# The Irrevocable Multiarmed Bandit Problem

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This paper considers the multiarmed bandit problem with multiple simultaneous arm pulls and the additional restriction that we do not allow recourse to arms that were pulled at some point in the past but then discarded. This additional restriction is highly desirable from an operational perspective, and we refer to this problem as the "irrevocable multiarmed bandit" problem. We observe that natural modifications to well-known heuristics for multiarmed bandit problems that satisfy this irrevocability constraint have unsatisfactory performance and, thus motivated, introduce a new heuristic: the "packing" heuristic. We establish through numerical experiments that the packing heuristic offers excellent performance, even relative to heuristics that are not constrained to be irrevocable. We also provide a theoretical analysis that studies the "price" of irrevocability, i.e., the performance loss incurred in imposing the constraint we propose on the multiarmed bandit model. We show that this performance loss is uniformly bounded for a general class of multiarmed bandit problems and indicate its dependence on various problem parameters. Finally, we obtain a computationally fast algorithm to implement the packing heuristic; the algorithm renders the packing heuristic computationally cheaper than methods that rely on the computation of Gittins indices.

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## 1. Introduction

Consider the operations of a "fast-fashion" retailer such as Zara or H&M. Such retailers have developed and invested in merchandise procurement strategies that permit lead times for new fashions as short as two weeks. As a consequence of this flexibility, such retailers are able to adjust the assortment of products offered on sale at their stores to quickly adapt to popular fashion trends. In particular, such retailers use weekly sales data to refine their estimates of an item's popularity, and based on such revised estimates weed out unpopular items, or else restock demonstrably popular ones on a week-by-week basis. In view of the great deal of a priori uncertainty in the popularity of a new fashion and the speed at which fashion trends evolve, the fast-fashion operations model is highly desirable and emerging as the de facto operations model for large fashion retailers.

Among other things, the fast-fashion model relies crucially on an effective technology to learn from purchase data and adjust product assortments based on such data. Such a technology must strike a balance between "exploring" potentially successful products and "exploiting" products that are demonstrably popular. A convenient mathematical model within which to design algorithms capable of accomplishing such a task is that of the multiarmed bandit. Although we defer a precise mathematical discussion to a later section, a multiarmed bandit consists of multiple (say $n$) "arms," each corresponding to a *Markov deci-*

*sion process* (MDP). As a special case, one may think of each arm as an independent Bernoulli random variable with an uncertain bias specified via some prior distribution. At each point in time, one may "pull" up to a certain number of arms (say $k < n$) simultaneously. For each arm pulled, we modify our estimate of its bias based on its realization and earn a reward proportional to its realization. We neither learn about, nor earn rewards from, arms that are not pulled. The multiarmed bandit problem requires finding a policy that adaptively selects $k$ arms to pull at every point in time with an objective of maximizing total expected reward earned over some finite time horizon or, alternatively, discounted rewards earned over an infinite horizon or perhaps even long-term average rewards.

The multiarmed bandit model, although general and immensely useful, fails to capture an important restriction one faces in several applications. In particular, in a number of applications, the act of "pulling" an arm that has been pulled in the past but discarded in favor of another arm is undesirable or unacceptable. Ignoring references to the extant literature for now, examples include the following:

*Fast Fashion:* The fixed costs associated with the introduction of a new product make frequent changes in the assortment of products offered undesirable. More importantly, fast-fashion retailers rely heavily on discouraging their customers from delaying/strategizing on the timing of their purchase decisions. They accomplish this by adhering

to strict restocking policies; reintroduction of an old product is undesirable from this viewpoint.

*Call-Center Hiring:* Given the rich variety of tasks call-center workers might face, recent research has raised the possibility of "data-driven" hiring/staff allocation decisions at call centers. In this setting, the act of discarding an arm is equivalent to a firing or reassignment decision; it is clear that such decisions are difficult to reverse.

*Clinical Trials:* A classical application of the bandit model, the act of discarding an arm in this setting is equivalent to the discontinuation of trials on a particular treatment. The ethical objections to administering treatments that may be viewed as inferior play a critical role in the design of such trials, and it is reasonable to expect that restarting trials on a procedure after a hiatus might well raise ethical concerns.

This paper considers the multiarmed bandit problem with an additional restriction: we require that decisions to remove an arm from the set of arms currently being pulled be "irrevocable." That is, we do not allow recourse to arms that were pulled at some point in the past but then discarded. We refer to this problem as the *irrevocable multiarmed bandit problem*. We introduce a novel heuristic we call the "packing" heuristic for this problem. The packing heuristic establishes a static ranking of bandit arms based on a measure of their potential value relative to the time required to realize that value and pulls arms in the order prescribed by this ranking. For an arm currently being pulled, the heuristic may either choose to continue pulling that arm in the next time step or else discard the arm in favor of the next-highest ranked arm not currently being pulled. Once discarded, an arm will *never* be chosen again, hence satisfying the irrevocability constraint. We demonstrate via computational experiments that the use of the packing heuristic incurs a small performance loss relative to an optimal bandit policy without the irrevocability constraint. In greater detail, the present work makes the following contributions.

We introduce the irrevocable multiarmed bandit problem and develop a heuristic for its solution, motivated by recent advances in the study of stochastic packing. We present a computational study that demonstrates that the performance of the packing heuristic compares favorably with a computable upper bound on the performance of any (potentially nonirreovocable) multiarmed bandit policy. Our policy also compares favorably with a bandit heuristic proposed by Whittle (1998) that is not irrevocable.

We present a theoretical analysis to bound the performance loss incurred relative to an optimal policy with no restrictions on irrevocability. We characterize a general class of bandits for which this "price of irrevocability" is uniformly bounded. We show that this class of bandits admits the "learning" applications we have alluded to thus far. For bandits within this class, we show that the packing heuristic earns expected rewards that are at last within a

factor of 1/8 of an optimal policy for the classical multiarmed bandit. We also present stronger performance guarantees in an asymptotic parameter regime first studied by Whittle.

In the interest of practical applicability, we develop a fast, essentially combinatorial implementation of the packing heuristic. Assuming that an individual arm has $O(\Sigma)$ states, and given a time horizon of $T$ steps, our implementation requires a total of $O(n\Sigma^2 \log T)$ computations per time step amortized over the time horizon. In contrast, Whittle's heuristic requires $O(n\Sigma^2 T \log T)$ computations per time step.

## 1.1. Relevant Literature

The multiarmed bandit problem has a rich history, and a number of excellent references (such as Gittins 1989) provide a thorough treatment of the subject. Our consideration of the "irrevocable" multiarmed bandit problem stems from a number of applications of the bandit framework alluded to earlier. Caro and Gallien (2007) have considered using the multiarmed bandit for the assortment design problem faced by fast-fashion retailers. Pich and Van der Heyden (2002) emphasize the importance of not allowing for "repeat" products in an assortment in that setting. Arlotto et al. (2010) consider the application of the multiarmed bandit model in the context of ascertaining the suitability of individuals for a given task at a call center. The methodology suggested by the authors respects the irrevocability constraint studied here and is similar to an irrevocable version of Whittle's heuristic that we will examine later. This constraint is quite natural to their setting because firing decisions are difficult to reverse. Finally, there is a very large and varied literature on the design of clinical trials, and we make no attempt to review that here. "Ethical" experimentation policies are an overriding theme of much of the work in this area; see Anscombe (1963) for an early treatment of the subject and Armitage et al. (2002) for a more recent overview.

There has been a great deal of work on heuristics for the multiarmed bandit problem. In the case where $k = 1$, that is, allowing for a single arm to be pulled in a given time step, Gittins and Jones (1974) developed an elegant index-based policy that was shown to be optimal for the problem of maximizing discounted rewards over an infinite horizon. Their index policy is known to be suboptimal if one is allowed to pull more than a single arm in a given time step. Whittle (1988) developed a simple index-based heuristic for a more general bandit problem (the "restless" bandit problem) allowing for multiple arms to be pulled in a given time step. Although his original paper was concerned with maximizing long-term average rewards, his heuristic is easily adapted to other objectives such as discounted infinite-horizon rewards or expected rewards over a finite horizon (see, for instance, Bertsimas and Niño-Mora 2000, Caro and Gallien 2007). It is important to note, however, that much of the extant performance analysis for

bandit problems (beyond the initial work of Gittins and Jones 1974) in general, and Whittle's heuristic in particular, focuses on bandits with a *single recurrent class* and the *average cost/reward criterion*. In that setting, Weber and Weiss (1990) presented a set of technical conditions that guarantee that Whittle's heuristic is asymptotically optimal (in a regime where $n$ and $k$ go to infinity keeping $n/k$ constant) for the general restless bandit problem and further, that Whittle's heuristic is *not* optimal in general. The conditions proposed by Weber and Weiss (1990) are nontrivial to verify because they require checking the global stability of a system of nonlinear differential equations. In addition, there is a vast amount of work that analyzes special applications of the bandit model (for instance in scheduling, or queueing problems) that we do not review here.

Although the assumption of a single recurrent class and the average reward criterion permits performance analysis (via certain mean-field approximation techniques), such a setting immediately rules out a vast number of interesting bandit problems, including most learning applications. In addition to the fact that the assumption of a single recurrent class does not hold, the average reward criterion is *too coarse* for such applications: very crudely, optimal policies for this criterion do not face the problem of carefully allocating an "exploration budget" across arms. More precisely, any policy with "vanishing regret" (Lai and Robbins 1985) is optimal for the average reward criterion. A relatively recent paper by Glazebrook and Wilkinson (2000) establishes that a Whittle-like heuristic for *irreducibile* multiarmed bandits and the discounted infinite-horizon criterion approaches the optimal policy at a uniform rate as the discount factor approaches unity; this is a regime where the average cost and discounted cost criteria effectively coincide. Moreover, the requirement of irreducibility again rules out Bayesian learning applications. Because the packing heuristic is certainly feasible for the multiarmed bandit problem, we believe that the present work offers the *first* performance bounds for an important general class of multiarmed bandit problems with the finite time horizon criterion and multiple simultaneous arm plays. The packing heuristic policy builds upon recent insights on the "adaptivity" gap for stochastic packing problems. In particular, Dean et al. (2008) recently established that a simple static rule (Smith's rule) for packing a knapsack with items of fixed reward (known a priori), but whose sizes were stochastic and unknown a priori, was within a constant factor of the optimal adaptive packing policy. Guha and Munagala (2007) used this insight to establish a similar static rule for "budgeted learning problems." In such a problem one is interested in finding a coin with highest bias from a set of coins of uncertain bias, assuming that one is allowed to toss a *single* coin in a given time step and that one has a finite budget on the number of such experimental tosses allowed. Our work parallels that work in that we draw on the insights of the stochastic packing results of

Dean et al. (2008). In addition, we must address two significant hurdles—correlations between the total reward earned from pulls of a given arm and the total number of pulls of that arm (these turn out not to matter in the budgeted learning setting, but are crucial to our setting), and secondly, the fact that multiple arms may be pulled simultaneously (only a single arm may be pulled at any time in the budgeted learning setting). Finally, a paper (Goel et al. 2009) brought to our attention by the authors of that work considers a variant of the budgeted learning problem of Guha and Munagala (2007), wherein one is allowed to toss multiple coins simultaneously. Although it is conceivable that their heuristic may be modified to apply to the multiarmed bandit problem we address, the heuristic they develop is also *not* irrevocable.

Restricted to learning applications, our work takes an inherently Bayesian view of the multiarmed bandit problem. It is worth mentioning that there are a number of nonparametric formulations to such problems with a vast associated literature. Most relevant to the present model are the papers by Anantharam et al. (1987a, b) that develop simple "regret-optimal" strategies for multiarmed bandit problems with multiple simultaneous plays. One could easily imagine imposing a similar "irrevocability" restriction in that setting, and it would be interesting to design algorithms for such a problem.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 presents the irrevocable multiarmed bandit model. Section 3 develops the packing heuristic. Section 4 introduces a structural property for bandit arms that we call the "decreasing returns" property. It is shown that bandits for learning applications possess this property. That section then establishes that the price of irrevocability for bandits possessing the decreasing returns property is uniformly bounded and develops stronger performance bounds in interesting asymptotic parameter regimes. Section 5 presents very encouraging computational experiments for large-scale bandit problems drawn from an interesting generative family. In the interest of implementability, §6 develops a combinatorial algorithm for the fast computation of packing heuristic policies for multiarmed bandits. Section 7 concludes with a perspective on interesting directions for future work.

