Then, the Pareto regret is bounded by

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{PR}(T) &= \sum_{t=2T_0}^{T-1} \mathbb{E}[\Delta_{a(t+1)}(t+1)] + 2T_0 \Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq \sum_{t=2T_0}^{T} \frac{24\sigma}{\lambda p^*} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dtT)}{t-T_0}} + \{(\frac{3M}{T})T + \sum_{t=2T_0}^{T} de^{\frac{-\lambda p^*(t-T_0)}{30}} + 2T_0\} \Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq \frac{24\sigma}{\lambda p^*} \sqrt{2d \log(dT)} \int_0^T \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} dt + \left(2T_0 + 3M + \sum_{t=2T_0}^{T} de^{\frac{-\lambda p^*(t-T_0)}{30}}\right) \Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq \frac{48\sigma}{\lambda p^*} \sqrt{2dT \log(dT)} + \left(2T_0 + 3M + \frac{30d}{\lambda p^*}\right) \Delta_{\max} \\ &\leq \frac{48\sigma}{\lambda p^*} \sqrt{2dT \log(dT)} + 2\left(2T_0 + 3M + \frac{30d}{\lambda p^*}\right). \end{split}$$

The last inequality holds because we have $\Delta_{\text{max}} \leq 2$ under Assumption 1.

F.2.3 Proof of Corollary 3

Proof. Let S be the feature set selected during initial rounds and $\lambda_S := \lambda_{\min} \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_{x_i \in S} x_i(x_i)^\top \right)$. Then, $\lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{s=1}^t x(s) x(s)^\top \right) \ge p^* \lambda_S t/2$ with probability at least $1 - de^{-\lambda_S p^*/10}$ by Lemma 25.

Then, for any $T_0 \ge \lfloor \frac{2B}{p^* \lambda_S} \rfloor$, if we keep playing with the initial values for T_0 rounds,

$$\lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{s=1}^{T_0} x(s)x(s)^{\top}\right) \ge \frac{p^*\lambda_S}{2} \lfloor \frac{2B}{p^*\lambda_S} \rfloor \ge B.$$

Hence, we have $T_0 \leq \lfloor \frac{2B}{p^* \lambda_S} \rfloor$ with probability at least $1 - de^{-\lambda p^*/30}$.

F.3 Objective fairness of MOG-R

We confirmed that the MOG-R algorithm satisfies the objective fairness. The following theorem shows the lower bound on the objective fairness index.

Theorem 4 (Objective fairness of MOG-R). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. Then, the objective fairness index of Algorithm 1 satisfies for all $m \in [M]$,

$$\mathrm{OFI}_{\epsilon,T} \geq \min_{m \in [M]}(p_m) \left(\frac{T - T_\epsilon}{T}\right) \left(1 - \frac{3M}{T} - d(\frac{1}{dT})^{\frac{40\sigma^2 d}{\lambda p^* \epsilon^2}}\right),$$

where $T_{\epsilon}=\max(\lfloor \frac{1152\sigma^2d\log(dT)}{\lambda^2(p^*)^2\epsilon^2}\rfloor+T_0,\ \ 2T_0)$ in the same setting as Theorem 3.

Discussion of Theorem 4. The theorem demonstrates that Algorithm 2 satisfies objective fairness, since for any given $\epsilon > 0$, $\lim_{T \to \infty} \mathrm{OFI}_{\epsilon,T} = \min_{m \in [M]} (p_m)$. We show that with high probability, our algorithm selects near-optimal arms for each objective m at a ratio of p_m as time grows, and it selects only ϵ -optimal arms of an objective after a certain rounds T_{ϵ} .

Proof. Define the event $\Omega_{m,t}$ for all $m \in [M]$ as

$$\Omega_{m,t} := \{ \omega \in \Omega \mid \text{Objective } m \text{ is a target objective for round } t \}.$$

Then, $\mathbb{P}(\Omega_{m,t}) = p_m$ for all $m \in [M]$ and $t \leq T$.

Let E be the event that $\|\hat{\theta}_m(t+1) - \theta_m^*\| \leq \frac{12\sigma}{\lambda p^*} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dtT)}{t-T_0}}$ holds for all $t \geq 2T_0$ and $m \in [M]$. Then, $\mathbb{P}(\bar{E}) \leq \frac{3M}{T} + de^{\frac{-\lambda p^*(t-T_0)}{30}}$ by Lemma 9 and Lemma 12.

We know that for $t \geq 2T_0$, on $\Omega_{m,t+1} \cap E$,

$$\mu_m^* - \mu_{a(t+1),m} \le 2\|\hat{\theta}_m(t+1) - \theta_m^*\|_2 \le \frac{24\sigma}{\lambda p^*} \sqrt{\frac{d \log(dtT)}{t - T_0}} \le \frac{24\sigma}{\lambda p^*} \sqrt{\frac{2d \log(dT)}{t - T_0}}.$$

Let $T_{\epsilon} = \max(\lfloor \frac{1152\sigma^2 d \log(dT)}{\lambda^2(p^*)^2 \epsilon^2} \rfloor + T_0$, $2T_0$). Then, on $\Omega_{m,t+1} \cap E$, we have $\mu_m^* - \mu_{a(t+1),m} < \epsilon$ for all $t > T_{\epsilon}$.

Then, for all $m \in [M]$,

$$\frac{1}{T}\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{T}\mathbb{1}\{\mu_{m}^{*} - \mu_{a(t),m} < \epsilon\}\right] \geq \frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T}\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{1}\{\mu_{m}^{*} - \mu_{a(t),m} < \epsilon\} \mid \Omega_{m,t}\right]\mathbb{P}(\Omega_{m,t})$$

$$\geq \frac{p_{m}}{T}\sum_{t=T_{\epsilon}}^{T-1}\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{1}\{\mu_{m}^{*} - \mu_{a(t+1),m} < \epsilon\} \mid \Omega_{m,t+1} \cap E\right]\mathbb{P}(E)$$

$$\geq \frac{p_{m}}{T}\sum_{t=T_{\epsilon}}^{T-1}1 \cdot \mathbb{P}(E)$$

$$\geq \frac{p_{m}}{T}\sum_{t=T_{\epsilon}}^{T-1}\left(1 - \frac{3M}{T} - de^{\frac{-\lambda p^{*}(T_{\epsilon} - T_{0})}{30}}\right)$$

$$\geq \frac{p_{m}}{T}(T - T_{\epsilon})\left(1 - \frac{3M}{T} - d(\frac{1}{dT})^{\frac{40\sigma^{2}d}{\lambda p^{*}\epsilon^{2}}}\right).$$

Therefore, the objective fairness index can be bounded by

$$OFI_{\epsilon,T} \ge \min_{m \in [M]}(p_m) \left(\frac{T - T_{\epsilon}}{T}\right) \left(1 - \frac{3M}{T} - d\left(\frac{1}{dT}\right)^{\frac{40\sigma^2 d}{\lambda p^* \epsilon^2}}\right),$$

G Linear scalarized version of MOG algorithm

G.1 MO Greedy algorithm – Weighted Randomized version

We propose another MO near-greedy algorithm, named MOG-WR. While both MOG and MOG-R focus solely on selecting optimal arms in specific objective directions, MOG-WR extends this by also considering optimal arms in weighted objective directions. The algorithm takes as input a distribution \mathcal{D} from which the weight vectors are sampled. In each round, the algorithm selects the arm that maximizes the weighted estimated reward based on the weight vector w drawn from v0 (Line 5, 8). The rest of the algorithm structure remains identical to the original MOG.

Algorithm 3 MO Greedy algorithm - Weighted Randomized version (MOG-WR)

```
Require: Total rounds T, Eigenvalue threshold B, Weight distribution \mathcal{D}
 1: Initialize V_0 \leftarrow 0 \times I_d, and \beta_1, \dots, \beta_M \in \mathbb{R}^d
 2: for t = 1 to T do
         Sample a weight vector w = (w_1, \dots, w_M) from the distribution \mathcal{D}.
         if \lambda_{\min}(V_{t-1}) < B then
 4:
 5:
            Select action a(t) \in \arg\max_{i \in [K]} \left( \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m x_i^{\top} \beta_m \right)
 6:
            Update the OLS estimators \hat{\theta}_1(t), \dots, \hat{\theta}_M(t)
 7:
            Select action a(t) \in \arg\max_{i \in [K]} \left( \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m x_i^{\top} \hat{\theta}_m(t) \right)
 8:
 9:
         Observe the reward vector y(t) = (y_{a(t),1}(t), \dots, y_{a(t),M}(t))
10:
         Update V_t \leftarrow V_{t-1} + x(t)x(t)^{\top}
11:
12: end for
```

The MOG-R algorithm can be regarded as a special case of the MOG-WR algorithm, where the distribution \mathcal{D} is set to

$$\mathbb{P}_{w \sim \mathcal{D}}(w) := \begin{cases} p_m & \text{if } w = e_m^{(M)}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The MOG-WR algorithm, like previously proposed scalarized MO bandit algorithms, selects the optimal arms corresponding to the reward functions generated in each round [1, 21, 8]. We confirm that even with the application of weighted scalarization, the greedy algorithm performs effectively, through both theoretical and empirical validation, where good arms exist for multiple objectives. Additionally, we prove that the MOG-WR algorithm satisfies generalized objective fairness.

G.2 Regularity indices

Before we start analysis, we first define two regularity indices of a distribution for weight vectors.

Definition 10 (Regularity indices of a distribution). Let \mathcal{D} be a distribution on M-dimensional simplex, $\Delta^M = \{(w_1, \dots, w_M) \in \mathbb{R}^d | \sum_{m \in [M]} w_i = 1, \ w_1, \dots w_M \geq 0 \}$. For given $\epsilon > 0$, We define the two regularity indices of distribution \mathcal{D} , $V_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}}$ and $I_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}}$ as

$$V_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}} := \min_{\bar{m} \in [M]} \mathbb{P}_{w \sim \mathcal{D}} \left(\left\| \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^* - \theta_{\bar{m}}^* \right\| < \epsilon \right)$$

$$I_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}} := \inf_{\bar{w} \in \Delta^M} \mathbb{P}_{w \sim \mathcal{D}} \left(\left\| \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^* - \sum_{m \in [M]} \bar{w}_m \theta_m^* \right\| < \epsilon \right).$$

Intuitively, the regularity indices described above explain how evenly the weight distribution generates weighted objectives. Specifically, $V_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}}$ measures whether the weighted objectives are well-sampled near the parameter space of each objective, while $I_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}}$ captures how uniformly all possible weighted objectives are sampled. By definition, it is straightforward to confirm that $V_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}} \geq I_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}}$ always holds.

The following lemma demonstrates that for any continuous distribution \mathcal{D} with positive density function, the regularity indices are always positive.

Lemma 13. If \mathcal{D} has a continuous density function f which is positive on Δ^M , then both regularity indices $V_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}}$ and $I_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}}$ are positive.

Proof sketch. It is enough to show $I_{\epsilon,\mathcal{D}}>0$. Fix $\epsilon>0$ and define $g:\Delta^M\to\mathbb{R}^d$ such that $g(\bar{w}):=\mathbb{P}_{w\sim\mathcal{D}}\left(\left\|\sum_{m\in[M]}w_m\theta_m^*-\sum_{m\in[M]}\bar{w}_m\theta_m^*\right\|<\epsilon\right)$. Then, we can show that g is a positive continuous function. Since Δ^M is compact, we have $\inf_{w\in\Delta^M}g(w)=\min_{w\in\Delta^M}g(w)>0$.

