

# Optimal Dynamic Assortment Planning with Demand Learning

Denis Saure

University of Pittsburgh, [dsaure@pitt.edu](mailto:dsaure@pitt.edu)

Assaf Zeevi

Columbia University, [assaf@gsb.columbia.edu](mailto:assaf@gsb.columbia.edu)

We study a family of stylized assortment planning problems, where arriving customers make purchase decisions among offered products based on maximizing their utility. Given limited display capacity and no a priori information on consumers’ utility, the retailer must select which subset of products to offer. By offering different assortments and observing the resulting purchase behavior, the retailer learns about consumer preferences, but this experimentation should be balanced with the goal of maximizing revenues. We develop a family of dynamic policies that judiciously balance the aforementioned tradeoff between exploration and exploitation, and prove that their performance cannot be improved upon in a precise mathematical sense. One salient feature of these policies is that they “quickly” recognize, and hence limit experimentation on, strictly suboptimal products.

*Key words:* assortment planning, on-line algorithm, demand learning

---

## 1. Introduction

**Motivation and main objectives.** Product assortment selection is among the most critical decisions facing retailers. Inferring customer preferences and responding accordingly with updated product offerings plays a central role in a growing number of industries, especially for companies that are capable of revisiting product assortment decisions *during* the selling season, as demand information becomes available. From an operations perspective, a retailer is often not capable of simultaneously displaying every possible product to prospective customers due to limited shelf space, stocking restrictions and other capacity related considerations. One of the central decisions is therefore which products to include in the retailer’s product assortment. That is the essence of the assortment planning problem; see Kok et al. (2008) for an overview. Our interest lies in

*dynamic* instances of the problem, where assortment planning decisions can be revisited frequently, and consumer preferences for products are not known a priori, and need to be learned over the course of the selling horizon. These instances will be referred to as *dynamic assortment planning* problems. Here are two motivating examples that arise in very different application domains.

*Example 1: Fast fashion.* In recent years “fast” fashion companies, such as Zara, Mango or World co, have implemented highly flexible and responsive supply chains that allow them to make and revisit most product design and assortment decisions during the selling season. Customers visiting one of these retailers’ stores will only see a fraction of the potential products that the retailer has to offer, and their purchase decisions will effectively depend on the specific assortment presented at the store. The essence of fashion retail entails offering new products for which no demand information is available, and hence the ability to revisit these decisions at a high frequency is key to the “fast fashion” business model; each season there is a need to learn the current fashion trend by exploring with different styles and colors, and to exploit such knowledge before the season is over.

*Example 2: Online advertising.* This emerging area of business is the single most important source of revenues for thousands of web sites. Giants such as Yahoo and Google, depend almost completely on online advertisement to subsist. One of the most prevalent business models here builds on the cost-per-click statistic: advertisers pay the web site (a “publisher”) only when a user clicks on their advertisements (henceforth, ads). Upon each visit, users are presented with a finite set of ads, on which they may or may not click depending on what is being presented. Roughly speaking, the publisher’s objective is to learn ad click-through-rates (and their dependence on the set of ads being displayed) and present the set of ads that maximizes revenue within the life span of the contract with the advertiser.

The above motivating applications share common features: (*i*) a priori information on consumer purchase/click behavior is scarce or non-existent; (*ii*) products/ads can be substituted one for the other, but may differ in the profit they generate, and demand for individual product/ad is affected

by the assortment decision, which is subject to display constraints; *(iii)* assortment decisions can be done in a dynamic fashion.

The purpose of this paper is to study a stylized version of the dynamic assortment planning problem that incorporates these salient features. Central to this study is the trade-off between information collection (exploration), which leads to a clearer picture of demand, and revenue maximization (exploitation), that strives to make optimal assortment decisions at each point in time. In this context, the longer a retailer spends learning consumer preferences, the less time remains to exploit that knowledge and optimize profits. On the other hand, less time spent on studying consumer behavior translates into more residual uncertainty, which could hamper the revenue maximization objective.

To isolate the role assortment planning plays in balancing information collection and revenue maximization, our stylized model ignores a variety of operational considerations, such as pricing decisions, inventory replenishment, assortment sequencing and switching costs, availability of users' profile information, etc; further discussion of these aspects can be found in Section 7. The main salient feature that we build into our stylized model is limited display capacity, as such a constraint is a defining feature of assortment planning problems (see Fisher and Vaidyanathan (2009) for a discussion), and our work will elucidate the manner in which it impacts the complexity of the *dynamic* assortment problem.

While our focus is on a revenue management objective via assortment decisions, we assume that product prices are fixed throughout the selling season. Such an assumption is common in the assortment planning literature and facilitates analysis. We note in passing that dynamic pricing has been studied as a stand-alone mechanism in the context of choice-driven demand with limited prior information (see, e.g., Rusmevichientong and Broder (2010)), but incorporating a pricing dimension into our formulation would obscure insights regarding the role of assortment experimentation in demand inference.

As stated above, our main focus is on learning consumer behavior via suitable assortment experimentation, and doing this in a manner that guarantees revenue maximization over the selling

horizon. For that purpose we consider a population of utility maximizing customers: each customer assigns a (random) utility to each offered product, and purchases the product that maximizes his/her utility. The retailer needs to devise an assortment policy to maximize revenues over the relevant time horizon by properly adapting the assortment offered based on observed customer purchase decisions and subject to capacity constraints that limit the size of the assortment.

**Key insights and qualitative results.** We consider assortment policies that can only use observed purchase decisions to adjust assortment choices at each point in time (this will be defined more formally later as a class of non-anticipating policies). Performance of such policies will be measured in terms of the expected revenue loss relative to an oracle that knows the product utility distributions in advance, i.e., the loss due to the absence of *a priori* knowledge of consumer behavior. Our objective is to characterize the minimum loss attainable by any non-anticipating assortment policy.

The main findings of this paper are summarized below.

(i) We establish fundamental bounds on the performance of any “good” policy (we formalize this in Section 4). Specifically, we identify the magnitude of loss relative to the oracle performance that *any* policy must incur, and characterize its dependence on: the length of the selling horizon; the number of products; and the capacity constraint (see Theorem 1 for a precise statement).

(ii) We propose a family of adaptive policies that achieve the fundamental bound mentioned above. These policies “quickly” identify the optimal assortment of products (the one that maximizes the expected single sale profit) with high probability while successfully limiting the extent of exploration. Our performance analysis, in Section 5.2, makes these terms rigorous; see Theorem 3.

(iii) We prove that not all products available to the retailer need to be extensively tested: under mild assumptions, some of them can be easily and quickly identified as suboptimal. In particular, a specific subset of said products can be detected in finite time (i.e., independent of the length of the selling horizon) with high probability; see Theorems 1 and 3. We show that our proposed policy successfully limits the extent at which such products are offered (see Corollary 1 for a precise statement).

(iv) We highlight salient features of the dynamic assortment problem that distinguish it from similar problems of sequential decision making under model uncertainty, and we show how exploiting these features helps to reduce the complexity of the assortment problem.

The above results establish that an oracle with advance knowledge of customer behavior gains only a relatively modest additional revenues relative to policies that do not have such prior knowledge. To ensure this modest gap the policies in question must adhere to a critical rate of assortment experimentation. An interesting feature of these policies is that they can limit exploration on a certain subset of products (in particular, these products need only be offered to a bounded number of customers *independent* of the time horizon). This result differs markedly from most of the literature on sequential decision making problems under uncertainty; see further discussion in Section 2.

**The remainder of the paper.** The next section reviews related work. Section 3 formulates the dynamic assortment problem. Section 4 provides a fundamental limit on the performance of any assortment policy, and analyzes its implications for policy design. Section 5 proposes a dynamic assortment algorithm that achieves this performance bound, and Subsection 5.3 customizes our proposed algorithm for the most widely used customer choice model, namely the Logit. Finally, Section 7 presents our concluding remarks. Proofs are relegated to Appendix A and to an online companion. Appendix B contains further details pertaining to some estimation methods used in the paper.

## 2. Literature Review

**Static assortment planning.** The literature here focuses on finding an optimal assortment that is held unchanged throughout the entire selling season. Customer behavior is assumed to be known a priori, but inventory decisions are considered; see Kok et al. (2008) for a review of the state-of-the-art in static assortment optimization. van Ryzin and Mahajan (1999) formulate the assortment planning problem using a Multinomial Logit model (hereafter, MNL) of consumer choice. Assuming that customers do not look for a substitute if their choice is stocked out, they prove that the

optimal assortment is always in the “popular assortment set” and establish structural properties of the optimal assortment and ordering quantities. In the same setting, Gaur and Honhon (2006) use the locational choice model and characterize properties of the optimal assortment. In a recent paper Goyal et al. (2009) prove that the static assortment problem is NP-hard when customers look for a substitute if their choice is stocked out, and propose a near-optimal heuristic for a particular choice model; see Mahajan and van Ryzin (2001), Honhon et al. (2009) and Hopp and Xu (2008) for formulations considering stock-out based substitution.

Our formulation assumes perfect inventory replenishment (thus eliminating stock-out based substitution) while considering limited display capacity. Fisher and Vaidyanathan (2009) studies assortment planning under display constraints and highlights how these arise in practice. While the single-sale profit maximization problem remains NP-hard under the perfect replenishment assumption, Rusmevichientong et al. (2010) presents a polynomial-time algorithm for the single-sale profit maximization problem when consumer preferences are represented using particular choice models; hence at least in certain instances the single-sale problem can be solved efficiently.

**Dynamic assortment planning.** This problem setting allows revisiting assortment decisions at each point in time as more information is collected about initially unknown demand/consumer preferences. Caro and Gallien (2007), to the best of our knowledge, were the first to study this type of problem, motivated by an application in fast fashion. In their formulation, customer demand for a product is independent of demand and availability of other products, the rate of demand is constant throughout the selling season and perfect inventory replenishment is assumed. Taking a Bayesian approach to demand learning, the problem is studied using a dynamic programming formulation: Caro and Gallien (2007) derive bounds on the value function, and propose an index-based policy that is shown to be *near* optimal when there is some prior information on demand. Closer to our formulation is the work by Rusmevichientong et al. (2010). There, utility maximizing customers make purchase decisions according to the MNL choice model (a special case of the more general setting treated here), and an adaptive algorithm for joint parameter estimation and assortment

optimization is developed, see further discussion below. A different formulation is advanced by Honhon et al. (2011) who study a dynamic assortment problem using the locational choice model.

**Related work in dynamic optimization with limited demand information.** Uncertainty at demand-model level has been considered previously in revenue management settings, in the context of dynamic pricing. Araman and Caldentey (2009) and Farias and Van Roy (2010), for example, present dynamic programming formulations with Bayesian updating of initially unknown parameters; see also Lim and Shanthikumar (2007). Closer to the current paper is the work by Besbes and Zeevi (2009) that considers the dynamic pricing formulation in Gallego and Van Ryzin (1994) when the demand function is initially unknown and no prior information is available. In a slightly simpler setting, Rusmevichientong and Broder (2010) analyze the case where demand is given by a parametric choice model. Roughly speaking, the latter two papers are instances of online stochastic convex optimization problem (either with or without path-wise constraints). As such, the methodology used to study them differs from the discrete and combinatorial nature of the assortment decision problem.

**Connection to the multi-armed bandit literature.** The multi-armed bandit problem is one of the earliest instances of the aforementioned exploration vs. exploitation trade-off. Introduced in Thompson (1933) and Robbins (1952), in its basic formulation a decision maker seeks to maximize cumulative reward by pulling arms (of a slot machine) sequentially over time (one at each time) when limited prior information on reward distributions is available. The dynamic assortment planning setup can be viewed as a multi-armed bandit problem via the following analogy: each arm corresponds to a feasible assortment, hence pulling an arm is the same as offering the assortment to a consumer. Reward distributions are determined by the purchase probabilities, which are initially unknown, and product profit margins. Application of standard multi-armed bandit algorithms would result in a regret (we define this concept in the next section) of order- $\left(\binom{N}{C} \log T\right)$ , where  $N$  is the total number of products available,  $C$  is the assortment capacity, and  $T$  is the length of the planning horizon. However, such an approach fails to incorporate two features that separates dynamic assortment planning from the multi-armed setting: (i) assortment rewards are

not independent (a key assumption in the classical multi-armed setting); and (ii) assortments are not a-priori identical since product profit margins are not necessarily equal (see the discussion below).

To address (i) it is possible to take advantage of the underlying reward structure. This is essentially the approach in Rusmevichientong et al. (2010) where the authors exploit the connection between the solution to the single-sale profit maximization problem, and the underlying model parameters to limit the number of arms (assortments) worthy of consideration. In particular, they identify order- $N$  arms among which the optimal one is found with high probability, and these arms are fed to a standard multi-armed bandit algorithm. The proposed algorithm works in cycles, and explores order- $N^2$  assortments on each of them. As a consequence, the overall procedure results in a regret of order- $(N \log T)^2$ . Alternatively, one can envision the dynamic assortment planning problem as a multi-armed bandit problem with multiple simultaneous plays; each product constitutes an arm by itself, and the decision maker can select multiple arms at each time. Indeed, this is the approach in Caro and Gallien (2007) who use a dynamic programming formulation and Bayesian learning approach to solve the exploration versus exploitation trade-off optimally (see also Farias and Madan (2011) for a similar bandit-formulation with multiple simultaneous plays under a more restricted class of policies). In this paper we show how one can restrict exploration to *at most* order- $N$  assortments, hence significantly reducing the combinatorial complexity ( $\binom{N}{C}$ ) which would characterize the problem if standard bandit approaches were used.

Regarding (ii), note that in the bandit setting arms are ex-ante identical, hence there is always the possibility that a poorly explored arm is in fact optimal (in their seminal work, Lai and Robbins (1985) showed that any “good” policy should explore each arm at least order- $\log T$  times). In the assortment planning setting, arms (either assortment or products, depending on the arm analogy being used) are *not* ex-ante identical, and revenue is capped by the products’ profit margins. In Section 4, we show how this observation can be exploited to limit exploration on certain *strictly* suboptimal products (a precise definition will be advanced in what follows). Moreover, the possibility to test several products simultaneously has the potential to further reduce the complexity of



the assortment planning problem. Our work builds on some of the ideas present in the multi-armed bandit literature, most notably the lower bound technique developed by Lai and Robbins (1985), but also exploits salient features of the assortment problem in constructing optimal algorithms and highlighting key differences from traditional bandit results; this will become evident as we flesh out our main results and return to discuss these connections in Section 7.

### 3. Problem Formulation

**Model primitives and basic assumptions.** We consider a price-taking retailer that has  $N$  different products to sell. For each product  $i \in \mathcal{N} := \{1, \dots, N\}$ , let  $r_i$  and  $c_i$  denote the price and the marginal cost of product  $i$ , respectively. As mentioned in Section 1, we assume both prices and marginal costs are fixed and constant throughout the selling horizon. For  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ , let  $w_i := r_i - c_i > 0$  denote the marginal profit resulting from selling one unit of the product, and let  $w := (w_1, \dots, w_N)$  denote the vector of profit margins. Due to display space constraints, the retailer can offer at most  $C$  products simultaneously. We assume, without loss of generality, that  $C \leq N$ .

Let  $T$  to denote the total number of customers that arrive during the selling season, after which sales are discontinued. (The value of  $T$  is in general not known to the retailer a priori.) We use  $t$  to index customers according to their arrival times, so  $t = 1$  corresponds to the first arrival, and  $t = T$  to the last. We assume a perfect inventory replenishment policy, and that the retailer has the flexibility to offer a different assortment to every customer without incurring any switching cost. (While these assumptions do not typically hold in practice, they provide tractability and allow us to extract structural insights.)

We adopt a random utility approach to model customer preferences over products: customer  $t$  assigns a utility  $U_i^t$  to product  $i$ , for  $i \in \mathcal{N} \cup \{0\}$ , with

$$U_i^t := \mu_i + \zeta_i^t,$$

where  $\mu_i \in \mathbb{R}$  denotes the mean utility assigned to product  $i$ ,  $\zeta_i^1, \dots, \zeta_i^T$  are independent and identically distributed random variables drawn from a distribution  $F$ , and product 0 represents a no-purchase alternative. (See Section 7 for a discussion of an alternative utility specification.)

Let  $\mu := (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_N)$  denote the vector of mean utilities. We assume all customers assign  $\mu_0$  to a no-purchase alternative; when offered an assortment, customers select the product with the highest utility if that utility is greater than the one provided by the no-purchase alternative. For convenience, and without loss of generality, we set  $\mu_0 := 0$ .

**The single-sale profit maximization problem.** Let  $\mathcal{S}$  denote the set of possible assortments, i.e.,  $\mathcal{S} := \{S \subseteq \mathcal{N} : |S| \leq C\}$ , where  $|S|$  denotes the cardinality of the set  $S \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ . For a given assortment  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  and a given vector of mean utilities  $\mu$ , the probability  $p_i(S, \mu)$  that a customer chooses product  $i \in S$  is given by

$$p_i(S, \mu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \prod_{j \in S \cup \{0\} \setminus \{i\}} F(x - \mu_j) dF(x - \mu_i),$$

and  $p_i(S, \mu) = 0$  for  $i \notin S$ . The expected single-sale profit  $r(S, \mu)$  associated with an assortment  $S$  and mean utility vector  $\mu$  is given by

$$r(S, \mu) = \sum_{i \in S} w_i p_i(S, \mu).$$

We let  $S^*(\mu)$  denote the assortment that maximizes the single-sale profit. That is

$$S^*(\mu) \in \arg \max_{S \in \mathcal{S}} r(S, \mu). \quad (1)$$

In what follows we will assume that the solution to the single-sale problem is unique (this assumption greatly simplifies our exposition, in particular our performance bounds. Such bounds can be generalized to the case of multiple solutions, and we briefly indicate how one might do so in the proof of Theorem 1 in Appendix A). We assume that the retailer can compute  $S^*(\mu)$  for any vector  $\mu$ ; solving problem (1) efficiently is beyond the scope this paper.

