

# ANQ: Approximate Nearest-Neighbor Q Learning

Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

## Abstract

1 In specific domains such as autonomous driving, quantitative trading, and health-  
 2 care, explainability is crucial for developing ethical, responsible, and trustworthy  
 3 reinforcement learning (RL) models. Although many deep RL algorithms have  
 4 attained remarkable performance, the resulting policies are often neural networks  
 5 that lack explainability, rendering them unsuitable for real-world deployment. To  
 6 tackle this challenge, we introduce a novel semi-parametric reinforcement learning  
 7 framework, dubbed ANQ (Approximate Nearest Neighbor Q-Learning), which cap-  
 8 italizes on neural networks as encoders for high performance and memory-based  
 9 structures for explainability. Furthermore, we propose the Sim-Encoder contrastive  
 10 learning as a component of ANQ for state representation. Our evaluations on Mu-  
 11 JoCo continuous control tasks validate the efficacy of ANQ in solving continuous  
 12 tasks while offering an explainable decision-making process.

## 13 1 Introduction

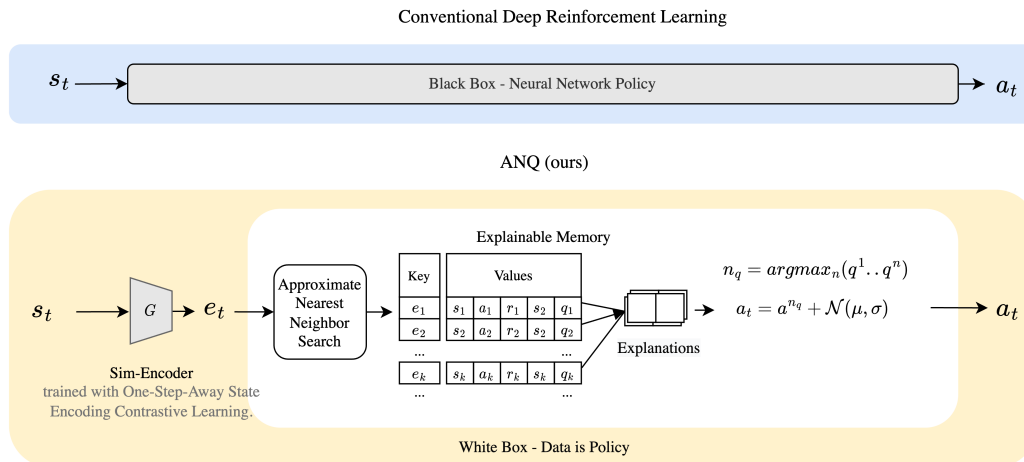


Figure 1: Overall Architecture of Our Approach

14 In recent years, parametric reinforcement learning methods featuring end-to-end training, such as  
 15 Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) [Schulman et al., 2017], Soft Actor-Critic (SAC) [Haarnoja  
 16 et al., 2018], and Deep Deterministic Policy Gradient (DDPG) [Lillicrap et al., 2015], have gar-  
 17 nered significant attention within the reinforcement learning community. These approaches have  
 18 demonstrated remarkable success in addressing decision-making challenges across diverse domains,

19 including robotics [Hwangbo et al., 2019], video games [Mnih et al., 2015], and board games [Schrit-  
20 twieser et al., 2020]. Nevertheless, the incorporation of deep neural networks in these methods  
21 presents a major obstacle to interpreting the underlying rationale of their decision-making processes.  
22 This limitation hampers the application of such methods to numerous real-world scenarios, such  
23 as autonomous driving [Kiran et al., 2021], quantitative trading [Zhang et al., 2020], and beyond.  
24 Consequently, further investigation is necessary to enhance the interpretability and practical utility of  
25 these reinforcement learning techniques in complex, real-world contexts.