G.3 Pareto regret bound of MOG-WR

The following corollary shows that it is possible to achieve a $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\sqrt{T})$ regret bound Algorithm 3, if the weight distribution \mathcal{D} satisfies $V_{\alpha/2,\mathcal{D}}>0$.

Corollary 4 (Pareto regret bound of MOG-WR). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. If we run Algorithm 3 with $B = \min\left[\frac{2\sigma}{\alpha}\sqrt{2dT\log(dT^2)}, \ \frac{16\sigma^2}{\alpha^2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\log\left(1+\frac{2T}{d}\right)+\log\left(T\right)\right)\right]$, then the Pareto regret of Algorithm 3 is bounded by

$$\mathcal{PR}(T) \le \frac{48\sigma}{\lambda v^*} \sqrt{2dT \log(dT)} + 4T_0 + 6M + \frac{60d}{\lambda v^*}$$

where $v^* = V_{\alpha/2,\mathcal{D}}M$.

We can establish the regret bound for MOG-WR using the same arguments employed for the regret bound of MOG-R, with the aid of the following two lemmas. The first lemma pertains to the linear growth of the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix.

Lemma 14 (Increment of the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. If the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$, for all $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$, then the arm selected by Algorithm 3 satisfies

$$\lambda_{\min}(\mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]) \ge \frac{\lambda v^*}{3},$$

where $v^* = V_{\alpha/2,\mathcal{D}}M$.

Proof. For $s \geq T_0 + 1$ and $m \in [M]$, let $E'_{\bar{m}}(s)$ be the event that the weighted objective $\sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^*$ in round s satisfies $\left\| \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^* - \theta_{\bar{m}}^* \right\| < \alpha/2$. Then, on $E'_{\bar{m}}(s)$, if $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \leq \alpha/2$ holds, then the following holds.

$$\left\| \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^* \right\| \le \left\| \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \hat{\theta}_m(t) - \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^* \right\| + \left\| \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^* - \theta_m^* \right\|$$

$$\le \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \left\| \hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^* \right\| + \left\| \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^* - \theta_m^* \right\|$$

$$< \frac{\alpha}{2} + \frac{\alpha}{2} = \alpha$$

Thus, by Assumption 3, there exists γ -good arm for the weighted objective $\sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \hat{\theta}_m(t)$ in round t.

Since the arm selected by Algorithm 3 satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}] = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|E'_{m}(s), \mathcal{H}_{s-1}]\mathbb{P}[E'_{m}(s)|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]$$

$$\succeq V_{\alpha/2,\mathcal{D}} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|E'_{m}(s), \mathcal{H}_{s-1}]$$

$$\succeq V_{\alpha/2,\mathcal{D}} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{E}[x(s)|E'_{m}(s), \mathcal{H}_{s-1}]\mathbb{E}[x(s)|E'_{m}(s), \mathcal{H}_{s-1}]^{\top},$$

, and $\mathbb{E}[x(s)|E'_m(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]$ is γ -good for the weighted objective $\sum_{m\in[M]}w_m\hat{\theta}_m(s)$ in round s, we have

$$\lambda_{\min}(\mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]) \geq V_{\alpha/2,\mathcal{D}} \lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{E}[x(s)|E'_{m}(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]\mathbb{E}[x(s)|E'_{m}(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]^{\top} \right)$$

$$\geq \frac{V_{\alpha/2,\mathcal{D}}\lambda M}{3},$$

by Lemma 6. □

Then, we can drive l_2 bound of $\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*$ with above lemma. The next lemma shows how to bound the Pareto regret with the bound on $\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\|_2$.

Lemma 15. Given Assumption 1, for all round t, the Pareto suboptimality gap of Algorithm 3 can be bounded by $\Delta_{a(t)}(t) \leq 2 \left\| \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \hat{\theta}_m(t) - \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^* \right\|_2$, where w is the generated weight vector in round t. Furthermore, if there exists an upper bound U that satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*\|_2 < U$ for all $m \in [M]$, we have $\Delta_{a(t)}(t) \leq 2U$.

Proof. Fix round $t \in [T]$. Let $w \in \Delta^M$ be the generated weight vector in round t, and a_w^* be the true optimal arm for the weighted objective $\sum_{m \in [M]} w_i \theta_m^*$. Then, by Corollary 2, a_w^* is in the Pareto Front, and so we have

$$\begin{split} \Delta_{a(t)}(t) & \leq \min_{m \in [M]} \left(x_{a_w^*}^\top \theta_m^* - x_{a(t)}^\top \theta_m^* \right) \leq \sum_{m \in [M]} \left(w_m x_{a_w^*}^\top \theta_m^* - w_m x_{a(t)}^\top \theta_m^* \right) \\ & = x_{a_w^*}^\top \left(\sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^* \right) - x_{a(t)}^\top \left(\sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^* \right) \\ & \leq 2 \left\| \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \hat{\theta}_m(t) - \sum_{m \in [M]} w_m \theta_m^* \right\|_2, \end{split}$$

with Assumption 1.

The latter part of the lemma can be directly derived using the triangle inequality.

G.4 Objective fairness of MOG-WR

Corollary 5 (Generalized objective fairness of MOG-WR). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. Then, the objective fairness index of Algorithm 3 satisfies for all $m \in [M]$,

$$GOFI_{\epsilon,T} \ge I_{\alpha/2,\mathcal{D}}\left(\frac{T-T_{\epsilon}}{T}\right)\left(1-\frac{3M}{T}-d(\frac{1}{dT})^{\frac{40\sigma^2d}{\lambda v^*\epsilon^2}}\right),$$

where $T_{\epsilon} = \max(\lfloor \frac{1152\sigma^2 d \log(dT)}{\lambda^2 (v^*)^2 \epsilon^2} \rfloor + T_0, \ \ 2T_0)$ and $v^* = V_{\alpha/2,\mathcal{D}} M$ in the same setting as Theorem 4.

We can prove Corollary 5 using the same approach as in MOG-R, based on Lemma 14 and the definition of the index $I_{\epsilon,D}$.

H Stochastic contexts setup

We verified that our proposed algorithms are statistically efficient even in stochastic context settings. In this section, we demonstrate the Pareto regret bound and objective fairness of MOG algorithm in a stochastic context setting. Notably, MOG-R and MOG-WR can also be analyzed theoretically using the same approach.

H.1 Problem setting

In MO linear contextual bandit under stochastic contexts setup, the set of feature vectors $\chi(t) = \{x_i(t) \in \mathbb{R}^d, i \in [K]\}$ is drawn from some unknown distribution $P_\chi(t)$ in each round $t = 1, \dots, T$. Each arm's feature $x_i(t) \in \chi(t)$ for $i \in [K]$ need not be independent of each other and can possibly be correlated. In this case, we denote $x_{a(t)}(t)$ as x(t). Other settings are identical to the fixed arms case in Section 2.1.

To analyze MOG under stochastic setup, the following assumption is essential to guarantee that the feature vectors in round t are not influenced by previous rounds $s = 1, \dots, t - 1$.

Assumption 5 (Independently distributed contexts). The context sets $\chi(1), \ldots, \chi(T)$, drawn from unknown distribution $P_{\chi}(1), \ldots, P_{\chi}(T)$ respectively, are independently distributed across time.

All of the greedy linear contextual bandit with stochastic contexts assumes the independence of context sets. It is important to note that feature vectors within the same round are allowed to be dependent, even under Assumption 5.

H.2 Pareto regret bound of MOG with stochastic contexts

The following theorem demonstrates that the MOG algorithm also possesses a $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\sqrt{T})$ -regret bound in the case of stochastic contexts.

Corollary 6 (Pareto Regret Bound of MOG with Stochastic Contexts). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, 4, and 5 hold. If we run Algorithm 1 with $B = \min\left[\frac{\sigma}{\alpha}\sqrt{2dT\log(dT^2)},\ \frac{4\sigma^2}{\alpha^2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\log\left(1+\frac{2T}{d}\right)+\log\left(T\right)\right)\right]$ where $\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda^2}{9}-\frac{\lambda^4}{324}}$ $\gamma - \left(1-\frac{\lambda^2}{18}\right)\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}$, the Pareto regret of Algorithm 1 is bounded by

$$\mathcal{PR}(T) \le \frac{48\sigma}{\lambda q_{\gamma}} \sqrt{2dT \log(dT)} + 2\left(2T_0 + 5M + \frac{30d}{\lambda q_{\gamma}}\right),\,$$

where q_{γ} in Definition 9.

The corollary demonstrates that the cumulative Pareto regret bound of MOG is $\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\frac{\sqrt{dT}}{\lambda})$. Additionally, in a stochastic setup, T_0 can also be bounded at a scale of $\mathcal{O}(B)$ with high probability.

The regret bound can then be derived by combining the arguments from Theorem 1 and Theorem 3. In this process, the lower bound on the increment of the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix, as stated in the following lemma, is used.

Lemma 16 (Increment of the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, 4, and 5 hold. If the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$, for all $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$, then the selected arms for a single cycle $s = t_0, \ t_0 + 1, \dots, \ t_0 + M - 1 \ (t_0 > T_0)$ by Algorithm 1 satisfies

$$\lambda_{\min}(\sum_{s=t_0}^{t_0+M-1} \mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]) \ge \frac{\lambda q_{\gamma}M}{3}.$$

Proof. For $s \ge T_0 + 1$, let m(s) be the target objective for iteration s and R(s) be the event that there exist γ -good arm for $\hat{\theta}_{m(s)}(s)$. Then,

$$\mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]$$

$$\succeq \mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|R(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}] \mathbb{P}(R(s)|\mathcal{H}_{s-1})$$

$$\succeq q_{\gamma}\mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|R(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]$$

$$\succeq q_{\gamma}\mathbb{E}[x(s)|R(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]\mathbb{E}[x(s)|R(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]^{\top}.$$

Thus, we have $\sum_{s=t_0}^{t_0+M-1}\mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]\succeq q_{\gamma}\sum_{s=t_0}^{t_0+M-1}\mathbb{E}[x(s)|R(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]\mathbb{E}[x(s)|R(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]^{\top}$. Since $\mathbb{E}[x(s)|R(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]$ is γ -good for $\hat{\theta}_{m(s)}(s)$ by Proposition 1 and 2, so we can apply Lemma 6 by

$$\lambda_{\min}(\sum_{s=t_0}^{t_0+M-1} \mathbb{E}[x(s)x(s)^{\top}|\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]) \ge q_{\gamma} \, \lambda_{\min}(\sum_{s=t_0}^{t_0+M-1} \mathbb{E}[x(s)|R(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]\mathbb{E}[x(s)|R(s),\mathcal{H}_{s-1}]^{\top}) \\ \ge \frac{q_{\gamma}\lambda M}{3}.$$

H.3 Objective fairness of MOG with stochastic contexts

The following corollary implies that Algorithm 1 satisfies objective fairness.

Corollary 7 (Objective Fairness of MOG with Stochastic Contexts). Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, 4, and 5 hold. Then, the objective fairness index of Algorithm 1 satisfies for all $m \in [M]$,

$$\mathrm{OFI}_{\epsilon,T} \geq \left(\frac{T - T_{\epsilon} - M}{MT}\right) \left(1 - \frac{3M}{T} - d\left(\frac{1}{dT}\right)^{\frac{40\sigma^2 d}{\lambda q_{\gamma}\epsilon^2}}\right),$$

where $T_{\epsilon} = \max(\lfloor \frac{1152\sigma^2 d \log(dT)}{\lambda^2 q_{\gamma}^2 \epsilon^2} \rfloor + T_0 + M, \ 2T_0 + 2M)$ in the same setting as Theorem 6.