**REMARK 1 (On solving a special case).** The MNL is by far the most commonly used choice model in the literature. Rusmevichientong et al. (2010) present an order- $N^2$  algorithm to solve the single-sale problem when such a choice model is assumed, i.e., when  $F$  is assumed to be a standard Gumbel distribution (with location parameter 0 and scale parameter 1) for all  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ . The algorithm, based on a more general solution concept developed by Megiddo (1979), can in fact be

used to solve the single-sale problem efficiently for any attraction-based choice model (these are choice models for which  $p_i(S) = \nu_i / (\sum_{j \in S} \nu_j)$  for a vector  $\nu \in \mathbb{R}_+^N$ , and any  $S \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ . See, for example, Anderson et al. (1992)).

**The dynamic optimization problem.** We assume that the retailer knows  $F$ , the distribution that generates the idiosyncracies of customer utilities, but *does not know* the mean vector  $\mu$ . The retailer is able to observe purchase/no-purchase decisions made by each customer. S/he needs to decide what assortment to offer to each customer, taking into account all information gathered up to that point in time, in order to maximize expected cumulative profits. More formally, let  $(S_t \in \mathcal{S} : 1 \leq t \leq T)$  denote an *assortment process*, with  $S_t \in \mathcal{S}$  for all  $t \leq T$ . Let

$$Z_i^t := \mathbf{1} \{i \in S_t, U_i^t > U_j^t, j \in S_t \setminus \{i\} \cup \{0\}\}$$

denote the purchase decision of customer  $t$  regarding product  $i \in S_t$ , where here, and in what follows,  $\mathbf{1} \{A\}$  denotes the indicator function of a set  $A$ , i.e.,  $Z_i^t = 1$  indicates that customer  $t$  decided to purchase product  $i$ , and  $Z_i^t = 0$  otherwise. Also, let  $Z_0^t := \mathbf{1} \{U_0 > U_j, j \in S_t\}$  denote the overall purchase decision of customer  $t$ , where  $Z_0^t = 1$  if customer  $t$  opted not to purchase any product, and  $Z_0^t = 0$  otherwise. We denote by  $Z^t := (Z_0^t, Z_1^t, \dots, Z_N^t)$  the vector of purchase decisions of customer  $t$ . Let  $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma((S_u, Z^u), 1 \leq u \leq t)$   $t = 1, \dots, T$ , denote the filtration (history) associated with the assortment process and purchase decisions up to (including) time  $t$ , with  $\mathcal{F}_0 = \emptyset$ . An admissible assortment policy  $\pi$  is a mapping from past history to assortment decisions such that the associated assortment process  $(S_t \in \mathcal{S} : 1 \leq t \leq T)$  is non-anticipating (i.e.,  $S_t$  is  $\mathcal{F}_{t-1}$ -measurable, for all  $t$ ). We will restrict attention to the set of such policies and denote it by  $\mathcal{P}$ . We will use  $\mathbb{E}_\pi$  and  $\mathbb{P}_\pi$  to denote expectations and probabilities of random variables when the assortment policy  $\pi \in \mathcal{P}$  is used.

The retailer's objective is to choose a policy  $\pi \in \mathcal{P}$  to maximize the expected cumulative revenues over the selling season

$$J^\pi(T, \mu) := \mathbb{E}_\pi \left( \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} w_i Z_i^t \right).$$

If the mean utility vector  $\mu$  is known at the start of the selling season, the retailer would offer the assortment that maximizes the single-sale profit,  $S^*(\mu)$ , to every customer. The corresponding expected cumulative revenues, denoted by  $J^*(T, \mu)$ , would be

$$J^*(T, \mu) := Tr(S^*(\mu), \mu).$$

This quantity provides an upper bound on expected revenues generated by *any* admissible policy, i.e.,  $J^*(T, \mu) \geq J^\pi(T, \mu)$  for all  $\pi \in \mathcal{P}$ . Define the *regret* associated with a policy  $\pi$  to be

$$\mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \mu) := T - \frac{J^\pi(T, \mu)}{r(S^*(\mu), \mu)}.$$

The regret of a policy  $\pi$  is a normalized measure of revenue loss due to the lack of a priori knowledge of consumer behavior, and it can be roughly thought of as the number of customers to whom non-optimal assortments are offered over  $\{1, \dots, T\}$ .

Maximizing expected cumulative revenues is equivalent to minimizing the regret over the selling season, and to this end, the retailer must balance suboptimal demand exploration (which adds directly to the regret) with exploitation of the gathered information. On the one hand, the retailer has incentives to explore demand extensively in order to *guess* the optimal assortment,  $S^*(\mu)$ , with high probability. On the other hand, the longer the retailer explores, the less consumers will be offered a supposedly optimal assortment; therefore the retailer has incentives to reduce the exploration efforts in favor of exploitation.

## 4. Fundamental Limits on Achievable Performance

### 4.1. A lower bound on the performance of any admissible policy

We begin this section narrowing down the set of policies worthy of consideration. We say that an admissible policy is *consistent* if for all  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^N$

$$\frac{\mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \mu)}{T^a} \rightarrow 0, \tag{2}$$

as  $T \rightarrow \infty$ , for every  $a > 0$ . In other words, the long run single-sale profit of consistent policies converges to the profit generated by offering the optimal assortment, for all possible mean utility vectors. (The condition in (2) restricts the rate of such convergence in  $T$ .) Let  $\mathcal{P}' \subseteq \mathcal{P}$  denote the set of non-anticipating consistent assortment policies.

Suppose the retailer knows upfront the value of the components of  $\mu$  associated with products in  $S^*(\mu)$ , while the other components remain unknown: we say a product is *potentially optimal* if it cannot be discarded solely on the basis of such prior information; this means that a product  $i$  is potentially optimal if there exists an alternative mean utility vector  $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^N$  for which product  $i$  is optimal (i.e.,  $i \in S^*(\gamma)$ ), and that coincides with the original one,  $\mu$ , on the components of products in  $S^*(\mu)$  (note that this definition does not consider changes in  $w$ , the vector of profit margins). Define  $\overline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu)$  as the set of potentially optimal products. That is

$$\overline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu) := \{j \in \mathcal{N} : j \in S^*(\gamma) \text{ for some } \gamma \in \mathbb{R}^N \text{ such that } \mu_i = \gamma_i \forall i \in S^*(\mu)\}.$$

Similarly, we say a product is *strictly suboptimal* if it is not potentially optimal, i.e., if it can be discarded as suboptimal based on partial knowledge of the mean utility vector; in other words, these products would not be included in the optimal assortment under any alternative mean utility vector among those that do not change mean utilities of products in  $S^*(\mu)$ . We define  $\underline{\mathcal{N}} := \mathcal{N} \setminus \overline{\mathcal{N}}$  as the set of strictly suboptimal products (in a slight abuse of notation we drop dependencies on  $\mu$  when possible).

It is worth noting that this classification (potential optimality vs. strict sub-optimality) depends on: (i) the vector of profit margins, which is observable at all times; and (ii) mean utilities of optimal products, which are initially unknown. Hence the retailer cannot separate these two classes upfront with certainty.

In constructing bounds on achievable performance we will consider a subclass of potentially optimal products, namely those that become optimal under some *unilateral* change on their mean utilities. Define

$$\tilde{\mathcal{N}} := \{i \in \mathcal{N} : i \in S^*(\gamma), \gamma := (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_{i-1}, v, \mu_{i+1}, \dots, \mu_N) \text{ for some } v \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Potentially optimal products are, by definition, those that become optimal when alternative mean utility vectors, differing possibly on several coordinates, are considered: for a product in  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}}$  such an alternative mean utility configuration differs from  $\mu$  only on its  $j$ -th component. (It follows that  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{N}}$ ).

We assume  $F$  is absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ , and that its density function is positive everywhere. This assumption is quite standard and satisfied by many commonly used distributions. The result below establishes a fundamental limit on what can be achieved by any consistent assortment policy. Recall that  $|S|$  denotes the cardinality of a set  $S \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ .

**THEOREM 1.** *For any  $\pi \in \mathcal{P}'$ , and any  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , there exist finite constants  $\underline{K}$  and  $\underline{K}'$ , such that*

$$\mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \mu) \geq \underline{K} \left( \left| \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu) \right| / C \right) \log T + \underline{K}',$$

for all  $T$ .

Recall that  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}}$  is a subset of potentially optimal products, and  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)$  is the result of removing  $S^*(\mu)$  from that set. Expressions for the constants  $\underline{K}$  and  $\underline{K}'$  are given in Appendix A. Note that if one were to treat each possible assortment as a different arm and appeal to standard bandit-type algorithms, the regret would scale linearly with a combinatorial term of order- $\binom{N}{C}$ , instead of the much smaller constant  $\left( \left| \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu) \right| / C \right)$  appearing above. Theorem 1 also suggests that when all non-optimal products are strictly suboptimal (and hence  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}} = S^*(\mu)$ ), a finite regret may be attainable. It is worth noting that  $\bar{\mathcal{N}} = \tilde{\mathcal{N}}$  for Luce-type choice models, the MNL being a special case (this also holds for other choice models under certain conditions). When this is not the case, one can adapt our results to provide a tighter bound where the regret scales linearly with  $\left( \left| \mathcal{N}' \setminus S^*(\mu) \right| / C \right)$  for a set  $\mathcal{N}' \subseteq \mathcal{N}$  such that  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{N}' \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{N}}$ .

**REMARK 2 (Implications for design of “good” policies).** The proof of Theorem 1, which is outlined below, suggests certain desirable properties for assortment policies: (i.) potentially optimal products are to be tested on order- $\log T$  customers; and (ii) product experimentation should be conducted in batches of size  $C$ , and only on potentially optimal products. In addition,

Theorem 1 does not impose a-priori constraints on the number of customers to whom strictly suboptimal products are offered to. This suggests that strictly-suboptimal products may only be tested on a finite number of customers (in expectation), *independent* of  $T$ . This will be proved in what follows (see Corollary 1).

#### 4.2. Proof outline and intuition behind Theorem 1

The proof of Theorem 1 exploits the connection between the regret and testing of suboptimal assortments. In particular, it bounds the regret by computing lower bounds on the expected number of tests involving some potentially optimal products that are not optimal (those in  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus \mathcal{S}^*(\mu)$ ): each time such a product is offered, the corresponding assortment must be sub-optimal, contributing directly to the policy’s regret.

To bound the number of tests involving non-optimal products, we use a change-of-measure argument introduced by Lai and Robbins (1985) for proving an analogous result for a multi-armed bandit problem. To adapt this idea, we need to address the fact that realizations of the underlying random variables (i.e., product utilities) are non-observable in the assortment setting, which differs from the bandit setting where reward realizations are observed directly. Our argument can be roughly described as follows. By construction, any non-optimal product  $i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}}$  is in the optimal assortment for at least one alternative (suitable chosen) mean utility vector. When such an alternative vector is considered, any consistent policy  $\pi$  must offer product  $i$  to all but a sub-polynomial (in  $T$ ) number of customers. If this alternative vector does not differ in a “significant manner” from the original, a notion that is made precise in Appendix A, then one would expect this product to be offered to a large number of customers under the original mean utility vector  $\mu$ . In particular, for a product  $i$  in  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}}$ , the alternative vector differs from  $\mu$  only on the parameter associated with product  $i$ : one can use this observation to show that for any policy  $\pi$

$$\mathbb{P}_\pi \{T_i(T) \leq \log T/K_i\} \rightarrow 0, \tag{3}$$

as  $T \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}}$ , where  $T_i(t)$  is the number of customers product  $i$  has been offered to up until customer  $t - 1$ , and  $K_i$  is a finite positive constant. Note that this asymptotic minimum-testing

requirement is inversely proportional to  $K_i$ , which turns out to be a measure of how close the vector  $\mu$  is to a configuration that makes product  $i$  be part of the optimal assortment. One can use the above to bound the expected number of times non-optimal products in such a class are tested: using Markov's inequality we have that, for any  $i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)$ ,

$$\liminf_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathbb{E}_\pi \{T_i(T)\}}{\log T} \geq \frac{1}{K_i}.$$

The result in Theorem 1 follows directly from the above and the connection between the regret and testing of suboptimal assortments, mentioned at the beginning of this section.

## 5. Dynamic Assortment Planning Policies

This section introduces an assortment policy whose structure is guided by the key insights gleaned from Theorem 1. Our policy is based on the idea that performance of a product in a given assortment, measured in terms of frequency of purchase, should provide information on the performance of the same product in other assortments. More formally, one might recover mean utilities of products on a given assortment by observing the frequency at which products are purchased when such an assortment is offered. With this in mind, we introduce the following assumption.

**ASSUMPTION 1 (Identifiability).** *For any vector  $\rho \in \mathbb{R}_+^N$  such that  $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} \rho_i < 1$ , there exists a unique vector  $\eta(\rho)$  such that  $p_i(\mathcal{N}, \eta(\rho)) = \rho_i$ , for all  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ . In addition,  $p(\mathcal{N}, \cdot)$  is Lipschitz continuous, and  $\eta(\cdot)_i$  is locally Lipschitz continuous in the neighborhood of  $\rho$ , when  $\rho_i > 0$ .*

Note that, since  $F$  is absolutely continuous, any  $i \in \mathcal{N}$  with  $\rho_i = 0$  might be regarded as *infinitely unattractive* to consumers (i.e.  $\eta(\rho)_i = -\infty$ ), and thus can be ignored. Under this assumption, one can recover mean utilities for products in a given assortment from the associated purchase probability vector. We exploit this when estimating the mean utility vector  $\mu$ : we first estimate purchase probabilities by observing consumer purchase decisions; then, we use those probabilities to reconstruct a mean utility vector that is consistent with such observed behavior. Note that the Logit model, for which  $F$  is a standard Gumbel, satisfies this assumption.



### 5.1. Intuition and a simple “separation-based” policy

To build some intuition we first consider a policy that separates exploration from exploitation. Assuming prior knowledge of  $T$ , such a policy first engages in an exploration phase, where  $\lceil N/C \rceil$  assortments, encompassing all products, are offered sequentially to order- $\log T$  customers ( $\lceil n \rceil$  denotes the smallest integer larger than a real number  $n$ ); the intuition for this scale comes from Theorem 1. Then, an estimator for  $\mu$  is computed based on observed purchase decisions. Later, in the exploitation phase, this estimator is used to compute a proxy for the optimal assortment, which is then offered to the remaining customers. Define the set of test-assortments  $\mathcal{A} := \{A_1, \dots, A_{\lceil N/C \rceil}\}$  used in the exploration phase, where

$$A_j = \{(j-1)C + 1, \dots, \min\{jC, N\}\}.$$

Suppose  $t-1$  customers have arrived: for each  $A_j \in \mathcal{A}$ , we use  $\hat{p}_{i,t}(A_j)$  to estimate  $p_i(A_j, \mu)$ , where

$$\hat{p}_{i,t}(A_j) := \frac{\sum_{u=1}^{t-1} Z_i^u \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\}}{\sum_{u=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\}}, \quad (4)$$

for  $i \in A_j \cup \{0\}$ , and  $\hat{p}_{i,t}(A_j) = 0$  otherwise. Let  $\hat{p}_t(A_j) := (\hat{p}_{1,t}(A_j), \dots, \hat{p}_{N,t}(A_j))$  denote the vector of estimated purchase probabilities associated with test-assortment  $A_j$ .

For  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ , we use  $\hat{\mu}_{t,i}$  to estimate  $\mu_i$ , with

$$\hat{\mu}_{t,i} := (\eta(\hat{p}_t(A_j)))_i,$$

where  $A_j$  corresponds to the unique test-assortment including product  $i$ , and  $(a)_i$  denotes the  $i$ -th component of the vector  $a$ . The procedure above allows one to separate estimation across subsets of products, as opposed to estimating *all* parameters simultaneously (which is computationally expensive for large problem instances). However, the procedure does not allow refining parameter estimates using information collected from offerings beyond the exploration phase. Let  $\hat{\mu}_t := (\hat{\mu}_{t,1}, \dots, \hat{\mu}_{t,N})$  denote the vector of mean utility estimates. One can show that when Assumption 1 holds, our method is an instance of maximum-likelihood estimation (MLE): see (Daganzo 1979, p.118). See further discussion of key features and possible limitations of our approach in Section 7.

The idea behind the separation-based policy is the following: when an assortment  $A_j \in \mathcal{A}$  has been offered to a large number of customers one would expect  $\hat{p}_t(A_j)$  to be close to  $p(A_j, \mu)$ . If this is the case for all assortments in  $\mathcal{A}$ , by Assumption 1, one would also expect  $\hat{\mu}_t$  to be close to  $\mu$ . The separation-based policy, summarized for convenience in Algorithm 1, is defined through a positive constant  $\kappa_1$  that regulates the length of the exploration phase.

---

**Algorithm 1** :  $\pi_1 = \pi(\kappa_1, T, w)$

---

**STEP 1.** Exploration:

Offer each test assortment in  $\mathcal{A}$  to  $\lceil \kappa_1 \log T \rceil$  customers [Exploration]

**STEP 2.** Exploitation:

Compute estimate  $\hat{\mu}_t := \{\hat{\mu}_{t,1}, \dots, \hat{\mu}_{t,N}\}$ .

