# Exponential Family Model-Based Reinforcement Learning via Score Matching 

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#### Abstract

We propose a optimistic model-based algorithm, dubbed SMRL, for finitehorizon episodic reinforcement learning (RL) when the transition model is specified by exponential family distributions with $d$ parameters and the reward is bounded and known. SMRL uses score matching, an unnormalized density estimation technique that enables efficient estimation of the model parameter by ridge regression. SMRL achieves $\tilde{O}\left(d \sqrt{H^{3} T}\right)$ regret, where $H$ is the length of each episode and $T$ is the total number of interactions.


NB: extended abstract.

## 1 Introduction

This paper studies the regret minimization problem for finite horizon, episodic reinforcement learning (RL) with infinitely large state and action spaces. Empirically, RL has achieved success in diverse domains, even when the problem size (measured in the number of states and actions) explodes [19, 26, 14]. The key to developing sample-efficient algorithms is to leverage function approximation, enabling us to generalize across different state-action pairs. Much theoretical progress has been made towards understanding function approximation in RL. Existing theory typically requires strong linearity assumptions on transition dynamics [e.g., 34, 12, 5, 20] or action-value functions [e.g., 16, 36] of the Markov Decision Process (MDP). However, most real world problems are nonlinear, and our theoretical understanding of these settings remains limited. Thus, we ask the question:

## Can we design provably efficient RL algorithms in nonlinear environments?

Recently, Chowdhury et al. [7] introduced a nonlinear setting where the state-transition measures are finitely parameterized exponential family models, and they proposed to estimate model parameters via maximum likelihood estimation (MLE). The exponential family is a well-studied and powerful statistical framework, so it is a natural model class to consider beyond linear models. Chowdhury et al. study transition models of the form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right)=q\left(s^{\prime}\right) \exp \left(\left\langle\psi\left(s^{\prime}\right), W_{0} \phi(s, a)\right\rangle-Z_{s a}\left(W_{0}\right)\right), \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\psi \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi}}$ and $\phi \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\phi}}$ are known feature mappings, $q$ is a known base measure, $Z_{s a}$ is the $\log$ partition function, and $W_{0}$ is the unknown parameter to be learned. This transition model class covers, as special cases, linear dynamical systems, as well as its nonlinear generalizations [17, 13]. Linear dynamical systems with quadratic rewards, i.e., the linear quadratic regulator $(\mathrm{LQR})$, have received much attention recently as an important testbench
for RL in unknown, complex environments [10, 27, 13]. Thus, the work of Chowdhury et al. is a crucial step in bridging the gap between RL and continuous control.

However, MLE has several shortcomings. In order to estimate the parameter $W_{0}$ in (11), MLE requires estimating the $\log$ partition function $Z_{s a}$, which is computationally intensive. Practical implementations for MLE which estimate the log partition function via Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods can be slow and induce approximation errors [6]. These approximation errors can propagate in undesirable ways to the algorithm's planning procedure. Since the MLE $\hat{W}$ cannot be computed in closed form, Chowdhury et al. leave their estimator implicitly defined as solutions of the likelihood equations. As is typical for upper confidence RL (UCRL) algorithms, one constructs high probability confidence sets around the estimator. Due to the challenging modeling assumption, Chowdhury et al. employ confidence sets which are sums of KL divergences taken over the dataset.

In this work, we bypass these difficulties by instead proposing to learn the model parameters with score matching, an unnormalized density estimation technique introduced by Hyvärinen [11]. Score matching provides an explicit, easily computable closed form estimator for the model parameters by solving a certain ridge regression problem (Theorem11). Moreover, we can employ high probability confidence sets which are ellipsoids centered at the estimator, a standard component in prior theoretical work on linear bandits and linear MDPs [e.g., 1. 12].

Our main results are as follows:

- We extend prior work on the score matching estimator in the i.i.d. setting by proving nonasymptotic concentration guarantees for non-i.i.d. data (Theorem 2).
- We design a model-based algorithm, dubbed SMRL, which achieves regret of $\tilde{O}\left(d \sqrt{H^{3} T}\right)$, with mild polynomial dependence on the problem constants (Theorem3). Here, $d=d_{\psi} \times d_{\phi}$ is the total number of parameters of $W_{0}, H$ is the episode length, and $T$ is the total number of interactions. In each episode, SMRL uses score matching as a computationally efficient subroutine to estimate model parameters from data. It then constructs elliptic confidence regions around the estimator which contain the true parameter with high probability and chooses policies optimistically based on such confidence regions ${ }^{1}$

Our regret guarantee matches that of Exp-UCRL, the model-based algorithm proposed by Chowdhury et al. When specialized to the nonlinear dynamical system setting with bounded costs and features, score matching and MLE are equivalent estimators. Here, the recent work of Kakade et al. [13] gives a tighter guarantee of $\tilde{O}\left(\sqrt{d_{\phi}\left(d_{\phi}+d_{\psi}+H\right) H^{2} T}\right)$; however we stress that our analysis applies to a broader class of models. Broadly speaking, we view score matching and MLE as complementary estimation techniques; while MLE relies on less assumptions, score matching enjoys computational efficiency and allows us to simplify both the algorithm and proofs. A detailed comparison is deferred to Section 4 .