26 This issue calls for the research of explainable reinforcement learning (XRL) which aims at obtaining  
27 RL models that are both explainable and of high performance. Fidelity is one of the major objectives  
28 in XRL [Milani et al., 2022] which measures to what extent the model makes decisions following its  
29 explanation. Among different XRL algorithms, *white-box* algorithms (i.e., making decisions directly  
30 using explainable models such as linear models or decision trees) enjoys high fidelity than the others.  
31 (We defer the introduction of other XRL algorithms to Section 5.3.)

32 Memory-based reinforcement learning, following the non-parametric paradigm, is a popular class of  
33 white-box algorithm and differs from widely researched parametric methods in deep reinforcement  
34 learning. The approximation function in memory-based reinforcement learning is determined directly  
35 by the training samples, rather than relying on a gradually-updated parameterized function. Prominent  
36 memory-based methods include EC [Blundell et al., 2016], NEC [Pritzel et al., 2017], and EMDQN  
37 [Lin et al., 2018] (see more in Ramani [2019]). Memory-based reinforcement learning has several  
38 benefits, including being able to approximate a universal class of functions, the ability to directly  
39 impact the policy with newly accumulated data without back-propagation updates Blundell et al.  
40 [2016], the mitigation of the curse of dimensionality in global estimation Sutton and Barto [1998],  
41 and higher data sampling efficiency and faster learning Lin et al. [2018]. Most importantly, memory-  
42 based reinforcement learning possesses the advantage of improved explainability due to its human-  
43 understandable decision making system (i.e., the memory consists of pre-collected samples).

44 Despite its potential for self-explainability through white-box decision-making, the utilization of  
45 memory-based reinforcement learning for enhancing explainability remains relatively unexplored.  
46 Existing studies investigating the use of episodic memory for explanations, such as Cruz et al. [2019],  
47 Pritzel et al. [2017], Blundell et al. [2016], have been limited to grid world environments or discrete  
48 tasks. In contrast, our work aims to expand this research scope to encompass continuous robotics  
49 tasks in Mujoco by proposing a comprehensive memory-based self-explainable framework.

50 Efficiently retrieving relevant data from extensive databases presents a significant challenge in de-  
51 veloping an effective memory-based reinforcement learning algorithm, particularly in continuous  
52 control tasks as emphasized by Sutton and Barto [1998]. However, recent advancements in approxi-  
53 mate nearest-neighbor searching algorithms, such as Hierarchical Navigable Small World (HNSW)  
54 Malkov and Yashunin [2018], have demonstrated their effectiveness in swiftly retrieving pertinent  
55 information from billions of records in natural language processing (NLP) tasks. Such methods have  
56 been successfully applied to question-answering Kassner and Schütze [2020] and text generation  
57 Borgeaud et al. [2022] tasks. In addition to NLP applications, retrieval-based systems have been  
58 integrated with deep reinforcement learning algorithms, resulting in enhanced sample efficiency  
59 Goyal et al. [2022], Humphreys et al. [2022].

60 The contributions of our paper are summarized as follows:

- 61 • We introduce a novel framework, ANQ, which offers efficient control in continuous domains  
62 across a wide range of Mujoco experiments, while maintaining high explainability through  
63 its "data is policy" design principle.
- 64 • We present the Sim-Encoder, a nearest neighbor contrastive learning approach for state  
65 representation, which demonstrates its effectiveness in memory retrieval learning tasks.

## 66 2 Preliminaries

67 We first introduce notations and summarize the conventional episodic control method.

## 68 2.1 Notation

69 In this work, we study policy learning in continuous action space  $\mathcal{A}$  and observation space  $\mathcal{S}$ . We  
70 consider a Markov decision process with transition  $s_{t+1} \sim p(s_{t+1}|s_t, a_t)$ . After performing an  
71 action, the agent receives a reward, and the ultimate goal is to optimize the policy to maximize  
72 returns.

73 A key-value-based dataset  $\mathbb{D}$  stores the key as the state embedding  $e$ . The database consists of rows  
74 of  $\{k, e_t, s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}, q_t\} \in \mathbb{D}$  and columns of  $\{\mathbb{K}, \mathbb{E}, \mathbb{S}_t, \mathbb{A}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{S}_{t+1}, \mathbb{Q}\} \in \mathbb{D}$ .  $\mathbb{K}$  represents the  
75 set of all record IDs. The maximum number of rows is  $M$ . The observation Sim-Encoder network is  
76 denoted as  $\mathbf{G}_\theta$  parameterized by the network parameters  $\theta$ .