Offer  $S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)$  to all remaining customers. [Exploitation]

---

**Performance analysis.** This policy is constructed to guarantee that the expected revenue loss during the exploitation phase balances that stemming from exploration efforts, which is of order- $\log T$ . This, in turn, translates into an order- $(\lceil N/C \rceil \log T)$  regret. The next result formalizes this.

**THEOREM 2.** *Let  $\pi_1 := \pi(\kappa_1, T, w)$  be defined by Algorithm 1 and let Assumption 1 hold. There exist finite constants  $\bar{K}_1$  and  $\bar{\kappa}_1$ , such that the regret associated with  $\pi_1$  is bounded as follows*

$$\mathcal{R}^{\pi_1}(T, \mu) \leq \kappa_1 (\lceil N/C \rceil) \log T + \bar{K}_1,$$

for all  $T$ , provided that  $\kappa_1 > \bar{\kappa}_1$ .

Constants  $\bar{K}_1$  and  $\bar{\kappa}_1$  are instance-specific, but do not depend on the length of the selling horizon. Proof of Theorem 2 elucidates that  $\bar{K}_1$  bounds the expected cumulative revenue loss incurred during the exploitation phase, while  $\bar{\kappa}_1$  represents the minimum value of  $\kappa_1$  that makes such a bound finite and independent of  $T$ . The bound presented in Theorem 2 is essentially the one in Theorem 1, with  $N$  replacing  $|\tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)|$ . This indicates that: (i) imposing the right order (in  $T$ ) of exploration is enough to obtain the right dependence (in  $T$ ) of the regret; and (ii) achieving the lower bound requires limiting the exploration on strictly suboptimal products.

REMARK 3 (**Selection of the tuning parameter  $\kappa_1$** ). We have established that the lower bound in Theorem 1 can be achieved, in terms of its dependence on  $T$ , for proper choice of  $\kappa_1$ . However, Theorem 2 requires  $\kappa_1$  to be greater than  $\bar{\kappa}_1$ , whose value is not known a priori. In particular, setting  $\kappa_1$  below the specified threshold might compromise the performance guarantee in Theorem 2. To avoid the risk of miss-specifying  $\kappa_1$ , one can increase the length of the exploration phase to, say,  $|\mathcal{A}| \kappa_1 (\log t)^{1+\alpha}$ , for any  $\alpha > 0$ . With this, the upper bound above would read

$$\mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \mu) \leq \kappa_1 \lceil N/C \rceil (\log T)^{1+\alpha} + \bar{K}_1,$$

for any  $\kappa_1$ , and the policy becomes optimal up to a  $(\log T)^\alpha$ -term.

Next, we illustrate the performance of Algorithm 1 in two examples which consider the most prevalent choice models in the literature, i.e, the Logit and Probit models.

**Example 1: performance of the separation-based policy  $\pi_1$  for an MNL choice model.**

Consider  $N = 10$  and  $C = 4$ , with

$$\begin{aligned} w &= (0.98, 0.88, 0.82, 0.77, 0.71, 0.60, 0.57, 0.16, 0.04, 0.02), \\ \mu &= (0.36, 0.84, 0.62, 0.64, 0.80, 0.31, 0.84, 0.78, 0.38, 0.34), \end{aligned}$$

and assume  $\{\zeta_i^t\}$  have a standard Gumbel distribution, for all  $i \in \mathcal{N}$  and all  $t \geq 1$ , i.e., we consider the MNL choice model. One can verify that  $S^*(\mu) = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  and  $r(S^*(\mu), \mu) = 0.76$ . Test-assortments are given by  $A_1 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ ,  $A_2 = \{5, 6, 7, 8\}$  and  $A_3 = \{9, 10\}$ .

**Example 2: performance of the separation-based policy  $\pi_1$  for a multinomial Probit choice model.** Consider  $N = 6$  and  $C = 2$ , with

$$\begin{aligned} w &= (2.00, 1.80, 1.50, 1.40, 1.20, 1.00), \\ \mu &= (0.20, 0.30, 0.35, 0.45, 0.50, 0.55), \end{aligned}$$

and assume  $\{\zeta_i^t\}$  have a standard normal distribution, for all  $i \in \mathcal{N}$  and all  $t \geq 1$ , i.e., we consider the multinomial Probit choice model. One can verify that  $S^*(\mu) = \{1, 2\}$  and  $r(S^*(\mu), \mu) = 1.39$ . Test-assortments are given by  $A_1 = \{1, 2\}$ ,  $A_2 = \{3, 4\}$  and  $A_3 = \{5, 6\}$ .

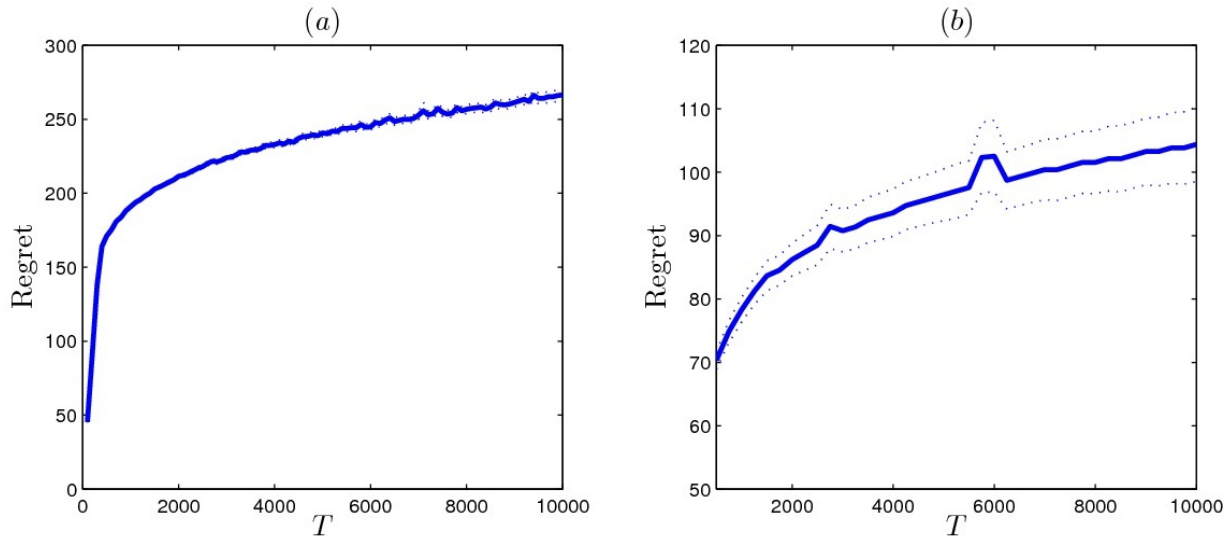
Panels (a) and (b) in Figure 1 depict the average performance of policy  $\pi_1$  for instances in Examples 1 and 2, respectively. In Example 1, parameter estimates are computed via  $\eta(\hat{p}_t(A_j))$  using the closed form expression for  $\eta(\cdot)$  given in (6). In Example 2,  $\eta(\cdot)$  cannot be expressed in closed form, and we use maximum simulated likelihood estimation (recall that when Assumption 1 holds our method is an instance of MLE). Note that existence of an inverse mapping for the trinomial Probit model is well known: see Daganzo (1979). Additional details on parameter estimation can be found in Appendix B.

In Examples 1 and 2 we solve the single-sale profit maximization problem via enumeration. Simulation results were conducted over 500 replications, using  $\kappa_1 = 20$ , and considering selling horizons ranging from  $T = 500$  to  $T = 10000$ . Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals for the simulation results. Note that the regret in both panels seems to be of order- $\log T$ , as predicted by Theorem 2. Also, note that policy  $\pi_1$  makes suboptimal decisions on a diminishing fraction of customers, e.g., in panel (a) it ranges from around 10% when the horizon is 2000 sales attempts, and diminishes to around 2.5% for a horizon of 10,000. (Recall that the regret is directly linked to the number of suboptimal sales.)

In the case of Example 1, one can show that  $\bar{\mathcal{N}} = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  (see Section 5.3). We observe that, by construction, in this setting assortments  $A_2$  and  $A_3$  are offered to order- $\log T$  customers, despite being composed exclusively of strictly suboptimal products. That is, the separation algorithm does not attempt to limit testing efforts over suboptimal products. Moreover, it assumes a priori knowledge of the total number of customers,  $T$ . The next section proposes a policy that addresses these two issues.

## 5.2. A refined dynamic assortment policy

Ideally, a policy should offer suboptimal assortments to at most order- $\log T$  consumers, and those assortments should not include strictly suboptimal products. Thus, such a policy should be able to “identify” strictly suboptimal products when there is no information about the mean utility provided by *any* of these products. We observe that, in general, there exists a threshold value,  $\omega(\mu) < r(S^*(\mu), \mu)$ , such that



**Figure 1** Performance of the separation-based policy  $\pi_1$ . The graphs (a) and (b) illustrate the dependence of the regret on  $T$  for instances in Examples 1 and 2, respectively. Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals for the simulation results.

$$\underline{\mathcal{N}} = \{i \in \mathcal{N} : w_i < \omega(\mu)\},$$

i.e., any product with margin less than this threshold value is strictly suboptimal and vice versa. This observation follows from noting that products are ex ante differentiated only through their profit margins, hence it is not possible for a potentially optimal product to have a lower profit margin than a strictly suboptimal one. One can use this observation in the design of test-assortments: consider the set of test-assortments  $\mathcal{A} := \{A_1, \dots, A_{\lceil N/C \rceil}\}$ , where

$$A_j = \{i_{((j-1)C+1)}, \dots, i_{(\min\{jC, N\})}\},$$

and  $i_{(k)}$  corresponds to the product with the  $k$ -th highest profit margin. Suppose one has a proxy for  $\omega(\mu)$ . One can then use this value to identify assortments containing at least one potentially optimal product and to force the *right* order of exploration on such assortments. If successful, such a scheme will limit exploration on assortments containing only strictly suboptimal products. Note that in practice,  $\omega(\mu)$  must be computed numerically for most choice models. This procedure is greatly simplified when  $\bar{\mathcal{N}} = \tilde{\mathcal{N}}$ , so that assessing potential-optimality is equivalent to solving a one-dimensional single-sale profit maximization problem.

Next, we propose a policy that limits exploration on strictly suboptimal products, and show that it performs well for any value of  $T$ . The policy executes the following logic upon arrival of customer  $t$ : using  $\hat{\mu}_t$ , the current estimate of  $\mu$ , it solves for  $S_t = S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)$ , and computes the threshold value  $\omega_t = \omega(\hat{\mu}_t)$ . If all assortments in  $\mathcal{A}$  containing products with margins greater than or equal to  $\omega_t$  have been tested on a minimum number of customers, then assortment  $S_t$  is offered to customer  $t$ . Otherwise, we select, arbitrarily, an *under-tested* assortment in  $\mathcal{A}$  containing at least one product with margin greater than or equal to  $\omega_t$ , and offer it to the current customer. (The term under-tested means tested on less than order-log  $t$  customers prior to the arrival of customer  $t$ .) Note that this logic will enforce the correct order of exploration for any value of  $T$ .

---

**Algorithm 2 :**  $\pi_2 = \pi(\kappa_2, w)$

---

**STEP 1.** Initialization:

Offer each test-assortment in  $\mathcal{A}$  to a customer [Initial test]

**STEP 2.** Joint exploration and assortment optimization:

**for** customer  $t$  **do**

Compute estimate  $\hat{\mu}_t := \{\hat{\mu}_{t,1}, \dots, \hat{\mu}_{t,N}\}$ , and  $\omega_t = \omega(\hat{\mu}_t)$ .

Set  $\mathcal{A}_t = \{A_j \in \mathcal{A} : \max\{w_i : i \in A_j\} \geq \omega_t\}$ . [Test-assortments]

**if** some  $A_j \in \mathcal{A}_t$  has been offered to less than  $\kappa_2 \log t$  customers **then**

Offer such  $A_j$  to customer  $t$ . [Exploration]

**else**

Offer  $S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)$  to customer  $t$ . [Exploitation]

**end if**

**end for**

---

This policy, denoted  $\pi_2$  and summarized for convenience in Algorithm 2, monitors the quality of the estimates for potentially optimal products by imposing a minimum exploration frequency on assortments containing such products. The specific structure of  $\mathcal{A}$  ensures that test assortments do

not “mix” high-margin products with low-margin products, thus successfully limiting exploration on strictly-suboptimal products. The policy uses a tuning parameter  $\kappa_2$  to balance exploration (which contributes directly to the regret), and the expected revenue loss in the exploitation phase.

**Performance analysis.** The next result characterizes the performance of the proposed assortment policy. Recall that  $\lceil n \rceil$  denotes the smallest integer larger than a real number  $n$ .

**THEOREM 3.** *Let  $\pi_2 = \pi(\kappa_2, w)$  be defined by Algorithm 2 and let Assumption 1 hold. There exist finite constants  $\bar{K}_2$  and  $\bar{\kappa}_2$ , such that the regret associated with  $\pi_2$  is bounded as follows*

$$\mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \mu) \leq \kappa_2 (\lceil |\bar{\mathcal{N}}| / C \rceil) \log T + \bar{K}_2,$$

for all  $T$ , provided that  $\kappa_2 > \bar{\kappa}_2$ .

The performance guarantee in Theorem 3 manifests the correct dependence on both  $T$  and  $\bar{\mathcal{N}}$ , as per Theorem 1 (up to the size of the optimal assortment, and the difference between  $\bar{\mathcal{N}}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}}$ ). The result essentially shows that focusing exploration efforts on a set of products “rich enough” to provide an optimality guarantee for the incumbent optimal solution, suffices for identifying the optimal assortment with high probability. Note that the argument in Remark 3 remains valid in regard to the selection of  $\kappa_2$ . Theorem 3 also states (implicitly) that assortments containing only strictly-suboptimal products will be tested on a finite number of customers (in expectation). The following corollary formalizes this statement. Recall that  $T_i(t)$  denotes the number of customers product  $i$  has been offered to, up to the arrival of customer  $t$ .

**COROLLARY 1.** *Let Assumption 1 hold. Then, for any assortment  $A_j \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $A_j \subseteq \underline{\mathcal{N}}$ , and for any selling horizon  $T$*

$$\mathbb{E}_\pi[T_i(T)] \leq K_2,$$

for all  $i \in A_j$ , where  $K_2$  is a finite positive constant independent of  $T$ .

**REMARK 4 (Relationship to bandit problems).** The result in Corollary 1 stands in contrast to typical multi-armed bandit results, where *all* suboptimal arms/actions need to be tried at least

order-log  $t$  times (in expectation). In the assortment problem, product rewards are random variables bounded above by their corresponding margins. Therefore, the contribution of a product to the overall profit is bounded, independent of its mean utility. More importantly, this feature makes some products a priori *better* than others. Such characteristic is not present in the typical bandit problem, and the above result illustrates some of its implications.

Next, we illustrate the performance of the proposed algorithm for the examples of Section 5.1.

**Example 1-continued: performance of the policy  $\pi_2$  for the MNL choice model.** Consider the setting of Example 1 in Section 5.1: in Section 5.3 we show that  $\omega(\mu) = r(S^*(\mu), \mu)$ , hence one has that  $\underline{\mathcal{N}} = A_2 \cup A_3$ . Note that  $\overline{\mathcal{N}} = A_1$ , thus one would expect Algorithm 2 to offer suboptimal assortments to a finite number of consumers, independent of  $T$ .

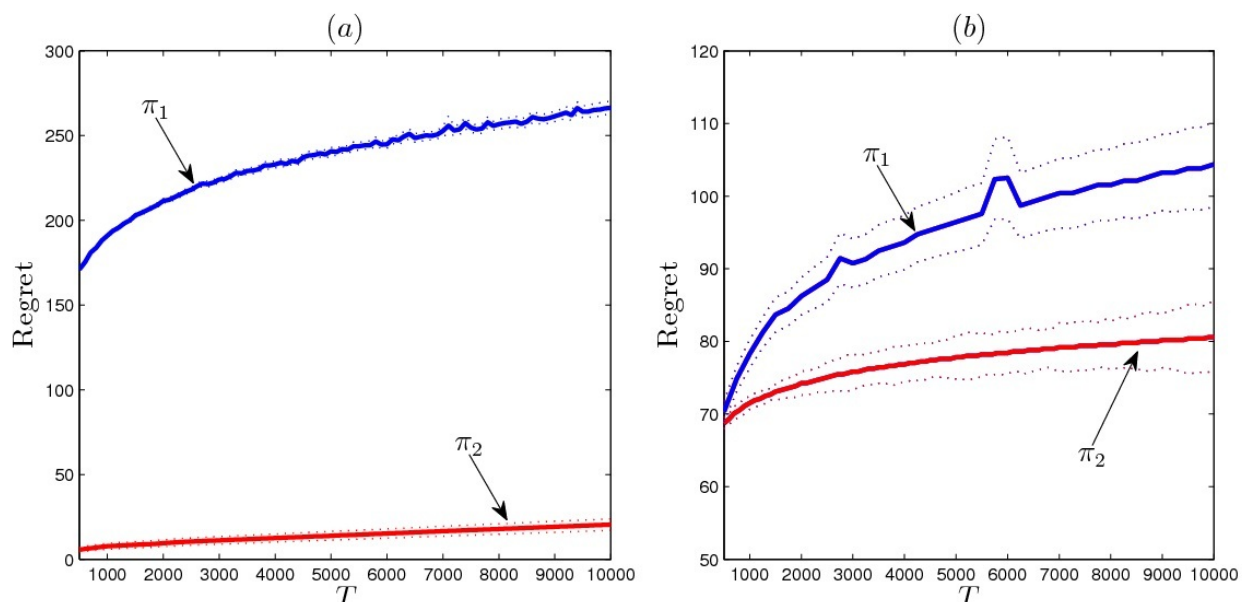
**Example 2-continued: performance of the policy  $\pi_2$  for the Probit choice model.** Consider the setting of Example 2 in Section 5.1. One can check (numerically) that  $\underline{\mathcal{N}} = A_3$ . Since test-assortment  $A_2$  is suboptimal, but contains potentially optimal products, Algorithm 2 should offer it to order-log  $T$  consumers.