Definitions and Notation. For a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, we let $\|x\|:=\|x\|_{2}$ denote the $\ell_{2}$ norm. For a matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, we denote $\operatorname{vec}(M) \in \mathbb{R}^{n d}$ to be the vectorized version of $M$. For a matrix $M$, we also denote $\|M\|_{2}$ to be the operator norm and $\|M\|_{F}$ to be the Frobenius norm, i.e., $\|M\|_{F}:=\|\operatorname{vec}(M)\|$. We also let $e_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and $E_{i j} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ denote the canonical basis vectors and matrices respectively. For positive semidefinite matrices $A, B$, we let $A \preceq B$ to be $B-A \succeq 0$. For positive semidefinite matrix $A$ and vector $x$ we define $\|x\|_{A}:=$ $\sqrt{x^{\top} A x}$. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we let $[n]:=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. For a twice differentiable function $f: \mathbb{R}^{m} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and any $i \in[m]$, we let $\partial_{i} f(x):=\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} f_{1}(x), \ldots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} f_{n}(x)\right)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $\partial_{i}^{2} f(x):=\left(\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{i}^{2}} f_{1}(x), \ldots, \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{i}^{2}} f_{n}(x)\right)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$.

[^0]
## 2 Problem Statement

We consider the setting of an episodic Markov Decision Process, denoted by $\operatorname{MDP}(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, H, \mathbb{P}, r)$, where $\mathcal{S}$ is the state space, $\mathcal{A}$ is the action space, $H \in \mathbb{N}$ is the horizon length of each episode, $\mathbb{P}$ is state transition probability measure, and $r: \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is the reward function.
The agent interacts with the episodic MDP as follows. At the beginning of each episode, a state $s_{1}$ is chosen by an adversary and revealed to the agent. For each step $h \in[H]$, the agent observes the state $s_{h}$ and plays action $a_{h} \in \mathcal{A}$. Afterwards, they observe reward $r_{h}\left(s_{h}, a_{h}\right)$, and the MDP evolves to a new state $s_{h+1} \sim \mathbb{P}\left(\cdot \mid s_{h}, a_{h}\right)$. The episode terminates at state $s_{H+1}$ after which the world resets. The goal of the agent is to maximize their cumulative rewards through interactions with the MDP.

Now we define the policy function, value function, and action-value function which will be central to our results. A policy function is a collection of functions $\pi:=\left\{\pi_{h}: \mathcal{S} \mapsto \mathcal{A}\right\}_{h \in[H]}$ which determine the agent's strategy for interacting with the world, i.e., when presented with state $s$ at step $h$, the agent will play $\pi_{h}(s)$. For every policy $\pi$, we can define a value function $V_{\mathbb{P}, h}^{\pi}: \mathcal{S} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, which is the expected value of the cumulative future rewards when the agent plays policy $\pi$ starting from state $s$ in step $h$, and the world transitions according to $\mathbb{P}$. In this paper, we include $\mathbb{P}$ in the subscript since we will analyze value functions for different models; if clear from context, we will drop the subscript $\mathbb{P}$. Specifically, we have:

$$
V_{\mathbb{P}, h}^{\pi}(s):=\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}\left[\sum_{h^{\prime}=h}^{H} r_{h^{\prime}}\left(s_{h^{\prime}}, a_{h^{\prime}}\right) \mid s_{h}=s, a_{h: H} \sim \pi\right], \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, h \in[H] .
$$

Similarly, we define the action-value functions $Q_{\mathbb{P}, h}^{\pi}(s, a): \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ to be the expected value of cumulative rewards starting from a state-action pair in step $h$, following $\pi$ afterwards:
$Q_{\mathbb{P}, h}^{\pi}(s, a):=\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}\left[\sum_{h^{\prime}=h}^{H} r_{h^{\prime}}\left(s_{h^{\prime}}, a_{h^{\prime}}\right) \mid s_{h}=s, a_{h}=a, a_{h+1: H} \sim \pi\right], \quad \forall(s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}, h \in[H]$.
An optimal policy $\pi^{\star}$ is defined to be the policy such that the corresponding value function $V_{\mathbb{P}, h}^{\pi^{\star}}(s)$ is maximized at every state $s \in \mathcal{S}$ and step $h \in[H]$. Without loss of generality, it suffices to consider deterministic policies [32]. Given knowledge of the $\operatorname{MDP}(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, H, \mathbb{P}, r)$, the agent can compute the optimal value function and action-value function via dynamic programming [31]; then the optimal policy can be computed as the policy that acts greedily with respect to the optional action-value function, i.e., $\pi_{h}^{\star}(s)=\arg \max _{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q_{\mathbb{P}, h}^{\star}(s, a)$.
In the online setting, we will measure the performance of an agent interacting with the MDP over $K$ episodes via the notion of regret. In every episode $k \in[K]$, an adversary presents the agent with a state $s_{1}^{k}$, and the agent then chooses a policy $\pi^{k}$. The regret over $K$ episodes is the expected suboptimality of the agent's choice of policy $\pi^{k}$ compared to the optimal policy $\pi^{\star}$ :

$$
\mathcal{R}(K):=\sum_{k=1}^{K}\left(V_{1}^{\pi^{\star}}\left(s_{1}^{k}\right)-V_{1}^{\pi^{k}}\left(s_{1}^{k}\right)\right)
$$

Implicit in the notation $\mathcal{R}(K)$ are the adversary's choice of initial states; our results for regret will hold for any sequence of adversarially chosen $\left\{s_{1}^{k}\right\}_{k \in[K]}$. We will also denote $T:=K H$ as the total number of interactions the agent makes with the world.