## 2. The Irrevocable Multiarmed Bandit Model

We consider a multiarmed bandit problem with multiple simultaneous "pulls" permitted at every time step and "irrevocability" restrictions. A single bandit arm (indexed by $i$) is a MDP specified by a state space $\mathscr{S}_i$, an action space, $\mathscr{A}_i$, a reward function $r_i: \mathscr{S}_i \times \mathscr{A}_i \to \mathbb{R}_+$, and a transition kernel $P_i: \mathscr{S}_i \times \mathscr{A}_i \times \mathscr{S}_i \to [0, 1]$; $P_i(x_i, a_i, y_i)$ is thus the probability that employing action $a_i$ on arm $i$ while it is in state $x_i$ will lead to a transition to state $y_i$. Given the state and action for an arm $i$ at some time $t$, the evolution

of the state for that arm over the subsequent time step is independent of the other arms.

Every bandit arm is endowed with a distinguished "idle" action $\phi_i$. Should a bandit be idled in some time period, it yields no rewards in that period and transitions to the same state with probability 1 in the next period. More precisely,

$$r_i(s_i, \phi_i) = 0, \quad \forall\, s_i \in \mathscr{S}_i,$$

$$P_i(s_i, \phi_i, s_i) = 1, \quad \forall\, s_i \in \mathscr{S}_i.$$

We consider a bandit problem with $n$ arms. The *only* action available at arms that were idled in the prior time step but pulled at some point in the past is the idle action; that is, the decision to idle an arm pulled in the previous time step is "irrevocable." Should an action other than the idle action be selected at an arm, we refer to such a selection as a "pull" of that arm. That is, any action $a_i \in \mathscr{A}_i \backslash \{\phi_i\}$ would be considered a pull of the $i$th arm. In each time step one must select a subset of up to $k (\leqslant n)$ arms to pull. One is forced to pick the idle action for the remaining $n - k$ arms. We wish to find an action selection (or control) policy that maximizes expected rewards earned over $T$ time periods. Our problem may be cast as an optimal control problem. In particular, we define as our *state space* the set $\mathscr{S} = \prod_i \mathscr{S}_i$ and as our *action space* the set $\mathscr{A} = \prod_i \mathscr{A}_i$. We let $\mathscr{T} = \{0, 1, \ldots, T-1\}$. We understand by $s_i$, the $i$th component of $s \in \mathscr{S}$, and similarly let $a_i$ denote the $i$th component of $a \in \mathscr{A}$.

We define a reward function $r: \mathscr{S} \times \mathscr{A} \to \mathbb{R}_+$, given by $r(s, a) = \sum_i r_i(s_i, a_i)$ and a system transition kernel $P: \mathscr{S} \times \mathscr{A} \times \mathscr{S} \to [0, 1]$, given by $P(s, a, s') = \Pi_i P_i(s_i, a_i, s_i')$.

We now formally develop what we mean by a feasible control policy. Let $X_0$ be a random variable that encapsulates any endogenous randomization in selecting an action, and define the filtration generated by $X_0$ and the history of visited states and actions by

$$\mathscr{F}_t = \sigma(X_0, (s^0), (s^1, a^0), \ldots, (s^t, a^{t-1})),$$

where $s^t$ and $a^t$ denote the state and action at time $t$, respectively. We assume that $\mathbb{P}(s^{t+1} = s' \mid s^t = s, a^t = a, H_t = h_t) = P(s, a, s')$ for all $s, s' \in \mathscr{S}$, $a \in \mathscr{A}$, $t \in \mathscr{T}$ and any $\mathscr{F}_t$-measurable random variable $H_t$. A *feasible* policy simply specifies a sequence of $\mathscr{A}$-valued actions $\{a^t\}$ adapted to $\mathscr{F}_t$ and satisfying

$$a_i^t = \phi_i \quad \text{if } a_i^{t-1} = \phi_i \quad \text{and}$$

$$\exists\, t' < t \quad \text{with } a_i^{t'} \neq \phi_i \quad \text{(irrevocability)}$$

$$\sum_i \mathbf{1}_{\{a_i^t \neq \phi_i\}} \leqslant k \quad \text{(at most } k \text{ simultaneous pulls)}.$$

In particular, such a policy may be specified by a collection of $\sigma(X^0)$ measurable, $\mathscr{A}$-valued random variables, $\{\mu(s^0, \ldots, s^t, a^0, \ldots, a^{t-1}, t)\}$, one for each possible state-action history of the system. We let $M$ denote the set of all

such policies $\mu$, and denote by $J^\mu(s, 0)$ the expected value of using policy $\mu$ starting in state $s$ at time 0; in particular,

$$J^\mu(s, 0) = E\left[\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} r(s^t, a^t) \,\middle|\, s^0 = s.\right],$$

where $a^t = \mu(s^0, \ldots, s^t, a^0, \ldots, a^{t-1}, t)$. Our goal is to compute an optimal feasible policy. In particular, we would like to find a policy $\mu^*$ that achieves $J^{\mu^*}(s, 0) = \sup_{\mu \in M} J^\mu(s, 0)$.

## 3. The Packing Heuristic

The irrevocable multiarmed bandit problem defined above does not appear to admit a tractable optimal solution. As such, this section focuses on developing a heuristic for the problem that we will subsequently demonstrate offers excellent performance and admits uniform performance guarantees. We begin this section with an overview of our proposed heuristic: Assume that we are given some set of policies, one for each individual arm, $\bar{\mu}_i \colon \mathscr{S}_i \to \Delta_{\mathscr{A}_i}$ (where $\Delta_{\mathscr{A}_i}$ is the $|\mathscr{A}_i|$ dimensional unit simplex). Notice that unlike the optimal policy for the (irrevocable) multiarmed bandit problem, this set is a tractable object because each policy is specified as a function of the state of a single arm. Consider applying policy $\bar{\mu}_i$ to the $i$th arm in isolation over $T$ time periods. Let $\nu_i(\bar{\mu}_i)$ be the expected reward garnered from the arm, and let $\psi_i(\bar{\mu}_i)$ be the expected number of times the arm was pulled over this $T$-period horizon. Next, consider the problem of finding individual arm policies $\bar{\mu}_i$ to solve the following problem:

$$\max_{\bar{\mu}_i,\, i=1, 2, \ldots, n} \quad \sum_i \nu_i(\bar{\mu}_i)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \sum_i \psi_i(\bar{\mu}_i) \leqslant kT.$$

The above program can be expressed as a linear program with a tractable number of variables and constraints. The value of this program provides an upper bound on the performance of an optimal policy for the classical multiarmed bandit problem. In fact, we will derive this program by considering a natural relaxation of the classical multiarmed bandit problem. Although we do not show it, Whittle's heuristic may be viewed as a policy motivated by the dual of this program. Given a solution, $\bar{\mu}^*$, to the above program, the "packing heuristic" we propose operates roughly as follows:

• Sort the arms in decreasing order of the ratio $\nu_i(\bar{\mu}_i^*)/\psi_i(\bar{\mu}_i^*)$.

• Select the top $k$ arms according to this ranking, and select actions for these arms according to their respective policies $\bar{\mu}_i^*$. Should the policy for a specific arm choose not to pull that arm, discard it, and replace it with the highest-ranked arm from the set of arms that have not been selected yet. Once all arms are set to be pulled, let time advance.

• In the $t$th time step, repeat the above procedure starting with the set of arms pulled in the $(t-1)$st time step. If an arm is discarded, its place is taken by the highest-ranked arm according to our initial ranking from among the arms not selected yet; discarded arms can thus never be reintroduced.

In the remainder of this section, we rigorously develop the heuristic described above. We begin by considering the classical multiarmed bandit problem, which may be viewed as a relaxation of the irrevocable problem, and we describe a (standard) linear program for its solution.

## 3.1. Computing an Optimal Policy Without Restrictions on Irrevocability

It is useful to consider the classical multiarmed bandit problem (without the irrevocability constraint) in designing policies for the irrevocable multiarmed bandit problem. In finding an optimal policy for the classical multiarmed bandit problem, it suffices to restrict attention to Markovian policies. A Markovian policy in this case is specified as a collection of independent $\mathscr{A}$ valued random variables $\{\mu(s,t)\}$, each measurable with respect to $\sigma(X_0)$, satisfying $\sum_i \mathbf{1}_{\{\mu(s,t)_i \neq \phi_i\}} \leqslant k$, for all $s,t$. In particular, assuming the system is in state $s$ at time $t$, such a policy selects an action $a^t$ as the random variable $\mu(s,t)$, independent of past states and actions.

We denote an optimal Markovian policy for the classical bandit problem by $\mu_{\mathrm{UB}}^*$ and let $J_{\mathrm{UB}}^*(s,0)$ denote the value garnered under this policy starting in state $s$ at time $t$. Now, $J_{\mathrm{UB}}^*(s,0) \geqslant J^*(s,0)$ because a feasible policy for the irrevocable bandit problem is clearly feasible for the classical bandit problem. The policy $\mu_{\mathrm{UB}}^*$ may be found via the solution of the following linear program, $\mathrm{LP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$, specified by a parameter $\tilde{\pi}_0 \in \Delta_{\mathscr{S}}$ that determines the distribution of arm states at time $t=0$. Here, $\mathscr{A}^{\mathrm{feas}} = \{a \in \mathscr{A}: \sum_i \mathbf{1}_{\{a_i \neq \phi_i\}} \leqslant k\}$.

$$\max \sum_t \sum_{s,a} \pi(s,a,t) r(s,a),$$

$$\text{s.t. } \sum_a \pi(s,a,t) = \sum_{s',a'} P(s',a',s)\pi(s',a',t-1),$$

$$\forall t > 0, \ s \in \mathscr{S},$$

$$\pi(s,a,t) = 0, \quad \forall s,t, a \notin \mathscr{A}^{\mathrm{feas}}$$

$$\sum_a \pi(s,a,0) = \tilde{\pi}_0(s), \quad \forall s \in \mathscr{S},$$

$$\pi \geqslant 0,$$

where the variables are the state-action frequencies $\pi(s,a,t)$, which give the probability of being in state $s$ at time $t$ and choosing action $a$. The first set of constraints in the above program simply enforces the dynamics of the system, whereas the second set of constraints enforces the requirement that at most $k$ arms are simultaneously pulled at any point in time. An optimal solution to the program above may be used to construct a policy $\mu_{\mathrm{UB}}^*$ that attains

expected value $J_{\mathrm{UB}}^*(s,0)$ starting at any state $s$ for which $\tilde{\pi}_0(s) > 0$. In particular, given an optimal solution $\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}$ to $\mathrm{LP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$, one obtains such a policy by defining $\mu_{\mathrm{UB}}^*(s,t)$ as a random variable that takes value $a \in \mathscr{A}$ with probability $\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}(s,a,t)/\sum_a \pi^{\mathrm{opt}}(s,a,t)$. By construction, we have $E[J_{\mathrm{UB}}^*(s,0) \mid s \sim \tilde{\pi}_0] = \mathrm{OPT}(\mathrm{LP}(\tilde{\pi}_0))$. Efficient solution of the above program is not a tractable task, and we next consider making a further relaxation: instead of allowing up to $k$ pulls in a given time step, we require that this constraint only be met in expectation.

