Nash Equilibrium and Learning Dynamics in Three-Player Matching *m*-Action Games

Extended Abstract*

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ABSTRACT

Learning in games discusses the processes where multiple players learn their optimal strategies through the repetition of game plays. The dynamics of learning between two players in zero-sum games, such as Matching Pennies, where their benefits are competitive, have already been well analyzed. However, it is still unexplored and challenging to analyze the dynamics of learning among three players. In this study, we formulate a minimalistic game where three players compete to match their actions with one another. Although interaction among three players diversifies and complicates the Nash equilibria, we fully analyze the equilibria. We also discuss the dynamics of learning based on some famous algorithms categorized into Follow the Regularized Leader. From both theoretical and experimental aspects, we characterize the dynamics by categorizing three-player interactions into three forces to synchronize their actions, switch their actions rotationally, and seek competition.

KEYWORDS

Non-Cooperative Games, Multi-Agent Learning, Evolutionary Game

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1 INTRODUCTION

Dynamical systems approach is often taken for analyzing learning in games [1, 2, 27, 28]. This is because gradient-based algorithms fail to converge to the Nash equilibrium in zero-sum games, where the utility functions of two agents conflict. Indeed, a representative class of learning algorithms, Follow the Regularized Leader (FTRL) [17, 18, 22], which is tied to replicator dynamics [3, 7, 12, 12, 21, 26] and gradient ascent [6, 11, 24, 29], cannot stop a cycling behavior even in a simple game like Matching Pennies [2, 3]. This cycling behavior is understood based on the Bregman divergence [1, 17, 20], which corresponds to the distance from the equilibrium. Dynamical systems are also pivotal to discuss convergent algorithms to the

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Despite such a thorough understanding of two-player games, three-player games are difficult to understand in general. Classically, this difficulty is seen in Jordan's game [13], which is a three-player version of Matching Pennies. In this game, the divergence from the equilibrium is observed [9, 15, 16, 23]; the distance from the equilibrium is no longer conserved. This divergence is not seen in Matching Pennies. Thus, the motivation to study complex dynamics in learning in three-player games is established [14, 19]. In addition, the Nash equilibria of three-player games are hard to fully analyze [5], even when the games are zero-sum.

Our contribution: This study proposes Three-Player Matching *m*-Action (*m*-3MA) game as an extension of Matching Pennies. Despite the Nash equilibrium becomes complex, we fully analyze it. We further introduce the continuous-time FTRL, characterize it by a Lyapunov function *V* and the Bregman divergence *G*, and interpret it based on three parameters, α , β , and γ .

2 PRELIMINARY

We now formulate *m*-3MA games (see Fig. 1). Let X, Y, and Z denote three players. Every round, they independently determine their actions from the same *m*-action set, $\mathcal{A} = \{a_1, \dots, a_m\}$. Players who choose the same action interact with each other. This interaction follows a three-way deadlock relationship among them: X wins Y, Y wins Z, but Z wins X. They receive their scores. When only two of them interact, the winner and loser are determined following the three-way deadlock relationship, and the winner's and loser's scores are *a* and *b*, respectively. Players who chose a different action from the others receive the default payoff of *c*. If all three players



Figure 1: Illustration of *m*-3MA games.

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Figure 2: Learning dynamics in *m*-3MA game for m = 2. The color indicates the value of *V*.

take the same action, they commonly receive the scores of ϵ . Here, we assume that the winner's and loser's scores are highest and lowest, respectively, i.e., b < c < a and $b < \epsilon < a$.

Let $\mathbf{x} := (x_1, \dots, x_m) \in \Delta^{m-1}$ (the m-1 dimensional simplex) denote X's strategy, where x_i is the probability that X chooses action a_i . Similarly, Y's and Z's strategies are denoted by $\mathbf{y} \in \Delta^{m-1}$ and $\mathbf{z} \in \Delta^{m-1}$, respectively. When players follow such strategies, X's expected payoff is given by

$$u(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{z}) = \epsilon \sum_i x_i y_i z_i + a \sum_i x_i y_i \bar{z}_i + b \sum_i x_i \bar{y}_i z_i + c \sum_i x_i \bar{y}_i \bar{z}_i,$$

where we defined $\bar{X} := 1 - X$ for arbitrary variable X. Y's and Z's expected payoffs are also described as $u(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})$ and $u(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, respectively. These *m*-3MA games are characterized by three parameters, $\alpha := \epsilon - c$, $\beta := a - b > 0$, and $\gamma := a + b - 2c$.