### 2.1 Exponential Family Transition Model

In this paper, we propose a model-based approach to online RL, meaning that in every episode, the agent will explicitly estimate the model $\mathbb{P}$ in order to pick their policy $\pi^{k}$. We consider the following family of transition models from [7]. Therefore, the goal of the RL algorithm will be to achieve sublinear (in $T$ ) regret when run on MDPs satisfying Assumption 1
Assumption 1. Suppose $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d_{s}}$ and $\mathcal{A}$ is any arbitrary action set. Let feature mappings $\psi: \mathcal{S} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi}}$ and $\phi: \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{d_{\phi}}$, as well as base measure $q: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be known to the learner.

The state transition measures are conditional exponential family models, parameterized by an unknown matrix $W_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi} \times d_{\phi}}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right)=q\left(s^{\prime}\right) \exp \left(\left\langle\psi\left(s^{\prime}\right), W_{0} \phi(s, a)\right\rangle-Z_{s a}\left(W_{0}\right)\right), \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
W_{0} \in \mathcal{W}:=\left\{W \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi} \times d_{\phi}}: \int_{\mathcal{S}} q\left(s^{\prime}\right) \exp \left(\left\langle\psi\left(s^{\prime}\right), W \phi(s, a)\right\rangle\right) d s^{\prime}<\infty, \forall(s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}\right\}
$$

Here, $Z_{s a}(\cdot)$ is the log-partition function, which is completely determined once $\psi, \phi$, and $q$ are specified. In addition, we assume that the reward function $r: \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is bounded a.s. in $[0,1]$ and known to the learner.

Along with this assumption, we introduce a notational convention. Given some real or vector-valued measurable function $f\left(s^{\prime}\right)$, we will write $\mathbb{E}_{s a}^{W} f\left(s^{\prime}\right)$ to denote the expected value of $f$ when $s^{\prime}$ is drawn from the conditional distribution $\mathbb{P}_{W}(\cdot \mid s, a)$, i.e. $\mathbb{E}_{s a}^{W} f\left(s^{\prime}\right):=$ $\int_{\mathcal{S}} f\left(s^{\prime}\right) \mathbb{P}_{W}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right) d s^{\prime}$.

### 2.2 Relationship to (Non)linear Dynamical Systems

We now describe how Assumption 1 generalizes the previously studied model class of (non)linear dynamical systems which have been explored in reinforcement learning and control theory literature.

First, we take a step back and describe linear dynamical systems (LDS), which govern the transition dynamics of the LQR problem. ${ }^{2}$ An LDS is defined by the following transition dynamics:

$$
s^{\prime}=A s+B a+\varepsilon, \text { where } \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)
$$

where $s, s^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{s}}, a \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{a}}, A, B$ are appropriately sized parameter matrices, and $\Sigma \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{d_{s} \times d_{s}}$ is a known covariance matrix. The problem of estimating $(A, B)$, known as system identification, has a long history.

Recently, system identification and regret minimization have been studied for nonlinear generalizations of LDS [17, 13]. In this paper, we refer to this setting as the nonlinear dynamical system (or nonLDS for short) $]^{3}$ The nonLDS is described by the state transition model:

$$
s^{\prime}=W_{0} \phi(s, a)+\varepsilon, \text { where } \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)
$$

By setting $\phi(s, a)=[s, a]^{\top}$ and $W_{0}=[A B]$, we recover the classical linear dynamical system. We note that nonLDS (and by extension the LDS) are special cases of Assumption 1. This can be seen by writing out the probability density function of the multivariate gaussian distribution to get:
$q\left(s^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{(2 \pi)^{d_{s} / 2} \operatorname{det}(\Sigma)^{1 / 2}} \cdot \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2}\left\|s^{\prime}\right\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^{2}\right), \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right)=\Sigma^{-1} s^{\prime}, Z_{s a}\left(W_{0}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|W_{0} \phi(s, a)\right\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^{2}$.
Lastly, we note that Assumption 1 is more general than that of the nonLDS, whose base measure $q(\cdot)$ and feature mapping $\psi(\cdot)$ must take a specific form given by the multivariate gaussian distribution. Assumption 1 gives extra flexibility in the functions $q, \psi$, and $\phi$, which can be regarded as design choices for the practitioner. For example, one can pick the mapping $\psi$ to be some polynomial in $s^{\prime}$, or even the output of a neural network which captures the relevant features for the transition to $s^{\prime}$; this is not permitted under the nonLDS setting. The contribution of this paper (as well as Chowdhury et al.) is to show provably efficient guarantees for a class of problems which subsumes nonLDS.