## 3.2. A Further Relaxation

Consider the following relaxation of the program $\mathrm{LP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$, $\mathrm{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$:

$$\max \sum_i \sum_t \sum_{s_i, a_i} \pi_i(s_i, a_i, t) r_i(s_i, a_i),$$

$$\text{s.t. } \sum_{a_i} \pi_i(s_i, a_i, t) = \sum_{s'_i, a'_i} P_i(s'_i, a'_i, s_i)\pi_i(s'_i, a'_i, t-1),$$

$$\forall t > 0, \ s_i \in \mathscr{S}_i, i,$$

$$\sum_i \left[ T - \sum_{s_i} \sum_t \pi_i(s_i, \phi_i, t) \right] \leqslant kT,$$

$$\sum_{a_i} \pi_i(s_i, a_i, 0) = \sum_{\bar{s}: \bar{s}_i = s_i} \tilde{\pi}_0(\bar{s}),$$

$$\pi \geqslant 0,$$

where $\pi_i(s_i, a_i, t)$ is the probability of the $i$th bandit being in state $s_i$ at time $t$ and choosing action $a_i$. The program above relaxes the requirement that up to $k$ arms be pulled in a given time step; instead, we now require that over the entire horizon at most $kT$ arms are pulled in *expectation*, where the expectation is over policy randomization and state evolution. The first set of equality constraints enforces individual arm dynamics, whereas the first inequality constraint enforces the requirement that at most $kT$ arms be pulled in expectation over the entire time horizon. Lemma 1 makes the notion of a relaxation to $\mathrm{LP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ precise; the proof may be found in the electronic companion, which is part of the online version that can be found at http://or.journal.informs.org/.

LEMMA 1. $\mathrm{OPT}(\mathrm{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)) \geqslant \mathrm{OPT}(\mathrm{LP}(\tilde{\pi}_0))$.

Given an optimal solution $\bar{\pi}$ to $\mathrm{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$, one may consider the policy $\mu^R$, that, assuming we are in state $s$ at time $t$, selects a random action $\mu^R(s,t)$, where $\mu^R(s,t) = a$ with probability $\prod_i (\bar{\pi}_i(s_i, a_i, t)/\sum_{a_i} \bar{\pi}_i(s_i, a_i, t))$ independent of the past. Noting that the action for each arm $i$ is chosen independently of all other arms, we use $\mu_i^R(s_i, t)$ to denote the induced policy for arm $i$. Assume for convenience that $\tilde{\pi}_0$ is degenerate and puts mass 1 on a single starting state, say $s$, we have by construction $J^{\mu^R}(s,0) = \mathrm{OPT}(\mathrm{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0))$. Moreover, we have that $\mu^R$ satisfies

$$E\left[ \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \sum_i \mathbf{1}_{\{\mu_i^R(s_i^t, t) \neq \phi_i\}} \,\middle|\, s^0 = s \right] \leqslant kT,$$

where the expectation is over random state transitions and endogenous policy randomization. Note that $\mu^R$ is not necessarily feasible; we ultimately require a policy that entails at most $k$ arm pulls in any time step and is irrevocable. We will next use $\mu^R$ to construct such a feasible policy.

### 3.3. The Packing Heuristic

We now construct our heuristic for the irrevocable bandit problem. In what follows, we will assume for convenience that $\tilde{\pi}_0$ is degenerate and puts mass 1 on a single starting state. That is, $\tilde{\pi}_0(s_i) = 1$ for some $s_i \in \mathscr{S}_i$ for all $i$. We first introduce some relevant notation. Given an optimal solution $\bar{\pi}$ to RLP($\tilde{\pi}_0$), define the value generated by arm $i$ as the random variable

$$R_i = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} r_i(s_i^t, \mu_i^R(s_i^t, t)),$$

and the "active time" of arm $i$, $T_i$ as the total number of pulls of arm $i$ entailed under that policy

$$T_i = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \mathbf{1}_{\{\mu_i^R(s_i^t, t) \neq \phi_i\}}.$$

The expected value of arm $i$, $E[R_i] = \sum_{s_i, a_i, t} \bar{\pi}_i(s_i, a_i, t) r_i(s_i, a_i)$, and the expected active time $E[T_i] = \sum_{s_i, a_i, t: a_i \neq \phi_i} \bar{\pi}_i(s_i, a_i, t)$. We will assume in what follows that $E[T_i] > 0$ for all $i$; otherwise, we simply consider eliminating those $i$ for which $E[T_i] = 0$. We will also assume for analytical convenience that $\sum_i E[T_i] = kT$. Neither assumption results in a loss of generality.

**Algorithm 1** (The packing heuristic)
1: Renumber bandits so that $E[R_1]/E[T_1]$ $\geqslant E[R_2]/E[T_2] \cdots \geqslant E[R_n]/E[T_n]$. Index bandits by variable $i$.
2: $l_i \leftarrow 0, a_i \leftarrow \phi_i$ for all $i$, $s \sim \tilde{\pi}_0(\cdot)$ {The "local time" of every arm is set to 0 and its designated action to the idle action. An initial state is drawn according to the initial state distribution $\tilde{\pi}_0$.}
3: $J \leftarrow 0$ {Total reward earned is initialized to 0.}
4: $\mathbb{X} \leftarrow \{1, 2, \ldots, k\}$, $\mathbb{A} \leftarrow k+1, \ldots, n\}$, $\mathbb{D} = \varnothing$. {Initialize the set of active ($\mathbb{X}$), available ($\mathbb{A}$), and discarded ($\mathbb{D}$) arms.}
5: **for** $t = 0$ to $T - 1$ **do**
6: **while** there exists an arm $i \in \mathbb{X}$ with $a_i = \phi_i$ **do** {Select up to $k$ arms to pull.}
7:   Select an $i \in \mathbb{X}$ with $a_i = \phi_i$ {In what follows, either select an action for arm $i$ or else discard it.}
8:   **while** $a_i = \phi_i$ and $l_i < T$ **do** {Attempt to select a pull action for arm $i$.}
9:     Select $a_i \propto \bar{\pi}_i(s_i, \cdot, l_i)$ {Select an action according to the solution to RLP($\bar{\pi}$).}
10:     $l_i \leftarrow l_i + 1$ {Increment arm $i$'s local time.}
11:   **end while**

12:   **if** $l_i = T$ and $a_i = \phi_i$ {Discard arm $i$ and activate next highest-ranked arm available.}
13:     $\mathbb{X} \leftarrow \mathbb{X} \backslash \{i\}, \mathbb{D} \leftarrow \mathbb{D} \cup \{i\}$ {Discard arm $i$.}
14:     **if** $\mathbb{A} \neq \varnothing$ **then** {There are available arms.}
15:       $j \leftarrow \min \mathbb{A}$ {Select highest-ranked available arm.}
16:       $\mathbb{X} \leftarrow \mathbb{X} \cup \{j\}, \mathbb{A} \leftarrow \mathbb{A} \backslash \{j\}$ {Add arm to active set.}
17:     **end if**
18:   **end if**
19: **end while**
20: **for** every $i \in \mathbb{X}$ **do** {Pull selected arms.}
21:   $s_i \sim P(s_i, a_i, \cdot)$ {Pull arm $i$; select next arm $i$ state according to its transition kernel assuming the use of action $a_i$.}
22:   $J \leftarrow J + r_i(s_i, a_i)$ {Earn rewards.}
23:   $a_i \leftarrow \phi_i$
24: **end for**
25: **end for**

Algorithm 1 presents the packing heuristic described loosely at the start of this section. In the event that we placed no restriction on the time horizon (i.e., we ignored the upper limit on $t$ in line 5 of the algorithm), we have by construction that the expected total reward earned under the above policy is precisely OPT(RLP($\tilde{\pi}_0$)); subsequent analysis will, in a sense, quantify the loss due to the fact that we do not count rewards earned by the algorithm beyond $t = T - 1$. In essence, RLP($\tilde{\pi}_0$) prescribes a policy wherein each arm generates a total reward with mean $E[R_i]$ using an expected total number of pulls $E[T_i]$, independent of other arms. Our algorithm may be visualized as one that "packs" as many of the pulls of various arms possible in a manner to meet feasibility constraints. In the next section, we present a theoretical analysis of the performance loss incurred in using the packing heuristic.

## 4. The Price of Irrevocability

This section establishes upper bounds on the performance loss incurred in using the irrevocable packing heuristic relative to an upper bound on the performance of an optimal policy for the classical multiarmed bandit problem. We restrict attention to a class of bandits whose arms satisfy a certain "decreasing returns" property; as we will subsequently discuss, this class subsumes an important canonical family of bandit problems related to learning applications. We establish that the packing heuristic always earns expected rewards that are within a factor of $1/8$ of an optimal scheme for such problems. We sharpen our analysis for problems in an asymptotic regime first proposed by Whittle, where the number of bandits $n$ is increased while keeping the ratio $k/n$ constant. In that regime, we present a performance guarantee that depend on the "degree of parallelism" in the problem, i.e., the ratio $k/n$ and also a substantially improved uniform guarantee. We begin with a description of the decreasing returns property.

## 4.1. The Decreasing Returns Property

Define for every $i$ and $l < T$, the random variable

$$L_i(l) = \sum_{t=0}^{l} \mathbf{1}_{\{\mu_i^R(s_i^t, t) \neq \phi_i\}}.$$

$L_i(l)$ tracks the number of times a given arm $i$ has been pulled under policy $\mu^R$ among the first $l+1$ steps of selecting an action for that arm. Further, define

$$R_i^m = \sum_{l=0}^{T-1} \mathbf{1}_{\{L_i(l) \leqslant m\}} r_i(s_i^l, \mu_i^R(s_i^l, l)).$$

$R_i^m$ is the random reward earned within the first $m$ pulls of arm $i$ under the policy $\mu^R$. The decreasing returns property roughly states that the expected incremental returns from allowing an additional pull of a bandit arm are, on average, decreasing. More precisely, we have

PROPERTY 1 (DECREASING RETURNS). $E[R_i^{m+1}] - E[R_i^m] \leqslant E[R_i^m] - E[R_i^{m-1}]$ *for all* $0 < m < T$.

One useful class of bandits from a modeling perspective that satisfy this property are bandits whose arms yield identically and independently distributed (i.i.d.) rewards of an a priori unknown, arm-specific mean. We refer to these as "learning problems." The following discussion makes this notion more precise.

**4.1.1. Learning Problems and the Decreasing Returns Property.** We consider the following generic class of "learning" problems: We have $n$ bandit arms. A pull of the $i$th arm yields an independent, random, nonnegative reward $X_i$ having density (or p.m.f.) $f_{\theta_i}(\cdot)$ where $\theta_i$ is an unknown parameter in some set $\Theta_i$. We may also assume that the reward earned is $h(X_i)$, where $h$ is a known, nonnegative, concave function. We assume that $\theta_i$ is drawn randomly at time 0 according to the density (or p.m.f) $g_i$, and is independent of all $\theta_j$ with $j \neq i$. Our objective is to arrive at an arm selection policy that adaptively selects a subset of $k$ arms to pull at each point in time with a view to maximizing total expected reward earned over $T$ periods. In the interest of tractability, we assume that $g_i$ belongs to some parametric class of functions $\mathcal{G}_i$, a member of which is specified by parameter $s_i \in \mathcal{S}_i$; we make this dependence precise with the notation $g_i^{s_i}$. Moreover, we assume that $g_i^{s_i}$ is a conjugate prior for $f_{\theta_i}$ for all $s_i \in \mathcal{S}_i$. That is, our posterior on $\theta_i$ given an observation $X_i$ remains in $\mathcal{G}_i$. Learning problems of this type are rather common and fit a number of modeling needs including, for instance, the fast-fashion and call-center staffing examples described in the introduction (see Caro and Gallien 2007, Arlotto et al. 2010, and also §5 for concrete examples within this framework). In addition, these problems are in a sense the canonical application of the bandit model (see Bellman 1956, Gittins and Wang 1992). For further applications, see the books by Bergman and Gittins (1985) and Berry and Fristedt (1985).