77 For database operating, in total, six operations are defined in the memory module: APPEND, TRIM,  
78 GET, UPDATE, SEARCH, and INDEX. More corresponding explanations for these operations can  
79 be found in Sec.3.2.

## 80 2.2 Episodic Control

81 Episodic control methods enhance sampling efficiency and episodic returns by using an external  
82 memory database for interactions such as writing, reading, and updating. The concept was first  
83 introduced in Blundell et al. [2016], which resolved complex sequential decision tasks.

84 This method is defined for discrete spaces. It proposes the following Q table update mechanism:

$$Q^{EC}(s, a) = \max(Q^{EC}(s, a), R) \quad (1)$$

85 After the update, it generates an effective Q Table. During the policy execution phase, if an  
86 observation-action pair exists in memory, the Q value is retrieved directly from the table. However, if  
87 the pair is not found in memory, an approximation matching and estimation process is required. The  
88 agent queries the Q Table using the following approach to obtain the Q value.

$$\hat{Q}^{EC}(s, a) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{n=N} Q(s^n, a) \quad (2)$$

89 The objective of episodic control is to accelerate learning speed and improve decision quality. An  
90 external memory module can then compensate for drawbacks such as low sample efficiency and slow  
91 gradient updates.

92 In previous discussions, the Episodic Control (EC) method has been investigated under both discrete  
93 actions and continuous actions (Li et al. [2023], Kuznetsov and Filchenkov [2021]). However, the  
94 explainability of EC in continuous action spaces suffers from low fidelity due to the utilization of a  
95 policy network. In this paper, we set out to achieve two objectives concurrently. First, we explore  
96 how Episodic Control can be effectively applied in continuous action spaces. Second, we strive to  
97 leverage the memory of Episodic Control to attain explainability benefits.

## 98 3 Method

99 The complete algorithm is presented in Algorithm 1, and the illustration of the inference pipeline  
100 can be observed (cf. Fig.1). The proposed method involves generating an embedding vector  $e_t$  from  
101 the observation using the Sim-Encoder. Subsequently, we employ the HNSW algorithm Malkov  
102 and Yashunin [2018] to search for the nearest neighbor set  $e^n$  within the memory. Each neighbor is  
103 associated with an action and a Q value, and the action with the highest Q value is selected as the  
104 policy output. It is worth noting that this action is continuous, which distinguishes it from previous  
105 EC work Blundell et al. [2016].

106 First, the Sim-Encoder in embedding observations into a cosine space is augmented via One-Step-  
107 Away State Encoding Contrastive Learning. This approach employs adjacent states as positive  
108 samples for contrastive learning, with experimental outcomes demonstrating that the implementation  
109 of the Sim-Encoder considerably enhances performance.

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**Algorithm 1** ANQ Algorithm

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**Input:**  
Database  $\mathbb{D}$   
with each row notated as  $\{k, e_t, s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}, q_t\} \in \mathbb{D}$   
with each column notated as  $\{\mathbb{K}, \mathbb{E}, \mathbb{S}_t, \mathbb{A}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{S}_{t+1}, \mathbb{Q}\} \in \mathbb{D}$   
Observation Sim-Encoder network  $G_\theta$   
Contrastive learning function  $CL$   
Gaussian distribution for action noise  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$   
**for** each iteration **do**  
  **for** each environment step **do**  
     $e_t = G_\theta(s_t)$   
     $k_{1..k_n} = \text{SEARCH}(e_t)$   
     $(a^1, q^1) .. (a^n, q^n) = \text{GET}(k_{1..k_n})$   
     $n_q = \text{argmax}_n(q^1 .. q^n)$   
     $a_t = a^{n_q} + \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$   
     $s_{t+1} \sim p(s_{t+1}|s_t, a_t)$   
    APPEND ( $e_t, s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}$ )  
  **end for**  
  **for** sampled minibatch  $\{s_t, s_{t+1}\}$  **do**  
     $\mathcal{L}_\theta = CL(s_t, s_{t+1})$   
    update networks  $G_\theta$  to minimize  $\mathcal{L}$   
  **end for**  
   $\mathbb{K}^1 .. \mathbb{K}^n = \text{SEARCH}(\mathbb{E})$   
  **for** each learning step **do**  
     $\mathbb{Q}^1 .. \mathbb{Q}^n = \text{GET}(\mathbb{K}^1 .. \mathbb{K}^n)$   
     $\hat{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{R}_t + \gamma \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{Q}^n$   
    UPDATE( $\mathbb{Q}, \hat{\mathbb{Q}}$ )  
  **end for**  
  TRIM()  
  INDEX()  
**end for**