[^1]
## 3 Model Estimation via Score Matching

In this section, we present the score matching method, the subroutine in our RL algorithm that estimates model parameters. We also introduce structural assumptions that enable us to derive a nonasymptotic concentration guarantee for the score matching estimator.

Hyvärinen [11] proposed score matching as an alternative to minimizing the log likelihood. Score matching minimizes the Fischer divergence, which is the expected squared distance between the score functions $\nabla_{s^{\prime}} \log \mathbb{P}_{W}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right)$. Specifically, we define the divergence between $\mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}$ and $\mathbb{P}_{W}$ for fixed $(s, a)$ as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
J\left(\mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}(\cdot \mid s, a) \| \mathbb{P}_{W}(\cdot \mid s, a)\right):=\frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{S}} \mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right)\left\|\nabla_{s^{\prime}} \log \frac{\mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right)}{\mathbb{P}_{W}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right)}\right\|^{2} d s^{\prime} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Before proceeding with the exposition of the score matching estimator, we list standard regularity conditions that are required for the analysis of score matching [cf., 29, 4].
(A) $\mathcal{S}$ is a non-empty open subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d_{s}}$ with piecewise smooth boundary $\partial \mathcal{S}:=\overline{\mathcal{S}}-\mathcal{S}$, where $\overline{\mathcal{S}}$ is the closure of $\mathcal{S}$.
(B) (Differentiability): $\psi(\cdot)$ is twice continuously differentiable on $\mathcal{S}$ with respect to each coordinate $i \in\left[d_{s}\right]$, and $\partial_{i}^{j} \psi(s)$ is continuously extensible to $\overline{\mathcal{S}}$ for all $j \in\{1,2\}, i \in$ $\left[d_{s}\right]$.
(C) (Boundary Condition): For all $(s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}$ and $i \in\left[d_{s}\right]$, as $s^{\prime} \rightarrow \partial \mathcal{S}$, we have:

$$
\left\|\partial_{i} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right)\right\| \mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right)=o\left(\left\|s^{\prime}\right\|^{1-d_{s}}\right)
$$

(D) (Integrability): For all $i \in\left[d_{s}\right],(s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}$, let $p_{s a}:=\mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}(\cdot \mid s, a)$. Then:

$$
\left\|\partial_{i} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right)\right\| \in L^{2}\left(\mathcal{S}, p_{s a}\right),\left\|\partial_{i}^{2} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right)\right\| \in L^{1}\left(\mathcal{S}, p_{s a}\right),\left\|\partial_{i} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right)\right\| \partial_{i} \log q\left(s^{\prime}\right) \in L^{1}\left(\mathcal{S}, p_{s a}\right)
$$

The key insight of Hyvärinen is that via an integration by parts trick, the divergence can be rewritten in a more amenable form. Essentially, these regularity conditions allow us to rewrite the conditional score function $J(W):=J\left(\mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}(\cdot \mid s, a) \| \mathbb{P}_{W}(\cdot \mid s, a)\right)$ as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(W)=\frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{S}} \mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{d_{s}}\left[\left(\partial_{i} \log \mathbb{P}_{W}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right)\right)^{2}+2 \partial_{i}^{2} \log \mathbb{P}_{W}\left(s^{\prime} \mid s, a\right)\right] d s^{\prime}+C \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $C$ does not depend on the parameter $W$.
We make the crucial point that (4) can be estimated with samples without requiring computation of the partition function, since the partition function vanishes when taking partial derivatives with respect to $s^{\prime}$. This gives rise to an empirical score matching loss for a dataset $\mathcal{D}=$ $\left\{\left(s_{t}, a_{t}, s_{t}^{\prime}\right)\right\}_{t \in[n]}$ :

$$
\hat{J}_{n}(W):=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{d_{s}}\left(\left(\partial_{i} \log \mathbb{P}_{W}\left(s_{t}^{\prime} \mid s_{t}, a_{t}\right)\right)^{2}+2 \partial_{i}^{2} \log \mathbb{P}_{W}\left(s_{t}^{\prime} \mid s_{t}, a_{t}\right)\right)
$$

Furthermore, for any regularizer $\lambda>0$, we can define the empirical score matching estimator $\hat{W}_{n, \lambda}:=\arg \min _{W} \hat{J}(W)+\frac{\lambda}{2}\|W\|_{F}^{2}$. (When the value of $\lambda$ is understood, we will drop it in the subscript.)