It is not hard to see that the learning problem we have posed can be cast as a multiarmed bandit problem in the sense of the model in §3. In particular, the state space for each arm is simply $\mathcal{S}_i$, with action space $\mathcal{A}_i = \{p_i, \phi_i\}$ consisting of two actions—pull and idle. The transition kernel $P_i$ is specified implicitly by Bayes' rule, and the reward function is defined according to

$$r_i(s_i, p_i) = \int_{x, \theta} x f_{\theta_i}(x) g_i^{s_i}(\theta_i) \, d\theta_i \, dx.$$

By Bayes' rule, rewards from a given arm (as defined above) will then satisfy the following intuitive property reflecting the consistency of our estimate of the mean reward from a bandit arm:

$$r_i(s_i, p_i) = \sum_{s_i' \in \mathcal{S}_i} P_i(s_i, p, s_i') r_i(s_i', p_i), \quad \forall s_i \in \mathcal{S}_i.$$

In light of the following lemma, this broad class of learning problems satisfies the decreasing returns property. In particular, we have the following result, whose proof may be found in the appendix:

LEMMA 2. *Given a multiarmed bandit problem with* $\mathcal{A}_i = \{p_i, \phi_i\}$ $\forall i$, *and*

$$r_i(s_i, p_i) \geqslant \sum_{s_i' \in \mathcal{S}_i} P_i(s_i, p_i, s_i') r_i(s_i', p_i), \quad \forall i, s_i \in \mathcal{S}_i,$$

*we must have* $E[R_i^{m+1}] - E[R_i^m] \leqslant E[R_i^m] - E[R_i^{m-1}]$ *for all* $0 < m < T$.

## 4.2. A Uniform Bound on the Price of Irrevocability

For convenience of exposition we assume that $T$ is even; addressing the odd case requires essentially identical proofs but cumbersome notation. We reorder the bandits in decreasing order of $E[R_i]/E[T_i]$ as in the packing heuristic. Let us define $H^* = \min\{j: \sum_{i=1}^{j} E[T_i] \geqslant kT/2\}$. Thus, $H^*$ is the set of bandits that take up approximately half the budget on total expected pulls. Next, let us define for all $i \leqslant H^*$, random variables $\tilde{R}_i$ and $\tilde{T}_i$ according to $\tilde{R}_i = R_i$, $\tilde{T}_i = T_i$ for all $i < H^*$ and $\tilde{R}_{H^*} = \alpha R_{H^*}$ and $\tilde{T}_{H^*} = \alpha T_{H^*}$, where $\alpha = (kT/2 - \sum_{i=1}^{H^*-1} E[T_i])/E[T_{H^*}]$. We begin with a preliminary lemma whose proof may be found in the appendix:

LEMMA 3. $\sum_{i=1}^{H^*} E[\tilde{R}_i] \geqslant \frac{1}{2} \text{OPT}(\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0))$.

We next compare the expected reward earned by a certain subset of bandits with indices no larger than $H^*$. The significance of the subset of bandits we define will be seen later in the proof of Lemma 6—we will see there that all bandits in this subset will begin operation prior to time $T/2$ in a run of the packing heuristic. In particular, define $R_{1/2} = \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \mathbf{1}_{\{\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} T_j < kT/2\}} R_i$. We have

LEMMA 4. $E[R_{1/2}] \geqslant \frac{1}{4} \text{OPT}(\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0))$.

Before moving on to our main lemma, which translates the above guarantees to a guarantee on the performance of the packing heuristic, we need to establish one additional technical fact. Recall that $R_i^m$ is the reward earned by bandit $i$ in the first $m$ pulls of this bandit under policy $\mu^R$. Also, note that $R_i^T = R_i$. Exploiting the assumed decreasing returns property, we have the following lemma whose proof may be found in the appendix:

LEMMA 5. *For bandits satisfying the decreasing returns property* (*Property* 1),

$$E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \mathbf{1}_{\{\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} T_j < kT/2\}} R_i^{T/2}\right] \geqslant \frac{1}{2} E[R_{1/2}].$$

We have thus far established estimates for total expected rewards earned assuming implicitly that bandits are pulled in a serial fashion in order of their rank. The following lemma connects these estimates to the expected reward earned under the $\mu^{\text{packing}}$ policy (given by the packing heuristic) using a simple sample-path argument. In particular, the following lemma shows that the expected rewards under the $\mu^{\text{packing}}$ policy are at least as large as $E[\sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \mathbf{1}_{\{\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} T_j < kT/2\}} R_i^{T/2}]$.

LEMMA 6. *Assuming* $\tilde{\pi}_0(s) = 1$, *we have*

$$J^{\mu^{\text{packing}}}(s, 0) \geqslant E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \mathbf{1}_{\{\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} T_j < kT/2\}} R_i^{T/2}\right].$$

PROOF. For a given sample path of the system define $h = (H^*) \wedge \min\{i: \sum_{j=1}^{i} T_j \geqslant kT/2\}$. On this sample path, it must be that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \mathbf{1}_{\{\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} T_j < kT/2\}} R_i^{T/2} = \sum_{i=1}^{h} R_i^{T/2}. \tag{1}$$

We claim that arms $1, 2, \ldots, h$ are all first pulled at times $t < T/2$ under $\mu^{\text{packing}}$. Assume to the contrary that this were not the case and recall that arms are considered in order of index under $\mu^{\text{packing}}$, so that an arm with index $i$ is pulled for the first time no later than the first time arm $l$ is pulled for $l > i$. Let $h'$ be the highest arm index among the arms pulled at time $t = T/2 - 1$, so that $h' < h$. It must be that $\sum_{j=1}^{h'} T_j \geqslant kT/2$. However, then,

$$H^* \wedge \min\left\{i: \sum_{j=1}^{i} T_j \geqslant kT/2\right\} \leqslant h',$$

which is a contradiction. Thus, because every one of the arms $1, 2, \ldots, h$ is first pulled at times $t < T/2$, each such arm may be pulled for at least $T/2$ time steps prior to time $T$ (the horizon). Consequently, we have that the total rewards earned on this sample path under policy $\mu^{\text{packing}}$ are at least $\sum_{i=1}^{h} R_i^{T/2}$. Using identity (1) and taking an expectation over sample paths yields the result.

We are ready to establish our main theorem, which provides a uniform bound on the performance loss incurred in using the packing heuristic policy relative to an optimal policy with no restrictions on exploration. In particular, we have that the price of irrevocability is uniformly bounded for bandits satisfying the decreasing returns property.

THEOREM 1. *For multiarmed bandits satisfying the decreasing returns property* (*Property* 1), *we have*

$$J^{\mu^{\text{packing}}}(s, 0) \geqslant \tfrac{1}{8} J^*(s, 0).$$

PROOF. We have from Lemmas 4–6 that $J^{\mu^{\text{packing}}}(s, 0) \geqslant (1/8)\text{OPT}(\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0))$, where $\tilde{\pi}_0(s) = 1$. We know from Lemma 1 that $\text{OPT}(\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)) \geqslant \text{OPT}(\text{LP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)) = J^*(s, 0)$ from which the result follows.

### 4.3. The Price of Irrevocability in Whittle's Asymptotic Regime

This section considers an asymptotic parameter regime where one may establish a stronger bound than that in Theorem 1. In order to describe this regime we begin with an "unscaled" problem with $n_0$ arms in which we are allowed up to $k_0$ simultaneous plays over a time horizon of $T$. We will assume that these $n_0$ arms have identical specifications and start in identical states; we make this assumption for convenience of exposition (i.e., both Theorems 2 and 3 hold without making such an assumption). We next consider a sequence of problems indexed by $N$, where the $N$th problem has $N$ copies of each of the $n_0$ arms in the unscaled problem, and we allow $Nk_0$ simultaneous plays over $T$ time periods. Our goal is to understand the price of irrevocability as $N$ gets large. Notice that this regime is still relevant for learning problems because we are not scaling the time horizon, $T$, and are not restricting the kernels $P_i$ in any way. One concrete setting where this regime is relevant is that of a catalogue marketeer that must dynamically decide on mailing policies for a very large number of potential customers (see Bertsimas and Mersereau 2007). This regime is analogous to one considered by Whittle (1988) and Weber and Weiss (1990) for irreducible bandit problems and the *average* reward criterion. The finite-horizon criterion and the fact that the bandits we consider may be (and, for learning applications, will be) non-irreducible rule out the mean-field analysis techniques of Weber and Weiss (1990).

Letting $R_{i, N}$ and $T_{i, N}$ denote the value generated by arm $i$ and its active time (as defined in the previous section) for the $N$th problem, the following facts are apparent by our assumption that each bandit is identical:

1. $R_{i, N} \stackrel{d}{=} R_{i, N'}$, and $T_{i, N} \stackrel{d}{=} T_{i, N'}$ for all $N, N'$ and $i \leqslant \min(n_0 N, n_0 N')$.

2. For every $N$, the collection of random variables $R_{1, N}, R_{2, N}, \ldots, R_{n_0 N, N}$ are i.i.d., as are the random variables $T_{1, N}, T_{2, N}, \ldots, T_{n_0 N, N}$.

3. $E[T_{i, N}] = k_0 T / n_0$ for all $N$ and $i \leqslant n_0 N$.

In light of the above facts, we will eliminate the subscript $N$ from $R_{i,N}$ and $T_{i,N}$. We note then, that for the $N$th problem, $\text{OPT}(\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)) = \sum_{i=1}^{Nn_0} E[R_i]$.

We prove two main bounds in this section. We first present a performance guarantee that illustrates a dependence on the ratio $k_0/n_0$. This ratio may be interpreted as the "degree of parallelism" inherent in the multiarmed bandit problem at hand. We then prove a performance guarantee that holds in an asymptotic regime where $N$ gets large (but is otherwise uniform over problem parameters). This bound improves the bound in Theorem 1 by a factor of 2.

**4.3.1. Impact of the "Degree of Parallelism" ($k_0/n_0$).** Let us define the random variable $\tau_N = \min\{j: \sum_{i=1}^{j} T_i \geq k_0 NT\}$. We have

LEMMA 7. *In the $N$th system, all arms with indices smaller than or equal to $\tau_N \wedge n_0 N$ begin operation prior to time $T$. Moreover, for any $\epsilon > 0$ and almost all $\omega \in \Omega$, $\exists N^\epsilon(\omega)$, such that*

$$\tau_N \geq Nn_0 - (1+\epsilon)\sqrt{Nn_0 \log \log Nn_0}$$

*for all $N \geq N^\epsilon(\omega)$.*

The above lemma is proved in the appendix. The lemma is remarkable in that it states that for large-scale problems (i.e., large $N$), almost all bandits begin operation prior to the end of the time horizon. We next translate this fact to a bound on performance. To this end, for every $N$, let $\sigma^N(\cdot)$ denote a (random) permutation of $\{1, \ldots, Nn_0\}$ satisfying $R_i > R_j d \implies \sigma(i) < \sigma(j)$. Further, for every $l \leq Nn_0$, define the random variable $M_N(l) = \sum_{i:\sigma(i) \leq l} R_i$. $M_N(l)$ is thus the realized reward of the top $l$ arms, assuming the packing heuristic was not terminated at the end of the time horizon. Define for $\alpha \in [0, 1]$,

$$\gamma_N(\alpha) = E[M_N(\lceil Nn_0\alpha \rceil)]/E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{Nn_0} R_i\right].$$

Define $\limsup_{N \to \infty} \gamma_N(\alpha) \triangleq \gamma(\alpha)$; this quantity is naturally interpreted as the ratio between the expected contribution of an arm restricted to realizations that are in the top $\alpha$ fractile and the expected contribution of an arm. We then have the following theorem, which indicates the impact of the "degree of parallelism":

THEOREM 2.
$$\liminf_{N \to \infty} \frac{J_N^{\mu^{\text{packing}}}(s, 0)}{J_N^*(s, 0)} \geq 1 - \gamma(\min(k_0/n_0, 1 - k_0/n_0)).$$

The above bound (which is established in the electronic companion) provides an indication of the role played by the ratio $k_0/n_0$. Loosely, it may be interpreted as stating that the performance loss incurred by the packing heuristic is no more than the relative contribution from the top $k_0/n_0$ percent of arms. Although one may characterize the $\gamma$ function given the distribution of rewards from a given arm $R_i$, a fair criticism of this bound is that it is difficult to characterize $\gamma$ given only primitive problem data; we next

provide a uniform performance bound valid for Whittle's regime.