The objective fairness index can be bounded by combining the arguments from Theorem 2 and Theorem 4 with Lemma 16.

I Relaxation of the boundedness assumption

In this section, we explain how to release the boundedness assumption, Assumption 1. In conclusion, we can obtain results of the same scale as Theorems 1 and 2 for any arbitrary bound $\|x_i\|_2 \leq x_{\max}$ and $l \leq \theta_m^* \leq L$ for all $m \in [M]$. For clarity, we will separately discuss how to release the l_2 norm bounds on the feature vector and the objective parameters in Appendix I.1 and I.2, respectively. However, It is important to note that there is no issue in applying the same argument even when the bound on the feature vectors and the bound on the objective parameters are released simultaneously. We present how to release the boundedness assumption in fixed features setting, but the same reasoning can be applied to the case of stochastic contexts.

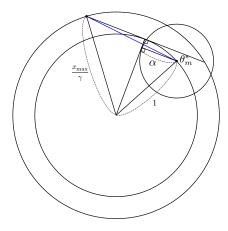


Figure 4: The interior of the circle with radius $\frac{x_{\max}}{\gamma}$ represents the region where $\frac{x}{\gamma}$ may exist in \mathbb{R}^d , while that of the smallest circle indicates the region where $\hat{\theta}_m(s)$ may exist. Then, the blue line illustrates the case when $\frac{x}{\gamma}$ is farthest from the θ_m^*

I.1 Releasing bound on feature vectors

We demonstrate how the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix can increase linearly when the l_2 norm of the feature vectors is bounded by an arbitrary upper bound $x_{\rm max}$. Since the γ -goodness assumption is related to the scale of the feature, we modify the γ -goodness assumption correspondingly.

Assumption 6 (Boundedness). For all $i \in [K]$ and $m \in [M]$, $||x_i||_2 \le x_{\max}$ and $||\theta_m^*||_2 = 1$. **Assumption 7** (γ -Goodness). We assume $\{x_1, \dots, x_K\}$ satisfies γ -goodness with $\gamma > \frac{x_{\max}}{\lambda} \sqrt{2\sqrt{1+\lambda^2}-2}$.

The following lemma is the key to the release process.

Lemma 17. Given Assumptions 6, assume the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$, for $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$. If $x \in \mathbb{B}^d_{x_{\max}}$ satisfies $x^{\top} \frac{\hat{\theta}_m(s)}{\|\hat{\theta}_m(s)\|} \ge \gamma$, then the distance between $\frac{x}{\gamma}$ and θ_m^* is bounded by

$$\left\|\theta_m^* - \frac{x}{\gamma}\right\|_2 \le \sqrt{1 + (\frac{x_{\text{max}}}{\gamma})^2 + 2\alpha\sqrt{(\frac{x_{\text{max}}}{\gamma})^2 - 1} - 2\sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}}.$$

Proof. Consider the case when $\frac{x}{2}$ is the farthest from θ_m^* . As we easily can see from Figure 4,

$$\begin{split} \left\|\theta_m^* - \frac{x}{\gamma}\right\|_2^2 &\leq \left(\alpha + \sqrt{(\frac{x_{\text{max}}}{\gamma})^2 - 1}\right)^2 + (1 - \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2})^2 \\ &= 1 + (\frac{x_{\text{max}}}{\gamma})^2 + 2\alpha\sqrt{(\frac{x_{\text{max}}}{\gamma})^2 - 1} - 2\sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}. \end{split}$$

Corollary 8. Suppose Assumptions 2, 6, and 7 hold. Assume the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$, for all $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$. If $x_{r(1)}, \dots, x_{r(M)} \in \mathbb{B}^d_{x_{\max}}$ are γ -good for $\hat{\theta}_1(s_1), \dots, \hat{\theta}_M(s_M)$ for some $s_1, \dots, s_M \ge T_0 + 1$, respectively, then the following holds

$$\lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{m\in[M]} x_{r(m)} \left(x_{r(m)}\right)^{\top}\right) \geq \left(\lambda \gamma^2 - 2x_{\max} \sqrt{\gamma^2 + x_{\max}^2 + 2\alpha \sqrt{x_{\max}^2 - \gamma^2} - 2\gamma^2 \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}}\right) M.$$

Proof. By Lemma 17, $\left\|\theta_m^* - \frac{x_{r(m)}}{\gamma}\right\|_2 \leq \sqrt{1 + (\frac{x_{\max}}{\gamma})^2 + 2\alpha\sqrt{(\frac{x_{\max}}{\gamma})^2 - 1} - 2\sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}}$ holds for all $m \in [M]$. Then,

$$\lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{m \in [M]} x_{r(m)} (x_{r(m)})^{\top} \right) = \gamma^{2} \lambda_{\min} \left(\sum_{m \in [M]} \frac{x_{r(m)}}{\gamma} \left(\frac{x_{r(m)}}{\gamma} \right)^{\top} \right)$$

$$\geq \gamma^{2} \left[\lambda_{\max} \left(\sum_{m \in [M]} \theta_{m}^{*} (\theta_{m}^{*})^{\top} \right) - 2M \left(\frac{x_{\max}}{\gamma} \right) \left\| \theta_{m}^{*} - \frac{x_{r(m)}}{\gamma} \right\| \right]$$

$$\geq \lambda \gamma^{2} - 2x_{\max} \sqrt{\gamma^{2} + x_{\max}^{2} + 2\alpha \sqrt{x_{\max}^{2} - \gamma^{2}} - 2\gamma^{2} \sqrt{1 - \alpha^{2}}}.$$

The above corollary means that even when Assumptions 1 and 3 are replaced by Assumptions 6 and 7, respectively, we can still obtain a regret bound that differs by at most a constant factor. Furthermore, using the same argument as before, we can also verify the objective fairness with replaced assumptions.

I.2 Releasing bound on objective parameters

In this section, we present how to handle objective parameters with varying l_2 norm sizes. The γ -goodness assumption is related to the scale of the objectives either, the γ -goodness assumption is modified again correspondingly.

Assumption 8 (Boundedness). For all $i \in [K]$ and $m \in [M]$, $||x_i||_2 \le 1$ and $l \le ||\theta_m^*||_2 \le L$.

Assumption 9 (γ -Goodness). We assume $\{x_1,\ldots,x_K\}$ satisfies γ -goodness with $\gamma>1-\frac{\lambda^2}{8L^4}$.

The following lemma is the key to the release process.

Lemma 18. Given Assumptions 8, assume the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$, for $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$. If $x \in \mathbb{B}^d$ is γ -good for $\hat{\theta}_m(s)$, then the distance between x and $\frac{\theta_m^*}{\|\theta_m^*\|_2}$ is bounded by

$$\left\|\frac{\theta_m^*}{\|\theta_m^*\|_2} - x\right\|_2 \leq \sqrt{2 + \frac{2\alpha}{l}\sqrt{1-\gamma^2} - 2\gamma\sqrt{1-\frac{\alpha^2}{l^2}}}.$$

Proof. Consider the case when x is the farthest from $\frac{\theta_m^*}{\|\theta_m^*\|_2}$. As we easily can see from Figure 5, we can obtain the following result from Lemma 5 by replacing α by $\frac{\alpha}{I}$.

$$\left\|\frac{\theta_m^*}{\|\theta_m^*\|_2} - x\right\|_2 \leq \sqrt{2\left(1 + \left(\frac{\alpha}{l}\right)\sqrt{1 - \gamma^2} - \gamma\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\alpha}{l}\right)^2}\right)}.$$

Corollary 9. Suppose Assumptions 2, 8, and 9 hold. Assume the OLS estimator satisfies $\|\hat{\theta}_m(s) - \theta_m^*\| \le \alpha$, for all $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$. If $x_{r(1)}, \ldots, x_{r(M)} \in \mathbb{B}^d$ are γ -good for $\hat{\theta}_1(s_1), \ldots, \hat{\theta}_M(s_M)$ for some $s_1, \ldots, s_M \ge T_0 + 1$, respectively, then the following holds

$$\lambda_{\min}\left(\sum_{m\in[M]} x_{r(m)} \left(x_{r(m)}\right)^{\top}\right) \ge \left(\frac{\lambda}{L^2} - 2\sqrt{2 + \frac{2\alpha}{l}\sqrt{1 - \gamma^2} - 2\gamma\sqrt{1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{l^2}}}\right) M.$$

The corollary can be derived from Lemma 18 and $\lambda_{\min}\left(\frac{1}{M}\sum_{m=1}^{M}\left(\frac{\theta_m^*}{\|\theta_m^*\|_2}\right)\left(\frac{\theta_m^*}{\|\theta_m^*\|_2}\right)^{\top}\right) \geq \frac{\lambda}{L^2}$.

Therefore, we can still obtain a regret bound that differs by at most a constant factor and the objective fairness criterion when Assumptions 1 and 3 are replaced by Assumptions 8 and 9, respectively.

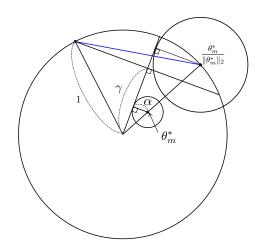


Figure 5: The larger circle represents the unit sphere in \mathbb{R}^d while the interior of the smallest circle indicates the region where $\hat{\theta}_m(s)$ may exist. Then, the blue line illustrates the case when x is farthest from the $\frac{\theta_m^*}{\|\theta_m^*\|_2}$

J Relaxation of Assumption 2

Until now, we have conducted the analysis under the assumption that the feature vectors span \mathbb{R}^d . Although this assumption is not explicitly stated, it is implied by Lemma 6. In this section, we present a sufficient condition under which our proposed algorithms perform well when the feature vectors do not span \mathbb{R}^d and explain how this leads to regret bounds and objective fairness.

Intuition. It is evident that any bandit algorithm cannot obtain information about the true objective parameters in the direction of S_x^\perp while interacting with feature vectors x_1,\ldots,x_K . In other words, during the process of estimating the objective parameters, no estimator can converge to the true parameters in the direction of space S_x^\perp . Interestingly, from the perspective of regret and optimality, this poses no significant issue. This can be expressed mathematically as for any pair of arms $i,j\in [K]$ and $m\in [M]$,

$$x_i^\top \theta_m^* - x_j^\top \theta_m^* = x_i^\top (\pi_S(\theta_m^*)) - x_j^\top (\pi_S(\theta_m^*)).$$

The above equation explains why regret and optimality are determined solely by the projection vector of the objective parameters onto S_x .

Algorithm 4 MO Greedy algorithm (MOG)

```
Require: Total rounds T, Threshold B Initialize V_0 \leftarrow 0 \times I_d, and \beta_1, \dots, \beta_M \in \mathbb{R}^d for t=1 to T do Select the target objective m \leftarrow t \mod M {If m=0, then m \leftarrow M} if \min_{\|\beta\|=1,\ \beta \in S_x} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \langle \beta, \ x(s) \rangle^2\right) < B then Select action a(t) \in \arg\max_{i \in [K]} x_i^\top \beta_m else Update the OLS estimator \hat{\theta}_m(t), arbitrary solution of \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s)x(s)^\top\right) \theta = \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s)y_{a(s),m}(s), for m \in [M] Select action a(t) \in \arg\max_{i \in [K]} x_i^\top \hat{\theta}_m(t) end if Observe y(t) = \left(y_{a(t),1}(t), \dots, y_{a(t),M}(t)\right) Update V_t \leftarrow V_{t-1} + x(t)x(t)^\top end for
```

Algorithm 4 provides a general formulation of the MOG algorithm for use when the feature vectors do not span \mathbb{R}^d . In this case, it is impossible to satisfy $\lambda_{\min}(V_{t-1}) > B$ (> 0), which is the initial exploration criterion stated in Algorithm 1. Therefore, the initial exploration criterion should be modified. Instead of $\lambda_{\min}(V_{t-1}) > B$, we can use $\min_{\|\beta\|=1,\ \beta \in S_x} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \langle \beta, x(s) \rangle^2\right) > B$. Additionally, under this condition, a unique least squares solution no longer exists. Therefore, for each round t, we use an arbitrary solution $\hat{\theta}_m(t)$ of the equation $\left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s)x(s)^{\top}\right)\theta = \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s)y_{a(s),m}(s)$. Notably, at least one solution exists after initial phase since $x(1),\ldots,x(t-1)$ span S_x . By extending Algorithm 1 in this way, we can conduct the same analysis as before.