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110 Subsequently, in order to acquire a comprehensive Q-table, we employ in-memory learning, which  
111 involves the batch computation of all Q-value estimations and Q-learning updates for each state  
112 stored in memory. The training process undergoes iterative cycles until the global Q-value converges.

### 113 3.1 Embedding Module

114 We introduce our novel approach, the "One-Step-Away State Encoding Contrastive Learning." The  
115 reason for using a one-step-away state as a positive sample is that the most informative actions and  
116 q-values for the current state are derived from a scenario that is most similar to it (Blundell et al.  
117 [2016]).

$$e_t = G_\theta(s_t) \tag{3}$$

118 This method aims to effectively represent the state with contrastive learning. Specifically, we utilize  
119 positive samples that consist of a state pair  $s_t, s_{t+1}$  that are one step away. The resulting state  
120 representation is designed such that the nearest neighbor of each state is reachable within one step.  
121 We adopt a similar objective to SimCLR Chen et al. [2020], aiming to maximize the similarity  
122 between two vectors as measured by cosine similarity  $\text{sim}(u, v) = u^T v / (|u||v|)$ . The Sim-Encoder is  
123 a standalone component trained to maximize the similarity of embedding, without reward information  
124 but only state transition tuples.

$$\theta = \text{argmax}_\theta \mathbb{E}_{(s_t, s_{t+1}) \sim \mathbb{D}} [\text{sim}(G_\theta(s_t), G_\theta(s_{t+1}))] \tag{4}$$

Table 1: Memory Operations

Operation	Description
APPEND	Add a new row to the database
INDEX	Construct an HNSW index using Sim-Encoder embeddings for efficient approximate nearest neighbor search
SEARCH	Given an embedding vector $e$ , return the corresponding row IDs $k_1..k_n$ , seeing Malkov and Yashunin [2018]
GET	Given a row ID $k$ , retrieve relevant data values, such as actions, Q values, etc.
TRIM	Remove historical data to maintain a database size of up to $M$ rows
UPDATE	Given a column of data, update the corresponding column in database

### 125 3.2 Memory Module

126 The explainable memory module is in the form of a key-value database. And the keys in the database  
 127 correspond to the observation embedding vectors obtained via the Sim-Encoder, and each key is  
 128 associated with a corresponding value that includes information such as the current step’s observation,  
 129 action, reward, and all of other relevant data. To manage this database, we have defined 6 standard  
 130 operations, namely APPEND, TRIM, GET, UPDATE, INDEX, and SEARCH, which are detailed in  
 131 Algorithm 1. and Table.1.

132 The GET operation requires a target state’s embedding as the key and returns the corresponding  
 133 values. To prevent the database from becoming excessively large, we define a TRIM operation that  
 134 automatically removes older data, retaining only the most recent  $M$  records. This design enables  
 135 efficient storage and retrieval of data while ensuring that the database remains manageable and  
 136 up-to-date.