**4.3.2. A Uniform Guarantee for Whittle's Regime.** The program we will follow in order to establish a uniform performance guarantee for Whittle's regime is essentially identical to that used in the proof of Theorem 1. However, in place of Lemma 4 we will use the following sharper estimate (obtained in the electronic companion) that is valid for Whittle's regime:

LEMMA 8. *For the $N$th bandit problem, we have*

$$E[R_{1/2}] \geq \tfrac{1}{2}(1 - \kappa(N))\text{OPT}(\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)),$$

*where $\kappa(N) = O(N^{-1/2+d})$ and $d > 0$ is arbitrary.*

Lemmas 8, 5, and 6 together yield the following theorem.

THEOREM 3. *For the $N$th multiarmed bandit problem,*

$$J^{\mu^{\text{packing}}}(s, 0) \geq \tfrac{1}{4}(1 - \kappa(N))J^*(s, 0),$$

*where $\kappa(N) = O(N^{-1/2+d})$ for arbitrary $d > 0$ and we assume $s_i = s_j \; \forall i, j$.*

Together, Theorems 2 and 3 indicate that the packing heuristic is likely to perform well in Whittle's asymptotic regime.

# 5. Computational Experiments

This section presents a computational investigation of the performance of the packing heuristic for the irrevocable multiarmed bandit problem with a view to gauge its practical efficacy. We also examine as an alternative heuristic for the irrevocable bandit problem a natural modification to Whittle's heuristic. Finally, we examine the performance of Whittle's (nonirrevocable) heuristic itself, paying special attention to the number of arm "revocations" under that heuristic. In addition, we benchmark the performance of all of these schemes against a computable upper bound on the expected reward for any policy (with no restrictions on revocability); specifically, the bound is given by the objective function of problem $\text{LP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ in §3.2 for an optimal solution. The problem $\text{LP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ for both computation of the upper bound and the packing heuristic is solved with a tolerance of $10^{-6}$; the computational algorithm is described in the next section. We consider a number of large-scale bandit problems drawn from a generative family of problems to be discussed shortly and demonstrate the following points: First, we show that the packing heuristic consistently demonstrates performance within about 10% to 20% of an upper bound on the performance of an optimal policy for the classical multiarmed bandit problem. This upper bound is also an upper bound to the performance of any irrevocable scheme. The number of "revocations" under Whittle's heuristic can be large in a variety of operating regimes. A natural modification to Whittle's heuristic making it feasible for the irrevocable bandit problem typically

performs 15% to 20% worse than Whittle's heuristic in these regimes. The packing heuristic *can recover a substantial portion of the above gap* (between 50% and 100%) in most cases.

**The Generative Model.** We consider multiarmed bandit problems with $n$ arms, up to $k$ of which may be pulled simultaneously at any time. The $i$th arm corresponds to a binomial $(m, P_i)$ random variable where $m$ is fixed and known, and $P_i$ is unknown but drawn from a beta $(\alpha_i, \beta_i)$ prior distribution. Assuming we choose to "pull" arm $i$ at some point, we realize a random outcome $M_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, m\}$. $M_i$ is a binomial $(m, P_i)$ random variable where $P_i$ is itself a beta $(\alpha_i, \beta_i)$ random variable. We receive a reward of $r_i M_i$ and update the prior distribution parameters according to $\alpha_i \leftarrow \alpha_i + M_i$, $\beta_i \leftarrow \beta_i + m - M_i$. By selecting the initial values of $\alpha_i$ and $\beta_i$ for each arm appropriately, we can control for the initial level of uncertainty in the value of $P_i$; by "level of uncertainty" we mean the coefficient of variation of $P_i$, which is defined according to $\sigma(P_i)/E[P_i]$. This model is applicable to the dynamic assortment selection problem studied in Caro and Gallien (2007), with each arm representing a product of uncertain popularity and $M_i$ representing the uncertain number of product $i$ sales over a single period in which that product is offered for sale; the only difference with that work is that as opposed to assuming binomial demand, the authors there assume Poisson demand.

## 5.1. I.I.D. Bandits

We consider bandits with $(n, k) \in \{(500, 75), (500, 125), (100, 15), (100, 25)\}$. These dimensions are representative of large-scale applications such as the dynamic assortment problem (see Caro and Gallien 2007). For each value of $(n, k)$ we consider time horizons $T = 40, 25$, and 10 (again, horizon lengths of 40 and 25 reflect the dynamic assortment applications, assuming weekly restocking decisions). We consider three different values for the coefficient of variation in arm bias: $cv = \{1, 2.5, 4\}$. These coefficients of variation represent, respectively, a low, moderate, and high degree of a priori uncertainty in arm bias (or in the context of the dynamic assortment application, for example, product popularity). For each combination of the parameters above, we evaluate the packing heuristic, Whittle's heuristic, and a natural "irrevocable" modification to Whittle's heuristic. In particular, this irrevocable modification selects, at every point in time, to pull the $k$ arms with the highest Gittin's index among all arms that are currently active or else have never been pulled (as opposed to all arms, as would Whittle's heuristic).

The results are summarized in Table 1. We make the following observations:

**Impact of Initial Coefficient of Variation** ($cv$). Higher coefficients of variation in initial arm bias result in a degradation of performance relative to an upper bound on achievable performance under any (potentially nonirrevocable)

policy. The degradation is mild and not surprising given that this represents a regime where one can potentially gain from exploring a large number of arms before making a decision on the arms to pull for longer periods of time. On a separate note, the gap in performance between the irrevocable modification to Whittle's heuristic and Whittle's heuristic itself grows with increasing coefficients of variation in initial arm bias, as do the number of revocations under Whittle's heuristic. The packing heuristic recovers a significant portion of this gap.

**Impact of Time Horizon** ($T$). For longer time horizons ($T = 25$ and $T = 40$), it is again reasonable to expect that Whittle's heuristic would entail a large number of revocations (because one may effectively explore all arms before settling on the best). We expect the irrevocable modification to Whittle's heuristic to perform poorly here, as indeed it does. The performance of the packing heuristic is surprisingly consistent, providing a significant advantage over the irrevocable modification to Whittle's heuristic, while losing little in performance relative to Whittle's heuristic. For short time horizons ($T = 10$), all three heuristics are within a few percent of each other with the packing heuristic being dominated by Whittle's heuristic and its irrevocable modification.

To summarize, the packing heuristic provides excellent performance across regimes characterized by a moderate to high degree of uncertainty in initial arm bias and a relatively longer time horizon; it provides a significant improvement over a natural irrevocable modification to Whittle's heuristic in these regimes while being almost competitive with Whittle's heuristic itself. At low levels of uncertainty and/or short time horizons, the packing heuristic is inferior to both Whittle's heuristic and also its irrevocable modification, albeit by a small margin.

## 5.2. Non-I.I.D. Bandit Arms

We now consider a model with an equal number of three different categories of bandits: each category has a distinct $cv$, but the ratio $(\alpha/\beta)$ is equal across categories. The maximum number of arrivals in a given time slot is $m = 1$. The results are summarized in Table 2. We see that for moderate to long time horizons, the packing heuristic is effectively *competitive* with Whittle's heuristic even though the latter resorts to a very large number of arm revocations! For these time horizons, the irrevocable modification to Whittle's heuristic is substantially inferior to both the packing heuristic and Whittle's heuristic; this is intuitive given the large number or revocations incurred by Whittle's heuristic for these time horizons. For short time horizons, all three heuristics are quite close, with the packing heuristic being marginally inferior to Whittle's heuristic and its irrevocable modification. We thus see the same merits for the packing heuristic when the bandit arms are not i.i.d. In fact, the advantages of the packing heuristic are further accentuated in this setting: the heuristic appears to provide levels of performance essentially identical to Whittle's

**Table 1.** Computational summary for I.I.D. bandits.

| CV (cv) | Horizon (T) | Arms (n) | Simultaneous pulls (k) | Performance: $J^\mu/J^*$ | | | Revocations Whittle |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | | | Packing | Whittle irrev | Whittle | |
| High (4) | 40 | 500 | 125 | 0.81 | 0.64 | 0.89 | 1,685 |
| | 40 | 100 | 25 | 0.80 | 0.64 | 0.88 | 340 |
| | 40 | 500 | 75 | 0.79 | 0.68 | 0.87 | 723 |
| | 40 | 100 | 15 | 0.79 | 0.68 | 0.86 | 149 |
| | 25 | 500 | 125 | 0.80 | 0.68 | 0.86 | 1,190 |
| | 25 | 100 | 25 | 0.80 | 0.68 | 0.86 | 237 |
| | 25 | 500 | 75 | 0.78 | 0.73 | 0.84 | 474 |
| | 25 | 100 | 15 | 0.78 | 0.73 | 0.84 | 95 |
| | 10 | 500 | 125 | 0.79 | 0.78 | 0.83 | 431 |
| | 10 | 100 | 25 | 0.79 | 0.77 | 0.84 | 86 |
| | 10 | 500 | 75 | 0.78 | 0.79 | 0.80 | 48 |
| | 10 | 100 | 15 | 0.78 | 0.78 | 0.80 | 11 |
| Moderate (2.5) | 40 | 500 | 125 | 0.87 | 0.79 | 0.94 | 519 |
| | 40 | 100 | 25 | 0.85 | 0.78 | 0.94 | 103 |
| | 40 | 500 | 75 | 0.86 | 0.82 | 0.93 | 112 |
| | 40 | 100 | 15 | 0.85 | 0.81 | 0.92 | 25 |
| | 25 | 500 | 125 | 0.85 | 0.80 | 0.92 | 336 |
| | 25 | 100 | 25 | 0.84 | 0.79 | 0.92 | 67 |
| | 25 | 500 | 75 | 0.83 | 0.84 | 0.91 | 72 |
| | 25 | 100 | 15 | 0.82 | 0.83 | 0.89 | 15 |
| | 10 | 500 | 125 | 0.82 | 0.81 | 0.85 | 84 |
| | 10 | 100 | 25 | 0.82 | 0.82 | 0.85 | 20 |
| | 10 | 500 | 75 | 0.80 | 0.86 | 0.86 | 26 |
| | 10 | 100 | 15 | 0.80 | 0.86 | 0.86 | 4 |
| Low (1) | 40 | 500 | 125 | 0.93 | 0.95 | 0.99 | 60 |
| | 40 | 100 | 25 | 0.91 | 0.93 | 0.98 | 14 |
| | 40 | 500 | 75 | 0.92 | 0.99 | 0.99 | 17 |
| | 40 | 100 | 15 | 0.90 | 0.99 | 0.99 | 3 |
| | 25 | 500 | 125 | 0.91 | 0.97 | 0.98 | 34 |
| | 25 | 100 | 25 | 0.91 | 0.95 | 0.98 | |
| | 25 | 500 | 75 | 0.92 | 0.98 | 0.98 | 19 |
| | 25 | 100 | 15 | 0.90 | 0.98 | 0.98 | 3 |
| | 10 | 500 | 125 | 0.89 | 0.95 | 0.96 | 19 |
| | 10 | 100 | 25 | 0.89 | 0.95 | 0.96 | 3 |
| | 10 | 500 | 75 | 0.90 | 0.96 | 0.96 | 11 |
| | 10 | 100 | 15 | 0.89 | 0.96 | 0.96 | 2 |

*Notes.* Each row represents the performance of three different heuristics for $\alpha = 0.2$, $m = 2$, and $\beta$ chosen to satisfy the corresponding coefficient of variation. Performance for each instance was computed from 3,000 simulations of that instance (resulting in 95% confidence intervals under 4%). Performance is measured relative to an upper bound on $J^*$ without irrevocability restrictions.