The following theorem gives a closed form expression for the empirical score matching estimator, when specialized to densities given by Assumption 1

Theorem 1. For a dataset $\mathcal{D}=\left\{\left(s_{t}, a_{t}, s_{t}^{\prime}\right)\right\}_{t \in[n]}$, we have:

$$
\hat{J}_{n}(W)=\frac{1}{2}\left\langle\operatorname{vec}(W), \hat{V}_{n} \operatorname{vec}(W)\right\rangle+\left\langle\operatorname{vec}(W), \hat{b}_{n}\right\rangle+C
$$

where:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{V}_{n}:=\sum_{t=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{d_{s}} \operatorname{vec}\left(\partial_{i} \psi\left(s_{t}^{\prime}\right) \phi\left(s_{t}, a_{t}\right)^{\top}\right) \operatorname{vec}\left(\partial_{i} \psi\left(s_{t}^{\prime}\right) \phi\left(s_{t}, a_{t}\right)^{\top}\right)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi} d_{\phi} \times d_{\psi} d_{\phi}}, \\
& \hat{b}_{n}:=\operatorname{vec}\left(\sum_{t=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{d_{s}}\left(\partial_{i} \log q\left(s_{t}^{\prime}\right) \partial_{i} \psi\left(s_{t}^{\prime}\right)+\partial_{i}^{2} \psi\left(s_{t}^{\prime}\right)\right) \phi\left(s_{t}, a_{t}\right)^{\top}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi} d_{\phi}},
\end{aligned}
$$

and $C$ does not depend on $W$. In addition, the score matching estimator can be computed as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{vec}\left(\hat{W}_{n, \lambda}\right)=-\left(\hat{V}_{n}+\lambda I\right)^{-1} \hat{b}_{n} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 1 is a typical result in score matching literature, and can be derived as a corollary of [4, Thm. 3].
For the rest of the paper, it is useful to derive matrix expressions for $\hat{V}_{n}$ and $\hat{b}_{n}$. We define the following functions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Phi(s, a):=\left[E_{11} \phi(s, a), E_{12} \phi(s, a), \ldots E_{i j} \phi(s, a), \ldots E_{d_{\psi} \cdot d_{\phi}} \phi(s, a)\right]^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi} d_{\phi} \times d_{\psi}}, \\
& C\left(s^{\prime}\right):=\sum_{i=1}^{d_{s}} \partial_{i} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right) \partial_{i} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi} \times d_{\psi}}, \quad \xi\left(s^{\prime}\right):=\sum_{i=1}^{d_{s}} \partial_{i} \log q\left(s^{\prime}\right) \partial_{i} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right)+\partial_{i}^{2} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In addition, we use the subscript $t$ to denote the value of the above expressions on sample $\left(s_{t}, a_{t}, s_{t}^{\prime}\right)$. We succintly represent $\hat{V}_{n}$ and $\hat{b}_{n}$ as $\hat{V}_{n}=\sum_{t=1}^{n} \Phi_{t} C_{t} \Phi_{t}^{\top}$ and $\hat{b}_{n}=\sum_{t=1}^{n} \Phi_{t} \xi_{t}$.

Computational Efficiency. We make a few remarks on the computation of the score matching estimator. From Theorem 1. we see that computing $\hat{W}_{n}$ does not require estimation of the log-partition function $Z_{s a}$. The objective is a quadratic function in $W$, which we can solve for via Equation (5).
However, Equation (5) requires us to invert a $d_{\phi} d_{\psi} \times d_{\phi} d_{\psi}$ matrix, which takes time $O\left(d_{\phi}^{3} d_{\psi}^{3}\right)$ and memory $O\left(d_{\phi}^{2} d_{\psi}^{2}\right)$. This can be disappointing from a practical perspective, where the dimensionality of $\phi$ and $\psi$ can be large. Several additional considerations may remedy this:

- Using the representer theorem, it is possible to show that $\hat{W}$ is the solution of a linear system of $n \cdot d_{S}$ variables, thus taking time $O\left(n^{3} d_{S}^{3}\right)$ and space $O\left(n^{2} d_{S}^{2}\right)$, [see e.g.,4, Thm. 1]. One can further reduce the dependence on $n$ using Nyström approximations [30].
- If we are in the structured setting where $W_{0}=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \theta_{i} A_{i}$, where $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is unknown but the matrices $A_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi} \times d_{\phi}}$ are known. Theorem 1 can be adapted to this setting, and solving for $\hat{\theta}_{n}$ will take time $O\left(d^{3}\right)$ and space $O\left(d^{2}\right)$.

Concentration Guarantee. We provide nonasymptotic concentration guarantees for the score matching estimator $\hat{W}$ under some structural assumptions.

## Assumption 2.

(i) For any $(s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}$ and $s^{\prime} \sim \mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}(\cdot \mid s, a)$ : we have $\xi\left(s^{\prime}\right)$ is $B_{\psi}$-subgaussian.
(ii) For any $(s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}$ and $s^{\prime} \sim \mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}(\cdot \mid s, a)$ : we have $C\left(s^{\prime}\right) W_{0} \phi(s, a)$ is $B_{c^{-}}$ subgaussian.
(iii) For any $s^{\prime} \in \mathcal{S}: \alpha_{1} I \preceq C\left(s^{\prime}\right) \preceq \alpha_{2} I$.
(iv) For any $(s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}: \mathbb{E}_{s a}^{W_{0}} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right) \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right)^{\top}-\mathbb{E}_{s a}^{W_{0}} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right) \mathbb{E}_{s a}^{W_{0}} \psi\left(s^{\prime}\right)^{\top} \leq \kappa I$.

The conditions in Assumption 2are mostly adapted from prior work [29, 4, 7], with suitable modifications to accomodate our non-i.i.d. setting.