The following are the revised versions of Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 when the feature vectors do not span \mathbb{R}^d .

Assumption 10 (Boundedness). For all $i \in [K]$ and $m \in [M]$, $||x_i||_2 \le 1$ and $||\pi_s(\theta_m^*)||_2 = 1$.

Once again, the above assumption is intended for a clear analysis. The analyses conducted in this section can be also extended to arbitrary bounds $\|x_i\|_2 \le x_{\max}$ and $l \le \pi_s(\theta_m^*) \le L$ for all $m \in [M]$ by the same process in Appendix I.

Assumption 11. We assume $\theta_1^*, \ldots, \theta_M^*$ span S_x .

In the following analysis, we define $\lambda_1 := \min_{\|\beta\|=1, \ \beta \in S_x} \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \langle \beta, \ \theta_m^* \rangle^2\right)$. Then, given Assumption 11, λ_1 is always positive and clearly, $\lambda_1 = \min_{\|\beta\|=1, \ \beta \in S_x} \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \langle \beta, \ \pi_S(\theta_m^*) \rangle^2\right)$.

Next, we reconsider how to define γ -goodness. If the feature vectors do not span \mathbb{R}^d , it becomes important to determine whether γ -good arms exist near the direction of $\pi_S(\theta_m^*)$ rather than θ_m^* . The following definition clarifies this concept.

Definition 11 (γ -goodness). For fixed $\gamma \in (0,1]$, we say that the set of feature vectors $\{x_1,\ldots,x_K\}$ satisfies γ -goodness condition when there exists $\alpha > 0$ that satisfies

for all
$$\beta \in \mathbb{B}_{\alpha}(\pi_S(\theta_1^*)) \cup \ldots \cup \mathbb{B}_{\alpha}(\pi_S(\theta_M^*))$$
, there exists $i \in [K]$, $x_i^{\top} \frac{\beta}{\|\beta\|_2} \ge \gamma$. (2)

Assumption 12 (γ -goodness). We assume $\{x_1,\ldots,x_K\}$ satisfies γ -regular with $\gamma>1-\frac{\lambda_1^2}{18}$.

Once again, in the following analysis, α denote the value that satisfies the goodness condition defined in Definition 11, in conjunction with γ as specified in Assumption 12. Again, if α is greater than $\psi(\lambda_1,\gamma):=\sqrt{\frac{\lambda_1^2}{9}-\frac{\lambda_1^4}{324}}\,\gamma-\left(1-\frac{\lambda_1^2}{18}\right)\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}$, then we replace the value of α with $\psi(\lambda_1,\gamma)$.

The only question is how to construct an l_2 bound on $\pi_S(\hat{\theta}_m(s)) - \pi_S(\theta_m^*)$ without utilizing the minimum eigenvalue of the Gram matrix, which is zero when $S_x \subsetneq \mathbb{R}^d$. The key idea is that we can use $\min_{\|\beta\|=1,\;\beta\in S_x}\left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1}\left\langle\beta,\;x(s)\right\rangle^2\right)$ to fulfill the role previously played by the minimum eigenvalue. We present 2 Lemmas, Lemma 19 and Lemma 20, to explain the idea. First, The following demonstrates the linear growth of $\min_{\|\beta\|=1,\;\beta\in S_x}\left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1}\left\langle\beta,\;x(s)\right\rangle^2\right)$.

Lemma 19. Suppose Assumptions 10, 11, and 12 hold. Assume a least square solution $\hat{\theta}_m(s)$ satisfies $\|\pi_S(\hat{\theta}_m(s)) - \pi_S(\theta_m^*)\| \le \alpha$, for all $m \in [M]$ and $s \ge T_0 + 1$. If $x_{r(1)}, \ldots, x_{r(M)} \in \mathbb{B}^d$ are γ -good for $\pi_s(\hat{\theta}_1(s_1)), \ldots, \pi_s(\hat{\theta}_M(s_M))$, for some $s_1, \ldots, s_M \ge T_0 + 1$, respectively, then

$$\min_{\|\beta\|=1, \ \beta \in S_x} \left(\sum_{m \in [M]} \langle \beta, \ x_{r(m)} \rangle^2 \right) \ge \frac{\lambda_1}{3} M.$$

Proof. Since the greedy selection of $\hat{\theta}_m(s)$ is equal to that of $\pi_S(\hat{\theta}_m(s))$, for the same reason as Lemma 5, we can get $\|x_{r(m)} - \pi_S(\theta_m^*)\|_2 \le \sqrt{2\left(1 + \alpha\sqrt{1 - \gamma^2} - \gamma\sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}\right)}$.

Then, for any unit vector $\beta \in S_x$,

$$\beta^{\top} \left(\sum_{m=1}^{M} x_{r(m)} x_{r(m)}^{\top} \right) \beta$$

$$= \sum_{m=1}^{M} \left\{ \left\langle \beta, \ \pi_{S}(\theta_{m(s)}^{*}) \right\rangle^{2} + \left\langle \beta, \ x_{r(m)} - \pi_{S}(\theta_{m(s)}^{*}) \right\rangle^{2} + 2 \left\langle \beta, \ \pi_{S}(\theta_{m(s)}^{*}) \right\rangle \left\langle \beta, \ x_{r(m)} - \pi_{S}(\theta_{m(s)}^{*}) \right\rangle \right\}$$

$$\geq M \lambda_{1} - 2 \sqrt{2 \left(1 + \alpha \sqrt{1 - \gamma^{2}} - \gamma \sqrt{1 - \alpha^{2}} \right)} M.$$

The next lemma shows how to derive l_2 bound on $\pi_S(\hat{\theta}_m(s)) - \pi_S(\theta_m^*)$ with $\min_{\|\beta\|=1, \ \beta \in S_x} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \left\langle \beta, \ x(s) \right\rangle^2 \right)$.

Lemma 20. For all $m \in [M]$ and $s \in [T]$, any least square solution $\hat{\theta}_m(t)$ of $\left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) x(s)^{\top}\right) \theta = \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) y_{a(s),m}(s)$ satisfies

$$\left\| \pi_S(\hat{\theta}_m(s)) - \pi_S(\theta_m^*) \right\|_2 \le \frac{\|\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) \eta_{a(s),m}(s)\|_2}{\min_{\|\beta\|=1, \ \beta \in S_x} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \langle \beta, \ x(s) \rangle^2\right)}.$$

Proof. From the definition of $\hat{\theta}_m(t)$, we have

$$\left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s)x(s)^{\top}\right) (\hat{\theta}_m(t) - \theta_m^*) = \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s)\eta_{a(s),m}(s).$$

Since the row space of $\left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s)x(s)^{\top}\right)$ is in S,

$$\begin{split} \left\| \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) \eta_{a(s),m}(s) \right\|_{2} &= \left\| \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) x(s)^{\top} \right) \left(\pi_{S} \left(\hat{\theta}_{m}(s) \right) - \pi_{S} \left(\theta_{m}^{*} \right) \right) \right\|_{2} \\ &\geq \min_{\|\beta\|=1, \ \beta \in S_{x}} \left(\beta^{\top} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} x(s) x(s)^{\top} \right) \beta \right) \left\| \pi_{S} \left(\hat{\theta}_{m}(s) \right) - \pi_{S} \left(\theta_{m}^{*} \right) \right\|_{2}. \end{split}$$

The last inequality holds by Lemma 28.

With above two lemmas, we can obtain the same regret bound and objective fairness as in Theorem 1 and 2.

It is important to note that the same discussion applies to MOG-R and MOG-WR, indicating that our proposed near-greedy algorithms can perform well even when the feature vectors do not span \mathbb{R}^d , when there exist good arms for multiple objectives.

K Lower bound

Theorem 5. Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold, and $d \ge 2$ and $K \ge d^2$. For any algorithm choosing action a(t) at round t, there exists a worst-case problem instance such that the Pareto regret of the algorithm is lower bounded as

$$\sup_{(\theta_1^*,\dots,\theta_M^*)} \mathcal{PR}(T) = \Omega(\sqrt{dT}).$$

Discussion of Theorem 5. The above theorem shows that the regret bound for our algorithm in Theorem 1 is optimal in terms of d and T. This bound matches the lower bound of Chu et al. [26] in the single-objective setting. However, in their work, the d term in the lower bound is obtained by partitioning the time horizon and carefully designing the features within each partition. As a result, their analysis requires the condition $T \ge d^2$, and their approach is not applicable in our fixed feature setting. Instead, we obtain the d term by partitioning the set of K arms, which leads to the requirement that $K \ge d^2$ in our analysis.

For our convenience, we define the following augmented parameter set, which will be used throughout the remainder of this section.

Definition 12. The augmented parameter set Θ is a set of combinations of objective parameters, i.e., $\Theta := \left\{ \left(\theta_1^{(1)}, \theta_2^{(1)}, \dots, \theta_M^{(1)} \right), \left(\theta_1^{(2)}, \theta_2^{(2)}, \dots, \theta_M^{(2)} \right), \dots, \left(\theta_1^{(d)}, \theta_2^{(d)}, \dots, \theta_M^{(d)} \right) \right\}$, where each $\theta_m^{(j)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ for all $j \in [d]$ and for all $m \in [M]$. The set of the first objective parameters in each of instances in Θ is defined as $\Theta_1 = \left\{ \theta_1^{(1)}, \theta_1^{(2)}, \dots, \theta_1^{(d)} \right\}$.

Note that Θ represents d separate MO problem instances, while Θ_1 represents d separate single-objective (objective 1) problem instances.

Proof sketch. We prove the theorem by constructing the augmented parameter set Θ and defining the feature set so that the feature vectors are aligned with the direction of objective parameters and has maximum length, thereby ensuring that Assumption 3 is satisfied. Then, we bound the Bayes Pareto regret $\mathbb{E}_{\theta^* \sim \text{UNIFORM}(\Theta)}[\mathcal{PR}(T)]$ for any action sequence $a(t), t \in [T]$. For this, we convert our problem to single objective problem, and then use Lemma 26. The proof of Theorem 5 is presented in Section K.2, and its supporting lemmas are presented in Section K.1

K.1 Technical lemmas for Theorem 5

We first construct the set of problem instances that can be converted to a single objective problem.

Lemma 21. Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. For all $d \ge 2$ and $K \ge d^2$, there exist an augmented parameter set Θ and a set of feature vectors such that for any action sequence $a(t) \in [K]$ for $t \in [T]$, there exists another action sequence $a'(t) \in [d]$ for $t \in [T]$ that satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta^* \sim \text{UNIFORM}(\Theta)} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \Delta_{a(t)} \right] \ge \mathbb{E}_{\theta_1^* \sim \text{UNIFORM}(\Theta_1)} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T (\max_{i \in [d]} x_i^\top \theta_1^* - x_{a'(t)}^\top \theta_1^*) \right]. \tag{3}$$

Proof. It is enough to show when M=d and $K=d^2$, because if M>d (Assumption 2 guarantees $M\geq d$) or $K>d^2$, we can make the same argument by setting $\theta_m^{(j)}=\theta_d^{(j)}$ for all $d\leq m\leq M$ and $j\in [d]$ or $x_i=x_d$ for $d\leq i\leq K$. We first divide the cases by when d=2 and $d\geq 3$.