**Table 2.** Computational summary for non-I.I.D. bandits.

| Horizon (T) | Arms (n) | Simultaneous pulls (k) | Performance: $J^\mu/J^*$ | | | Revocations Whittle |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | | Packing | Whittle irrev | Whittle | |
| 40 | 501 | 125 | 0.91 | 0.80 | 0.92 | 1,983 |
| 40 | 99 | 25 | 0.91 | 0.80 | 0.92 | 389 |
| 40 | 501 | 75 | 0.88 | 0.80 | 0.91 | 1,055 |
| 40 | 99 | 15 | 0.88 | 0.79 | 0.90 | 214 |
| 25 | 501 | 125 | 0.90 | 0.83 | 0.92 | 1,376 |
| 25 | 99 | 25 | 0.88 | 0.82 | 0.92 | 264 |
| 25 | 501 | 75 | 0.87 | 0.83 | 0.90 | 699 |
| 25 | 99 | 15 | 0.88 | 0.83 | 0.89 | 142 |
| 10 | 501 | 125 | 0.89 | 0.90 | 0.92 | 322 |
| 10 | 99 | 25 | 0.88 | 0.90 | 0.91 | 59 |
| 10 | 501 | 75 | 0.85 | 0.86 | 0.87 | 120 |
| 10 | 99 | 15 | 0.83 | 0.88 | 0.88 | 26 |

*Notes.* Each row represents the performance of three different heuristics for $M = 2$, $\alpha/\beta = 0.05$. Each instance consisted of an equal number of bandits with CVs of 1, 2.5, 4.0. Performance for each instance was computed from 3,000 simulations of that instance (resulting in 95% confidence intervals under 4%).

heuristic, although the latter entails a large number of arm revocations.

# 6. Fast Computation

This section considers the computational effort required to implement the packing heuristic. We develop a computational scheme that makes the packing heuristic substantially easier to implement than popular index heuristics such as Whittle's heuristic and thus establish that the heuristic is viable from a computational perspective.

The key computational step in implementing the packing heuristic is the solution of the linear program $\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$. Assuming that $|\mathcal{S}_i| = O(\Sigma)$ and $|\mathcal{A}_i| = O(A)$ for all $i$, this linear program has $O(nTA\Sigma)$ variables, and each Newton iteration of a general-purpose interior point method will require $O((nTA\Sigma)^3)$ steps. An interior point method that exploits the fact that bandit arms are coupled via a single constraint will require $O(n(TA\Sigma)^3)$ computational steps at each iteration. We develop a combinatorial scheme to solve this linear program that is in spirit similar to the classical Dantzig-Wolfe dual decomposition algorithm. In contrast with Dantzig-Wolfe decomposition, our scheme is efficient. In particular, the scheme requires $O(nTA\Sigma^2 \log(kT))$ computational steps to solve $\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$, making it a significantly faster solution alternative to the schemes alluded to above. Equipped with this fast scheme, it is notable that using the packing heuristic requires $O(nA\Sigma^2 \log(kT))$ computations per time step amortized over the time horizon, which will typically be substantially less than the $O(nA\Sigma^2 T)$ computations required per time step for index policy heuristics such as Whittle's heuristic.

Our scheme employs a "dual decomposition" of RLP $(\tilde{\pi}_0)$. The key technical difficulty we must overcome in developing our computational scheme for the solution of $\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ is the nondifferentiability of the dual function corresponding to $\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ at an optimal-dual solution, which prevents us from recovering an optimal or near-optimal policy by direct minimization of the dual function.

## 6.1. An Overview of the Scheme

For each bandit arm $i$, define the polytope $D_i(\tilde{\pi}_0) \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{S}_i||\mathcal{A}_i|T}$ of permissible state-action frequencies for that bandit arm specified via the constraints of $\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ relevant to that arm.

A point within this polytope, $\pi_i$, corresponds to a set of valid state-action frequencies for the $i$th bandit arm. With some abuse of notation, we denote the expected reward from this arm under $\pi_i$ by the "value" function

$$R_i(\pi_i) = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \pi_i(s_i, a_i, t) r_i(s_i, a_i).$$

In addition, denote the expected number of pulls of bandit arm $i$ under $\pi_i$ by

$$T_i(\pi_i) = T - \sum_{s_i} \sum_{t} \pi_i(s_i, \phi_i, t).$$

We understand that both $R_i(\cdot)$ and $T_i(\cdot)$ are defined over the domain $D_i(\tilde{\pi}_0)$.

Thus we may rewrite $\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ in the following form:

$$\max \sum_i R_i(\pi_i),$$

$$\text{s.t.} \sum_i T_i(\pi_i) \leqslant kT. \tag{2}$$

The Lagrangian dual of this program is $\text{DRLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$:

$$\min \lambda kT + \sum_i \max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda T_i(\pi_i)),$$

$$\text{s.t.} \lambda \geqslant 0.$$

The above program is convex. In particular, the objective is a convex function of $\lambda$. We will show that strong duality applies to the dual pair of programs above, so that the optimal solutions to the two programs have identical value. Next, we will observe that for a given value of $\lambda$, it is simple to compute $\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda T_i(\pi_i))$ via the solution of a dynamic program over the state space of arm $i$ (a fast procedure). Finally, it is simple to derive useful a priori lower and upper bounds on the optimal dual solution $\lambda^*$. Thus, in order to solve the dual program, one may simply employ a bisection search over $\lambda$. Because for a given value of $\lambda$, the objective may be evaluated via the solution of $n$ simple dynamic programs, the overall procedure of solving the dual program $\text{DRLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ is fast.

What we ultimately require is the optimal solution to the primal program $\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$. One natural way we might hope to do this (that ultimately will not work) is the following: Having computed an optimal-dual solution $\lambda^*$, one may hope to recover an optimal-primal solution, $\pi^*$ (which is what we ultimately want), via the solution of the problem

$$\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda^* T_i(\pi_i)) \tag{3}$$

for each $i$. This is the typical dual decomposition procedure. Unfortunately, this last step *need not* necessarily yield a feasible solution to $\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$. In particular, solving (3) for $\lambda = \lambda^* + \epsilon$ may result in an arbitrarily suboptimal solution for any $\epsilon > 0$, whereas solving (3) for a $\lambda \leqslant \lambda^*$ may yield an infeasible solution to $\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$. The technical reason for this is that the Lagrangian dual function for $\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi})$ may be nondifferentiable at $\lambda^*$. These difficulties are far from pathological, and Example 1 illustrates how they may arise in a very simple example.

EXAMPLE 1. This example illustrates that the dual function may be nondifferentiable at an optimal solution and that it is not sufficient to solve (3) for $\lambda \leqslant \lambda^*$ or $\lambda = \lambda^* + \epsilon$ for an $\epsilon > 0$ arbitrarily small. Specifically, consider the case where we have $n = 2$ identical bandits, $T = 1$ and $K = 1$. Each bandit starts in state $s$, and two actions can be chosen for it, namely, $a$ and the idling action $\phi$. The rewards are

$r(s, a) = 1$ and $r(s, \phi) = 0$. Thus, RLP$(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ for this specific case is given by

$$\max \ \pi_1(s, a, 0) + \pi_2(s, a, 0),$$

$$\text{s.t.} \ \pi_1(s, a, 0) + \pi_2(s, a, 0) \leqslant 1,$$

where $\pi_i \in D_i(\tilde{\pi}_0)$, $i = 1, 2$. Clearly, the optimal objective function value for the above optimization problem is 1. The Lagrangian dual function for the above problem is

$$g(\lambda) = \lambda + \max_{\pi_1(s, a, 0)} \pi_1(s, a, 0)(1 - \lambda)$$
$$+ \max_{\pi_2(s, a, 0)} \pi_2(s, a, 0)(1 - \lambda)$$
$$= \begin{cases} 2 - \lambda & \lambda \leqslant 1 \\ \lambda & \lambda > 1. \end{cases}$$

Note that the dual function is minimized at $\lambda^* = 1$, which is a point of nondifferentiability. Moreover, solving (3) at $\lambda^* + \epsilon$ for any $\epsilon > 0$ gives $\pi_1(s, a, 0) = \pi_2(s, a, 0) = 0$, which is clearly suboptimal. Also, a solution for $0 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant \lambda^*$ is $\pi_1(s, a, 0) = \pi_2(s, a, 0) = 1$, which is clearly infeasible.

Notice that in the above example, the average of the solutions to problem (3) for $\lambda = \lambda^* - \epsilon$ and $\lambda = \lambda^* + \epsilon$ *does* yield a feasible, optimal-primal solution, $\pi_1(s, a, 0) = \pi_2(s, a, 0) = 1/2$. We overcome the difficulties presented by the nondifferentiability of the dual function by computing both upper and lower approximations to $\lambda^*$ and computing solutions to (3) for both of these approximations. We then consider as our candidate solution to RLP$(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ a certain convex combination of the two solutions. In particular, we propose Algorithm 2, which takes as input the specification of the bandit and a tolerance parameter $\epsilon$. The algorithm produces a feasible solution to RLP$(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ that is within an additive factor of $2\epsilon$ of optimal.

**Algorithm 2** (RLPsolver)
1: $\lambda^{\text{feas}} \leftarrow r_{\max} + \delta$, for any $\delta > 0$, $\lambda^{\text{infeas}} \leftarrow 0$.
2: For all $i$, $\pi_i^{\text{feas}} \leftarrow \pi_i \in \arg\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i)$
      $-\lambda^{\text{feas}}T_i(\pi_i))$, $\pi_i^{\text{infeas}} \leftarrow \pi_i \in \arg\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i)$
      $-\lambda^{\text{infeas}}T_i(\pi_i))$.
3: **while** $\lambda^{\text{feas}} - \lambda^{\text{infeas}} > \epsilon/kT$ **do**
4: $\quad \lambda \leftarrow \dfrac{\lambda^{\text{feas}} + \lambda^{\text{infeas}}}{2}$
5: $\quad$ **for** $i = 1$ to $n$ **do**
6: $\quad\quad \pi_i^* \leftarrow \pi_i \in \arg\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda T_i(\pi_i))$.
7: $\quad$ **end for**
8: $\quad$ **if** $\sum_{i=1}^{n} T(\pi_i^*) > kT$ **then**
9: $\quad\quad \lambda^{\text{infeas}} \leftarrow \lambda$, $\pi_i^{\text{infeas}} \leftarrow \pi_i^*$, $\forall i$
10: $\quad$ **else**
11: $\quad\quad \lambda^{\text{feas}} \leftarrow \lambda$, $\pi_i^{\text{feas}} \leftarrow \pi_i^*$, $\forall i$
12: $\quad$ **end if**
13: **end while**
14: **if** $\sum_i T_i(\pi_i^{\text{infeas}}) - T_i(\pi_i^{\text{feas}}) > 0$ **then**

15: $\quad \alpha \leftarrow \dfrac{kT - \sum_i T_i(\pi_i^{\text{feas}})}{\sum_i T_i(\pi_i^{\text{infeas}}) - T_i(\pi_i^{\text{feas}})} \wedge 1$
16: **else**
17: $\quad \alpha \leftarrow 0$
18: **end if**
19: **for** $i = 1$ to $n$ **do**
20: $\quad \pi_i^{\text{RLP}} \leftarrow \alpha \pi_i^{\text{infeas}} + (1 - \alpha)\pi_i^{\text{feas}}$
21: **end for**

It is clear that the bisection search above will require $O(\log(r_{\max}kT/\epsilon))$ steps (where $r_{\max} = \max_{i, s_i, a_i} r(s_i, a_i)$). At each step in this search, we solve $n$ problems of the type in (3), i.e., $\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda T_i(\pi_i))$. These subproblems may be reduced to a dynamic program over the state space of a single arm. In particular, we define a reward function $\tilde{R}_i \colon \mathscr{S}_i \to \mathbb{R}_+$ according to $\tilde{R}_i(s_i, a_i) = r_i(s_i, a_i) - \lambda 1_{a_i \neq \phi_i}$ and compute the value of an optimal policy starting at state $s_{0, i}$ (where $s_0$ is that state on which $\tilde{\pi}_0$ places mass 1) assuming $\tilde{R}_i$ as the reward function. This requires $O(S^2 AT)$ steps per arm. Thus, the RLP Solver algorithm requires a total of $O(nS^2 AT \log(r_{\max}kT/\epsilon))$ computational steps prior to termination. The following theorem, proved in the appendix, establishes the quality of the solution produced by the RLP Solver algorithm:

THEOREM 4. RLP *Solver produces a feasible solution to* RLP$(\tilde{\pi}_0)$ *of value at least* OPT(RLP$(\tilde{\pi}_0)$) $- 2\epsilon$.