137 In our approach for effective memory retrieval, Approximate K-Nearest Neighbors Search (AKNN)  
 138 plays a crucial role. We introduce a SEARCH operation that takes a state embedding as input and  
 139 returns the corresponding key(s) of the nearest neighbor(s) in the database. Additionally, we define  
 140 an INDEX operation, activated when the database undergoes modifications, seeing Malkov and  
 141 Yashunin [2018]. This operation reorganizes the HNSW index to align with the updated database,  
 142 ensuring that subsequent KNN searches remain both fast and accurate.

### 143 3.3 Policy Evaluation

144 We introduce the Approximate Nearest Neighbor Search Q-Learning method. In contrast to conven-  
 145 tional tabular Q-Learning, we employ a novel form of state value estimation,  $\hat{V}(s_t)$ , by aggregating  
 146 the Q-values from the nearest neighbors of the state (cf. Fig.2). The Q-value of each state-action pair  
 147 is updated following the Bellman equation, incorporating a decay factor,  $\gamma$ .

148 During the practical training process, we adopt a batch updating strategy wherein we simultaneously  
 149 compute the labels for all neighbors of each state and estimate the values of all states in memory.  
 150 Subsequently, we update all Q-values in the table accordingly. The learning iteration persists until the  
 151 maximum change in Q-values falls below a specified threshold.

$$q^1..q^N = GET_q(SEARCH(G_\theta(s_t))) \quad (5)$$

$$\hat{v}(s_t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{n=N} q^n \quad (6)$$

$$\hat{q}(s_t, a_t) = r_t + \gamma \hat{v}(s_{t+1}) \quad (7)$$

### 152 3.4 Policy Improvement

153 For policy improvement, our proposed method directly selects the action with the maximum Q-value  
 154 from the neighbors ( $e^n \in \mathbb{E}, a^n \in \mathbb{A}, q^n \in \mathbb{Q}$ ), as shown in Equation 10. Using the embedding  $e_t$

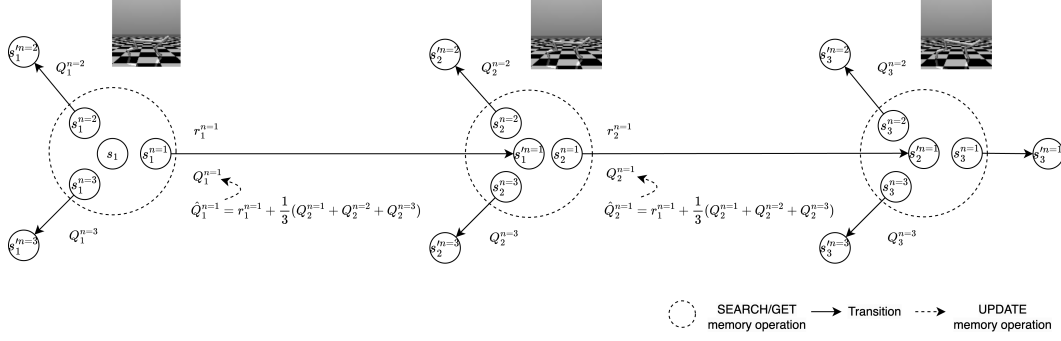


Figure 2: Policy evaluation in memory (N=3)

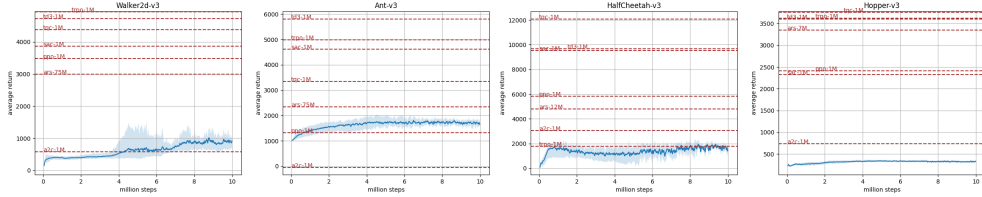


Figure 3: Performance on Continuous Control Tasks vs Conventional RL

155 generated by the contrastively learned Sim-Encoder, candidates are retrieved from the memory  
 156 module via the nearest neighbor search. To encourage exploration, action noise following a Gaussian  
 157 distribution  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$  is added.

$$a^1, q^1 .. a^n, q^n = GET_{aq}(SEARCH(e_t)) \quad (8)$$

$$n_q = argmax_n(q^1 .. q^n) \quad (9)$$

$$a_t = a^{n_q} + \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma) \quad (10)$$

158 In contrast to employing a black-box network as an actor, we have devised a data-driven, self-  
 159 explaining actor that seamlessly integrates the results of model search and generates decisions directly  
 160 using a rule-based approach.