Case 1.
$$d = M = 2$$
 and $K = 4$

Fix $0<\epsilon<1$ and let $\theta_1^{(1)}=(k+\epsilon,k),\ \theta_1^{(2)}=(k,k+\epsilon),\ \theta_2^{(1)}=(k'+\epsilon',k'),\ \theta_2^{(2)}=(k',k'+\epsilon'),$ where $\epsilon<\epsilon'<1$ and $2k^2+2k\epsilon+\epsilon^2=2(k')^2+2(k')\epsilon+\epsilon^2=1$. Define the feature vectors $x_1=\theta_1^{(1)},\ x_2=\theta_1^{(2)},\ x_3=\theta_2^{(1)},$ and $x_4=\theta_2^{(2)}.$ Then all feature vectors and objective parameters have l_2 norm 1, satisfying Assumption 1. Also, each $\left(\theta_1^{(1)},\theta_2^{(1)}\right)$ and $\left(\theta_1^{(2)},\theta_2^{(2)}\right)$ satisfies Assumption 2, and since x_1,x_2,x_3,x_4 are γ -good arms for $\theta_1^{(1)},\theta_1^{(2)},\theta_2^{(1)},\theta_2^{(2)}$ for any $\gamma\leq 1$, the feature set satisfies Assumption 3. Now, we show that the good arms for objective 1 $(x_1$ and $x_2)$ are always the better choice than other arms $(x_3$ and $x_4)$ in both problem instances from the perspective of Pareto optimality.

If
$$(\theta_1^*, \theta_2^*) = (\theta_1^{(1)}, \theta_2^{(1)}),$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\Delta_1] = 1 - \langle \theta_1^{(1)}, \theta_1^{(1)} \rangle \ (=0)$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\Delta_2] = 1 - \langle \theta_1^{(2)}, \theta_1^{(1)} \rangle \ (=\epsilon^2)$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\Delta_3] = 0 = 1 - \langle \theta_1^{(1)}, \theta_1^{(1)} \rangle$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\Delta_4] = 1 - \langle \theta_2^{(2)}, \theta_1^{(1)} \rangle > \epsilon^2 = 1 - \langle \theta_1^{(2)}, \theta_1^{(1)} \rangle.$$

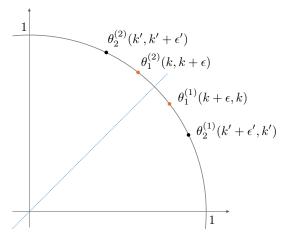


Figure 6: Problem space Θ construction when d=2.

Otherwise, if
$$(\theta_1^*, \theta_2^*) = (\theta_1^{(2)}, \theta_2^{(2)})$$
,
$$\mathbb{E}[\Delta_1] = 1 - \langle \theta_1^{(1)}, \theta_1^{(2)} \rangle \ (= \epsilon^2)$$
$$\mathbb{E}[\Delta_2] = 1 - \langle \theta_1^{(2)}, \theta_1^{(2)} \rangle \ (= 0)$$
$$\mathbb{E}[\Delta_3] = 1 - \langle \theta_2^{(1)}, \theta_1^{(2)} \rangle > \epsilon^2 = 1 - \langle \theta_1^{(1)}, \theta_1^{(2)} \rangle$$
$$\mathbb{E}[\Delta_4] = 0 = 1 - \langle \theta_1^{(2)}, \theta_1^{(2)} \rangle.$$

Therefore, if we define $a'(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a(t) = 1 \text{ or } 3 \\ 2 & \text{if } a(t) = 2 \text{ or } 4 \end{cases}$, the statement of lemma is satisfied.

Case 2. $d = M \ge 3$ and $K = d^2$

Fix $0 < \epsilon < 1$ and define Θ and feature vectors $x_i, i \in [d^2]$ as

$$\begin{split} x_1 &= \theta_1^{(1)} = (k + \epsilon, k, \dots, k), \\ x_2 &= \theta_1^{(2)} = (k, k + \epsilon, k, \dots, k), \\ \dots \\ x_d &= \theta_1^{(d)} = (k, \dots, k, k + \epsilon), \\ x_{d+1} &= \theta_2^{(1)} = (k' + 2\epsilon, k' - \epsilon, k' \dots, k'), \\ x_{d+2} &= \theta_2^{(2)} = (k', k' + 2\epsilon, k' - \epsilon, k' \dots, k'), \\ \dots \\ x_{2d} &= \theta_2^{(d)} = (k' - \epsilon, k', \dots, k', k' + 2\epsilon) \\ x_{2d+1} &= \theta_3^{(1)} = (k' + 2\epsilon, k', k' - \epsilon, k' \dots, k'), \\ x_{2d+2} &= \theta_3^{(2)} = (k', k' + 2\epsilon, k', k' - \epsilon \dots, k'), \\ \dots \\ x_{d^2} &= \theta_d^{(d)} = (k', k', \dots, k' - \epsilon, k' + 2\epsilon), \\ \text{where } dk^2 + 2k\epsilon + \epsilon^2 = d(k')^2 + 2(k')\epsilon + 5\epsilon^2 = 1. \end{split}$$

It is obvious that k' < k and $||x_i|| = 1$ for all $i \in [d^2]$. Similar to the simple case when d = 2, for $j \in [d]$, each $(\theta_1^{(j)}, \dots, \theta_d^{(j)})$ satisfies Assumption 2, and the feature set satisfies Assumption 3.

To prove the lemma, similar to the simple d=2 case, we will show that $\theta_1^{(j)}$ is always better than $\theta_m^{(j)}$ $(m \neq 1)$ for all $j \in [d]$. For any feature vector x_i , we denote by $\Delta(x_i)$ the sub-optimality gap of

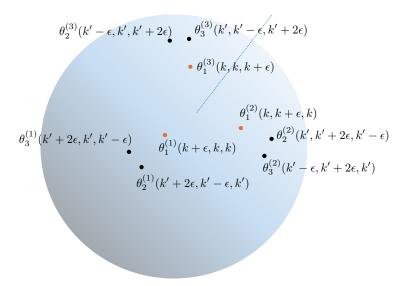


Figure 7: Problem space Θ construction when d=3. The blue line represents the direction of (1,1,1), and the sphere has the radius of 1.

the feature vector, i.e. $\Delta(x_i) := \Delta_i$. Then, it is enough to show that for any $m, j \in [d]$ and $\theta^* \in \Theta$, $\mathbb{E}_{\theta^*}[\Delta(x_{(m-1)d+j})] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta^*}[\Delta(\theta_m^{(j)})] \geq \max_{j' \in [d]} \left(\theta_1^{(j')}\right)^\top \theta_1^* - \left(\theta_1^{(j)}\right)^\top \theta_1^*$ holds.

Let θ^* be the objective parameters for (j_*) -th instance, i.e. $\theta^* = (\theta_1^{(j_*)}, \theta_2^{(j_*)}, \dots, \theta_d^{(j_*)}) \in \Theta$. If $j_* = j$, then $\mathbb{E}_{\theta^*}[\Delta(\theta_m^{(j)})] = 0 = 1 - (\theta_1^{(j)})^\top \theta_1^{(j)}$.

Suppose $j_* \neq j$. For all $m' \in [d]$, since

$$\begin{split} \langle \theta_1^{(j)}, \theta_1^{(j_*)} \rangle &= dk^2 + 2k\epsilon = 1 - \epsilon^2, \\ \langle \theta_1^{(j)}, \theta_{m'}^{(j_*)} \rangle &\leq (k + \epsilon)(k') + k(k' + 2\epsilon) + k(k' - \epsilon) + (d - 3)kk' \\ &= dkk' + k\epsilon + k'\epsilon \\ &< \frac{d}{2}k^2 + \frac{d}{2}(k')^2 + k\epsilon + k'\epsilon \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\epsilon^2}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{5\epsilon^2}{2}\right) \\ &= 1 - 3\epsilon^2, \end{split}$$

it holds that $\mathbb{E}_{\theta^*}[\Delta(\theta_1^{(j)})] = \epsilon^2 = 1 - \left(\theta_1^{(j)}\right)^\top \theta_1^*.$

For $m \neq 1$ and $m' \neq 1$, we have

$$\begin{split} \langle \theta_m^{(j)}, \theta_1^{(j_*)} \rangle &\leq \max_{m' \neq 1} \langle \theta_1^{(j)}, \theta_{m'}^{(j_*)} \rangle < 1 - 3\epsilon^2, \\ \langle \theta_m^{(j)}, \theta_{m'}^{(j_*)} \rangle &\leq 2(k')(k' + 2\epsilon) + (k' - \epsilon)^2 + (d - 3)(k')^2 \\ &= d(k')^2 + 2k'\epsilon + \epsilon^2 \\ &= 1 - 4\epsilon^2, \end{split}$$

and hence $\mathbb{E}_{\theta^*}[\Delta(x_{(m-1)d+j})] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta^*}[\Delta(\theta_m^{(j)})] > 3\epsilon^2 > \epsilon^2 = 1 - (\theta_1^{(j)})^\top \theta_1^*$. Therefore, if we define $a'(t) = a(t) \mod m$ (if $a(t)/m \in \mathbb{N}$, then a'(t) = m), then the lemma holds. \square

Lemma 22. Suppose Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 hold. For all $0 < \epsilon < 1$, $d \ge 2$, $K \ge d^2$, and any action sequence a(t) for $t \in [T]$, there exists a augmented parameter set Θ and a set of features satisfying Equation (3), where for all $j \in [d]$, the expected reward of arm j for objective 1 is equal to 1 in j-th problem instance and is $1 - \epsilon^2$ in other instances $j' \in [d] - \{j\}$.

Proof. The parameter set Θ and the feature set $\{x_1=\theta_1^{(1)},x_2=\theta_1^{(2)},\dots,x_{d^2}=\theta_d^{(d)}(=x_{d^2+1}=\dots=x_K)\}$ constructed in the proof of Lemma 21 satisfy the properties required in the latter part of this lemma. For each $j\in[d]$, the feature vector of arm j is given by $\theta_1^{(j)}$, so in the j-th instance, the expected reward for objective 1 is $\langle\theta_1^{(j)},\theta_1^{(j)}\rangle=1$. For any other instance $j'\in[d]\setminus j$, we have $\langle\theta_1^{(j)},\theta_1^{(j')}\rangle=1-\epsilon^2$.

The above lemma reduces the problem of bounding MO regret to that of deriving a lower bound for the single-objective case. In particular, for each of d instances, one arm among the d arms has a single-objective expected reward larger than the others by ϵ^2 , which makes it possible to apply Lemma 26.