The RLP Solver scheme was used for all computational experiments in the previous section. Using this scheme, the largest problem instances we considered were solved in a few minutes on a laptop computer.

## 7. Concluding Remarks

This paper introduced the "irrevocable" multiarmed bandit problem as a practical model to design policies for a number of interesting learning applications. We have developed a new algorithm for this problem—the packing heuristic—that we have shown performs quite well and is practical for large-scale deployment. In particular, we have presented a thorough performance analysis that has yielded uniform approximation performance guarantees as well as guarantees that illustrate a dependence on problem parameters. We have also presented an extensive computational study to support what the theory suggests. In the interest of performance, we have presented a fast implementation of the packing heuristic that is faster than schemes that rely on the computation of Gittins indices.

Perhaps the single most useful outcome of this work has been to show that irrevocability is not necessarily an expensive constraint. This fact is supported by both our theory and computational experiments for a general class of learning applications. Whereas natural "irrevocable" modifications to schemes that perform well for the classical multiarmed bandit problem (such as Whittles heuristic) may not necessarily achieve this goal, the scheme we provide—the packing heuristic—does.

In addition, the theoretical analysis we provide has indirectly yielded the first performance bounds for an important general class of multiarmed bandit problems that to this point have had surprisingly little theoretical attention. More importantly, the new mode of analysis for these problems reveals a tantalizing connection with stochastic packing problems. This paper has furthered that connection.

Moving forward, we anticipate two research directions emerging from the present work. First, it would be interesting to further explore the connection with stochastic packing problems. There exists a vast body of algorithmic work for such problems, and it would be interesting to see what this yields for multiarmed bandit problems. A second direction is exploring the requirement of irrevocability in the nonparametric bandit setting; it is clear that an irrevocable scheme can never be regret optimal. The question to ask is, how suboptimal from a regret perspective can an irrevocable scheme be made in the nonparametric setting?

## 8. Electronic Companion

An electronic companion to this paper is available as part of the online version that can be found at http://or.journal.informs.org/.

## Appendix A. Proofs for §4

PROOF OF LEMMA 2. We first introduce some notation. It is clear that the policy $\mu_i^R$ induces a Markov process on the state space $\mathscr{S}_i$. We expand this state space to track the total number of arm pulls so that our state space now becomes $\mathscr{S}_i \times \mathscr{T} \cup \{T\}$. The policy $\mu_i^R$ induces a distribution over arm $i$ states for every time $t < T$, which we denote by the variable $\hat{\pi}$. Thus, $\hat{\pi}(s_i, m, t, a_i)$ will denote the probability of being in state $(s_i, m)$ at time $t$ and taking action $a_i$.

Now,

$$E[R_i^{m+1} - R_i^m] = \sum_{s_i, t < T} \hat{\pi}(s_i, m, t, p_i) r_i(s_i, p_i)$$

and similarly, for $E[R_i^m - R_i^{m-1}]$.

However,

$$\sum_{s_i, t < T} \hat{\pi}(s_i, m, t, p_i) r_i(s_i, p_i)$$

$$= \sum_{s_i, t < T-1} \hat{\pi}(s_i, m-1, t, p_i) \left( \sum_{s_i'} P_i(s_i, p_i, s_i') h(s_i', t+1) \right.$$

$$\left. \cdot r_i(s_i', p_i) \right)$$

$$\leqslant \sum_{s_i, t < T-1} \hat{\pi}(s_i, m-1, t, p_i) \left( \sum_{s_i'} P_i(s_i, p_i, s_i') r_i(s_i', p_i) \right)$$

$$\leqslant \sum_{s_i, t < T-1} \hat{\pi}(s_i, m-1, t, p_i) r_i(s_i, p_i)$$

$$\leqslant \sum_{s_i, t < T} \hat{\pi}(s_i, m-1, t, p_i) r_i(s_i, p_i)$$

$$= E[R_i^m - R_i^{m-1}],$$

where $h(s_i, t) = 1 - \prod_{t'=t}^{T-1} \Pr(\mu_i^R(s_i, t') = \phi_i)$. Here $\prod_{t'=t}^{T-1} \cdot \Pr(\mu_i^R(s_i, t') = \phi_i)$ is the probability of never pulling the arm after reaching state $s_i$ at time $t$ so that $h(s_i, t)$ represents the probability of eventually pulling arm $i$ after reaching state $s_i$ at time $t$. The second inequality follows from the assumption on reward structure in the statement of the lemma. Thus we see that coins satisfy the decreasing returns property.

PROOF OF LEMMA 3. For $t \geqslant 0$, define a function

$$f(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{E[R_i]}{E[T_i]} \left( \left( t - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} E[T_i] \right)^+ \wedge E[T_i] \right),$$

where $(a \wedge b) = \min(a, b)$ and $(x)^+ = x$ if $x \geqslant 0$, and 0 otherwise. By construction (i.e., because $E[R_i]/E[T_i]$ is nonincreasing in $i$), we have that $f$ is a concave function on $[0, kT]$. Now observe that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{H^*} E[\tilde{R}_i] = \sum_{i=1}^{H^*-1} \frac{E[R_i]}{E[T_i]} E[T_i] + \frac{E[R_{H^*}]}{E[T_{H^*}]} \left( kT/2 - \sum_{j=1}^{H^*-1} E[T_i] \right)$$

$$= f(kT/2).$$

Next, observe that

$$\text{OPT}(\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{E[R_i]}{E[T_i]} E[T_i] = f(kT).$$

By the concavity of $f$ and because $f(0) = 0$, we have that $f(kT/2) \geqslant 1/2 f(kT)$, which yields the result.

PROOF OF LEMMA 4. We have

$$E[R_{1/2}] \overset{(a)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \Pr\left( \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} T_j < kT/2 \right) E[R_i]$$

$$\overset{(b)}{\geqslant} \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \Pr\left( \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} T_j < kT/2 \right) E[\tilde{R}_i]$$

$$\overset{(c)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \Pr\left( \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \tilde{T}_j < kT/2 \right) E[\tilde{R}_i]$$

$$\overset{(d)}{\geqslant} \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \left( 1 - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} E[\tilde{T}_j]}{kT/2} \right) E[\tilde{R}_i]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} E[\tilde{R}_i] - \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} E[\tilde{T}_j]}{kT/2} E[\tilde{R}_i]$$

$$\overset{(e)}{\geqslant} \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} E[\tilde{R}_i] - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \frac{\sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{H^*} E[\tilde{T}_j]}{kT/2} E[\tilde{R}_i]$$

$$\overset{(f)}{\geqslant} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} E[\tilde{R}_i]$$

$$\overset{(g)}{\geqslant} \tfrac{1}{4} \text{OPT}(\text{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)).$$

Equality (a) follows from the fact that under policy $\mu^R$, $R_i$ is independent of $T_j$ for $j < i$. Inequality (b) follows from

our definition of $\tilde{R}_i$: $\tilde{R}_i \leqslant R_i$. Equality (c) follows from the fact that by definition $\tilde{T}_i = T_i$ for all $i < H^*$. Inequality (d) invokes Markov's inequality.

Inequality (e) is the critical step in establishing the result and uses the simple symmetrization idea exploited by Dean et al. (2008): In particular, we observe that because $E[R_i]/E[T_i] \leqslant E[R_j]/E[T_j]$ for $i > j$, it follows that $E[R_i]E[T_j] \leqslant 1/2(E[R_i]E[T_j] + E[R_j]E[T_i])$ for $i > j$. Replacing every term of the form $E[R_i]E[T_j]$ (with $i > j$) in the expression preceding inequality (e) with the upper bound $1/2(E[R_i]E[T_j] + E[R_j]E[T_i])$ yields inequality (e). Inequality (f) follows from the fact that $\sum_{i=1}^{H^*} E[\tilde{T}_i] = kT/2$ and since $E[R_i] \geqslant 0$. Inequality (g) follows from Lemma 3.

PROOF OF LEMMA 5. We note that assuming Property 1 implies that $E[R_i^{T/2}] \geqslant 1/2E[R_i]$ for all $i$. The assertion of the lemma is then evident; in particular,

$$E[R_{1/2}] = \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \Pr\left(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} T_j < kT/2\right) E[R_i]$$

$$\leqslant \sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \Pr\left(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} T_j < kT/2\right) 2E[R_i^{T/2}]$$

$$= 2E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{H^*} \mathbf{1}_{\{\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} T_j < kT/2\}} R_i^{T/2}\right],$$

where the first and second equality use the fact that $R_i$ and $R_i^{T/2}$ are each independent of $T_j$ for $j \neq i$.

PROOF OF LEMMA 7. We begin with noting that for any $\epsilon > 0$ and almost all $\omega \in \Omega$, $\exists N^\epsilon(\omega)$, such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} T_i \leqslant mk_0T/n_0 + (1+\epsilon)\sqrt{m \log\log m} k_0T/n_0 \qquad (A1)$$

for all $m \geqslant N^\epsilon(\omega)$. This is immediate from the Law of the Iterated Logarithm for i.i.d. random variables. Now, let us denote $m(N) = Nn_0 - (1+\epsilon)\sqrt{Nn_0 \log\log Nn_0}$. Notice that

$$m(N)k_0T/n_0 + (1+\epsilon)\sqrt{m(N) \log\log m(N)} k_0T/n_0 \leqslant Nk_0T.$$

Thus, by (A1), it follows that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m(N)} T_i \leqslant Nk_0T$$

eventually. However, then it must be that

$$\tau_n \geqslant m(N)$$

eventually, which yields the second part of the lemma. Now, for the first part of the lemma, assume for the sake of contradiction that the highest indexed arm pulled up to time $T - 1$ has an index (say, $l$) smaller than $\tau_N \wedge n_0N$. That is, this assumption would imply that there exists an $l < \tau_N \wedge n_0N$ satisfying

$$\sum_{i=1}^{l} T_i \geqslant Nk_0T.$$

However, then $\tau_N \leqslant l$, which yields a contradiction and thus the result.

REMARK 1. We remark that in the event that the $n_0$ arms in the unscaled system were not assumed identical, one proves that $\tau_N \geqslant Nn_0 - (1+\epsilon)n_0(T_{max}/T_{min})\sqrt{N \log\log N}$ where $T_{max}$ and $T_{min}$ are, respectively, the largest and smallest expected active times in the solution of the unscaled problem (i.e., when $N = 1$). This remains sufficient to establish Theorem 2 for that case.

## Appendix B. Proof of Theorem 4

The following lemma shows that the optimal objective function value of the dual is equal to $\mathrm{OPT}(\mathrm{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0))$. In particular, it shows that Slater's constraint qualification condition holds (see, for example, Boyd and Vandenberghe 2004).

LEMMA 9. $\mathrm{OPT}(\mathrm{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)) = \mathrm{OPT}(\mathrm{DRLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0))$. *That is, strong duality holds.*

PROOF. To show this, it is sufficient to show that there is a strictly feasible solution to (2), i.e., the inequality is satisfied strictly. This is straightforward—in particular, for each bandit $i$, set $\pi_i(s_i, \phi_i, t) = \tilde{\pi}_{0,i}(s_i)$ for all $s_i$ and $t$, where $\tilde{\pi}_{0,i}(s_i)$ is the probability of bandit $i$ starting in state $s_i$. Set $\pi_i(s_i, a_i, t) = 0$ for $a_i \neq \phi_i$ for all $s_i, t$. These state action frequencies belong to $D_i(\tilde{\pi}_0)$, and also give $T_i(\pi_i) = 0$.