For now, we discuss when Assumption 2 holds. It is easy to see that Assumption 2 holds for nonLDS (take $\Sigma=\sigma^{2} I$ ) with $B_{\psi}=\sigma^{-6}, B_{c}=0, \alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}=\sigma^{-4}$, and $\kappa=\sigma^{-2}$. In fact, a
broader class of models are covered under Assumption 2 that go beyond the nonLDS. For example, consider the setting when $q\left(s^{\prime}\right)=\exp \left(-\alpha^{-1} \sum_{i \in\left[d_{s}\right]}\left|s_{i}^{\prime}\right|^{\alpha}\right)$ for some fixed $\alpha \in(1,2]$; $\psi\left(s^{\prime}\right): \mathbb{R}^{d_{s}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d_{s}}$ is an elementwise function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $0<\mu \leq f^{\prime} \leq L$ and $\left|f^{\prime \prime}\right| \leq D ;$ $\left\|W_{0}\right\| \leq B_{\star}$ and $\|\phi(s, a)\| \leq B_{\phi}$ for all $(s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}$. While we are unable to provide a formal mathematical proof that Assumption 2 is always satisfied here, we note that the conditions seem to hold experimentally for many choices for $\alpha$ and $f$. We leave developing a better understanding of the necessary and sufficient conditions for score-matching to future work.

We can provide the following concentration guarantee.
Theorem 2. Suppose Assumption 1 and 2 and regularity conditions (A)-(D) hold. Let $\left\{\mathcal{F}_{t}\right\}_{t=1}^{\infty}$ be a filtration such that $\left(s_{t}, a_{t}\right)$ is $\mathcal{F}_{t}$ measurable, $s_{t}^{\prime}$ is $\mathcal{F}_{t+1}$ measurable, and $s_{t}^{\prime} \sim \mathbb{P}_{W_{0}}\left(\cdot \mid s_{t}, a_{t}\right)$.
For any $\delta \in(0,1)$ and $\lambda>0$, let:

$$
\beta_{n}:=\sqrt{\frac{2\left(B_{\psi}+B_{c}\right)}{\alpha_{1}^{2}}} \cdot \sqrt{\log \frac{\operatorname{det}\left(\lambda^{-1} \hat{V}_{n}+I\right)^{1 / 2}}{\delta}}+\sqrt{\lambda}\left\|W_{0}\right\|_{F} .
$$

With probability at least $1-\delta$, the score matching estimators $\hat{W}_{n, \lambda}$ satisfy: $\left\|\operatorname{vec}\left(\hat{W}_{n, \lambda}\right)-\operatorname{vec}\left(W_{0}\right)\right\|_{\hat{V}_{n}+\lambda I} \leq \beta_{n}$, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
Theorem 2 is a self-normalized concentration guarantee, since the parameter error is rescaled by a data-dependent term $\hat{V}_{n}+\lambda I$. The proof relies on the method of mixtures argument developed in the linear bandit literature [see e.g., 1, 15].

## 4 Algorithm and Main Result

In this section, we present our main results, which introduce the Score Matching for RL (SMRL) algorithm (Algorithm 1) and provide regret guarantees.

Algorithm Specification. Our algorithm works as follows. In each episode $k=1,2, \ldots, K$, we compute a elliptic confidence set $\mathcal{W}_{k}$ centered at our score matching estimator. In particular, we consider the $n:=(k-1) H$ state transitions $\mathcal{D}=\left\{s_{t}, a_{t}, s_{t}^{\prime}\right\}_{t=1}^{n}$ the agent has observed up until the beginning of episode $k$ and run the score matching estimator to get the prediction:

$$
\hat{W}_{k}:=\underset{W}{\arg \min } \hat{J}(W)+\frac{\lambda}{2}\|W\|_{F}^{2}, \text { using (5). }
$$

In discussing our RL algorithm and its regret guarantees, we choose to index $\hat{W}$ and $\hat{V}$ by $k$ rather than $n$ to emphasize that these quantities are computed once per episode. We also drop the subscript $\lambda$ because it is fixed across the run of the algorithm.

Next, we define the confidence set:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{W}_{k}:=\left\{W \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi} \times d_{\phi}}:\left\|\operatorname{vec}\left(\hat{W}_{k}\right)-\operatorname{vec}(W)\right\|_{\hat{V}_{k}+\lambda I} \leq \beta_{k}\right\} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\beta_{k}:=\sqrt{\frac{2\left(B_{\psi}+B_{c}\right)}{\alpha_{1}^{2}}} \cdot \sqrt{\log \frac{\operatorname{det}\left(\lambda^{-1} \hat{V}_{k}+I\right)^{1 / 2}}{\delta / 2}}+\sqrt{\lambda} B_{\star}
$$