K.2 Proof of Theorem 5

Proof. By Lemma 22, it is enough to bound the single objective regret $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_1^* \sim \mathrm{UNIFORM}(\Theta_1)}[\sum_{t=1}^T (\max_{i \in [d]} x_i^\top \theta_1^* - x_{a'(t)}^\top \theta_1^*)]$, where for each $\theta_1^{(j)} \in \Theta_1$, the expected reward of the arm j is equal to 1, while the other arms $j' \in [d] - \{j\}$ have the expected reward $1 - \epsilon^2$. If we set $\epsilon = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{d}{T}}}}$, then the expected reward of arm j is $\frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{d}{T}}}$ for $j' \neq j$ -th instances. Scaling by $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{d}{T}} > \frac{1}{2}$, we have that the expected reward of arm $j \in [d]$ is $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{d}{T}}$ for j-th instance, while it is $\frac{1}{2}$ for other instances. Applying Lemma 26, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_1^* \sim \text{UNIFORM}(\Theta_1)}[\sum_{t=1}^T (\max_{i \in [d]} x_i^\top \theta_1^* - x_{a'(t)}^\top \theta_1^*)] = \Omega(\sqrt{dT}).$$

Therefore, by Lemma 22,

$$\sup_{(\theta_1^*, \dots, \theta_M^*)} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E}[\Delta_{a(t)}] \right] \ge \mathbb{E}_{\theta^* \sim \text{UNIFORM}(\Theta)} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \Delta_{a(t)} \right]$$

$$\ge \mathbb{E}_{\theta_1^* \sim \text{UNIFORM}(\Theta_1)} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T (\max_{i \in [d]} x_i^\top \theta_1^* - x_{a'(t)}^\top \theta_1^*) \right]$$

$$= \Omega(\sqrt{dT}).$$

L Experiment

In this section, we present the experimental settings and results for our proposed algorithm. In summary, our algorithm achieves excellent empirical performance and exhibits stability across different parameter settings. Detailed descriptions of the experimental setup can be found in Section L.1.

We evaluated the performance of each algorithm in both cases of fixed arms and stochastic arms. When playing with stochastic arms, only contextual algorithms are compared. We evaluate the empirical performance of MO bandit algorithms from three perspectives: cumulative Pareto regret, Pareto front approximation, and objective fairness. The results are presented in Section L.2

Additionally, we conducted experiments to examine how the performance of our proposed algorithms varies with different parameter settings. Specifically, we altered the parameter B and the initial objective parameters β_1, \ldots, β_M of the MOG algorithm and measured the cumulative Pareto regret and the objective fairness index. The results are presented in Section L.3

To indirectly evaluate whether our algorithm performs well in real-world scenarios, we conducted a bandit experiment based on offline real-world data. A detailed explanation and the corresponding results are provided in Section L.4.

L.1 Settings

We validate the empirical performance of MOG, MOG-R, and MOG-WR in a linear bandit setting, comparing them with other MO algorithms. Specifically, we experiment with a linear bandit where $y_m(t) = \mathcal{N}(x_i^T\theta_m^*, 0.1^2)$ for all $i \in [K]$ and $m \in [M]$. For each problem instance, M objective parameters are sampled uniformly at random from the positive part of \mathbb{S}^{d-1} . Then, K feature vectors (K > 2M) are generated by drawing samples from \mathbb{B}^d . In the fixed arms setting, the first M feature vectors are sampled from a multivariate normal distribution with the true objective parameter as the mean and a covariance matrix of $0.1I_d$. These vectors are then scaled to ensure their magnitudes lie within the range (3/4,1). The remaining K-M feature vectors are sampled uniformly at random from \mathbb{B}^d , with M of these scaled to have magnitudes greater than 3/4 and the rest scaled to have magnitudes less than 3/4. Limiting the magnitudes of the feature vectors ensures that excessively large Pareto fronts, which could lead to meaningless results, are avoided. For the varying arms setting, contexts are drawn uniformly from \mathbb{B}^d . The results are averaged over 10 independent problem instances for each (d,K,M) combination, with each problem instance being repeated 10 times to compute the final statistics (repeated 5 times for problem instances with (d,K,M) = (20,400,20)).

We conduct experiments on our proposed near-greedy algorithms and the three baselines, ParetoUCB [1], MOGLM-UCB [3], and PFIwR [5] with tuned parameters for confidence width (The algorithms proposed by Cheng et al. [6] are excluded from the experiments as they are specifically designed for problems with hierarchical objective structures.) The experiments are run on Xeon(R) Gold 6226R CPU @ 2.90GHz (16 cores). When tuning existing algorithms, we selected the parameter settings that yielded the best regret performance within the range specified in their respective papers. For PFIwR, we set $\delta=0.1$ and $\epsilon=0.18$. For MOGLM-UCB, the confidence width is defined as $\gamma_t=c\log\frac{\det(Z_t)}{\det(Z_1)}$, where $Z_t=I_d+\frac{1}{2}\sum_{s=1}^t x(s)x(s)^{\top}$, with the tuned parameter c=0.1. Additionally, we use B=0.01 for our proposed algorithms, MOG, MOG-R, and MOG-WR. In terms of random variables in the MOG-R algorithm, we use uniform distribution $(\frac{1}{M},\ldots,\frac{1}{M})$ for choosing the target objective. For the MOG-WR algorithm, we use Dirichlet $(1,\ldots,1)$ for generating the weight vectors.

L.2 MO bandit algorithm comparison

L.2.1 Cumulative Pareto regret

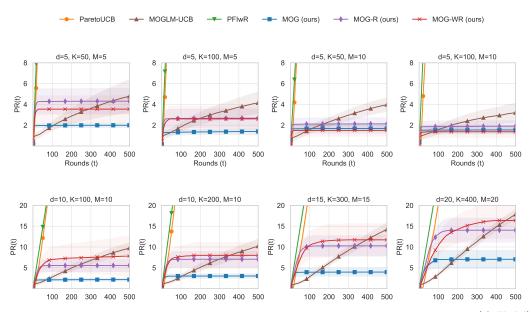


Figure 8: Cumulative Pareto regret of MO bandit algorithms with fixed arms across various (d, K, M) combinations. The shaded areas represent \pm half the standard deviation for each algorithm.

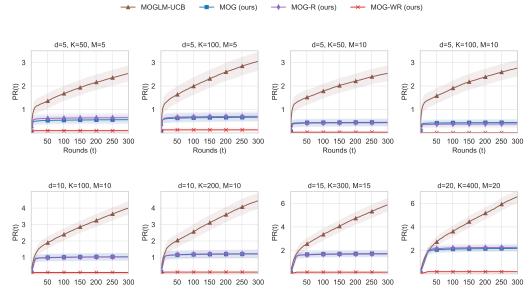


Figure 9: Cumulative Pareto regret of MO bandit algorithms with stochastic contexts across various (d, K, M) combinations. The shaded areas represent \pm half the standard deviation for each algorithm.

The following summarizes the empirical results illustrated in Figure 8 and Figure 9, which plot the cumulative regret of algorithms for the fixed context case and stochastic context case, respectively. As observed in these figures, our simple near-greedy algorithms, MOG, MOG-R, and MOG-WR, demonstrate superior empirical performance compared to existing algorithms. In both fixed and stochastic experimental setups, our proposed algorithms exhibit almost no regret after the exploration phase, whereas other algorithms maintain a sublinear regret trend due to additional exploration terms even after the initial rounds. Specifically, ParetoUCB and PFIwR rely on conservative equations within the algorithm, resulting in relatively weak empirical performance. MOGLM-UCB, by using a tunable confidence width, achieved better empirical performance than the previous two algorithms but still lagged behind our proposed near-greedy algorithms. These results support our claim that in MO settings, where multiple objectives generate many good arms, a brief exploration during the initial rounds is sufficient, after which exploitation alone can effectively address the problem.

Among proposed algorithms, in the fixed feature setup, MOG consistently achieved the best performance in most combinations of (d,K,M). This is likely due to its deterministic selection of diverse arms, allowing it to efficiently and reliably complete the initial rounds. Among the randomized algorithms, MOG-WR was better in experiments with relatively small d, whereas MOG-R outperformed in larger experimental setups.

In the stochastic context setup, our near-greedy algorithms demonstrated exceptionally strong performance. This aligns with findings from single-objective studies, which have shown similar results, and extends naturally to the MO setting. However, a surprising observation is that MOG-WR performed remarkably well, achieving near-zero regret in most scenarios. Notably, in the fixed-arm case, arms were selected to ensure that each objective direction contained some good arms. In contrast, in the stochastic setup, arms were drawn independently in each round from a unit ball uniform distribution without such constraints. Under this setup, our experiments revealed that MOG and MOG-R no longer had a performance advantage over MOG-WR. Additionally, MOG showed very little difference between its deterministic and randomized versions in stochastic settings.

This remarkable performance of MOG-WR is likely due to its greedy selection of arms in intermediate directions of the objectives. In MO bandits, let us define the *objective region* as the region formed by the weighted sums of all true objective vectors. Under this definition, any optimal arm corresponding to a direction within the objective region belongs to the Pareto front. If some prior knowledge about each objective is available, the probability that the intermediate directions of the initial objective parameters fall within the objective region is higher than that of the initial objective directions themselves. Specifically, in this experiment, the true objective parameters were all drawn from \mathbb{R}^d_+ ,

and we used the standard basis vectors of \mathbb{R}^d (along with additional vectors if necessary) as the initial objective parameters. In this case, the probability that intermediate directions between these standard basis vectors belong to the objective region is trivially higher than that of each e_i direction. This observation provides a key explanation for why MOG-WR experiences almost no regret during the initial phase. Moreover, in real-world scenarios, prior knowledge about the true objective parameters is often available, which can further enhance the performance of MOG-WR.

L.2.2 Pareto front approximation

As mentioned earlier, our proposed algorithms do not compute the empirical Pareto front at every round but can approximate the Pareto front when necessary. In this section, we empirically demonstrate how effectively MOG, MOG-R, and MOG-WR can approximate the Pareto front. Since our algorithms are near-greedy and do not include additional exploration terms after the initial rounds, we use $\hat{\theta}_m(t)$ as described in Lemma 1 to estimate the empirical Pareto front. We compare the estimated empirical Pareto front from our algorithms with those used by existing algorithms to evaluate how accurately they identify the true Pareto front. As a comparison metric, we use accuracy, defined as the proportion of arms correctly identified as belonging to the true Pareto front.

Figure 10 demonstrates that our algorithms effectively identify the Pareto front. Notably, when $d, M \leq 10$, MOG and MOG-R quickly identified the Pareto front, achieving an accuracy exceeding 0.98 within the first 100 rounds on average. The deterministic version MOG achieves the fastest, most accurate, and most stable Pareto front approximation across all experimental settings. Specifically, even in experiments with high dimensionality, a large number of arms, and multiple objectives, MOG estimates the Pareto front with accuracy exceeding 0.95 within the first 100 rounds. Next, MOG-R performed well in most cases, except for larger parameter experiments where $d, M \geq 15$ and $K \geq 300$. Similarly, MOGLM-UCB consistently showed strong performance across all settings.

In contrast, MOG-WR, while outperforming ParetoUCB and PFIwR after 300 rounds, exhibited inferior Pareto front approximation performance compared to MOG and MOG-R. This is an expected result, as efficient Pareto front approximation requires $\hat{\theta}_m(t)$ to converge quickly to θ_m^* for each objective m. Consequently, algorithms like MOG and MOG-R, which select more diverse arms, are better suited for this task than MOG-WR. Nevertheless, by the end of 500 rounds, MOG-WR also achieved higher Pareto front approximation accuracy compared to other existing algorithms.

L.2.3 Objective fairness

As shown in Figures 11 and 12, we experimentally verified that our proposed algorithms, MOG and MOG-R, satisfy objective fairness. In the fixed feature setup, the objective fairness index $(OFI_{0.05,T})$ of both MOG and MOG-R was observed to converge approximately to $\frac{1}{M}$ regardless of the number of arms K, which is consistent with Theorems 2 and 4. This indicates that MOG and its randomized version consistently select the optimal arms for all objectives, ensuring that no objective is ignored.