Panels (a) and (b) in Figure 2 depict the average performance of policies  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  for instances in Examples 1 and 2, respectively. Parameter estimation and single-sale profit maximization are conducted as in Examples 1 and 2. The threshold value  $\omega(\mu)$  is computed through its closed form expression for the case of Example 1 above. For the case of Example 2, one can show that  $\overline{\mathcal{N}} = \tilde{\mathcal{N}}$ , thus computing  $\mathcal{A}_t$  requires verifying potential-optimality for only one product per test-assortment. Such a step is conducted through numerical maximization and simulation. (Simulation is used to approximate purchase probabilities, and numerical maximization is used to find an alternative mean utility configuration that improves the optimal single-sale profit.).

Simulation results were conducted over 500 replications, using  $\kappa_1 = \kappa_2 = 20$ . Graphs (a) and (b) compare the regret produced by the separation-based policy  $\pi_1$  and the proposed policy  $\pi_2$ , for selling horizons ranging from  $T = 500$  to  $T = 10000$ . Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals for the simulation results. We observe that policy  $\pi_2$  outperforms substantially the separation-based policy  $\pi_1$ . In particular, for the instance in Example 1,  $\pi_1$  results in lost sales in the range of 2.5-10%



(200-260 customers are offered non-optimal choices) depending on the length of selling horizon, while for  $\pi_2$  we observe sub-optimal decisions being made only about 10-20 times, *independent of the horizon*. This constitutes more than a 10-fold improvement over the performance of  $\pi_1$ . Such an improvement in performance can be explained as follows:  $\pi_2$  identifies that both  $A_2$  and  $A_3$  contain only strictly suboptimal products, with increasing probability as  $t$  grows large; as a result, exploration efforts are eventually directed exclusively to the optimal assortment; since incorrect choices in the exploitation phase are also controlled by  $\pi_2$ , we expect the regret to be finite. This is supported by the numerical results displayed in Figure 2.



**Figure 2** Performance of the refined policy  $\pi_2$ . The graphs (a) and (b) compare the separation-based policy  $\pi_1$ , given by Algorithm 1, and the proposed policy  $\pi_2$ , in terms of regret-dependence on  $T$ , for instances in Examples 1 and 2, respectively. Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals for the simulation results.

### 5.3. A policy customized to the multinomial Logit choice model

In general, purchase probabilities depend on the offered assortment in a non-trivial way. With no trivial way to combine information collected from offering different assortments, it is not clear how to use data gathered in the exploitation phase efficiently. Next, we illustrate how to modify

parameter estimation to include exploitation-based information in the case of an MNL choice model. Note that Rusmevichientong et al. (2010) present an efficient algorithm for solving the single-sale optimization problem in this setting. (As indicated previously, the results in this section extend directly to Luce-type choice models.)

**MNL choice model properties.** Taking  $F$  to have a standard Gumbel distribution (see, for example, Anderson et al. (1992))

$$p_i(S, \mu) = \frac{\nu_i}{1 + \sum_{j \in S} \nu_j} \quad i \in S, \text{ for any } S \in \mathcal{S}, \quad (5)$$

where  $\nu_i := \exp(\mu_i)$ ,  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ , and  $\nu := (\nu_1, \dots, \nu_N)$ . For a vector  $\rho \in \mathbb{R}_+^N$  such that  $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} \rho_i < 1$ , we have that  $\eta(\rho)$ , the unique solution to  $\{\rho_i = p_i(\mathcal{N}, \mu), i \in \mathcal{N}\}$ , is given by

$$\eta_i(\rho) = \begin{cases} \ln \left( \rho_i (1 - \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}} \rho_j)^{-1} \right) & \rho_i > 0, \\ -\infty & \rho_i = 0, \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

$i \in \mathcal{N}$ . One can check that (5) and (6) imply that  $\bar{\mathcal{N}} = \tilde{\mathcal{N}}$ . Indeed, solving the single-sale optimization problem in this setting is equivalent to finding the *largest* value of  $\lambda$  such that

$$\sum_{i \in S} \nu_i (w_i - \lambda) \geq \lambda, \quad (7)$$

for some  $S \in \mathcal{S}$ , thus one can characterize the set of strictly suboptimal products as

$$\underline{\mathcal{N}} = \{i \in \mathcal{N} : w_i < r(S^*(\mu), \mu)\}.$$

This implies that  $\omega(\mu) = r(S^*(\mu), \mu)$  for the MNL model.

**A product-based exploration assortment policy.** We propose a policy, denoted  $\pi_3$ , customized for the MNL choice model. The policy, summarized for convenience in Algorithm 3, maintains the general structure of Algorithm 2, however parameter estimation is conducted at the product level. As in the previous sections, the policy is defined through a positive constant  $\kappa_3$  that regulates the length of the exploration phase.

Suppose  $t - 1$  customers have shown up so far. We use  $\hat{\nu}_{i,t}$  to estimate  $\nu_i$ , where

$$\hat{\nu}_{i,t} := \frac{\sum_{u=1}^{t-1} Z_i^u \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\}}{\sum_{u=1}^{t-1} Z_0^u \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\}} \quad i \in \mathcal{N}, \quad (8)$$

and define  $\mu_{i,t}^{\hat{}} := \ln(\hat{\nu}_{i,t})$ . The estimate above exploits the independence of irrelevant alternatives (IIA) property of the Logit model, which states that the ratio between purchase probabilities of any two products is independent of the assortment in which they are offered. That is,

$$\frac{p_i(S, \mu)}{p_j(S, \mu)} = \frac{\nu_i}{\nu_j}, \quad \text{for all products } i, j \in \mathcal{N} \cup \{0\}, \text{ for all } S \in \mathcal{S}.$$

Indeed, the IIA property allows us to perform parameter estimation on subsets of products without using pre-determined assortments (See Chapter 3 in Train (2009) for further details). In our case, we perform separate estimation on each pair product/no-purchase alternative. As a result, all information collected (both from exploration and exploitation phases) is used to construct the parameter estimates. It is worth noting that a policy exploiting this feature might help correct errors made in the exploitation phase faster than the previous type of policy; In particular, estimates of expected single-sale profits for suboptimal assortments offered during exploitation are anticipated to converge faster to their actual values, thus optimal products are likely to be identified as such at earlier stages; see the discussion following Example 3.

**Performance analysis.** The next result characterizes the performance of the proposed assortment policy.

**THEOREM 4.** *Let  $\pi_3 = \pi(\kappa_3, w)$  be defined by Algorithm 3. There exist finite constants  $\bar{K}_3$  and  $\bar{\kappa}_3$ , such that the regret associated with  $\pi_3$  is bounded as follows*

$$\mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \mu) \leq \kappa_3 (|\bar{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)|) \log T + \bar{K}_3,$$

for all  $T$ , provided that  $\kappa_3 > \bar{\kappa}_3$ .

Theorem 4 is essentially the equivalent of Theorem 3, customized to the Logit case, with the exception of the dependence on the assortment capacity  $C$  (as here exploration is conducted on a product basis), and the dependence on the set  $\bar{\mathcal{N}}$ . The latter matches exactly the order of the result in Theorem 1: unlike policy  $\pi_2$ , the customized policy  $\pi_3$  prevents optimal products from being offered in suboptimal assortments. Since estimation is conducted using information arising from

---

**Algorithm 3** :  $\pi_3 = \pi(\kappa_3, w)$ 


---

**STEP 1.** Initialization:

Offer each product  $i \in \mathcal{N}$  by itself until a no-purchase occurs. [Initial test]

**STEP 2.** Joint exploration and assortment optimization:

**for** customer  $t$  **do**

Compute estimates  $\hat{\mu}_t := \{\hat{\mu}_{1,t}, \dots, \hat{\mu}_{N,t}\}$  and set  $\omega_t = r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t)$ .

Set  $\bar{\mathcal{N}}_t = \{i \in \mathcal{N} : w_i \geq \omega_t\}$ . [Potentially optimal products]

**if** some  $i \in \bar{\mathcal{N}}_t$  has been offered to less than  $\kappa_3 \log t$  customers **then**

Offer  $S \in \{i \in \bar{\mathcal{N}}_t : T_i(t) \leq \kappa_3 \log t\} \cap \mathcal{S}$  to customer  $t$ . [Exploration]

**else**

Offer  $S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)$  to customer  $t$ . [Exploitation]

**end if**

**end for**


---

both the exploration and exploitation phases, one would expect a better empirical performance from the Logit customized policy. In particular, strictly-suboptimal products will be tested on a finite number of customers, in expectation, as shown in the following corollary.

**COROLLARY 2.** *For any strictly-suboptimal product  $i \in \underline{\mathcal{N}}$  and for any selling horizon  $T$*

$$\mathbb{E}_\pi[T_i(T)] \leq K_3,$$

*for a positive finite constant  $K_3$ , independent of  $T$ .*

Regarding selection of the parameter  $\kappa_3$ , note that the argument in Remark 3 remains valid.

**Example 1-continued: performance of the MNL-customized policy  $\pi_3$ .** Consider the setup of Example 1 in Section 5.1. Note that  $S^*(\mu) = A_2$ , i.e. the optimal assortment matches one of the test assortments. Moreover, one has that  $\bar{\mathcal{N}} = S^*(\mu)$ . As a result, strictly suboptimal detection is conducted in finite time for both policies  $\pi_2$  and  $\pi_3$ , and hence any gain in performance for policy  $\pi_3$  over  $\pi_2$  is tied in to the ability of the former to incorporate information gathered during both

exploration and exploitation phases.

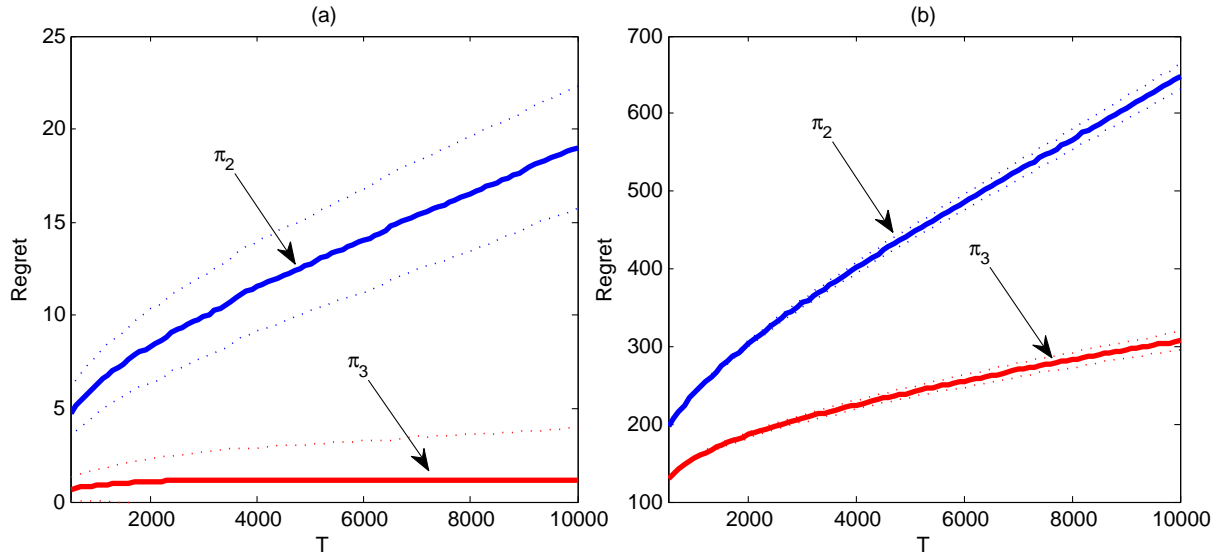
**Example 3: performance of the MNL-customized policy revisited.** Consider the setup of Example 1 in Section 5.1, but when

$$w = (0.95, 0.81, 0.75, 0.72, 0.68, 0.60, 0.58, 0.41, 0.35, 0.21),$$

$$\mu = -(2.83, 3.96, 5.50, 2.90, 2.60, 2.80, 3.20, 4.27, 4.60, 2.78).$$

This corresponds to a setting in which all products are less attractive than the no-purchase alternative. One can verify that  $S^*(\mu) = \{1, 4, 5, 6\}$  and  $r(S^*(\mu), \mu) = 0.147$ . Note that  $\underline{\mathcal{N}} = \emptyset$ , thus the difference in performance between  $\pi_2$  and  $\pi_3$  emanates mainly from the manner in which information collected during the exploitation and exploration phases is used.

Panels (a) and (b) in Figure 3 depicts the average performance of policies  $\pi_2$  and  $\pi_3$  for instances in Examples 1 and 3, respectively. Simulation results were conducted over 500 replications, using  $\kappa_2 = \kappa_3 = 20$ , and considering selling horizons ranging from  $T = 1000$  to  $T = 10000$ . Parameter estimation is conducted according to (8), and single-sale profit maximization is carried out by enumeration. The graphs compare the more general policy  $\pi_2$  to its Logit-customized version  $\pi_3$ , in terms of regret dependence on  $T$ . Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals for the simulation results. In graph (a) one can see that customization to a Logit nets significant, roughly 10-fold, improvement in performance of  $\pi_3$  relative to  $\pi_2$ . Overall, the Logit-customized policy  $\pi_3$  only offers suboptimal assortments to less than a handful of customers, regardless of the horizon of the problem. This provides “picture proof” that the regret (number of suboptimal sales) is finite for any  $T$  in the case of Example 1, as predicted by Theorem 4. This also suggests that differences in performance are mainly due to errors in the exploitation phase. This is reinforced by the results in graph (b), where we see that the Logit-customized policy  $\pi_3$  outperforms the more general policy  $\pi_2$ , confirming that the probability of error decays faster in the Logit customized version. Note that when all exploitation efforts are successful, and assuming correct strictly-suboptimal product detection, the probability of error decays *exponentially* for the customized policy ( $\pi_3$ ) and



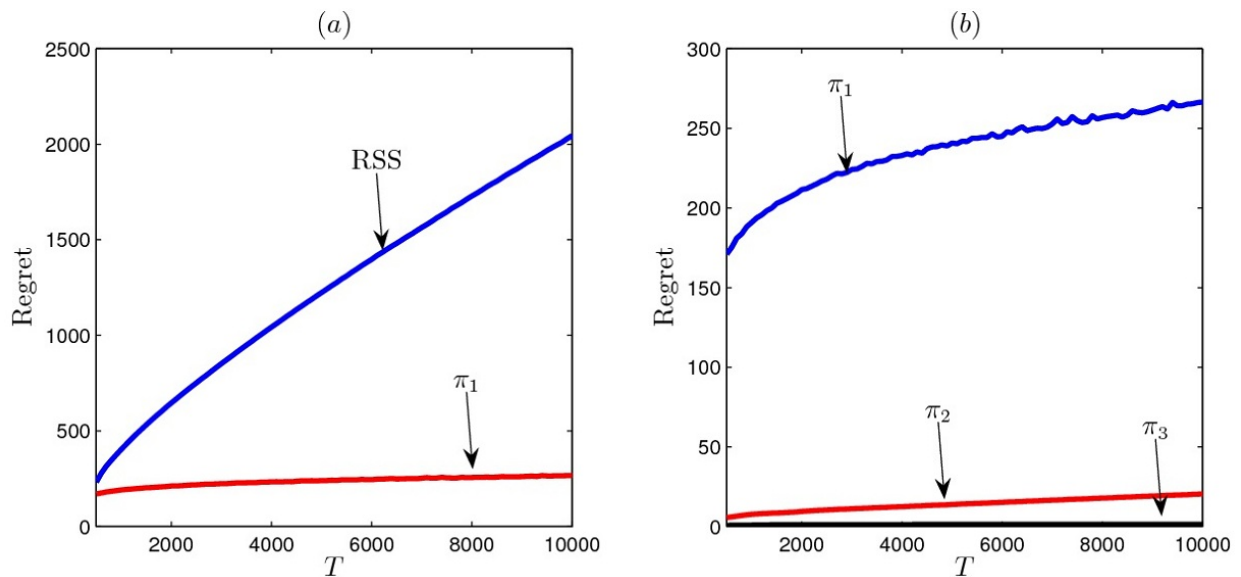
**Figure 3** Performance of the MNL-customized policy  $\pi_3$ . Graphs (a) and (b) compare the more general policy  $\pi_2$  to its Logit-customized version  $\pi_3$ , in terms of regret-dependence on  $T$ , for instances in Examples 1 and 3, respectively. Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals for the simulation results.

*polynomially* for the more general policy ( $\pi_2$ ); see further details in the proof of Theorem 4 in the online companion.