## 161 4 Experiments

162 In these experiments, we aimed to evaluate the performance of our ANQ approach in solving  
 163 continuous control tasks in Mujoco, provide action explainability, and investigate the significance of  
 164 the Sim-Encoder module in the ANQ framework.

### 165 4.1 Solving Continuous Control Task in Mujoco

166 First of all, our approach is evaluated on several continuous control tasks in the MuJoCo physics  
 167 engine. Specifically, we compare our method with state-of-the-art reinforcement learning (RL)  
 168 algorithms, including SAC-1M, PPO-1M, and TRPO-1M, on the Walker2d-v3, Ant-v3, HalfCheetah-  
 169 v3, and Hopper-v3 environments. We use the benchmark performance reported by stable-baselines3  
 170 Raffin et al. [2021].

171 The results (cf. Fig.3) show that our method slightly outperforms A2C-1M on the Walker2d-v3  
 172 task and PPO-1M on the Ant-v3 task while achieving comparable performance to TRPO-1M on the

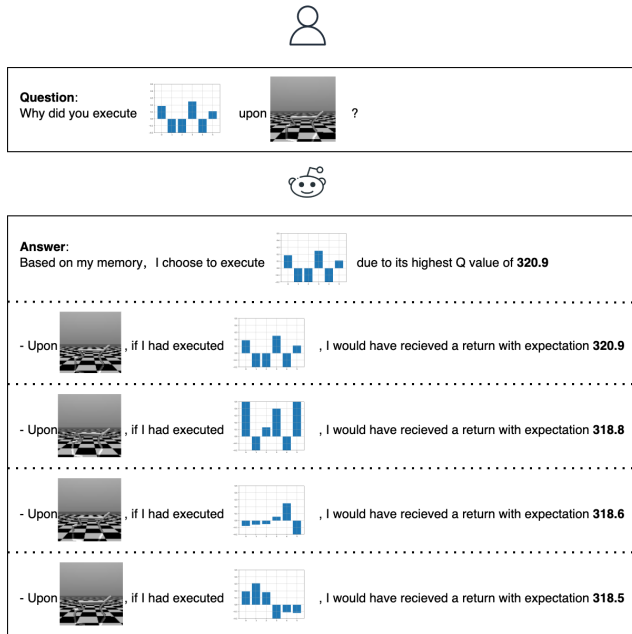


Figure 4: Explainable Action

173 HalfCheetah-v3 task. Furthermore, we analyze the performance of our method on the Hopper-v3  
 174 task by examining the game replay. We find that the agent fails to take the second step and falls after  
 175 the first step. This indicates that our method may currently lack exploration capability. This will be  
 176 addressed in future research in order to surpass the performance of traditional RL methods. Overall,  
 177 our approach successfully and stably converges on the MuJoCo continuous control tasks, but further  
 178 improvement is necessary to achieve better performance, seeing the discussion in Sec.6.

179 For the hyperparameters, we utilized a 4-layer MLP network with layer normalization as the encoder.  
 180 The learning rate was set to 0.0003, the batch size was 512, and the Adam optimizer was used. The  
 181 size of the explainable memory was limited to 500,000, and old data were discarded once this limit  
 182 was exceeded. We set the parameters of HNSW to  $M=16$  and  $ef=10$ . The total number of training  
 183 steps was 10 million, and the agent performed ANQ learning every 40,000 environment interactions.  
 184 We set the number of neighboring actions sampled during each action selection to 10.