In contrast, for the MOG-WR algorithm, even considering that it is based on generalized objective fairness, the $OFI_{0.05,500}$ decreased significantly as the dimension d increased. This phenomenon arises because the difficulty of obtaining weighted vectors in directions close to specific objectives increases with higher dimensions. Specifically, we set \mathcal{D} to dirichlet $(1,\ldots,1)$, resulting in weight vectors being sampled uniformly from Δ^M . When the distribution was adjusted to favor sampling near the vertices of Δ^M (e.g., dirichlet $(0.5,\ldots,0.5)$), the objective fairness index can be improved.

In the contextual setup, the $OFI_{0.05,500}$ values were generally much higher than those observed in the fixed setup. This can be attributed to the experimental setting, where arms were uniformly generated in \mathbb{B}^d , causing near-optimal arms for each objective to overlap more frequently. In other words, a single arm often became the near-optimal arm for multiple objectives, resulting in a higher $OFI_{0.05,500}$. Interestingly, contrary to our intuition, MOG-WR exhibited higher $OFI_{0.05,500}$ values than MOG and MOG-R in this setup. This phenomenon occurs because selecting optimal arms in weighted objective directions becomes more advantageous than selecting optimal arms for each individual objective.

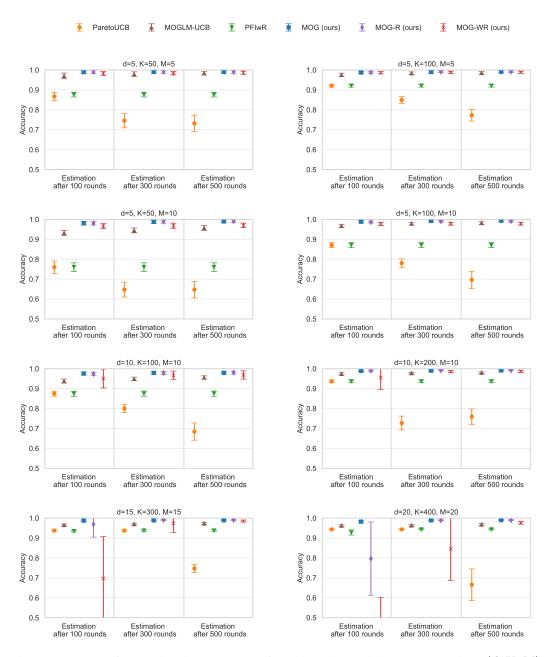


Figure 10: Pareto front estimation accuracy of MO bandit algorithms across various (d, K, M) combinations. For each algorithm, the error bars represent \pm the standard deviation.

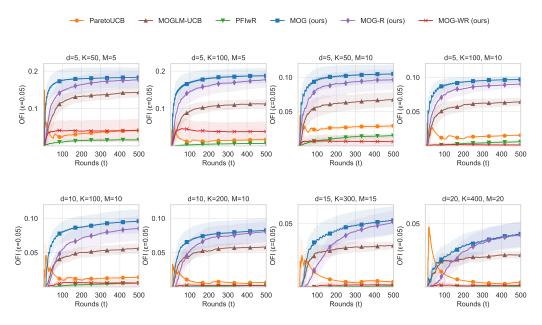


Figure 11: Objective fairness index ($\epsilon=0.05$) of MO bandit algorithms with fixed arms across various (d,K,M) combinations. The shaded areas represent \pm half the standard deviation for each algorithm.

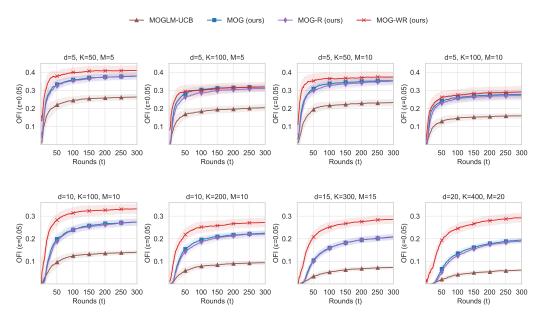


Figure 12: Objective fairness index ($\epsilon=0.05$) of MO bandit algorithms with stochastic contexts across various (d,K,M) combinations. The shaded areas represent \pm half the standard deviation for each algorithm.

L.3 Effect of parameter settings on algorithm performance

L.3.1 Effect of B

We conduct experiments to demonstrate that our algorithm is not particularly sensitive to the choice of B, and that free exploration still occurs effectively even when B is set to a relatively small value. The experimental setup is identical to that of the previous experiments, and the results are averaged over 10 repetitions for each of 10 independent problem instances per (d, K, M) combination.

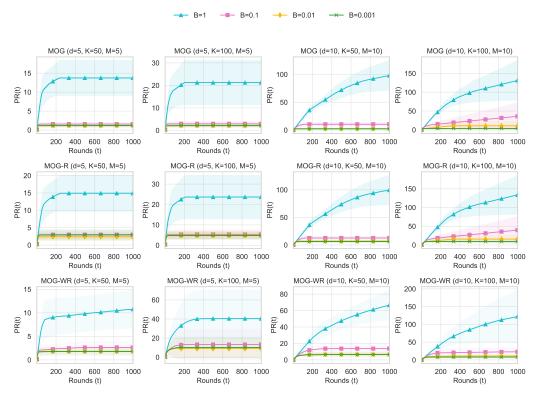


Figure 13: Cumulative Pareto regret of the MOG, MOG-R, and MOG-WR with fixed features across various *B* values.

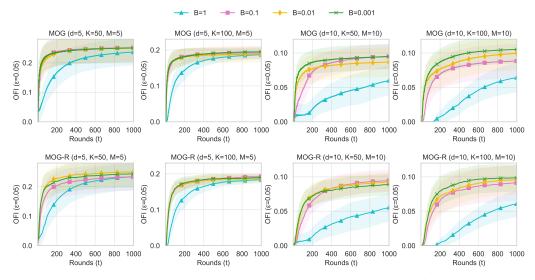


Figure 14: Objective fairness index of the MOG and MOG-R algorithms with fixed features across various B values.

As shown in Figure 13 and Figure 15, free exploration emerges robustly for even very small values of B in both fixed feature and stochastic context settings. This is because multiple objectives naturally induce sufficient diversity among the selected arms, thereby reducing the need for dedicated initial rounds. Furthermore, objective fairness is consistently satisfied across all cases (Figure 14, Figure 16).

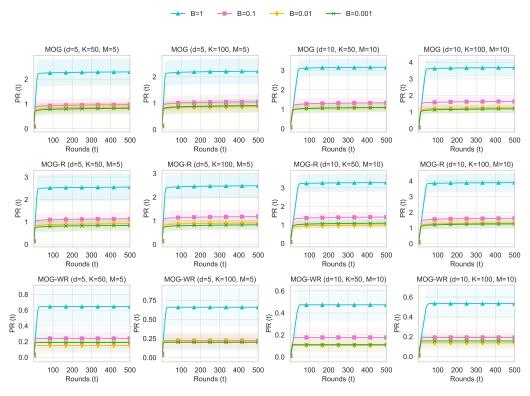


Figure 15: Cumulative Pareto regret of the MOG, MOG-R and MOG-WR algorithms with stochastic contexts across various B values.

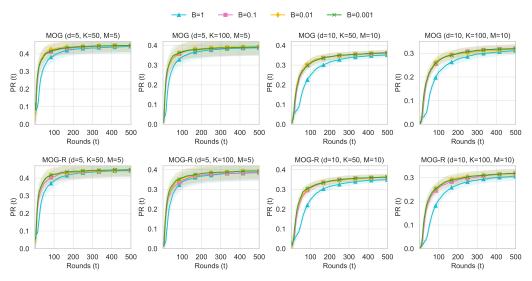


Figure 16: Objective fairness index of the MOG and MOG-R algorithms with stochastic contexts across various B values.

L.3.2 Effect of initial objective parameters

We examined the influence of the parameter B and the configurations of β_1,\ldots,β_M on the performance of the MOG algorithm. Specifically, we considered three distinct combinations with varying degrees of diversity, as summarized in Table 3. For each parameter setting, we assessed the cumulative Pareto regret of MOG. The experiments were conducted under a stochastic context across various (d,K,M) combinations. We evaluated the performance of the algorithm under three cases, B=1, 0.1, and 0.01, and examined how the degree of diversity in the initial objective parameters affects learning.

Table 3: Combinations of initial objective parameters used in the experiments

\overline{M}	Diversity	eta_1,\dots,eta_M
	high	$e_1^{(5)}, \dots, e_5^{(5)}$
5	moderate	$rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(e_1^{(5)}+e_2^{(5)} ight), rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(e_2^{(5)}+e_3^{(5)} ight), \ldots, rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(e_5^{(5)}+e_1^{(5)} ight)$
	low	$ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(e_1^{(5)} + e_2^{(5)} \right), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(e_2^{(5)} + e_3^{(5)} \right), \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(e_5^{(5)} + e_1^{(5)} \right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left(e_1^{(5)} + e_2^{(5)} + e_3^{(5)} \right), \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left(e_2^{(5)} + e_3^{(5)} + e_4^{(5)} \right), \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left(e_5^{(5)} + e_1^{(5)} + e_2^{(5)} \right) $
		$e_1^{(10)}, \dots, e_{10}^{(10)}$
10	moderate	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left(e_1^{(10)} + e_2^{(10)} + e_3^{(10)} \right), \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left(e_2^{(19)} + e_3^{(10)} + e_4^{(10)} \right), \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left(e_{10}^{(10)} + e_1^{(10)} + e_2^{(10)} \right)$
	low	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \left(\sum_{m=1}^{6} e_m^{(10)} \right), \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \left(\sum_{m=2}^{7} e_m^{(10)} \right), \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \left(e_{10}^{(10)} + \sum_{m=1}^{5} e_m^{(10)} \right),$

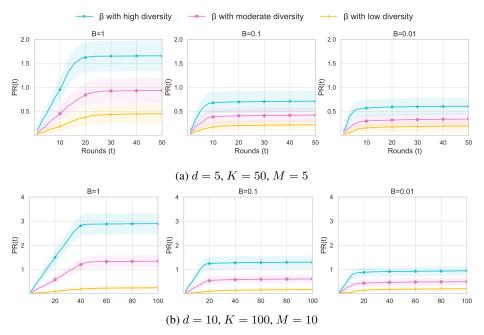


Figure 17: Cumulative Pareto regret of the MOG algorithm across various parameter combinations

Figure 17 illustrates the differences in cumulative Pareto regret for each parameter setting when (d,K,M)=(5,50,5) and (10,100,10). Our MOG algorithm demonstrated stable performance across all initial objective parameter combinations proposed in the stochastic context setup. Observing the inflection points in the graphs, we found that using highly diverse initial objective parameter combinations allowed the algorithm to complete the initial exploration phase the fastest. However, regret was lower when using less diverse combinations. As explained in Appendix L.2, this result is related to the probability that the initial objective parameters lie within the region formed by the weighted sum of Pareto optimal arms. In cases where there is some prior knowledge of the objective parameters, initial objective parameters in intermediate directions are less likely to generate regret. This outcome is also possible in our experimental setup because the objective parameters

were sampled from the positive part of \mathbb{B}^d . Therefore, in the absence of any prior knowledge, lower diversity in the initial objective parameters may not be advantageous. In such cases, it is recommended to use diverse β_1, \ldots, β_M to facilitate rapid initial exploration.

Consistent with the results in the previous section, the algorithm demonstrates strong regret performance across all values of B ($B=1,\,0.1,\,0.01$), with smaller B values completing the initial exploration phase more rapidly. The best performance was achieved with B=0.01, indicating that a brief initial exploration was sufficient. This finding is consistent not only in the stochastic context setup but also in the fixed feature setup, as shown in Figure 8.