## 6. Comparison with Benchmark Results

Our results significantly improve on and generalize the policy proposed by Rusmevichientong et al. (2010), where an order- $(N \log T)^2$  performance upper bound is presented for the case of an MNL choice model. Their algorithm for solving the single-sale optimization problem identifies a small set of assortments that contains the optimal one. In its dynamic formulation, the algorithm requires to test order- $N^2$  assortments to estimate the parameters allowing to identify such a set of candidate assortments with high probability. Note that such a dynamic policy, which operates in phases, is a more direct adaptation of multi-armed bandit ideas. Hence, it does not detect strictly-suboptimal products nor does it limit exploration on them. In addition, their policy conducts exploration efforts on order- $N^2$  test-assortments, and periodically increases the magnitude the exploration effort, while neglecting information collected in previous exploration phases. The regret of our Logit-customized policy is at most of order- $|\mathcal{N} \setminus S^*(\mu)| \log T$ , and we show that this cannot be improved upon.

Consider again Example 1 in Section 5.1. Figure 4 compares the average performance of our proposed policies with that of Rusmevichientong et al. (2010), denoted RSS for short, over 500 replications, using  $\kappa_1 = \kappa_2 = \kappa_3 = 20$ , and considering selling horizons ranging from  $T = 1000$  to  $T = 10000$ . The graph in (a) compares the separation-based policy  $\pi_1$  to the benchmark policy RSS, in terms of regret-dependence on  $T$ . The graph in (b) compares the separation-based policy  $\pi_1$ , the proposed policy  $\pi_2$  and its Logit-customized version  $\pi_3$  in terms of regret-dependence on  $T$ . A further detailed analysis of the results depicted in Figure 4 reveals that the regret of the benchmark behaves quadratically with  $\log T$ , as predicted. Panel (a) in Figure 4 shows that the RSS policy offers suboptimal assortments to about 20 – 25% of the customers, while policy  $\pi_1$  never exceeds 10%, and that loss diminishes as the horizon increases to around 2.5%. Since policies  $\pi_2$  and  $\pi_3$  limit exploration on strictly-suboptimal products, a feature absent in both RSS and in the naive separation-based policy  $\pi_1$ , they exhibit far superior performance compared to either one of those benchmarks as illustrated in panel (b) of Figure 4. Note that, unlike our Logit-tailored



**Figure 4** Comparison with a benchmark performance. The graph in (a) compares the separation-based policy  $\pi_1$  to the benchmark policy RSS, in terms of regret-dependence on  $T$ . The graph in (b) compares the separation-based policy  $\pi_1$ , policy  $\pi_2$  and its Logit-customized version  $\pi_3$  in terms of regret dependence on  $T$ . Results in both panels are for Example 1.

policy, the policy in Rusmevichientong et al. (2010) only uses the information collected during the exploration phase for parameter estimation. The improvement in performance due to this feature is illustrated in panel (b) of Figure 4. The overall effect is that policy  $\pi_3$  improves performance by a factor of 200-1000 compared to RSS, and is able to zero in on the optimal assortment much faster than the benchmark.

## 7. Discussion and Concluding Remarks

**Summary and main insights.** In this paper we have studied the role of assortment experimentation in learning consumer preferences, by introducing a stylized model of dynamic assortment planning. On the theoretical side, we have provided a lower bound on the performance of any consistent policy, and showed that this lower bound can be achieved, up to constant terms, when the noise distribution in the utility specification is known, and a product identification condition holds. In particular, we proposed an assortment-based exploration algorithm whose regret scales optimally in the selling horizon  $T$ , and exhibits the “right” dependence on the number of possible optimal products when said optimality is reached via unilateral deviations in the mean utility vector (e.g. under Luce-type models).

The problem studied in this paper, and outlined in Section 3, can be viewed as a multi-armed bandit problem by means of the following analogies. First, each *assortment* might constitute an arm, hence one faces a variant of a multi-armed bandit problem with a combinatorial number of arms. Note though that arm distributions are not independent and not a-priori indistinguishable, as is the case with traditional bandit formulations. Second, each *product* might be viewed as an arm, hence one faces a variant of a multi-armed problem with multiple simultaneous plays where arms are not a-priori indistinguishable (due to differences in profit margins). Our main results clearly demonstrate the inefficiency of using standard bandit methods within the former view, while elucidating ways to overcome the obstacles present in the latter view.

On the more practical side, our results suggest how to quantify the “right” amount of information one should collect on consumer preferences, so that revenue loss due to exploration balances



with that stemming from errors during exploitation. Our results highlight the importance of limiting information collection by “quickly” identifying and ceasing exploration on products that are unlikely to be members of the optimal assortment.

**Limitations and future research.** As indicated in Section 4.1, the lower bound in Theorem 1 can be tightened when  $\bar{\mathcal{N}} \neq \tilde{\mathcal{N}}$ . The resulting bound, however, might not be proportional to  $|\bar{\mathcal{N}}|$ , which suggests even tighter bounds might be developed.

Our proposed parameter estimation method is based on MLE, thus it inherits the associated advantages and shortcomings (e.g., asymptotic efficiency yet potential for small sample bias). One can extend the results in this paper to different estimation procedures as long as consistency is preserved: see Lemma 1 in proof of Theorem 2. In particular, provided that a guarantee similar to that in Lemma 1 holds. Such a result provides finite-sample confidence intervals for the estimation error. It is worth noting that the result does not rely on properties of MLE.

An important extension to our model is considering alternative mean-utility specifications. Studies in fields such as Marketing and Economics usually postulate that mean utilities are driven by product specific features. In such a setup, the retailer would strive to recover a part-worth vector.

Another important area for future research is relaxing assumptions pertaining to the operational environment, especially that of perfect inventory replenishment. Practical inventory considerations play an important role in settings such as fast fashion and display-based online advertisement; the motivating applications considered in Section 1. An additional important extension is to consider settings where product prices must be selected as well (for simplicity, assume prices take values in a finite set). In this regard, the work of Rusmevichientong and Broder (2010) provides an initial exploration of this possibility, though absent inventory or assortment considerations.

## Appendix A: Proof of Theorem 2

We prove the result in 3 steps. First, we compute an upper bound on the probability of the estimates deviating from the true mean utilities. Second, we address the quality of the solution to the single-sale problem, when using estimated mean utilities. Finally, we combine the above and analyze the regret. For purposes of this

proof, let  $\mathbb{P}$  denote probability of random variables when the assortment policy  $\pi_1$  is used, and the mean utilities are given by the vector  $\mu$ . With a slight abuse of notation define  $p_i := \{p_i(A_j, \mu) : A_j \in \mathcal{A} \text{ s.t. } i \in A_j\}$ , for  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ , and  $p := (p_1, \dots, p_N)$ .

**Step1.** Define  $T^j(t)$  to be the number of customers  $A_j$  has been offered to, up to customer  $t - 1$ , for  $A_j \in \mathcal{A}$ .

That is,

$$T^j(t) = \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\}, \quad j = 1, \dots, |\mathcal{A}|.$$

We will need the following side lemma, whose proof is deferred to Appendix D.

LEMMA 1. *Fix  $j \leq |\mathcal{A}|$  and  $i \in A_j$ . Then, for any  $n \geq 1$  and  $\epsilon > 0$*

$$\mathbb{P} \left\{ \left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_i^u - p_i(A_j, \mu)) \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\} \right| \geq \epsilon T^j(t), T^j(t) \geq n \right\} \leq 2 \exp(-c(\epsilon)n),$$

for a positive constant  $c(\epsilon) < \infty$ .

For any vector  $\nu \in \mathbb{R}^N$  and set  $A \subseteq \mathcal{N}$  define  $\|\nu\|_A = \max\{\nu_i : i \in A\}$ . Consider  $\epsilon > 0$  and fix  $t \geq 1$ . By Assumption 1 we have that for any assortment  $A_j \subseteq \mathcal{A}$

$$\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} \leq \kappa(\epsilon) \|p - \hat{p}_t\|_{A_j}, \quad (9)$$

for some constant  $1 < \kappa(\epsilon) < \infty$ , whenever  $\|p - \hat{p}_t\|_{A_j} < \epsilon$ . We have that, for  $n \geq 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P} \{ \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} > \epsilon, T^j(t) \geq n \} &= \mathbb{P} \{ \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} > \epsilon, \|p - \hat{p}_t\|_{A_j} \geq \epsilon, T^j(t) \geq n \} + \\ &\quad \mathbb{P} \{ \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} > \epsilon, \|p - \hat{p}_t\|_{A_j} < \epsilon, T^j(t) \geq n \} \\ &\leq \mathbb{P} \{ \|p - \hat{p}_t\|_{A_j} \geq \epsilon, T^j(t) \geq n \} + \\ &\quad \mathbb{P} \{ \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} > \epsilon, \|p - \hat{p}_t\|_{A_j} < \epsilon, T^j(t) \geq n \} \\ &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \mathbb{P} \{ \|p - \hat{p}_t\|_{A_j} \geq \epsilon, T^j(t) \geq n \} + \\ &\quad \mathbb{P} \{ \|p - \hat{p}_t\|_{A_j} > \epsilon/\kappa(\epsilon), T^j(t) \geq n \} \\ &\leq 2\mathbb{P} \{ \|p - \hat{p}_t\|_{A_j} \geq \epsilon/\kappa(\epsilon), T^j(t) \geq n \} \\ &\leq 2 \sum_{i \in A_j} \mathbb{P} \{ |p_i(A_j, \mu) - \hat{p}_{i,t}| \geq \epsilon/\kappa(\epsilon), T^j(t) \geq n \} \\ &\stackrel{(b)}{=} 2 \sum_{i \in A_j} \mathbb{P} \left\{ \left| \sum_{s=1}^t (Z_i^s - p_i(A_j, \mu)) \mathbf{1}\{S_s = A_j\} \right| \geq T^j(t) \epsilon/\kappa(\epsilon), \right. \\ &\quad \left. T^j(t) \geq n \right\} \\ &\stackrel{(c)}{\leq} 2|A_j| \exp(-c(\epsilon/\kappa(\epsilon))n), \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

where (a) follows from (9), (b) follows from the definition of  $\hat{p}_{i,t}$ , and (c) follows from Lemma 1.

**Step 2.** Fix an assortment  $S \in \mathcal{S}$ . By the Lipschitz-continuity of  $p(S, \cdot)$  we have that, for  $t \geq 1$ ,

$$\max \{ |p_i(S, \mu) - p_i(S, \hat{\mu}_t)| : i \in S \} \leq K \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_S,$$

for a positive constant  $K < \infty$ , and therefore

$$|r(S, \mu) - r(S, \hat{\mu}_t)| \leq \|w\|_\infty K C \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_S. \quad (11)$$

From here, we conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \mu) &\geq r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t) - \|w\|_\infty K C \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} \\ &\geq r(S^*(\mu), \hat{\mu}_t) - \|w\|_\infty K C \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} \\ &\geq r(S^*(\mu), \mu) - 2\|w\|_\infty K C \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{(S^*(\mu) \cup S^*(\hat{\mu}_t))}. \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence, if  $\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{(S^*(\mu) \cup S^*(\hat{\mu}_t))} < (2\|w\|_\infty K C)^{-1} \delta(\mu) r(S^*(\mu), \mu)$  then  $S^*(\mu) = S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)$ , where  $\delta(\mu)$  is the minimum (relative) optimality gap (see (13) in proof of Theorem 1). This means that if the mean utility estimates are uniformly close to the underlying mean utility values, then solving the single-sale problem using estimates returns the same optimal assortment as when solving the single-sale problem with the true parameters. In particular we will use the following relation:

$$\{S^*(\mu) \neq S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)\} \subseteq \{ \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{(S^*(\mu) \cup S^*(\hat{\mu}_t))} \geq (2\|w\|_\infty K C)^{-1} \delta(\mu) r(S^*(\mu), \mu) \}. \quad (12)$$

**Step 3.** Let  $NO(t)$  denote the event that a non-optimal assortment is offered to customer  $t$ . That is  $NO(t) := \{S_t \neq S^*(\mu)\}$ . Define  $\xi := (2\|w\|_\infty K C)^{-1} \delta(\mu) r(S^*(\mu), \mu)$ . For  $t \geq |\mathcal{A}| \lceil \kappa_1 \log T \rceil$  one has that

$$\mathbb{P}\{NO(t)\} \stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \mathbb{P}\{ \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{(S^*(\mu) \cup S^*(\hat{\mu}_t))} \geq \xi \} \leq \sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbb{P}\{ \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} \geq \xi, T^j(t) \geq \kappa_1 \log T \} \stackrel{(b)}{\leq} \sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{A}} 2|A_j| T^{-\kappa_1 c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))},$$

where (a) follows from (12) and (b) follows from (10). Considering  $\kappa_1 > c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))^{-1}$  results in the following bound for the regret:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \mu) &\leq \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{P}\{NO(t)\} \leq |\mathcal{A}| \lceil \kappa_1 \log T \rceil + \sum_{t > |\mathcal{A}| \lceil \kappa_1 \log T \rceil} \sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{A}} 2|A_j| T^{-\kappa_1 c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))} \\ &\leq |\mathcal{A}| \kappa_1 \log T + 2NT^{1-\kappa_1 c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))} \\ &= \lceil N/C \rceil \kappa_1 \log T + \bar{K}_1, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\bar{K}_1 = 2N$ . Setting  $\bar{\kappa}_1 = c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))^{-1}$  gives the desired result. ■

## Appendix B: Parameter Estimation for the Probit Model

When idiosyncratic shocks to consumer utility are normally distributed purchase probabilities are given by

$$p_i(S, \mu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \prod_{j \in S \cup \{0\} \setminus \{i\}} \Phi(x - \mu_j) \phi(x - \mu_i) dx,$$

where  $\Phi(\cdot)$  and  $\phi(\cdot)$  corresponds to the distribution and density of a standard normal random variable.

Unfortunately, the integral above does not have a closed form and must be approximated numerically. In our numerical experiments we approximate such an integral through simulation.

Given the empirical probabilities  $\hat{p}_i(S)$ ,  $S \in \mathcal{A}$ , the average log-likelihood associated with  $\mu$  is

$$LL(\mu) = \sum_{i \in S \cup \{0\}} \hat{p}_i(S) \log p_i(S, \mu),$$

Since purchase probabilities cannot be computed exactly, we replace  $p_i(S, \mu)$  with its simulated counterpart.

In MLE we look for the value of  $\mu$  that maximizes  $LL$ . For that, we check the first order conditions

$$\frac{\partial LL(\mu)}{\partial \mu_i} = \sum_{j \in S \cup \{0\}} \hat{p}_j(S) \frac{1}{p_j(S, \mu)} \frac{\partial p_j(S, \mu)}{\partial \mu_i} = 0 \quad i \in S.$$

One can solve the system above using the Newton-Raphson method. However, such a method requires access to the Jacobian and Hessian of  $LL$ , which are not available in closed form. In our numerical experiments we approximate these quantities numerically. The Jacobian of  $LL$  requires approximating

$$\frac{\partial p_i(S, \mu)}{\partial \mu_i} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \prod_{j \in S \cup \{0\} \setminus \{i\}} \Phi(x - \mu_j) \phi(x - \mu_i) dx - \mu_i p_i(S, \mu) \quad i \in S,$$

and

$$\frac{\partial p_j(S, \mu)}{\partial \mu_i} = - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \prod_{h \in S \cup \{0\} \setminus \{i, j\}} \Phi(x - \mu_h) \phi(x - \mu_i) \phi(x - \mu_j) dx \quad j, i \in S \quad i \neq j.$$

Derivatives for  $p_0(S, \mu)$  follow from the fact that purchase probabilities sum up to one. The effort required to approximate the integrals above is essentially that of approximating the purchase probabilities. (In our numerical experiments we compute both of them simultaneously.) One can show that the same holds true for computing the Hessian of  $LL$ : for example, one has that

$$\frac{\partial^2 p_i(S, \mu)}{\partial^2 \mu_i} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 \prod_{j \in S \cup \{0\} \setminus \{i\}} \Phi(x - \mu_j) \phi(x - \mu_i) dx - 2\mu_i \frac{\partial p_i(S, \mu)}{\partial \mu_i} - (\mu_i^2 + 1)p_i(S, \mu) \quad i \in S,$$

thus one can approximate the Hessian, Jacobian and log-likelihood function efficiently using Monte Carlo simulation.

In our experiments we used a sample of size 50,000 to approximate each integral, and used importance sampling to enhance the precision of our approximation: in particular, we use approximations of the normal

CDF to approximate the integrals above as a sum of properly weighted components. We used incumbent parameter estimates (those computed in the previous estimation cycle) as a starting point for Newton-Raphson, and used convergence tolerance parameter of  $10^{-6}$ .

## References

- Anderson, S., A. de Palma, J-F. Thisse. 1992. *Discrete choice theory of product differentiation*. MIT Press, Cambridge MA.
- Araman, V., R. Caldentey. 2009. Dynamic pricing for non-perishable products with demand learning. *Operations Research* **57** 1169–1188.
- Besbes, O., A. Zeevi. 2009. Dynamic pricing without knowing the demand function: Risk bounds and near-optimal algorithms. *Operations Research* **57** 1407–1420.
- Caro, F., J. Gallien. 2007. Dynamic assortment with demand learning for seasonal consumer goods. *Management Science* **53** 276–292.
- Daganzo, C. 1979. *Multinomial Probit: The Theory and Its Applications to Demand Forecasting*. Academic Press.
- Farias, V., R. Madan. 2011. The irrevocable multi-armed bandit problem. *Operations Research* **59** 383 – 399.
- Farias, V., B. Van Roy. 2010. Dynamic pricing with a prior on market response. *Operations Research* **58** 16–29.
- Fisher, M., R. Vaidyanathan. 2009. An algorithm and demand estimation procedure for retail assortment optimization. Working paper.
- Gallego, G., G. Van Ryzin. 1994. Optimal dynamic pricing of inventories with stochastic demand over finite horizons. *Management Science* **50** 999–1020.
- Gaur, V., D. Honhon. 2006. Assortment planning and inventory decisions under a locational choice model. *Management Science* **52** 1528–1543.
- Goyal, V., R. Levi, D. Segev. 2009. Near-optimal algorithms for the assortment planning problem under dynamic substitution and stochastic demand. *Working paper* .
- Honhon, D., V. Gaur, S. Seshadri. 2009. Assortment planning and inventory decisions under stock-out based substitution. *Operations Research* **58** 1364 – 1379.