We denote $R^* = \mathrm{OPT}(\mathrm{RLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)) = \mathrm{OPT}(\mathrm{DRLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0))$. Also, define the following set of total running times for all bandits corresponding to a dual variable $\lambda$:

$$\mathscr{T}(\lambda) = \left\{\sum_i T_i(\pi_i) \,\middle|\, \pi_i \in \arg\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda T_i(\pi_i))), \ \forall i\right\}.$$

LEMMA 10. If $0 \leqslant \lambda_1 < \lambda_2$, then

$$\min \mathscr{T}(\lambda_1) \geqslant \max \mathscr{T}(\lambda_2).$$

PROOF. We denote the objective function in $\mathrm{DRLP}(\tilde{\pi}_0)$, i.e., the dual function by

$$g(\lambda) = \lambda kT + \sum_i \max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda T_i(\pi_i)).$$

The slack in the total running time constraint $\sum_i T_i(\pi_i) \leqslant kT$, i.e., $kT - \sum_i T(\pi_i)$, is a subgradient of $g$ for any $\pi$ such that $\pi_i \in \arg\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda T_i(\pi_i))$ (see Shor 1985). Thus, the set of subgradients of the dual function $g$ at $\lambda$ are given by

$$\partial g(\lambda) = \{kT - t: t \in \mathscr{T}(\lambda)\}.$$

Then, because $g$ is a convex function, it follows that for $0 \leqslant \lambda_1 < \lambda_2$,

$$kT - t_1 \leqslant kT - t_2, \quad \forall t_1 \in \mathscr{T}(\lambda_1), \ t_2 \in \mathscr{T}(\lambda_2).$$

The lemma then follows.

The primal and dual have an optimal solution $(\pi^*, \lambda^*)$ if and only if (see, for example, Boyd and Vandenberghe 2004)

$$\pi_i^* \in \arg\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda^* T_i(\pi_i)), \quad \text{either} \quad \lambda^* > 0 \quad \text{and}$$

$$\sum_i T_i(\pi_i^*) = kT, \quad \text{or} \quad \lambda^* = 0 \quad \text{and}$$

$$\sum_i T_i(\pi_i^*) \leqslant kT. \tag{B1}$$

We prove the correctness of the RLP Solver algorithm separately for the cases when $\lambda^* = 0$ is optimal and when any optimal solution satisfies $\lambda^* > 0$. We denote the values of the bounds on the dual variable that are computed by the *last iteration* of the RLP solver algorithm by $\lambda^{\text{feas}}$ and $\lambda^{\text{infeas}}$. Recall that,

$$\pi_i^{\text{feas}} \in \arg\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda^{\text{feas}} T_i(\pi_i)),$$

$$\pi_i^{\text{infeas}} \in \arg\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda^{\text{infeas}} T_i(\pi_i)).$$

We introduce some additional notation:

$$T^{\text{feas}} = \sum_i T_i(\pi_i^{\text{feas}}), \qquad R^{\text{feas}} = \sum_i R_i(\pi_i^{\text{feas}}),$$

$$T^{\text{infeas}} = \sum_i T_i(\pi_i^{\text{infeas}}), \qquad R^{\text{infeas}} = \sum_i R_i(\pi_i^{\text{infeas}}).$$

Thus,

$$g(\lambda^{\text{feas}}) = \lambda^{\text{feas}} kT + R^{\text{feas}} - \lambda^{\text{feas}} T^{\text{feas}},$$

$$g(\lambda^{\text{infeas}}) = \lambda^{\text{infeas}} kT + R^{\text{infeas}} - \lambda^{\text{feas}} T^{\text{infeas}}. \tag{B2}$$

LEMMA 11. *If $(\pi^*, \lambda^*)$ is a solution to* (B1) *with $\lambda^* = 0$, then*

$$R^* - (\alpha R^{\text{infeas}} + (1-\alpha)R^{\text{feas}}) \leqslant \epsilon.$$

PROOF. If $\lambda^* = 0$, it follows from (B1) that there is some $t \in \mathcal{T}(0)$ such that $t \leqslant kT$. Hence, it follows from Lemma 10 that for any $\lambda > 0$, $\max \mathcal{T}(\lambda) \leqslant kT$. Hence, line 11 of the RLP solver algorithm is always invoked, and so the RLP solver algorithm converges to

$$\lambda^{\text{infeas}} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 < \lambda^{\text{feas}} < \epsilon/(kT).$$

Hence, $\pi_i^{\text{infeas}} \in \arg\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i))$. Also, $g(\lambda)$ is minimized at $\lambda^* = 0$. Hence, it follows from Lemma 9 that

$$R^* = g(0) = \sum_i \max_{\pi_i} R_i(\pi_i) = R^{\text{infeas}}. \tag{B3}$$

Because, $\lambda^{\text{feas}} > 0$, it follows that $T^{\text{feas}} \leqslant kT$. Hence, we now consider the following three cases:

- *Case* 1: $T^{\text{infeas}} \leqslant kT$.
  Here, $\alpha = 1$, and hence, using (B3) it follows that

$$R^* - (\alpha R^{\text{infeas}} + (1-\alpha)R^{\text{feas}}) = 0.$$

- *Case* 2: $T^{\text{feas}} = kT$.
  In this case, $(\pi^{\text{feas}}, \lambda^{\text{feas}})$ satisfy the optimality conditions in (B1). Thus, $R^{\text{feas}} = R^*$, and so (because $R^{\text{infeas}} = R^*$ by (B3))

$$R^* - (\alpha R^{\text{infeas}} + (1-\alpha)R^{\text{feas}}) = 0.$$

- *Case* 3: $T^{\text{infeas}} > kT > T^{\text{feas}}$.
  Because $g(\lambda)$ is minimized at $\lambda = 0$,

$$R^* = g(0) \leqslant g(\lambda^{\text{feas}}) = \lambda^{\text{feas}} kT + R^{\text{feas}} - \lambda^{\text{feas}} T^{\text{feas}}$$

$$\Rightarrow R^* - R^{\text{feas}} \leqslant \lambda^{\text{feas}}(kT - T^{\text{feas}}).$$

Because $R^* = R^{\text{infeas}}$ (from (B3)), and using the fact that $0 < \alpha < 1$ when $T^{\text{infeas}} > kT > T^{\text{feas}}$, we have

$$R^* - \alpha R^{\text{infeas}} - (1-\alpha)R^{\text{feas}} = (1-\alpha)(R^* - R^{\text{feas}})$$

$$\leqslant (1-\alpha)(kT - T^{\text{feas}})\lambda^{\text{feas}}$$

$$\leqslant kT\lambda^{\text{feas}} \leqslant \epsilon. \tag{B4}$$

LEMMA 12. *If every solution to* (B1) *satisfies $\lambda^* > 0$, then*

$$R^* - (\alpha R^{\text{infeas}} + (1-\alpha)R^{\text{feas}}) \leqslant 2\epsilon.$$

PROOF. The RLP solver algorithm is initialized with $\lambda^{\text{infeas}} = 0$. Because $\lambda^* > 0$ and $(kT) \in \mathcal{T}(\lambda^*)$ ((B1)), it follows from Lemma 10 that $\min \mathcal{T}(0) \geqslant kT$. However, $(kT) \notin \mathcal{T}(0)$, else there would be a solution to (B1) that satisfies $\lambda^* = 0$, leading to a contradiction. Thus, $\min \mathcal{T}(0) > kT$, and so lines 8–12 of the RLP solver algorithm guarantee that

$$T^{\text{infeas}} > kT. \tag{B5}$$

Using an appropriate modification of the optimality conditions in (B1) for the case where the horizon is $T^{\text{infeas}}$ (instead of $kT$), we see that $R^{\text{infeas}}$ is the maximum reward earned by any policy in $\{\pi\colon \sum_i T_i(\pi_i) \leqslant T^{\text{infeas}}\}$. Because $R^*$ is the maximum reward earned by any policy in $\{\pi\colon \sum_i T_i(\pi_i) \leqslant kT < T^{\text{infeas}}\}$,

$$R^{\text{infeas}} \geqslant R^*. \tag{B6}$$

We now argue that $T^{\text{feas}} \leqslant kT$. The RLP solver algorithm is initialized with $\lambda^{\text{feas}} > r_{\max}$. Because $\pi_i^{\text{feas}} \in \arg\max_{\pi_i}(R_i(\pi_i) - \lambda^{\text{feas}} T_i(\pi_i))$, initially, the optimal policy is to idle at all times. Thus, $T^{\text{feas}} \leqslant kT$ at initialization; at all other iterations, lines 8–12 of the algorithm ensure that $T^{\text{feas}} \leqslant kT$.

We now consider the following two cases separately:
- *Case* 1: $T^{\text{feas}} = kT$.
  In this case, $(\pi^{\text{feas}}, \lambda^{\text{feas}})$ satisfy the optimality conditions in (B1), and so $R^{\text{feas}} = R^*$. Now, using (B6)

$$(\alpha R^{\text{infeas}} + (1-\alpha)R^{\text{feas}}) \geqslant R^*.$$

- *Case* 2: $T^{\text{feas}} < kT$.

Note that the RLP solver algorithm terminates when

$$\lambda^{\text{feas}} - \lambda^{\text{infeas}} < \epsilon/(kT). \tag{B7}$$

Now $T^{\text{feas}} < kT$ and $(kT) \in \mathcal{T}(\lambda^*)$. If $\lambda^{\text{feas}} < \lambda^*$, it follows from Lemma 10 that

$$T^{\text{feas}} \geqslant \min \mathcal{T}(\lambda^{\text{feas}}) \geqslant \max \mathcal{T}(\lambda^*) \geqslant kT,$$

which is a contradiction. Hence,

$$\lambda^{\text{feas}} \geqslant \lambda^*. \tag{B8}$$

Also, because $(kT) \in \mathcal{T}(\lambda^*)$, it follows from Lemma 10 that for any $\lambda > \lambda^*$, $\max \mathcal{T}(\lambda) \leqslant kT$. Therefore, (B5) implies that

$$\lambda^{\text{infeas}} \leqslant \lambda^*. \tag{B9}$$

It follows from (B7), (B8), and (B9) that

$$\max\left(0, \lambda^* - \frac{\epsilon}{kT}\right) \leqslant \lambda^{\text{infeas}} \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda^{\text{feas}} \leqslant \lambda^* + \frac{\epsilon}{kT}.$$

Because $g(\lambda)$ is minimized at $\lambda^*$, it follows from (B2) and strong duality proved in Lemma 9 that

$$g(\lambda^*) = R^* \leqslant g(\lambda^{\text{feas}}) = R^{\text{feas}} + \lambda^{\text{feas}}(kT - T^{\text{feas}})$$
$$\leqslant R^{\text{feas}} + (\lambda^* + \delta)(kT - T^{\text{feas}}),$$
$$g(\lambda^*) = R^* \leqslant g(\lambda^{\text{infeas}}) = R^{\text{infeas}} + \lambda^{\text{infeas}}(kT - T^{\text{infeas}})$$
$$\leqslant R^{\text{infeas}} + (\lambda^* - \delta)(kT - T^{\text{infeas}}),$$

where $\delta = \epsilon/(kT)$. Note that the above inequalities also use $T^{\text{feas}} < kT$ (by assumption) and $T^{\text{infeas}} > kT$ (from (B5)). Thus,

$$R^* - \alpha R^{\text{infeas}} - (1-\alpha)R^{\text{feas}}$$
$$= \alpha(R^* - R^{\text{infeas}}) + (1-\alpha)(R^* - R^{\text{feas}})$$
$$\leqslant \alpha(\delta - \lambda^*)(T^{\text{infeas}} - kT) + (1-\alpha)(\lambda^* + \delta)(kT - T^{\text{feas}})$$
$$= 2\frac{\delta(T^{\text{infeas}} - kT)(kT - T^{\text{feas}})}{T^{\text{infeas}} - T^{\text{feas}}}$$
$$\leqslant 2\delta kT = 2\epsilon.$$

PROOF OF THEOREM 4 The result follows from Lemmas 11 and 12 and the fact that $\lambda^* \geqslant 0$ (from (B1)).

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