and $B_{\star}$ is some known upper bound on $\left\|W_{0}\right\|_{F}$.
Once the agent computes the confidence set $\mathcal{W}_{k}$, they observe a new state $s_{1}^{k}$ and compute an optimistic policy $\pi^{k}$ (line 5-6), which is the optimal policy with respect to the "best model" in $\mathcal{W}_{k}$. As long as $W_{0} \in \mathcal{W}_{k}$, the optimistic planning procedure gives us an overestimate of the true value function $V_{\mathbb{P}, 1}^{\star}\left(s_{1}^{k}\right)$, ensuring sufficient exploration of the MDP. Lastly, the agent runs policy $\pi^{k}$ on the MDP to collect a new trajectory of data, which is added to the dataset $\mathcal{D}$.

```
Algorithm 1 Score Matching for RL (SMRL)
    Input: Regularizer \(\lambda\) and constants \(B_{\psi}, B_{c}, B_{\star}, \kappa, \alpha_{1}\).
    Initialize: starting confidence set \(\mathcal{W}_{1}=\mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi} \times d_{\phi}}\), confidence widths \(\left\{\beta_{k}\right\}_{k \geq 1}\), dataset
    \(\mathcal{D}=\emptyset\).
    for episode \(k=1,2,3, \cdots, K\) do
        Planning:
        Observe initial state \(s_{1}^{k}\)
        Choose the optimistic policy: \(\pi^{k}=\arg \max _{\pi} \max _{W \in \mathcal{W}_{k}} V_{\mathbb{P}_{W}, 1}^{\pi}\left(s_{1}^{k}\right)\)
        Execution:
        Execute \(\pi^{k}\) to get a trajectory \(\left\{s_{h}^{k}, a_{h}^{k}, r_{h}^{k}, s_{h+1}^{k}\right\}_{h \in[H]}\), and add it to \(\mathcal{D}\).
        Solve for score matching estimator \(\hat{W}_{k}=\arg \min _{W} \hat{J}(W)+\frac{\lambda}{2}\|W\|_{F}^{2}\) via (5)
        Update confidence set \(\mathcal{W}_{k+1}\) via (6)
```

Computational Complexity. Algorithm 1 has two main components: model estimation (line 9) via score matching and optimistic planning (line 6). We have already discussed in Section 3 that the model estimation can be computed efficiently.

Planning is a different story. We note that planning with a known model, i.e., solving the problem $\pi^{k}=\arg \max _{\pi} V_{\mathbb{P}_{W}, 1}^{\pi}\left(s_{1}^{k}\right)$, is already challenging for our setting without imposing further structure. Planning with a known model can be approximated with model predictive control [18, 33]. Furthermore, even with access to a planning oracle, optimistic planning is known to be NP-hard in the worst case [9]. In this work, we assume computational oracle access to the optimistic planner that solves (line 6) and leave developing efficient approximation algorithms to future work. One alternative to optimistic planning is to employ posterior sampling methods in conjunction with (approximate) planning oracles; the Bayesian regret can be theoretically analyzed using well-established techniques [see e.g. 21, 7] ${ }^{4}$ Other ideas are to use noise augmented MDPs [24] or Randomized Least-Squares Value Iteration (RLSVI) [22, 23, 25, 35, 2].

Regret Guarantee. We now provide our main result, which is a $\sqrt{T}$-regret guarantee on the performance of SMRL.

Theorem 3 (SMRL Regret Guarantee). Suppose Assumptions 1 and 2 and regularity conditions (A)-(D) hold. Set $\lambda:=1 / B_{\star}^{2}$ and fix $\delta \in(0,1)$. Then with probability at least $1-\delta$ :

$$
\mathcal{R}(K) \leq C \sqrt{\gamma_{K+1} \cdot\left(\frac{2 \kappa\left(B_{\psi}+B_{c}\right)}{\alpha_{1}^{3}}\left(\gamma_{K+1}+\log 2 / \delta\right)+\frac{\kappa}{\alpha_{1}}+H\right)} \cdot \sqrt{H^{2} T}+2 H \sqrt{2 T \log 2 / \delta}
$$

where $C$ is an absolute constant and $\gamma_{K+1}:=\log \operatorname{det}\left(\lambda^{-1} \hat{V}_{K+1}+I\right)$. If we additionally assume that $\|\phi(s, a)\| \leq B_{\phi}$, then $R(K) \leq \tilde{O}\left(d_{\psi} d_{\phi} \cdot \sqrt{H^{3} T}\right)$, where the $\tilde{O}$ hides log factors and $\operatorname{poly}\left(\kappa, B_{\psi}, B_{c}, \alpha_{1}^{-1}\right)$.
A few remarks are in order. Our regret guarantee depends on the number of model parameters $d_{\psi} \cdot d_{\phi}$ and not on the state and action space sizes, thus making our algorithm sample-efficient in large-scale environments where $|\mathcal{S}|$ and $|\mathcal{A}|$ are infinite. Additionally, it is easy to redo the analysis when the parameter matrix is structured, i.e., $W_{0}=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \theta_{i} A_{i}$, to see that the regret guarantee depends on $d$ instead of $d_{\psi} \times d_{\phi}$. Thus, we can recover the same regret guarantee of $\tilde{O}\left(d \sqrt{H^{3} T}\right)$ that Chowdhury et al. provide.
On the more technical side, in Theorem 3 , we require $\phi$ to be a bounded feature mapping, which linear dynamical systems do not satisfy in general (recall $\phi=[s, a]^{\top}$, and $s, a$ can have unbounded norm). We need this to provide a bound on a certain "information gain" quantity $\gamma_{k}=\log \operatorname{det}\left(\lambda^{-1} \hat{V}_{k}+I\right)$ [cf., 28, 13]; however, the bounded $\phi$ assumption can be

[^2]substantially weakened because our proof only requires $\sum_{h=1}^{H}\left\|\phi_{h}\right\|^{2}$ to be bounded in every episode with high probability. In particular, if one restricts to controllable policies which do not blow up norm of the state [see e.g., 8], then the information gain term can be bounded.