L.4 Experiment based on real-world Wine data (UCI machine learning repository)

L.4.1 Settings

We conducted experiments using the wine dataset from the UCI Machine Learning Repository to evaluate the performance of our algorithm in a bandit setting. The dataset contains 13 numerical attributes for each wine (Table 4); among these, we used alcohol, quality, and red as reward objectives, while the remaining 10 attributes were used as features. Figure 18 illustrates how the offline data was adapted for the bandit experimental setup. For each reward objective, we first performed linear regression on the normalized features. Then, in each round, rewards were generated by adding noise to the predicted value based on the regression model. The noise was sampled from $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ to mimic the variability observed in the original dataset. Experiments were conducted under two settings, K=50 and K=100, with 100 episodes of 500 rounds each being generated for evaluation.

Table 4: 3-objective bandit problem construction using off-line wine dataset.

Features	fixed acidity free sulfur dioxide	volatile acidity total sulfur dioxide	citric acid density	residual sugar pH	chlorides sulphates
Reward	alcohol	quality	red		

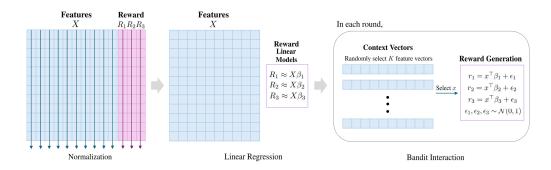


Figure 18: Description of how to use real-world off-line data for 3-objective bandit experiment.

Table 5: Parameter settings of MOG and its variants.

Algorithm	Settings
MOG	B=1 and 0.1
MOG-R (ours)	B=1 and Uniform distribution for target objective selection
MOG-WR (ours)	$B=1$ and Dirichlet(α) distribution for weight vector generation
	where $\alpha = (1, 1, 1), (2, 1, 1), (1, 2, 1), (1, 1, 1.5), (1, 1, 2)$

In this real-world-inspired experiment, we measured the cumulative reward to compare the performance of our algorithms with that of the existing contextual MO bandit algorithm, MOGLM-UCB. The parameter for MOGLM-UCB was set to c=1 or 0.1 as in Lu et al. [3], and the experimental configuration for MOG is provided in Table 5.

Table 6: Performance results of each algorithm on three objectives when K=50. Algorithms marked with \dagger achieved Pareto optimal reward performance. Boldfaced values indicate the highest reward achieved for each individual objective. The results are averaged over 100 generated episodes.

Algorithm	Alcohol	Quality	Red
$ exttt{MOGLM-UCB} \ (c=1)$	251.79	93.52	414.66
$ exttt{MOGLM-UCB} \ (c=0.1)$	314.24	127.58	359.81
MOG(B=1)	499.25	187.29	249.38
MOG (B = 0.1)	505.23	195.46	237.53
MOG-R (B=1)	493.70	188.29	251.33
$\operatorname{MOG-WR}\ (B=1,\alpha=(1,1,1))^\dagger$	558.66	237.63	386.89
$\texttt{MOG-WR}\ (B=1,\alpha=(2,1,1))^\dagger$	709.53	297.25	223.71
$\texttt{MOG-WR}\ (B=1,\alpha=(1,2,1))^\dagger$	624.95	310.85	259.50
$ ext{MOG-WR} \ (B=1, lpha=(1,1,1.5))^{\dagger}$	441.11	161.83	566.18
$\operatorname{MOG-WR}(B=1,\alpha=(1,1,2))^{\dagger}$	346.12	102.46	675.28

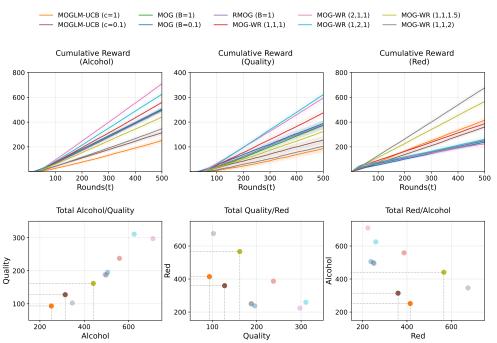


Figure 19: Cumulative reward for 3-objectives, alcohol, quality, and red, when K=50.

L.4.2 Results

Table 6 and Table 7 report the average cumulative rewards obtained by each algorithm under the two settings, K=50 and K=100, respectively. The MOG-WR algorithm demonstrates Pareto-optimal performance with respect to the cumulative rewards over the three objectives. Notably, MOG-WR uses weights sampled from a Dirichlet distribution, and the choice of its parameters affects which objective the algorithm tends to prioritize among the three objectives.

Figure 19 and Figure 20 show plots of cumulative rewards over time for each objective, as well as the final cumulative rewards for two of the objectives achieved by each algorithm. In particular, when the Dirichlet distribution was set to Dirichlet(1,1,1.5) (olive point), the MOG-WR algorithm was observed to dominate the MOGLM-UCB algorithm (orange and brown points) across all three objectives.

Table 7: Performance results of each algorithm on three objectives when K=100. Algorithms marked with \dagger achieved Pareto optimal reward performance. Boldfaced values indicate the highest reward achieved for each individual objective. The results are averaged over 100 generated episodes.

Algorithm	Alcohol	Quality	Red
$ exttt{MOGLM-UCB}$ $(c=1)$	290.26	109.80	474.66
$ exttt{MOGLM-UCB} \ (c=0.1)$	348.17	142.29	418.70
MOG(B=1)	535.11	203.75	287.56
MOG (B = 0.1)	541.99	209.11	277.22
$\mathtt{MOG-R}\ (B=1)$	541.72	203.49	285.69
$\texttt{MOG-WR}\ (B=1,\alpha=(1,1,1))^\dagger$	610.48	251.21	433.40
$\operatorname{MOG-WR}\ (B=1,\alpha=(2,1,1))^\dagger$	765.97	317.67	266.33
$\texttt{MOG-WR}\ (B=1,\alpha=(1,2,1))^\dagger$	663.21	336.77	305.54
$\operatorname{MOG-WR}\ (B=1,\alpha=(1,1,1.5))^{\dagger}$	480.48	178.30	612.76
$\operatorname{MOG-WR}(B=1,\alpha=(1,1,2))^{\widehat{\dagger}}$	393.74	112.88	727.21

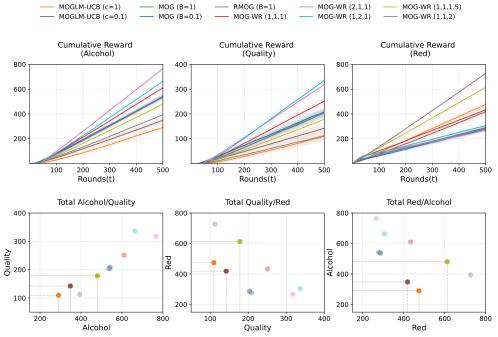


Figure 20: Cumulative reward for 3-objectives, alcohol, quality, and red, when K = 100.

M Auxiliary lemmas

Lemma 23 (Lemma A.1. of Kannan et al. [10]). Let η_1, \ldots, η_t be independent σ^2 -subgaussian random variables. Let x_1, \ldots, x_t be vectors in \mathbb{R}^d with each x_s chosen arbitrarily as a function of $(x_1, \eta_1), \ldots, (x_{s-1}, \eta_{t'-1})$ subject to $||x_s|| \leq x_{\max}$. Then with probability at least $1 - \delta$,

$$\left\| \sum_{s=1}^t \eta_s x(s) \right\| \leq \sigma \sqrt{2x_{\max}} dt \log(dt/\delta).$$

Note that, the above lemma holds even when η_1, \dots, η_t be conditionally σ^2 -subgaussian random variables, because it was driven by using σ^2 -subgaussian martingale.

Lemma 24 (Lemma 8 of Li et al. [18]). Given $||x_i|| \le 1$ for all $i \in [K]$, suppose there is an integer m such that $\lambda_{\min}(V_m) \ge 1$, then for any $\delta > 0$, with probability at least $1 - \delta$, for all $t \ge m + 1$,

$$||S_t||_{V_t^{-1}}^2 \le 4\sigma^2(\frac{d}{2}\log(1+\frac{2t(x_{\max})^2}{d})+\log(\frac{1}{\delta})).$$

Lemma 25 (Theorem 3.1 of Tropp [27]). Let $\mathcal{H}_1 \subset \mathcal{H}_2 \cdots$ be a filtration and consider a finite sequence $\{X_k\}$ of positive semi-definite matrices with dimension d adapted to this filtration. Suppose that $\lambda_{\max}(X_k) \leq R$ almost surely. Define the series $Y \equiv \sum_k X_k$ and $W \equiv \sum_k \mathbb{E}[X_k | \mathcal{H}_{k-1}]$. Then for all $\mu \geq 0$, $\gamma \in [0,1)$ we have

$$\mathbb{P}[\lambda_{\min}(Y) \leq (1-\gamma)\mu \text{ and } \lambda_{\min}(W) \geq \mu] \leq d(\frac{e^{-\gamma}}{(1-\gamma)^{1-\gamma}})^{\mu/R}.$$

Lemma 26 (Theorem 5.1 of Auer et al. [28]). For any $T \ge K \ge 2$, consider the multi-armed bandit problem such that the probability slot machine pays 1 is set to $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{\frac{K}{T}}$ for one uniformly chosen arm and $\frac{1}{2}$ for the rest of K-1 arms. Then, there exists γ such that for any (multi-armed) bandit algorithm choosing action a_t at time t, the expected regret is lower bounded by

$$\mathbb{E}\left(p_i T - \sum_{t=1}^{T} r_{t,a_t}\right) = \Omega(\sqrt{KT}).$$

Lemma 27. For any random variable vector $X \sim D$, $\mathbb{E}[XX^{\top}] \succeq \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[X]^{\top}$

Proof of Lemma 27. For any $u \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$, $u^{\top}\mathbb{E}[XX^{\top}]u = \mathbb{E}[u^{\top}XX^{\top}u] = \mathbb{E}[\langle u, X \rangle^2] \geq (\mathbb{E}[\langle u, X \rangle])^2 = u^{\top}\mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[X]^{\top}u$.

Lemma 28. Let v be a vector in $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and A be a $d \times d$ matrix. Then $||Av||_2 \geq (\min_{u \in S} u^\top Au) ||v||_2$.

Proof of Lemma 28.

$$\frac{\|Av\|_2}{\|v\|_2} = \left\|A\frac{v}{\|v\|_2}\right\|_2 \ge \min_{u \in S} \|Au\|_2 \ge \min_{u \in S} u^\top Au.$$

N Discussions

Our work proposes a simple yet efficient algorithm for MO bandit problems in which sufficiently good arms exist. While our algorithm is statistically efficient under such conditions, it cannot achieve sublinear regret in general worst-case scenarios. This is a general limitation of exploration-free algorithms, which are inherently dependent on problem instances.

Although this can be viewed as a limitation, it also highlights a broader point: relying on complex algorithms that over-explore in order to cover all possible worst cases is not necessarily the most desirable approach, particularly in practice. From this perspective, the contribution of our work lies in showing that, in MO settings with a large number of good arms, a simple near-greedy algorithm can be both statistically and practically effective. Indeed, as shown in Section 4 and Appendix L, our algorithm demonstrates significantly stronger performance than existing MO approaches. This makes it highly applicable to real-world applications, such as recommender systems, and provides theoretical justification for the observation that greedy selection may be sufficient in such environments.