
Reward-Free Deep-Learning-Based Reinforcement Learning

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Abstract

1 Exploration is widely regarded as one of the most challenging aspects of reinforcement
2 learning (RL). We consider the reward-free RL problem, which operates in
3 two phases: an exploration phase, where the agent gathers exploration trajectories
4 over episodes irrespective of any predetermined reward function, and a subsequent
5 planning phase, where a reward function is introduced. The agent then utilizes the
6 episodes from the exploration phase to calculate a near-optimal policy. Existing
7 algorithms and sample complexities for reward-free RL are limited to tabular,
8 linear, or very smooth function approximations, leaving the problem largely open
9 for more general cases. We consider deep-learning-based function approximations,
10 i.e. DQNs, and propose an algorithm based on internal feedback and the agent’s
11 own confidence and self-certainty in a graph MDP.

12 1 Introduction

13 In reinforcement learning (RL), an agent repeatedly interacts with an unknown environment with the
14 goal of maximizing its cumulative reward. To do so, the agent must engage in exploration, learning
15 to visit states in order to investigate whether they hold high rewards. RL policies using complex
16 function approximations have been empirically effective in various fields including reward-free RL.
17 These RL policies must learn the transition model, either directly or indirectly, necessitating efficient
18 exploration.

19 Sophisticated exploration strategies which deliberately incentivize the agent to visit new states
20 are provably sample-efficient (c.f., Kearns Singh (2002); Brafman Tennenholtz (2002); Azar et
21 al. (2017); Dann et al. (2017); Jin et al. (2018)), with recent work providing a nearly-complete
22 theoretical understanding for maximizing a single prespecified reward function (Dann Brunskill,
23 2015; Azar et al., 2017; Zanette Brunskill, 2019; Simchowitz Jamieson, 2019). In practice, however,
24 reward functions are often iteratively engineered to encourage desired behavior via trial and error (e.g.
25 in constrained RL formulations (Altman, 1999; Achiam et al., 2017; Tessler et al., 2018; Miryoosefi
26 et al., 2019)). In such cases, repeatedly invoking the same reinforcement learning algorithm with
27 different reward functions can be quite sample inefficient.

28 One solution to avoid excessive data collection in such settings is to first collect a dataset with good
29 coverage over all possible scenarios in the environment, and then apply a “Batch-RL” algorithm. To
30 methodically study this problem, we concentrate on the reward-free RL framework, which includes
31 an exploration phase and a planning phase. In the exploration phase, the agent interacts with the
32 environment without any pre-determined rewards and gathers empirical trajectories over episodes for
33 the subsequent planning phase. During the planning phase, the agent uses the offline data accumulated
34 in the exploration phase to compute the optimal policy for a given extrinsic reward function r , without
35 further interactions with the environment.

36 The reward-free RL framework has been progressively examined under increasingly complex models
 37 —tabular \rightarrow linear \rightarrow kernel-based \rightarrow deep learning based— in several works including (Jin et al.,
 38 2020a; Wang et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2021). The existing literature adequately addresses the tabular
 39 and linear settings. It however tends to falter, providing only partial and incomplete results when
 40 dealing with the more intricate kernel-based and deep learning based settings. The contribution of
 41 this paper is to further the literature by providing order optimal results in the deep-learning-based
 42 setting.

43 In this paper, we aim to develop an end-to-end instantiation of this proposal. To this end we ask:

44 1. How can we efficiently integrate a reward-free RL framework with deep learning based settings,
 45 such as the DQNs algorithms? 2. How can agents efficiently explore the environment without explicit
 46 rewards?

47 Our main objective is designing algorithms for both exploration and planning phases in the reward-
 48 free RL framework with deep-learning-based modeling. In particular, by exploring the environment,
 49 we aim to gather sufficient information so that we can compute the near-optimal policies for any
 50 reward function.

51 **Our Contributions.** In this paper, we present the concept of intrinsic signals or self-certainty which
 52 characterize the sample complexity of achieving provably sufficient coverage for Batch-RL. We do
 53 so by adopting a “reward-free RL” paradigm using a graph MDP and representing every state with a
 54 weighted node: During an exploration phase, the agent collects trajectories from an MDP M without
 55 a pre-specified reward function but with intrinsic signals. Then, in the planning phase, it is tasked
 56 with computing near-optimal policies under the transitions of M for a large collection of given reward
 57 functions using the DQN algorithm.