Score Matching vs MLE. Score matching and MLE can be viewed as complementary techniques for density estimation; we highlight the relative pros and cons of SMRL vs Exp-UCRL.
In general, Exp-UCRL can be applied to more settings than score matching, due to the fact that score matching requires regularity conditions (A)-(D)that are needed for the derivation of (4). In particular, we require $\mathcal{S}$ to be a Euclidean space and the feature vector $\psi: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d_{\psi}}$ to be a twice-differentiable mapping. In this sense, the scope of SMRL is more limited than that of Exp-UCRL. For example, while tabular and factored MDPs can be modeled as exponential family transitions via the softmax parameterization, ${ }^{5}$ we cannot prove regret guarantees for SMRL due to the differentiability requirement. Since the MLE estimator of Chowdhury et al. can be computed in $\operatorname{poly}(S, A)$ time, in the tabular and factored MDP settings we would prefer to run Exp-UCRL.
Among models given by Assumption 1 where both score matching and MLE can be applied, score matching is preferred because the estimator can be computed in closed form as the solution to a ridge regression problem, and elliptic confidence sets can be constructed around it using Theorem 2 For the MLE, this is not possible in general. Chowdhury et al. implicitly define the estimator as the solution to the likelihood equations, and their contidence set is constructed in a complicated fashion, in terms of sums of KL divergences taken over the dataset. Thus, while we are unable to claim overall computational tractability of Algorithm 1 due to the computational difficulty of optimistic planning, score matching enables us to estimate model parameters efficiently, an improvement from Exp-UCRL.

We now compare the regret guarantee of Theorem 3 with previous results. We achieve the same order-wise guarantee as Chowdhury et al. (Thm. 2) of $\tilde{O}\left(d_{\phi} d_{\psi} \cdot \sqrt{H^{3} T}\right)$. In terms of problem constants, both bounds depend on $\sqrt{ } \kappa$, but we (1) require the constants $B_{\psi}$ and $B_{c}$, (2) replace dependence on strict convexity of the $\log$ partition function with the parameter $\alpha_{1}$.

In the nonLDS setting, score matching and MLE are equivalent, so we can directly compare the results of Chowdhury et al. and Kakade et al. with ours. For illustrative purposes, consider when the noise covariance is $\Sigma=\sigma^{2} I$ and the regularization parameter $\lambda:=\sigma^{2} / B_{\star}^{2}$ (as is done in Kakade et al.). Theorem 3 gives us a regret guarantee of $\tilde{O}\left(\sqrt{d_{\phi} d_{\psi} \cdot\left(\sigma^{4} d_{\phi} d_{\psi}+H\right) H^{2} T}\right)$, while a bound of $\tilde{O}\left(\sqrt{d_{\phi} d_{\psi}\left(\sigma^{2}+d_{\phi} d_{\psi}\right)\left(1+\sigma^{-4} B_{\star}^{2} B_{\phi}^{2} H\right) H^{2} T}\right)$ can be derived for Chowdhury et al.'s result. Note that the latter bound depends polynomially on the scale of $W_{0}$ and $\phi$. In contrast, Kakade et al. (Remark 3.5) give an improved bound of $\tilde{O}\left(\sqrt{d_{\phi}\left(d_{\phi}+d_{\psi}+H\right) H^{2} T}\right)$, without polynomial dependence on $\sigma^{2}$ and the scale of $W_{0}$ and $\phi$. We conjecture that the $\sigma^{2}$ dependence is an artifact of our analysis, but it is less clear whether the dependence on $d_{\phi}, d_{\psi}$ can be improved.

## Acknowledgements

We thank Pritish Kamath, Danica J. Sutherland, Akshay Krishnamurthy, and Wen Sun for helpful discussions. Part of this work was done while GL, ZW, and ZY were participating in the Simons Program on the Theoretical Foundations of Reinforcement Learning in Fall 2020. Part of this work was done while JL was interning with ZW from August 2020 to February 2021.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Optimistic planning is hard in the worst case, and developing fast approximation algorithms is an active area of research. This work assumes computational oracle access to such a planner.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Strictly speaking, our results do not handle unbounded costs, so they do not apply to the LQR problem
    ${ }^{3}$ Kakade et al. [13] study a infinite dimensional version of this model, which they call the kernelized nonlinear regulator.

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ While we conjecture that a Bayesian regret guarantee should be possible, getting a frequentist guarantee (as we do) for a posterior sampling method in our setting could be difficult. See e.g., results for tabular MDPs [3].

[^3]:    ${ }^{5}$ There is a mild technical issue, since Assumption 1 cannot capture transitions with probability 0 , so we must assume that the support of the transitions is known in advance. See [7] for more details.