- Honhon, D., C. Ulu, A. Alptekinoglu. 2011. Learning consumer tastes through dynamic assortments. *Operations Research*, forthcoming.
- Hopp, W., X. Xu. 2008. A static approximation for dynamic demand substitution with applications in a competitive market. *Operations Research* **56** 630–645.
- Kok, A., M. Fisher, R. Vaidyanathan. 2008. Assortment planning: Review of literature and industry practice. *Retail Supply Chain Management*, Kluwer.
- Lai, T., H. Robbins. 1985. Asymptotically efficient adaptive allocation rules. *Advances in Applied Mathematics* **6** 4–22.
- Lim, A., J. Shanthikumar. 2007. Relative entropy, exponential utility, and robust dynamic pricing. *Operations Research* **55** 198–214.
- Mahajan, S., G. van Ryzin. 2001. Stocking retail assortments under dynamic consumer substitution. *Operations Research* **49** 334–351.
- Megiddo, N. 1979. Combinatorial optimization with rational objective functions. *Mathematics of Operations Research* **4** 414–424.
- Robbins, H. 1952. Some aspects of the sequential design of experiments. *Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society* **58** 527–535.
- Rusmevichientong, P., J. Broder. 2010. Dynamic pricing under a general parametric choice model. *Operations Research*, forthcoming.
- Rusmevichientong, P., Z. Shen, D. Shmoys. 2010. Dynamic assortment optimization with a multinomial logit choice model and capacity constraint. *Operations Research* **58** 1666–1680.
- Thompson, W. R. 1933. On the likelihood that one unknown probability exceeds another in view of the evidence of two samples. *Biometrika* **25** 285–294.
- Train, K. 2009. *Discrete Choice Methods with Simulation*. Cambridge University Press.
- van Ryzin, G., S. Mahajan. 1999. On the relationship between inventory costs and variety benefits in retail assortments. *Management Science* **45** 1496–1509.

# Online Appendix Companion to Optimal Dynamic Assortment Planning with Demand Learning

## Appendix C: Proof of Main Results

**Proof of Theorem 1.** The lower bound is trivial when  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}} = S^*(\mu)$ , so assume  $S^*(\mu) \subset \tilde{\mathcal{N}}$ . For  $i \in \mathcal{N}$  define  $T_i(t)$  as the number of customers product  $i$  has been offered to, before customer  $t$ 's arrival,

$$T_i(t) := \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\}, \quad t \geq 1.$$

Similarly, for  $n \geq 1$  define  $t_i(n)$  as the customer to whom product  $i$  is offered for the  $n$ -th time,

$$t_i(n) := \inf \{t \geq 1 : T_i(t+1) = n\}, \quad n \geq 1.$$

For  $i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)$ , define  $\Gamma_i$  as the set of mean utility vectors for which product  $i$  is in the optimal assortment, but that differs from  $\mu$  only on its  $i$ -th coordinate. That is,

$$\Gamma_i := \{\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^N : \gamma_i \neq \mu_i, \gamma_j = \mu_j \quad \forall j \in \mathcal{N} \setminus \{i\}, i \in S^*(\gamma)\}.$$

We will use  $\mathbb{E}_\pi^\gamma$  and  $\mathbb{P}_\pi^\gamma$  to denote expectations and probabilities of random variables, when the assortment policy  $\pi \in \mathcal{P}$  is used, and the mean utilities are given by the vector  $\gamma$ . Let  $\mathcal{I}_i(\mu||\gamma)$  denote the Kullback-Leibler divergence between  $F(\cdot - \mu_i)$  and  $F(\cdot - \gamma_i)$ ,

$$\mathcal{I}_i(\mu||\gamma) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [\log(dF(x - \mu_i)/dF(x - \gamma_i))] dF(x - \mu_i).$$

This quantity measures the “distance” between  $\mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu$  and  $\mathbb{P}_\pi^\gamma$ . We have that  $0 < \mathcal{I}_i(\mu||\gamma) < \infty$  for all  $\gamma \neq \mu$ ,  $i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)$ . Fix  $i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}}$  and consider a configuration  $\gamma \in \Gamma_i$ . For  $n \geq 1$  define the log-likelihood function

$$\mathcal{L}_i(n) := \sum_{u=1}^n \left[ \log(dF(U_i^{t_i(u)} - \mu_i)/dF(U_i^{t_i(u)} - \gamma_i)) \right].$$

Note that  $\mathcal{L}_i(\cdot)$  is defined in terms of utility realizations that are unobservable to the retailer. Define  $\delta(\eta)$  as the minimum (relative) optimality gap when the mean utility vector is given by  $\eta \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ,

$$\delta(\eta) := \inf \{1 - r(S, \eta)/r(S^*(\eta), \eta) > 0 : S \in \mathcal{S}\}. \quad (13)$$

Fix  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ . For any consistent policy  $\pi$  one has that for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \gamma) \geq \delta(\gamma) \mathbb{E}_\pi^\gamma \{T - T_i(T)\}$$

$$\geq \delta(\gamma) \left( T - \frac{(1-\epsilon)}{\mathcal{I}_i(\mu|\gamma)} \log T \right) \mathbb{P}_\pi^\gamma \{T_i(T) < (1-\epsilon) \log T / \mathcal{I}_i(\mu|\gamma)\},$$

and by assumption on  $\pi$   $\mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \gamma) = o(T^\alpha)$ . From the above, we have that

$$\mathbb{P}_\pi^\gamma \{T_i(T) < (1-\epsilon) \log T / \mathcal{I}_i(\mu|\gamma)\} = o(T^{\alpha-1}). \quad (14)$$

Define the event

$$\beta_i := \left\{ T_i(T) \leq \frac{(1-\epsilon)}{\mathcal{I}_i(\mu|\gamma)} \log T, \mathcal{L}_i(T_i(T)) \leq (1-\alpha) \log T \right\}.$$

From the independence of utilities across products and the definition of  $\beta_i$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}_\pi^\gamma \{\beta_i\} &= \int_{\omega \in \beta_i} d\mathbb{P}_\pi^\gamma \\ &= \int_{\omega \in \beta_i} \prod_{u=1}^{T-1} \prod_{i \in S_u} dF(U_i^u - \gamma_i) \\ &= \int_{\omega \in \beta_i} \prod_{u=1}^{T-1} \prod_{i \in S_u} \frac{dF(U_i^u - \gamma_i)}{dF(U_i^u - \mu_i)} d\mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \\ &= \int_{\omega \in \beta_i} \prod_{n=1}^{T_i(T)} \frac{dF(U_i^{t_i(n)} - \gamma_i)}{dF(U_i^{t_i(n)} - \mu_i)} d\mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \\ &= \int_{\omega \in \beta_i} \exp(-\mathcal{L}_i(T_i(T))) d\mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \\ &\geq \exp(-(1-\alpha) \log T) \mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \{\beta_i\}. \end{aligned}$$

From (14) one has that  $\mathbb{P}_\pi^\gamma \{\beta_i\} = o(T^{\alpha-1})$ . It follows by (14) that as  $T \rightarrow \infty$

$$\mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \{\beta_i\} \leq \mathbb{P}_\pi^\gamma \{\beta_i\} / T^{\alpha-1} \rightarrow 0. \quad (15)$$

Indexed by  $n$ ,  $\mathcal{L}_i(n)$  is the sum of finite mean identically distributed independent random variables, therefore, by the strong law of large numbers (SLLN).

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\max\{\mathcal{L}_i(l) : l \leq n\}}{n} \leq \frac{\mathcal{I}_i(\mu|\gamma)}{(1-\alpha)} \quad \mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \text{ a.s.},$$

i.e., the log-likelihood function grows no faster than linearly with slope  $\mathcal{I}_i(\mu|\gamma)$ . This implies that

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \{\exists l \leq n, \mathcal{L}_i(l) > n \mathcal{I}_i(\mu|\gamma) / (1-\epsilon)\} = 0.$$

In particular,

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \left\{ T_i(T) < \frac{(1-\epsilon)}{\mathcal{I}_i(\mu|\gamma)} \log T, \mathcal{L}_i(T_i(T)) > \frac{(1-\epsilon)}{1-\alpha} \log T \right\} = 0.$$



Taking  $\alpha < \epsilon$  small enough, and combining with (15) one has that

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \left\{ T_i(T) < \frac{(1-\epsilon)}{I_i(\mu \|\gamma)} \log T \right\} = 0.$$

Finally, defining the positive finite constant  $H_i^\mu := \inf \{ \mathcal{I}(\mu \|\gamma) : \gamma \in \Gamma_i \}$ , it follows that

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \{ T_i(T) \geq (1-\epsilon) \log T / H_i^\mu \} = 1.$$

For  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ , let  $\bar{T}_i$  denote the largest  $T \geq 0$  such that  $\mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \{ T_i(T) \geq (1-\epsilon) \log T / H_i^\mu \} < 1/2$ . By Markov's inequality, and letting  $\epsilon$  shrink to zero we get

$$\mathbb{E}_\pi^\mu \{ T_i(T) \} \geq (2H_i^\mu)^{-1} \log T, \tag{16}$$

for  $T > \bar{T}_i$ . By the definition of the regret, we have that for any policy  $\pi \in \mathcal{P}'$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \mu) &\stackrel{(a)}{\geq} \delta(\mu) \mathbb{E}_\pi^\mu \left[ \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{P}_\pi^\mu \mathbf{1} \{ S_t \neq S^*(\mu) \} \right] \\ &\stackrel{(b)}{\geq} \delta(\mu) \frac{1}{C} \sum_{i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)} \mathbb{E}_\pi^\mu [T_i(T)]. \end{aligned}$$

where (a) follows from the non-optimal assortments contributing at least  $\delta(\mu)$  to the regret, and (b) follows by assuming non-optimal products are always tested in batches of size  $C$ , considering only products in  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}}$ .

Thus

$$\sum_{u=1}^T \mathbf{1} \{ S_u \neq S^*(\mu) \} \geq \sum_{u=1}^T \mathbf{1} \{ S_u \cap \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset \} \geq \frac{1}{C} \sum_{i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)} \sum_{u=1}^T \mathbf{1} \{ i \in S_u \} = \frac{1}{C} \sum_{i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)} T_i(T).$$

Combining the above with (16) we have that

$$\mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \mu) \geq \delta(\mu) \frac{1}{C} \left( \sum_{i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)} (2H_i^\mu)^{-1} \right) \log T + \delta(\mu) \bar{T},$$

for all  $T$ , where  $\bar{T} := \|\bar{T}_i\|_{\mathcal{N}}$ . Taking  $\underline{K} := \delta(\mu) \min_{i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)} \{ (2H_i^\mu)^{-1} \}$  and  $\underline{K}' := \delta(\mu) \bar{T}$  gives the desired result.

We now comment on the fact that the reasoning above extends to the case when  $|S^*(\mu)| > 1$ . Note that (16) remains valid for products in  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus \mathcal{N}^*$ , where  $\mathcal{N}^* := \{ i \in \mathcal{N} : i \in S \text{ for some } S \in S^*(\mu) \}$  and

$$S^*(\mu) := \arg \max \{ r(S, \mu) : S \in \mathcal{S} \}.$$

In particular, one has that

$$\sum_{u=1}^T \mathbf{1} \{ S_u \notin S^*(\mu) \} \geq \sum_{u=1}^T \mathbf{1} \{ S_u \cap \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus \mathcal{N}^* \neq \emptyset \} \geq \frac{1}{C} \sum_{i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus \mathcal{N}^*} \sum_{u=1}^T \mathbf{1} \{ i \in S_u \} = \frac{1}{C} \sum_{i \in \tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus \mathcal{N}^*} T_i(T),$$

The result follows from the bound on the expectation over  $T_i(T)$  for products in  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}} \setminus \mathcal{N}^*$ .  $\blacksquare$

**Proof of Theorem 3.** The proof follows the arguments in the proof of Theorem 2. Steps 1 and 2 are identical.

**Step 3.** Let  $NO(t)$  denote the event that a non-optimal assortment is offered to customer  $t$ , and  $G(t)$  the event that there is no forced testing for customer  $t$ . That is,

$$\begin{aligned} NO(t) &:= \{S_t \neq S^*(\mu)\}, \\ G(t) &:= \{T^j(t) \geq \kappa_2 \log t, j \leq |\mathcal{A}| \text{ such that } \|w\|_{A_j} \geq \omega(\hat{\mu}_t)\}. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

Define  $\xi := (2\|w\|_\infty K C)^{-1} \delta(\mu) r(S^*(\mu), \mu)$ . We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\{NO(t), G(t)\} &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{(S^*(\mu) \cup S^*(\hat{\mu}_t))} > \xi, G(t)\} \\ &\leq \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{S^*(\mu)} > \xi, G(t)\} + \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} > \xi, G(t)\} \\ &\stackrel{(b)}{\leq} \sum_{j: A_j \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq \emptyset} \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} > \xi, T^j(t) > \kappa_2 \log t\} + \\ &\quad \sum_{j: A_j \cap S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset} \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} > \xi, G(t)\} \\ &\stackrel{(c)}{\leq} \sum_{j: A_j \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq \emptyset} 2|A_j| t^{-c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))^{\kappa_2}} + \sum_{j: A_j \cap S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset} \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} > \xi, G(t)\}, \end{aligned}$$

where: (a) follows from (12); (b) follows from the fact that  $w_i \geq \omega(\nu)$  trivially for all  $i \in S^*(\nu)$ , for any vector  $\nu \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ; and (c) follows from (10).

Fix  $j$  such that  $A_j \cap S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset$ . For such an assortment we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} > \xi, G(t)\} &\leq \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_j} > \xi, T^j(t) \geq \kappa_2 \log t, G(t)\} + \\ &\quad \mathbb{P}\{T^j(t) < \kappa_2 \log t, G(t)\}. \end{aligned}$$

The first term on the right-hand-side above can be bounded using (10). For the second one, note that  $\{T^j(t) < \kappa_2 \log t, G(t)\} \subseteq \{\|w\|_{A_j} < \omega(\hat{\mu}_t), G(t)\}$ . Let  $\tilde{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^N$  be such that  $\tilde{\mu}_i = \mu_i$  for all  $i \in S^*(\mu) \setminus S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)$ , and  $\tilde{\mu}_i = \hat{\mu}_{t,i}$  otherwise. We have that

$$\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} \leq \xi\} \stackrel{(a)}{\subseteq} \{r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t) < r(S^*(\mu), \tilde{\mu})\} \stackrel{(b)}{\subseteq} \{\|w\|_{A_j} \geq \omega(\hat{\mu}_t)\},$$

where (a) follows from (11), and (b) follows from noting that  $\tilde{\mu}$  makes  $S^*(\mu)$  optimal, hence products in  $A_j \cap S^*(\mu)$  are potentially optimal under  $\hat{\mu}_t$ . This implies that  $\{\|w\|_{A_j} < \omega(\hat{\mu}_t)\} \subseteq \{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} > \xi\}$ , i.e.,

$$\mathbb{P}\{T^j(t) < \kappa_2 \log t, G(t)\} \leq \mathbb{P}\{\|w\|_{A_j} < \omega(\hat{\mu}_t), G(t)\}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\leq \mathbb{P} \{ \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} > \xi, G(t) \} \\
 &\leq \sum_{k: A_k \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq \emptyset} \mathbb{P} \{ \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_k} > \xi, G(t) \} \\
 &\leq \sum_{k: A_k \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq \emptyset} 2|A_k| t^{-c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))^{\kappa_2}},
 \end{aligned}$$

where the last step follows from (10). Using the above we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{P} \{ NO(t), G(t) \} &\leq \sum_{j: A_j \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq \emptyset} 2|A_j| t^{-c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))^{\kappa_2}} + \\
 &\quad \sum_{j: A_j \cap S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset} \left( 2|A_j| t^{-c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))^{\kappa_2}} + \sum_{k: A_k \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq \emptyset} 2|A_k| t^{-c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))^{\kappa_2}} \right) \\
 &\leq 2C^2(2+C)t^{-c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))^{\kappa_2}}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

On the other hand, we have that

$$\mathbb{P} \{ NO(t), G(t)^c \} \leq \sum_{j: \|w\|_{A_j} \geq \omega(\mu)} \mathbb{P} \{ S_t = A_j, G(t)^c \} + \sum_{j: \|w\|_{A_j} < \omega(\mu)} \mathbb{P} \{ S_t = A_j, G(t)^c \}.$$

For the first term above, we have from the policy specification that

$$\sum_{u=1}^T \sum_{j: \|w\|_{A_j} \geq \omega(\mu)} \mathbb{P} \{ S_u = A_j, G(u)^c \} \leq \lceil \bar{N}/C \rceil (\kappa_2 \log T + 1). \tag{19}$$

To analyze the second term, fix  $j$  such that  $\|w\|_{A_j} < \omega(\mu)$ , and define  $L(t)$  as the last customer (previous to customer  $t$ ) to whom the empirical optimal assortment (according to estimated mean utilities) was offered.