## 185 4.2 Action explainability

186 In this explainability experiment, we designed a question-and-answer (QA) case (cf. Fig.4) to  
 187 simulate a scenario where humans need to double-check the correctness of the robot’s decision during  
 188 human-robot collaboration. Specifically, humans ask "why" questions to query the basis of the robot’s  
 189 action, and the robot responds with the policy that it has chosen, as well as the evidence supporting  
 190 its decision.

191 To provide a convincing explanation, the robot searches its memory for similar states and explains to  
 192 the human the actions that it had taken in the past in similar scenarios, as well as the corresponding  
 193 returns. By providing such detailed explanations, the robot is able to offer valuable insights to humans  
 194 and effectively bridge the gap in understanding between human and machine decision-making  
 195 processes, for ensuring safe and reliable human-robot collaboration.

## 196 4.3 Sim-Encoder

197 We conducted experiments to investigate the significance of the Sim-Encoder module within the  
 198 ANQ framework. We have illustrated the retrieved samples (cf. Fig.5). Without the Sim-Encoder,  
 199 semantically similar states do not share relevant information in cosine space, as discussed in Su et al.  
 200 [2021]. Our ablation study (cf. Fig.6) demonstrated that the Sim-Encoder led to substantial perfor-  
 201 mance improvements across all four tested tasks, as it effectively retrieves and embeds temporally

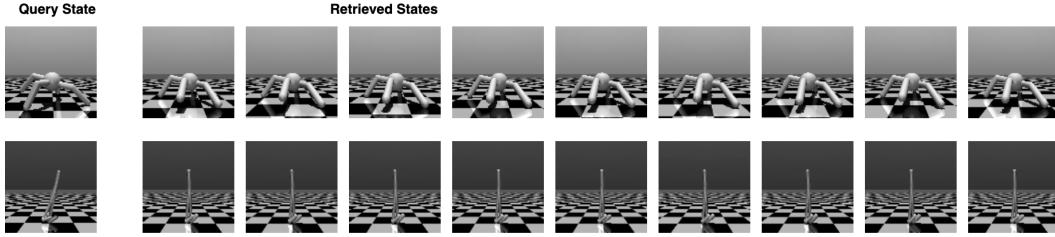


Figure 5: Retrieved Results using Sim-Encoder and Approximate Nearest Neighbor Search

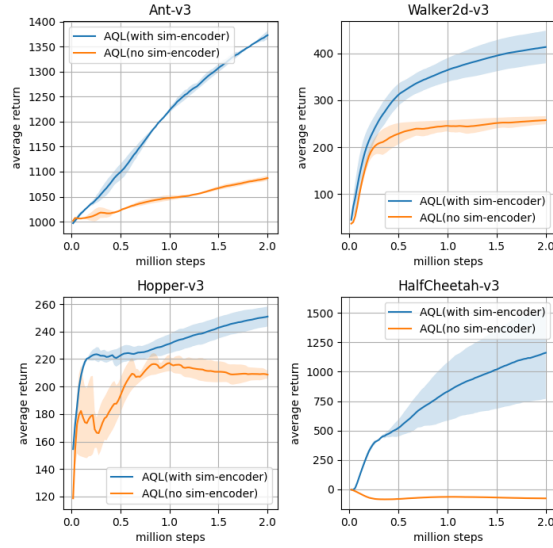


Figure 6: Ablation Study of Embedding Module Sim-encoder

202 proximate states into a space with adjacent cosine distances. Overall, the Sim-Encoder is an essential  
 203 component of the ANQ framework and holds potential for use in other RL algorithms.

## 204 5 Related Work

### 205 5.1 Episodic Control

206 The idea of episodic control (EC) was bio-inspired by the mechanism of the hippocampus Lengyel  
 207 and Dayan [2007]. EC, as a non-parametric approach, possesses virtues including rapid assimilation  
 208 of past experiences and a solution for sparse-reward situations. Notable works like MFEC Blundell  
 209 et al. [2016] and NEC Pritzel et al. [2017] employed kNN search to acquire the value for the current  
 210 state derived from similar states. The value function is in tabular form and updated using the classical  
 211 Q-learning method. While MFEC adopts random projection Johnson [1984] and VAE Kingma and  
 212 Welling [2013] as state embedding methods, NEC employs a differentiable CNN encoder instead.