58 2 Related Work

59 The reward-free RL framework under the episodic setting has been studied with tabular model in Jin
 60 et al. (2020a); Zhang et al. (2020); Menard et al. (2021); Kaufmann et al. (2021), and with linear
 61 model in Wang et al. (2020); Zanette et al. (2020c); Wagenmaker et al. (2022). The problem has also
 62 been studied under the linear mixture model in Zhang et al. (2021); Chen et al. (2021); Zhang et
 63 al. (2023). The sample complexity of the RL problem on a discounted MDP setting with an infinite
 64 horizon has been considered under various tabular, linear, and kernel-based settings in (Kearns Singh,
 65 1998; Azar et al., 2013; Sidford et al., 2018; Agarwal et al., 2020; Yang Wang, 2019; Yeh et al.,
 66 2023). These works however assume the existence of a generative oracle (Kakade, 2003), which
 67 provides sample transitions from any state-action pair of the algorithm’s choice. This assumption
 68 simplifies the problem compared to the reward-free RL framework considered in this work, where the
 69 agent must follow the MDP trajectory within each episode and cannot arbitrarily inquire transitions
 70 from state-action pairs.

71 Specifically, we design an exploration algorithm based on intrinsic signals obtained from the agent
 72 itself that add significant challenges to the analysis. Our algorithm design is inspired by the RLIF
 73 technique used in Zhao et al (2025). In comparison, Zhao et al (2025) considered reasoning in
 74 LLMs where they replace external rewards in Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO) with
 75 self-certainty scores, enabling fully unsupervised learning. That is different from the reward-free RL
 76 framework considered in this work and their results do not apply here.

77 There is extensive literature on the analysis of RL policies which does not rely on a generative model
 78 or an exploratory behavioral policy. The literature has primarily focused on the tabular setting (Jin et
 79 al., 2018; Auer et al., 2008; Bartlett Tewari, 2012). Recent literature has placed a notable emphasis
 80 on employing function approximation in RL, particularly within the context of generalized linear
 81 settings. This approach involves representing the value function or transition model through a linear
 82 transformation to a well-defined feature mapping. Important contributions include the work of Jin
 83 et al. (2020b); Yao et al. (2014), as well as subsequent studies by Russo (2019); Neu Pike-Burke
 84 (2020); Yang Wang (2020). Furthermore, there have been several efforts to extend these techniques
 85 to a kernelized setting, as explored in Yang et al. (2020a); Yang Wang (2020); Chowdhury Gopalan
 86 (2019); Yang et al. (2020b); Domingues et al. (2021).

87 3 Problem Formulation

88 In this section, we present the episodic graph MDP setting, the reward-free RL framework, and
89 background on DQNs method.

90 3.1 Graph-based MDPs

91 We assume that the full state x can be represented as a collection of state variables x_i , so that X is a
92 Cartesian product of the domains of the $x_i : X = X_1 X_2 \dots X_N$, and similarly for $d : D = D_1 D_2 \dots D_N$.
93 We consider the following particular factored form for MDPs: for each variable i , there exist
94 neighborhood sets γ_i (including i) such that the value of $X_i^t + 1$ depends only on the variable i 's
95 neighborhood, $x^t[\gamma_i]$, and the i th decision d_i^t . Then, we can write the transition function in a factored
96 form:

$$T(y|x, d) = \prod_{i=1}^N T_i(y_i|x[\gamma_i], d_i) \quad (1)$$

97 where each factor is a local-scope function $T_i : X[\gamma_i] D_i X_i \rightarrow [0, 1], \forall i \in 1, 2, \dots, N$. We also
98 assume that the reward function is the sum of N local-scope rewards:

$$R(x, d) = \sum_{i=1}^N R_i(x_i, d_i) \quad (2)$$

99 with local-scope functions $R_i : X_i D_i \mathbb{R}, \forall i \in 1, 2, \dots, N$. To summarize, a
100 graph-based Markov decision process is characterized by the following parameters:
101 $(X_i : 1iN; D_i : 1iN; R_i : 1iN; \gamma_i : 1iN; T_i : 1iN)$. These assumptions for graph-based MDPs can
102 be easily generalized, for example to include T_i and R_i that depend on arbitrary sets of variables and
103 decisions, using some additional notation.

104 The optimal policy $\pi(x)$ cannot be explicitly represented for large graph-based MDPs, since the
105 number of states grows exponentially with the number of variables. To reduce complexity, we
106 consider a particular class of local policies: a policy $\pi(x) : X \rightarrow D$ is said to be local if decision
107 d_i is made using only the neighborhood γ_i , so that $\pi(x) = (\pi_1(x[\gamma_1]), \pi_2(x[\gamma_2]), \dots, \pi_N(x[\gamma_N]))$
108 where $\pi_i(x[\gamma_i]) : X[\gamma_i] \rightarrow D_i$. The main advantage of local policies is that they can be concisely
109 expressed when the neighborhood sizes $|\gamma_i|$ are small.