That is

$$L(t) := \sup \{ u \leq t-1 : G(u) \},$$

with  $G(u)$  given in (17). Note that  $L(t) \in \{t - \lfloor |A| \kappa_2 \log t \rfloor, \dots, t-1\}$  for  $t \geq \tau$ , where  $\tau$  is given by

$$\tau := \inf \{ u \geq 1 : \log(u - \lfloor |A| \kappa_2 \log u \rfloor) + \kappa_2^{-1} > \log u \}.$$

Consider  $t \geq \tau$  and  $u \in \{t - \lfloor |A| \kappa_2 \log t \rfloor, \dots, t-1\}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{P} \{ S_t = A_j, G(t)^c, L(t) = u \} &\leq \mathbb{P} \{ \|w\|_{A_j} \geq \omega(\hat{\mu}_t), G(t)^c, G(u) \} \\
 &\leq \mathbb{P} \{ G(u), NO(u) \} + \mathbb{P} \{ \|w\|_{A_j} \geq \omega(\hat{\mu}_t), G(t)^c, G(u), NO(u)^c \} \\
 &\leq \mathbb{P} \{ G(u), NO(u) \} + \mathbb{P} \{ G(u), NO(u)^c, \mathcal{N}(\hat{\mu}_u) \neq \mathcal{N}(\mu) \} + \\
 &\quad \mathbb{P} \{ \|w\|_{A_j} \geq \omega(\hat{\mu}_t), G(u), NO(u)^c, \mathcal{N}(\hat{\mu}_u) = \mathcal{N}(\mu) \}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{20}$$

The first term in (20) can be bounded using (18). For the second, let  $\tilde{\nu} \in \mathbb{R}^N$  be such that  $\tilde{\nu}_i = \hat{\mu}_{u,i}$  for  $i \in S^*(\mu)$ . Then, for any  $S \in \mathcal{S}$ , one has that

$$r(S^*(\tilde{\nu}), \tilde{\nu}) - r(S, \tilde{\nu}) \geq r(S^*(\nu), \tilde{\nu}) - r(S, \tilde{\nu})$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\geq r(S^*(\nu), \nu) - r(S, \tilde{\nu}) - \|w\|_\infty KC \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_u\|_{S^*(\mu)} \\ &\geq r(S^*(\nu), \nu) - r(S, \nu) - 2\|w\|_\infty KC \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_u\|_{S^*(\mu)}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\nu \in \mathbb{R}^N$  is such that  $\nu_i = \mu_i$  for  $i \in S^*(\mu)$  and  $\nu_i = \tilde{\nu}_i$  otherwise. The last two inequalities make use of (11). Define

$$\underline{\delta} := (2\|w\|_\infty KC)^{-1} \inf \{r(S^*(\nu), \nu) - r(S, \nu) : \nu \in \mathbb{R}^N, \nu_i = \mu_i \text{ for } i \in S^*(\mu), S \cap \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu) \neq \emptyset\} > 0.$$

We conclude that  $\{\underline{\mathcal{N}}(\hat{\mu}_u) \subset \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu), NO(u)^c\} \subseteq \{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_u\|_{S^*(\mu)} > \underline{\delta}, NO(u)^c\}$ . Repeating the argument above, one has that  $\{\underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu) \subset \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\hat{\mu}_u), NO(u)^c\} \subseteq \{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_u\|_{S^*(\mu)} > \bar{\delta}, NO(u)^c\}$ , where

$$\bar{\delta} := (2\|w\|_\infty KC)^{-1} \sup \{\inf \{r(S^*(\nu), \nu) - r(S, \nu) : S \neq S^*(\nu)\} : \nu \in \mathbb{R}^N, \nu_i = \mu_i \text{ for } i \in S^*(\mu)\} > 0.$$

Define  $\delta := \min \{\underline{\delta}, \bar{\delta}\}$ . (Note that  $\delta > 0$ , provided that  $\{i \in \mathcal{N} : w_i = \omega(\mu)\} = \emptyset$ .) One has that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\{G(u), NO(u)^c, \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu) \neq \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\hat{\mu}_u)\} &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_u\|_{S^*(\mu)} \geq \delta, T^k(t) + 1 \geq \kappa_2 \log t, \forall k \text{ s.t. } A_k \cap S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset\} \\ &\leq \sum_{k: A_k \cap S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset} \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_u\|_{A_k} \geq \delta, T^k(t) + 1 \geq \kappa_2 \log t\} \\ &\stackrel{(b)}{\leq} D t^{-c(\delta/\kappa(\delta))\kappa_2}, \end{aligned}$$

where (a) follows from noting that  $T^k(t) \geq T^k(u) \geq \kappa_2 \log u \geq \kappa_2 \log t - 1$  for  $k$  such that  $A_k \cap S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset$ , (b) follows from (10), and  $D$  is a positive and finite constant. For the third term in (20), define the event  $\Xi := \{\|w\|_{A_j} \geq \omega(\hat{\mu}_t), G(u), NO(u)^c, \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\hat{\mu}_t) = \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu)\}$ .

$$\mathbb{P}\{\Xi\} = \mathbb{P}\{\Xi, S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) = S^*(\mu)\} + \mathbb{P}\{\Xi, S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq S^*(\mu)\}.$$

From the arguments leading to the bound for the second term in (20), one has that

$$\mathbb{P}\{\Xi, S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) = S^*(\mu)\} \leq D t^{-c(\underline{\delta}/\kappa(\underline{\delta}))\kappa_2}.$$

On the other hand, one has that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\{\Xi, S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq S^*(\mu)\} &\leq \mathbb{P}\{\Xi, S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq S^*(\mu), \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu) \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) = \emptyset\} + \\ &\quad \mathbb{P}\{\Xi, S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq S^*(\mu), \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu) \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq \emptyset\}. \end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

For bounding the first term above, note that  $\underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu) \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) = \emptyset$  implies that  $T^k(t) \geq \kappa_2 \log t - 1$  for all  $k$  such that  $A_k \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq \emptyset$ . Thus, the arguments leading to (18) imply that

$$\mathbb{P}\{\Xi, S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq S^*(\mu), \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu) \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) = \emptyset\} \leq \sum_{k: A_k \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq \emptyset} \mathbb{P}\{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_k} > \xi, T^k(t) > \kappa_2 \log t - 1\} +$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k: A_k \cap S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset} \mathbb{P} \{ \|\mu - \hat{\mu}_t\|_{A_k} > \xi, T^k(t) > \kappa_2 \log t - 1 \} \\ & \leq D' t^{-c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))\kappa_2}, \end{aligned}$$

for a finite and positive constant  $D'$ . For the second term in (21), note that

$$\{S^*(\nu) \cap \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu) \neq \emptyset, \nu \in \mathbb{R}^N \text{ such that } \nu_i = \hat{\mu}_{t,i} \forall i \in S^*(\mu)\} \subseteq \{\|\hat{\mu}_t - \mu\|_{S^*(\mu)} > \underline{\delta}\},$$

hence, one has that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P} \{ \Xi, S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq S^*(\mu), \underline{\mathcal{N}}(\mu) \cap S^*(\hat{\mu}_t) \neq \emptyset \} & \leq \mathbb{P} \{ \|\hat{\mu}_t - \mu\|_{\infty S^*(\mu)} > \underline{\delta}, T^k(t) \geq \kappa_2 \log t - 1, \forall k \text{ s.t. } A_k \cap S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset \} \\ & \leq \sum_{k: A_k \cap S^*(\mu) \neq \emptyset} \mathbb{P} \{ \|\hat{\mu}_t - \mu\|_{\infty A_k} > \underline{\delta}, T^k(t) \geq \kappa_2 \log t - 1 \} \\ & \leq D'' t^{-c(\underline{\delta}/\kappa(\underline{\delta}))\kappa_2}, \end{aligned}$$

for some finite and positive constant  $D''$ , where the last inequality follows from (10). Putting the bounds above together, (20) becomes

$$\mathbb{P} \{ S_t = A_j, G(t)^c \} \leq D''' t^{-\tilde{\xi}\kappa_2},$$

for some finite and positive constant  $D'''$ , where  $\tilde{\xi} := \min \{ c(\xi)/\kappa(\xi), c(\delta)/\kappa(\delta), c(\underline{\delta})/\kappa(\underline{\delta}) \}$ . The bound above, and those in (19) and (18), imply that for  $\kappa_2 > \tilde{\xi}^{-1}$ , one has

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \mu) & \leq \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{P} \{ NO(t), G(t) \} + \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{P} \{ NO(t), G(t)^c \} \\ & \leq \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{P} \{ NO(t), G(t) \} + \\ & \quad \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{j: \|w\|_{A_j} \geq r(S^*(\mu), \mu)} \mathbb{P} \{ S_t = A_j, G(t)^c \} + \\ & \quad \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{j: \|w\|_{A_j} < r(S^*(\mu), \mu)} \mathbb{P} \{ S_t = A_j, G(t)^c \} \\ & \leq \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} C^2(2+C)u^{-c(\xi/\kappa(\xi))\kappa_2} + \lceil \bar{\mathcal{N}}/C \rceil (\kappa_2 \log(T) + 1) + \\ & \quad \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j: \|w\|_{A_j} < r(S^*(\mu), \mu)} D''' t^{-\tilde{\xi}\kappa_2} \\ & \stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \lceil \bar{\mathcal{N}} \rceil / C \kappa_2 \log T + \bar{K}_2, \end{aligned}$$

for a finite constant  $\bar{K}_2 < \infty$ , where (b) uses the summability of the series implied by (20). Taking  $\bar{\kappa}_2 > \tilde{\xi}^{-1}$  provides the desired result. ■

**Proof of Corollary 1.** Fix  $i \in \underline{\mathcal{N}}$ , and fix  $j = \{k \leq |\mathcal{A}| : i \in A_k\}$ . We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_\pi[T_i(T)] &\leq \tau + \sum_{t=\tau+1}^T \mathbb{P}[NO(t), G(t)] + \mathbb{P}[S_t = A_j, G(t)^c] \\ &\leq K_2, \end{aligned}$$

for a finite constant  $K_2$ , where we have used the summability of the series implied by (20). This completes the proof.  $\blacksquare$

**Proof of Theorem 4.** The proof is an adaptation of the one for Theorem 3, customized for the MNL choice model. However, we provide an explanation version of each step with the objective of highlighting how the structure of the MNL model is exploited.

**Step 1.** We will need the following side lemma, whose proof is deferred to Appendix D.

LEMMA 2. Fix  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ . For any  $n \geq 1$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  one has

$$\mathbb{P} \left\{ \left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_j^u - \mathbb{E}\{Z_j^u\}) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \right| \geq \epsilon T_i(t), T_i(t) \geq n \right\} \leq 2 \exp(-c(\epsilon)n),$$

for  $j \in \{i, 0\}$  and a positive constant  $c(\epsilon) < \infty$ .

Consider  $\epsilon > 0$  and fix  $t \geq 1$  and  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ . Define  $\varrho = 1/2(1 + C\|w\|_\infty)^{-1}$ : one has that  $p_0(S, \mu) \geq 2\varrho$ , for all  $S \in \mathcal{S}$ . For  $n \geq 1$  define the event  $\Xi := \{|\nu_i - \hat{\nu}_{i,t}| > \epsilon, T_i(t) \geq n\}$ . We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\{\Xi\} &= \mathbb{P} \left\{ \left| \frac{\sum_{u=1}^{t-1} Z_i^u \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\}}{\sum_{u=1}^{t-1} Z_0^u \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\}} - \nu_i \right| > \epsilon, T_i(t) \geq n \right\} \\ &\leq \mathbb{P} \left\{ \left| \frac{\sum_{u=1}^{t-1} Z_i^u \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\}}{\sum_{u=1}^{t-1} Z_0^u \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\}} - \nu_i \right| > \epsilon, \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_0^u - \mathbb{E}\{Z_0^u\}) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \right| < \varrho T_i(t), T_i(t) \geq n \right\} + \\ &\quad \mathbb{P} \left\{ \left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_0^u - \mathbb{E}\{Z_0^u\}) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \right| \geq \varrho T_i(t), T_i(t) \geq n \right\} \\ &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \mathbb{P} \left\{ \left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_i^u - Z_0^u \nu_i) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \right| > \epsilon \varrho T_i(t), T_i(t) \geq n \right\} + 2 \exp(-c(\varrho)n) \\ &\stackrel{(b)}{\leq} \mathbb{P} \left\{ \left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_i^u - E[Z_i^u]) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \right| > \epsilon \varrho / 2 T_i(t), T_i(t) \geq n \right\} + \\ &\quad \mathbb{P} \left\{ \left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_0^u - E[Z_0^u]) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \right| > \epsilon \varrho / (2\nu_i) T_i(t), T_i(t) \geq n \right\} + 2 \exp(-c(\varrho)n) \\ &\leq 2 \exp(-c(\epsilon \varrho / 2)n) + 2 \exp(-c(\epsilon \varrho / (2\nu_i))n) + 2 \exp(-c(\varrho)n). \end{aligned}$$

where: (a) follows from Lemma 2 and from the fact that

$$\left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} Z_0^u \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \right| \geq \left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} E[Z_0^u] \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \right| - \left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_0^u - E[Z_0^u]) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \right| \geq \varrho T_i(t),$$

when  $\left| \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_0^u - \mathbb{E}\{Z_0^u\}) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \right| < \varrho T_i(t)$ ; and (b) follows from the fact that  $\mathbb{E}Z_i^u = \nu_i \mathbb{E}Z_0^u$ , for all  $u \geq 1$  such that  $i \in S_u$ ,  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ . For  $\epsilon > 0$  define

$$\tilde{c}(\epsilon) := \min \{c(\epsilon\varrho/2), c(\epsilon\varrho/(2\|\nu\|_{\mathcal{N}})), c(\varrho)\}.$$

From above we have that for  $\epsilon > 0$

$$\mathbb{P}\{|\nu_i - \hat{\nu}_{i,t}| > \epsilon, T_i(t) \geq n\} \leq 6 \exp(\tilde{c}(\epsilon)n), \quad (22)$$

for all  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ .

**Step 2.** Consider two vectors  $v, \eta \in \mathbb{R}_+^N$ , and define  $\tilde{v} := \ln v$  and  $\tilde{\eta} := \ln \eta$ . From (7), for any  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  one has

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i \in S} v_i(w_i - r(S, \tilde{v})) &= r(S, \tilde{v}) \\ \sum_{i \in S} \eta_i(w_i - r(S, \tilde{v})) &\geq r(S, \tilde{v}) - C\|w\|_{\infty}\|v - \eta\|_S \\ \sum_{i \in S} \eta_i(w_i - (r(S, \tilde{v}) - C\|w\|_{\infty}\|v - \eta\|_S)) &\geq r(S, \tilde{v}) - C\|w\|_{\infty}\|v - \eta\|_S \end{aligned}$$

This implies that

$$r(S, \tilde{\eta}) \geq r(S, \tilde{v}) - C\|w\|_{\infty}\|\eta - v\|_S. \quad (23)$$

From the above we conclude that

$$\{S^*(\mu) \neq S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)\} \subseteq \{\|\nu - \hat{\nu}_t\|_{S^*(\mu) \cup S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} \geq (2\|w\|_{\infty}C)^{-1} \delta(\nu) r(S^*(\mu), \mu)\}, \quad (24)$$

where with a slight abuse of notation  $\delta(\nu)$  refers to the minimum optimality gap, in terms of the adjusted terms  $\exp(\mu)$ .

