

approximated by $\dot{\mathbf{x}} \simeq \dot{\mathbf{x}}^{(1)} + \dot{\mathbf{x}}^{(2)}$ and $\dot{\mathbf{y}} \simeq \dot{\mathbf{y}}^{(1)} + \dot{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}$;

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}^{(1)} = +x^*(1 - x^*)(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{1}_z)\mathbf{p}^* \circ \boldsymbol{\epsilon}, \quad (12)$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{y}}^{(1)} = -y^*(1 - y^*)(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{1}_z)\mathbf{p}^* \circ \boldsymbol{\delta}, \quad (13)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{x}}^{(2)} = & -(x^* - \tilde{x}^*)(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{1}_z)\boldsymbol{\delta} \circ \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \circ \mathbf{p}^* \\ & + x^*\tilde{x}^*(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{1}_z)\{(\boldsymbol{\delta} \cdot \mathbf{p}^*)\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \circ \mathbf{y}^* \circ \mathbf{1}_x \\ & + (\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \cdot \mathbf{p}^*)\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \circ \mathbf{x}^* \circ \mathbf{1}_y + (\boldsymbol{\delta} \circ \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \circ \mathbf{y}^* \cdot \mathbf{1}_x)\mathbf{p}^*\}, \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)} = & +(y^* - \tilde{y}^*)(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{1}_z)\boldsymbol{\delta} \circ \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \circ \mathbf{p}^* \\ & - y^*\tilde{y}^*(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{1}_z)\{(\boldsymbol{\delta} \cdot \mathbf{p}^*)\boldsymbol{\delta} \circ \mathbf{y}^* \circ \mathbf{1}_x \\ & + (\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \cdot \mathbf{p}^*)\boldsymbol{\delta} \circ \mathbf{x}^* \circ \mathbf{1}_y + (\boldsymbol{\delta} \circ \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \circ \mathbf{x}^* \cdot \mathbf{1}_y)\mathbf{p}^*\}, \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

with $\mathbf{x}^* := (x^*, x^*, \tilde{x}^*, \tilde{x}^*)$, $\mathbf{y}^* := (y^*, \tilde{y}^*, y^*, \tilde{y}^*)$, $\mathbf{p}^* := \mathbf{x}^* \circ \mathbf{y}^*$, $\mathbf{1}_x := (+1, +1, -1, -1)$, $\mathbf{1}_y := (+1, -1, +1, -1)$, and $\mathbf{1}_z := \mathbf{1}_x \circ \mathbf{1}_y$. Eqs. (12)-(15) are derived by considering small changes in the stationary condition $\mathbf{p}^{\text{st}} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{p}^{\text{st}}$ for deviations of $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ (see Appendix B.1 and B.2 for the detailed calculation). By this, we can avoid a direct calculation of \mathbf{p}^{st} , which is hard to be obtained.

5 Experimental Findings

5.1 Simulation and Low-Order Approximation

From the obtained dynamics, i.e., Eqs. (12)-(15), we interpret the learning dynamics in detail. In the first-order dynamics, multi-memory learning is no more than a simple extension of the zero-memory one. Indeed, the zero-memory learning draws an elliptical orbit given by Hamiltonian as the conserved quantity [30, 14]. Eqs. (12) and (13) mean that the multi-memory dynamics also draw similar elliptical orbits for each pair of x_i and y_i . In other words, the dynamics are given by a linear flow on a four-dimensional torus. Because no interaction occurs between the pair of i and i' such that $i \neq i'$, the dynamics of the multi-memory learning for each state are qualitatively the same as learning without memories. Fig. 2 shows the time series of the multi-memory learning dynamics near the Nash equilibrium in an example of a two-action zero-sum game, the penny-matching game ($u_1 = u_4 = 1$, $u_2 = u_3 = -1$). The experimental trajectories are generated by the Runge-Kutta fourth-order method of Eq. (10) (see Appendix B.3 for details), while the approximated trajectories are by the Runge-Kutta fourth-order method for the first- (Eqs. (12) and (13)), the second- (Eqs. (14) and (15)), and the third-order approximations (in Appendix B.2). The step-size is 10^{-2} in common. The top-left panel in the figure shows that the dynamics roughly draw a circular orbit for each state and are well approximated by the first-order dynamics of Eqs. (12) and (13). However, the top-right panel, where a sufficiently long time has passed, shows that the dynamics deviate from the circular orbits.

Such deviation from the circular orbits is given by higher-order dynamics than Eqs. (12) and (13). In the second-order dynamics given by Eqs. (14) and (15), the multi-memory learning is qualitatively different from the zero-memory one. Indeed, Eqs. (14) and (15) obviously mean that interactions occur between the pair of i and i' such that $i \neq i'$. Thereby, the dynamics of multi-memory learning become much more complex than that of zero-memory learning. In practice, no Hamiltonian function, denoted by $H^{(2)}$, exists in the second-order dynamics, as different from the first-order one. One can check this by calculating $\partial \dot{x}_i^{(2)} / \partial \epsilon_{i'} + \partial \dot{y}_{i'}^{(2)} / \partial \delta_i \neq 0$ for i and $i' \neq i$, if assuming that Hamiltonian should satisfy $\dot{\mathbf{x}}^{(2)} = +\partial H^{(2)} / \partial \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ and $\dot{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)} = -\partial H^{(2)} / \partial \boldsymbol{\delta}$. Thus, the multi-memory dynamics might not have any conserved quantities and not draw any closed trajectory. Indeed, the right panels in Fig. 2 show that the dynamics tend to diverge from the Nash equilibrium. This divergence from the Nash equilibrium is surprising because zero-memory learning in zero-sum games always has a closed trajectory and keeps the Kullback-Leibler divergence from the Nash equilibrium constant [31, 14]. Here, note that we need the third-order dynamics to fit the experimental dynamics well, as seen by comparing the middle-right and lower-right panels in Fig. 2. The error between