110 3.2 Reward-Free RL Framework

111 We aim to learn E-optimal policies using as small as possible number of collected exploration episodes.
112 In particular, we consider the reward-free RL framework that consists of two phases: exploration and
113 planning. In the exploration phase, we collect N exploration episodes $(s_1^n, a_1^n, s_2^n, a_2^n, \dots, s_H^n)_{n=1}^N$
114 without any revealed reward function. Then, in the planning phase, reward r is revealed, and we
115 design a policy for reward r using the trajectories collected in the exploration phase. We refer to N as
116 the sample complexity of designing E-optimal policy. Under certain assumptions, the question is:
117 How many exploration episodes are required to obtain E-optimal policies?

118 3.3 Deep Q-Learning

119 We are interested in maximizing the expected total reward in the episode, starting at step h , i.e., the
120 value function, defined as

$$V(s)_h^\pi = E[\sum_{h'=h}^H r'_h(s'_h, a'_h) | s_h = s], \forall s, h \in [H], \quad (3)$$

121 where the expectation is taken with respect to the randomness in the trajectory $(s_h, a_h)_{h=1}^H$ obtained
122 by the policy π . We also define the state-action value function $Q_h^\pi : Z \rightarrow [0, H]$ as follows.

$$Q_h^\pi(s, a) = E_\pi[\sum_{h'=h}^H r'_h(s'_h, a'_h) | s_h = s, a_h = a] \quad (4)$$

123 where the expectation is taken with respect to the randomness in the trajectory $(s_h, a_h)_{h=1}^H$ obtained
124 by the policy π . The Bellman equation associated with a policy π then is represented as

125 $Q_h^\pi(s, a) = r_h(s, a) + [P_h V_{h+1}^\pi](s, a),$
 126 $V_h^\pi(s) = \max_a Q_h^\pi(s, a), V_{H+1}^\pi = 0$
 127 where the expectation is taken with respect to the randomness in the policy π .

128 4 Algorithm

129 The two main ideas in our design are (i) the use of a intrinsic signals in the exploration phase and (ii)
 130 DQN integration setting in application of deep-learning-based confidence intervals.

131 **Intrinsic Rewards.** In the exploration phase, Instead of depending on external evaluation, IR uses
 132 the model’s own assessment of its outputs or reasoning process as feedback. This offers several
 133 advantages: it reduces reliance on supervision infrastructure, provides task-agnostic reward signals,
 134 and supports learning in domains where external verification is unavailable, where $u(q, o)$ represents
 135 an intrinsic signal derived from the model’s internal state or computation, rather than external
 136 verification. The key challenge lies in identifying intrinsic signals that correlate with output quality
 137 and can effectively guide learning.

138 4.1 Exploration Phase

Algorithm 1 Exploration Phase

Input: $\tau, \beta(\delta), K, S, A, H, P$
for $n = 1, 2, \dots$ **do**
 for $step = H, 1 \dots$ **do**
 Obtain Q_h^n
 $V_h^n(.) = \max_a Q_h^n(., a)$
 end for
 for $h = 1, 2, \dots$ **do**
 Take action $a_h^n \leftarrow \max_a Q_h^n(s_h^n, a)$
 Receive the next state s_{h+1}^n
 end for
end for

139 4.2 Planning Phase

Algorithm 2 Exploration Phase

Input: $\tau, \beta(\delta), K, S, A, H, P$ and exploration data $(s_h^n, a_h^n)_{(h,n)} \in [H][N]$
for $all(s; a; s_0; h) \in SAS[H]$ **do**
 $\hat{P}_h(s'|s, a) = N_h(s, a, s') / N_h(s, a)$
end for
 $\pi \leftarrow \text{APPROXIMATE-MDP-SOLVER}(\hat{P}; r; e)$
Return $Policy\hat{\pi}$

140 5 Conclusion

141 In this paper, We considered the reward-free RL framework with deep-learning-based modeling,
 142 comprising of two phases. In the exploration phase, the learner first collects trajectories from an MDP
 143 M without receiving any reward information. After the exploration phase, the learner is no longer
 144 allowed to interact with the MDP and she is instead tasked with computing near-optimal policies
 145 under for M for a collection of given reward functions. This framework is particularly suitable when
 146 there are many reward functions of interest, or when we are interested in learning the transition
 147 operator directly. Finally, we developed algorithms for both exploration and planning phases for with
 148 function approximation using deep learning.

149 References

150 References follow the acknowledgments in the camera-ready paper. Use unnumbered first-level
 151 heading for the references. Any choice of citation style is acceptable as long as you are consistent. It
 152 is permissible to reduce the font size to small (9 point) when listing the references. Note that the
 153 Reference section does not count towards the page limit.

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