**Step 3.** Let  $NO(t)$  denote the event that a non-optimal assortment is offered to customer  $t$ , and  $G(t)$  the event that there is no “forced testing” on customer  $t$ . That is

$$\begin{aligned} NO(t) &:= \{S_t \neq S^*(\mu)\}, \\ G(t) &:= \{T_i(t) \geq \kappa_3 \log t, \forall i \in \mathcal{N} \text{ such that } w_i \geq r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t)\}. \end{aligned}$$

Define  $\xi := (2\|w\|_{\infty}C)^{-1} \delta(\nu) r(S^*(\mu), \mu)$ . We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\{NO(t), G(t)\} &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \mathbb{P}\{\|\nu - \hat{\nu}_t\|_{(S^*(\mu) \cup S^*(\hat{\mu}_t))} > \xi, G(t)\} \\ &\leq \mathbb{P}\{\|\nu - \hat{\nu}_t\|_{S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} > \xi, G(t)\} + \mathbb{P}\{\|\nu - \hat{\nu}_t\|_{S^*(\mu)} > \xi, G(t)\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\stackrel{(b)}{\leq} \sum_{i \in S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} \mathbb{P}\{|\nu_i - \hat{\nu}_{i,t}| > \xi, T_i(t) \geq \kappa_3 \log t\} + \sum_{i \in S^*(\mu)} \mathbb{P}\{|\nu_i - \hat{\nu}_{i,t}| > \xi, G(t)\} \\
&\stackrel{(c)}{\leq} 6Ct^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)} + \sum_{i \in S^*(\mu)} \mathbb{P}\{|\nu_i - \hat{\nu}_{i,t}| > \xi, G(t)\}
\end{aligned}$$

where: (a) follows from (24); (b) follows from the fact that  $w_i \geq r(S^*(\eta), \eta)$  for all  $i \in S^*(\eta)$  and for any vector  $\eta \in \mathbb{R}^N$  (see Step 2 above); and (c) follows from (22). Fix  $i \in S^*(\mu)$ . We have that

$$\mathbb{P}\{|\nu_i - \hat{\nu}_{i,t}| > \xi, G(t)\} \leq \mathbb{P}\{|\nu_i - \hat{\nu}_{i,t}| > \xi, T_i(t) \geq \kappa_3 \log t\} + \mathbb{P}\{G(t), T_i(t) < \kappa_3 \log t\}.$$

The first term above can be bounded using (22). Regarding the second one, note that  $\{G(t), T_i(t) < \kappa_3 \log t\} \subseteq \{w_i < r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t)\}$ , and that

$$\begin{aligned}
w_i - r(S^*(\mu), \mu)\delta(\nu)/2 &\geq r(S^*(\mu), \mu)(1 - \delta(\nu)/2) \\
&\stackrel{(a)}{\geq} r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \mu) \\
&\stackrel{(b)}{\geq} r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t) - \|w\|_\infty C \|\nu - \hat{\nu}_t\|_{S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)},
\end{aligned}$$

where (a) follows from the definition of  $\delta(\nu)$ , and (b) follows from (23). The above implies that  $\{w_i < r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t)\} \subseteq \{\|\nu - \hat{\nu}_t\|_{S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} > \xi\}$ , i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}\{T_i(t) < \kappa_3 \log t, G(t)\} &\leq \mathbb{P}\{w_i < r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t), G(t)\} \\
&\leq \mathbb{P}\{\|\nu - \hat{\nu}_t\|_{S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} > \xi, G(t)\} \\
&\leq \sum_{j \in S^*(\hat{\mu}_t)} \mathbb{P}\{|\nu_j - \hat{\nu}_{j,t}| > \xi, G(t)\} \\
&\leq 6Ct^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)},
\end{aligned}$$

where the last step follows from (22). Using the above we have that

$$\mathbb{P}\{NO(t), G(t)\} \leq 6C(1+C)t^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)}. \quad (25)$$

From here, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}\{NO(t), G(t)^c\} &\leq \sum_{i: w_i < r^*(S^*(\mu), \mu)} \mathbb{P}\{i \in S_t, G(t)^c\} + \sum_{i: w_i \geq r^*(S^*(\mu), \mu)} \mathbb{P}\{i \in S_t, G(t)^c\} \\
&\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \sum_{i: w_i < r^*(S^*(\mu), \mu)} \mathbb{P}\{i \in S_t, G(t)^c\} + |\mathcal{N}|(\kappa_3 \log T + 1) \cdot + \\
&\quad \sum_{i \in S^*(\mu)} \mathbb{P}\{i \in S_t, G(t)^c\}
\end{aligned}$$



where (a) follows from the specification of the policy. Fix  $i$  such that  $w_i < r(S^*(\mu), \mu)$ , and define  $L(t)$  as the last customer (previous to customer  $t$ ) to whom the empirical optimal assortment, according to estimated mean utilities, was offered. That is

$$L(t) := \sup \{u \leq t - 1 : G(u)\}.$$

Note that  $L(t) \in \{t - \lfloor N\kappa_3 \log t \rfloor, \dots, t - 1\}$  for  $t \geq \tau$ , where  $\tau$  is given by

$$\tau := \inf \{u \geq 1 : \log(u - \lfloor N\kappa_3 \log u \rfloor) + \kappa_3^{-1} > \log u\}.$$

Consider  $t \geq \tau$  and  $u \in \{t - \lfloor N\kappa_3 \log t \rfloor, \dots, t - 1\}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P} \{i \in S_t, G(t)^c, L(t) = u\} &\leq \mathbb{P} \{w_i \geq r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t), G(t)^c, L(t) = u\} \\ &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \mathbb{P} \{w_i \geq r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t), G(t)^c, G(u)\} \\ &\leq \mathbb{P} \{G(u), NO(u)\} + \mathbb{P} \{w_i \geq r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t), G(t)^c, G(u), NO(u)^c\} \\ &\stackrel{(b)}{\leq} 6C(1+C)u^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)} + \\ &\quad \mathbb{P} \{w_i \geq r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t), T_j(t) \geq \kappa_3 \log t \forall j \in S^*(\mu)\}, \end{aligned}$$

where (a) follows from  $\{L(t) = u\} \subseteq \{G(u)\}$ , and (b) from (25) and the fact that offering  $S^*(\mu)$  to customer  $u$  implies (from  $G(u)$ ) that  $T_j(u) \geq \kappa_3 \log u$  and therefore (from  $t \geq \tau$ ) that  $T_j(t) \geq \kappa_3 \log t$ , for all  $j \in S^*(\mu)$ .

From (23) we have that

$$r(S^*(\mu), \hat{\mu}_t) - w_i \geq r(S^*(\mu), \mu) - \|w\|_\infty C \|\nu - \hat{\nu}_t\|_{S^*(\mu)} - w_i.$$

Define  $\delta := \inf \{(\|w\|_\infty C)^{-1} (1 - w_i/r(S^*(\mu), \mu)) > 0 : i \in \mathcal{N}\}$ . From the above, we have that

$$\{w_i \geq r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t)\} \subseteq \{w_i \geq r(S^*(\mu), \hat{\mu}_t)\} \subseteq \{\|\nu - \hat{\nu}_t\|_{S^*(\mu)} > \delta r(S^*(\mu), \mu)\}.$$

Define  $\bar{\delta} := \delta r(S^*(\mu), \mu)$ , and the event  $\Xi = w_i \geq r(S^*(\hat{\mu}_t), \hat{\mu}_t), T_j(t) \geq \kappa_3 \log t \forall j \in S^*(\mu)$ . It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P} \{\Xi\} &\leq \mathbb{P} \{\|\nu - \hat{\nu}_t\|_{S^*(\mu)} > \bar{\delta}, T_j(t) \geq \kappa_3 \log t \forall j \in S^*(\mu)\} \\ &\leq \sum_{i \in S^*(\mu)} \mathbb{P} \{|\nu_i - \hat{\nu}_{t,i}| > \bar{\delta}, T_i(t) \geq \kappa_3 \log t\} \\ &\leq 6Ct^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\bar{\delta})}. \end{aligned}$$

Using the above one gets that, when  $\kappa_3 > \tilde{c}(\xi)^{-1}$

$$\mathbb{P} \{i \in S_t, G(t)^c, L(t) = u\} \leq 6C(1+C)u^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)} + 6Ct^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\bar{\delta})}$$

$$\leq 6C(1+C)(t - \lfloor N\kappa_3 \log t \rfloor)^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)} + 6Ct^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\delta)}.$$

Since the right hand side above is independent of  $u$ , one has that

$$\mathbb{P}\{i \in S_t, G(t)^c\} \leq 6C(1+C)(t - \lfloor N\kappa_3 \log t \rfloor)^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)} + 6Ct^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\delta)}, \quad (26)$$

for all  $i \in \mathcal{N}$  such that  $w_i < r(S^*(\mu), \mu)$ , and  $t \geq \tau$ .

Now fix  $i \in S^*(\mu)$ , and consider  $t \geq \tau$ ,  $u \in \{t - \lfloor N\kappa_3 \log t \rfloor, \dots, t-1\}$  and  $\kappa_3 > \tilde{c}(\xi)^{-1}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\{i \in S_t, G(t)^c, L(t) = u\} &\leq \mathbb{P}\{T_i(t) < \kappa_3 \log t, G(t)^c, L(t) = u\} \\ &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \mathbb{P}\{T_i(t) < \kappa_3 \log t, G(u)\} \\ &\leq \mathbb{P}\{G(u), NO(u)\} + \mathbb{P}\{T_i(t) < \kappa_3 \log t, G(u), NO^c(u)\} \\ &\stackrel{(b)}{\leq} 6C(1+C)u^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)} \\ &\leq 6C(1+C)(t - \lfloor N\kappa_3 \log t \rfloor)^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)}, \end{aligned}$$

where (a) follows from  $\{L(t) = u\} \subseteq \{G(u)\}$ , and (b) from (25) and the fact that offering  $S^*(\nu)$  to customer  $u$  implies (from  $G(u)$ ) that  $T_i(u) \geq \kappa_3 \log u$  and therefore (from  $t \geq \tau$ ) that  $T_i(t) \geq \kappa_3 \log t$ . Since the right hand side above is independent of  $u$ , one has that

$$\mathbb{P}\{i \in S_t, G(t)^c\} \leq 6C(1+C)(t - \lfloor N\kappa_3 \log t \rfloor)^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)}, \quad (27)$$

for all  $i \in S^*(\mu)$  and  $t \geq \tau$ .

Considering  $\kappa_3 > \max\{\tilde{c}(\xi)^{-1}, \tilde{c}(\delta)^{-1}\}$  results in the following bound for the regret

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R}^\pi(T, \nu) &\leq \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{P}\{NO(t), G(t)\} + \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{P}\{NO(t), G(t)^c\} \\ &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} 6C(1+C) \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} t^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)} + |\underline{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)| \kappa_3 (\log T + 1) + \tau + \\ &\quad 6C |\underline{\mathcal{N}} \cup S^*(\mu)| \sum_{t=\tau}^{\infty} (1+C)(t^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)} + (t - \lfloor N\kappa_3 \log t \rfloor)^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\xi)}) + t^{-\kappa_3 \tilde{c}(\delta)} \\ &\stackrel{(b)}{\leq} |\underline{\mathcal{N}} \setminus S^*(\mu)| \kappa_3 \log T + \bar{K}_3, \end{aligned}$$

for a finite constant  $\bar{K}_3 < \infty$ , where (a) follows from (25), (26) and (27), and (b) uses the summability of the series, implied by the terms in (25), (26) and (27). Taking  $\bar{\kappa}_3 > \max\{\tilde{c}(\xi)^{-1}, \tilde{c}(\delta)^{-1}\}$  provides the desired result. ■

**Proof of Corollary 2.** Fix  $i \in \underline{\mathcal{N}}$ . We have that

$$\mathbb{E}_\pi[T_i(T)] \leq \tau + \sum_{t=\tau+1}^T \mathbb{P}[NO(t), G(t)] + \mathbb{P}[i \in S_t, G(t)^c]$$

$$\leq K_3 < \infty,$$

for a finite constant  $K_3$ , where we have used the summability of the terms in (25) and (26). This concludes the proof.  $\blacksquare$

## Appendix D: Proof of Auxiliary Results

**Proof of Lemma 1.** Fix  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ . For  $\theta > 0$  consider the process  $\{M_t(\theta) : t \geq 1\}$ , defined as

$$M_t(\theta) := \exp \left( \sum_{u=1}^t \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\} [\theta(Z_i^u - p_i(A_j, \mu)) - \phi(\theta)] \right),$$

where

$$\phi(\theta) := \log \mathbb{E} \{ \exp(\theta(Z_i^u - p_i(A_j, \mu))) \} = -\theta p_i(A_j, \mu) + \log(p_i(A_j, \mu) \exp(\theta) + 1 - p_i(A_j, \mu)),$$

and  $A_j \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $i \in A_j$ . One can check that  $M_t(\theta)$  is an  $\mathcal{F}_t$ -martingale, for any  $\theta > 0$  (see Section 3 for the definition of  $\mathcal{F}_t$ ). Note that

$$\exp \left( \theta \sum_{u=1}^t \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\} ((Z_i^u - p_i(A_j, \mu)) - \epsilon) \right) = \sqrt{M_t(2\theta)} \exp \left( \sum_{u=1}^t \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\} (\phi(2\theta)/2 - \theta\epsilon) \right). \quad (28)$$

Let  $\chi_i$  denote the event we are interested in. That is

$$\chi_i := \left\{ \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_i^u - p_i(A_j, \mu)) \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\} \geq T^j(t)\epsilon, T^j(t) \geq n \right\}.$$

Let  $\psi(t)$  denote the choice made by the  $t$ -th user. Using the above one has that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\{\chi_i\} &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \mathbb{E} \left\{ \exp \left( \theta \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\} (Z_i^u - p_i(A_j, \mu) - \epsilon) \right); T_i(t) \geq n \right\} \\ &\stackrel{(b)}{\leq} \left( \mathbb{E}\{M_{t-1}(2\theta)\} \mathbb{E} \left\{ \exp \left( \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{1}\{\psi(u) = i\} (\phi(2\theta) - 2\theta\epsilon) \right); T_i(t) \geq n \right\} \right)^{1/2} \\ &\stackrel{(c)}{\leq} \left( \mathbb{E} \left\{ \exp \left( \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{1}\{\psi(u) = i\} (\phi(2\theta) - 2\theta\epsilon) \right); T_i(t) \geq n \right\} \right)^{1/2}, \end{aligned}$$

where: (a) follows from Chernoff's inequality; (b) follows from the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality and (28); and (c) follows from the properties of  $M_t(\theta)$ . Note that when  $\epsilon < (1 - p_i(A_j, \mu))$  minimizing  $\phi(\theta) - \theta\epsilon$  over  $\theta > 0$  results on

$$\theta^* := \log \left( 1 + \frac{\epsilon}{p_i(A_j, \mu)(1 - p_i(A_j, \mu) - \epsilon)} \right) > 0,$$

with

$$c(\epsilon) := \phi(2\theta^*)/2 - \theta^*\epsilon < 0.$$

Using this we have

$$\mathbb{P} \left\{ \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_i^u - p_i) \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\} \geq T^j(t)\epsilon, T^j(t) \geq n \right\} \leq \sqrt{\mathbb{E} \{ \exp(-2c(\epsilon)T_i(t)); T_i(t) \geq n \}} \\ \leq \exp(-c(\epsilon)n).$$

Using the same arguments one has that

$$\mathbb{P} \left\{ \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_i^u - p_i) \mathbf{1}\{S_u = A_j\} \leq -T^j(t)\epsilon, T^j(t) \geq n \right\} \leq \exp(-c(\epsilon)n).$$

The result follows from the union bound. ■

**Proof of Lemma 2.** The proof follows almost verbatim the steps in the proof of Lemma 1. Fix  $i \in \mathcal{N}$ . For

$\theta > 0$  consider the process  $\{M_t^j(\theta) : t \geq 1\}$ , defined as

$$M_t^j(\theta) := \exp \left( \sum_{u=1}^t \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} [\theta(Z_j^u - p_j(S_u, \mu)) - \phi_u^j(\theta)] \right) \quad j \in \{i, 0\},$$

where

$$\phi_u^j(\theta) := \log \mathbb{E} \{ \exp(\theta(Z_j^u - p_j(S_u, \mu))) \} \\ = \log \mathbb{E} \{ \exp(-\theta p_j(S_u, \mu)) (\exp(\theta) p_j(S_u, \mu) + 1 - p_j(S_u, \mu)) \}.$$

One can verify that  $M_t^j(\theta)$  is an  $\mathcal{F}_t$ -martingale, for any  $\theta > 0$  and  $j \in \{i, 0\}$  (see §3 for the definition of  $\mathcal{F}_t$ ).

Fix  $j \in \{i, 0\}$  and note that

$$\exp \left( \theta \sum_{u=1}^t \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} ((Z_j^u - p_j(S_u, \mu)) - \epsilon) \right) = \sqrt{M_t^j(2\theta)} \exp \left( \sum_{u=1}^t \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} (\phi_u^j(2\theta)/2 - \theta\epsilon) \right). \quad (29)$$

Put

$$\chi_j := \left\{ \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_j^u - p_j(S_u, \mu)) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \geq T_i(t)\epsilon, T_i(t) \geq n \right\}.$$

Let  $\psi(t)$  denote the choice made by the  $t$ -th customer. Using the above one has that

$$\mathbb{P} \{ \chi_j \} \stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \mathbb{E} \left\{ \exp \left( \theta \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} (Z_j^u - p_j(S_u, \mu) - \epsilon) \right); T_i(t) \geq n \right\} \\ \stackrel{(b)}{\leq} \left( \mathbb{E} \{ M_{t-1}^j(2\theta) \} \mathbb{E} \left\{ \exp \left( \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{1}\{\psi(u) = j, i \in S_u\} (\phi_u^j(2\theta) - 2\theta\epsilon) \right); T_i(t) \geq n \right\} \right)^{1/2} \\ \stackrel{(c)}{\leq} \left( \mathbb{E} \left\{ \exp \left( \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{1}\{\psi(u) = j, i \in S_u\} (\phi_u^j(2\theta) - 2\theta\epsilon) \right); T_i(t) \geq n \right\} \right)^{1/2},$$

where; (a) follows from Chernoff's inequality; (b) follows from the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality and (28); and

(c) follows from the properties of  $M_t^j(\theta)$ . Note that  $\phi_s^j(\cdot)$  is continuous,  $\phi_s^j(0) = 0$ ,  $(\phi_s^j)'(0) = 0$ , and  $\phi_s^j(\theta) \rightarrow \infty$

when  $\theta \rightarrow \infty$ , for all  $s \geq 1$ . This implies that there exists a positive constant  $c(\epsilon) < \infty$  (independent of  $n$ ), and a  $\theta^* > 0$ , such that  $\phi_s^j(2\theta^*) - 2\theta^*\epsilon < -2c(\epsilon)$  for all  $s \geq 1$ . Using this we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P} \left\{ \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_j^u - p_j(S_u, \mu)) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \geq T_i(t)\epsilon, T_i(t) \geq n \right\} &\leq \sqrt{\mathbb{E} \{ \exp(-2c(\epsilon)T_i(t)); T_i(t) \geq n \}} \\ &\leq \exp(-c(\epsilon)n). \end{aligned}$$

Using the same arguments one has that

$$\mathbb{P} \left\{ \sum_{u=1}^{t-1} (Z_j^u - p_j(S_u, \mu)) \mathbf{1}\{i \in S_u\} \leq -T_i(t)\epsilon, T_i(t) \geq n \right\} \leq \exp(-c(\epsilon)n).$$

The result follows from the union bound. ■