213 Beyond that, Lin et al. proposed EMDQN Lin et al. [2018], which is a synergy of EC and DQN.  
 214 Their approach combined the merits of both algorithms, i.e., fast learning at an early stage and good  
 215 final performance. ERLAM then further promoted the efficacy by introducing an associative memory  
 216 graph Zhu et al. [2020].



## 217 5.2 Retrieval-based Learning

218 The retrieval-based learning and inference architecture provides a viable solution for managing an  
219 explainable and extensible knowledge base. One prominent instantiation of this architecture is the  
220 retriever-reader model Zhu et al. [2021], which has gained traction in the open domain question  
221 answering (openQA) research community. The retriever component returns a set of relevant articles,  
222 while the reader extracts the answer from the retrieved documents. Numerous natural language  
223 processing (NLP) algorithms, including kNN-LM Khandelwal et al. [2019], RAG Lewis et al. [2020]  
224 and RETRO Borgeaud et al. [2022], leverage a retrieval-based approach to enhance their performance  
225 and efficiency. These techniques have proven to be effective in the domain of NLP and continue to be  
226 an active area of future NLP research Liu et al. [2023].

## 227 5.3 Explainable Reinforcement Learning

228 The methods for explainability in reinforcement learning can be broadly categorized into three  
229 groups, as discussed in Milani et al. [2022]: Feature Importance (FI), Learning Processing and  
230 Markov Decision Process (LPM), and Policy-Level (PL). FI methods involve utilizing decision tree  
231 models for explainability, learning an explainable surrogate network through expert and learner  
232 frameworks, or directly generating explanations through natural language or saliency maps. LPM  
233 addresses explainable transition models to answer "what-if" questions, interpretation of Q values,  
234 and identification of key training points. PL provides an understanding of long-term behavior and  
235 summarizes the policy. However, many existing explainable reinforcement learning methods require  
236 additional network training Guo et al. [2021] or the use of decision trees Silva et al. [2019]. These  
237 methods can also impose a cognitive burden on users to understand the model's behavior Dodge et al.  
238 [2021]. In contrast, the memory-based reinforcement learning algorithm, ANQ, presented in this  
239 paper provides self-explainability without additional explanation specifically training.

## 240 6 Limitation

241 In this study, we present an innovative and explainable architecture, termed ANQ, which, despite  
242 its novelty, does not significantly outperform state-of-the-art benchmarks. Our primary aim is  
243 to demonstrate the efficacy of ANQ with its highly interpretable policy. We acknowledge this  
244 performance gap and recognize that our method has not yet incorporated the latest techniques, such  
245 as maximum entropy learning from SAC Haarnoja et al. [2018], etc. These refinements will be  
246 addressed in future work, rather than here. Moreover, we have not compared our approach with  
247 other contrastive learning methods for representation learning. Since we proposed the Sim-Encoder,  
248 a thorough comparison with alternative methods and further study will also be included in future  
249 research.

## 250 7 Conclusion

251 Explainability is crucial in specific domains of reinforcement learning, such as autonomous driving,  
252 quantitative trading, and healthcare. To address this challenge, we propose ANQ, a novel semi-  
253 parametric reinforcement learning framework that combines the high performance of neural networks  
254 with the explainability of a memory-based structure. Additionally, we validate the effectiveness of  
255 Sim-Encoder, a key module of ANQ, in state representation and learning efficiency enhancement.  
256 Empirical evaluations demonstrate ANQ's effectiveness in solving continuous tasks and providing  
257 explainable decision-making. Our contributions include proposing a framework that achieves both  
258 efficient control and robust explainability. While further improvements are necessary for superior  
259 performance, our results indicate that ANQ is a promising approach for developing explainable and  
260 trustworthy RL models in critical applications.

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