3 NASH EQUILIBRIUM

The Nash equilibrium of *m*-3MA is defined as the set of strategies (x^*, y^*, z^*) which maximize their expected payoffs, respectively.

It is difficult to derive equilibrium in three-player games [5], and indeed, there are few successful studies [10, 25]. Nevertheless, we can fully analyze all the Nash equilibria and interpret them as follows.

THEOREM 1 (MAIN PROPERTIES OF THE NASH EQUILIBRIA). First, the following property always holds.

• (Player symmetry) For any Nash equilibrium, all three players take the same strategy, i.e., $x^* = y^* = z^*$.

Furthermore, the region of the Nash equilibria has the following properties.

- (Neutral equilibria) When α = γ = 0, all the strategies in the simplex Δ^{m-1} can be the Nash equilibria.
- (Pure-strategy equilibria) $N_{P}(m) = \{e_1, \dots, e_m\}$ are the Nash equilibrium strategies, if and only if $\alpha \ge 0$.
- (Uniform-choice equilibrium) $N_U(m) = \{1/m\}$ is always the Nash equilibrium strategy.

4 LEARNING DYNAMICS

We introduce the continuous-time FTRL;

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{q}(\mathbf{x}^{\dagger}), \quad \dot{\mathbf{x}}^{\dagger} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{x}}, \quad \mathbf{q}(\mathbf{x}^{\dagger}) = \arg \max_{\mathbf{x}} \left\{ \mathbf{x}^{\dagger} \cdot \mathbf{x} - h(\mathbf{x}) \right\}.$$

Here, h(x) is "regularizer", a penalty term in projecting the updated strategy back to its strategy space. Several representative examples

are the entropic regularizer $h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \log \mathbf{x}$ and the Euclidean regularizer $h(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2/2$.

To investigate learning dynamics given by the continuous-time FTRL, we introduce G and V as

$$G(\mathbf{x}^{\dagger}, \mathbf{y}^{\dagger}, \mathbf{z}^{\dagger}) \coloneqq \sum_{\text{cyc}} \max_{\mathbf{x}} \{ \mathbf{x}^{\dagger} \cdot \mathbf{x} - h(\mathbf{x}) \} - \mathbf{x}^{\dagger} \cdot \mathbf{1}/m,$$

$$V(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \coloneqq \sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i} z_{i} - 1/m^{2}.$$

Here, Σ_{cyc} indicates the cyclic sum for three players. In other words, $\Sigma_{\text{cyc}} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{y}) + \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{z})$ holds for arbitrary function \mathcal{F} . We now explain the meanings of *G* and *V*. First, *G* is known to be conserved under zero-sum games [17] and corresponds to the Bregman divergence from the uniform-choice equilibrium. Next, *V* means the probability that all three players choose the same action, in other words, the degree of synchronization of their action choices.

We now consider *m*-3MA with the case of m = 2. Since m = 2 holds, $x_2 = 1 - x_1$, $y_2 = 1 - y_1$, and $z_2 = 1 - z_1$ hold so that we can describe the learning dynamics by only the three variables of (x_1, y_1, z_1) . The continuous-time FTRL are independent of γ and interpreted as follows.

THEOREM 2 (GLOBAL BEHAVIOR OF DYNAMICS). In m-3MA with m = 2, the continuous-time FTRL with the entropic and Euclidean regularizers gives the following properties in general.

- When $\alpha = 0$, both G and V are conserved in the trajectory.
- When α > 0, the trajectory asymptotically converges to the states of maximum V, i.e., either of the fixed points.
- When α < 0, the trajectory asymptotically converges to the states of minimum V, i.e., the heteroclinic cycle.

For general *m*, we capture the intuitions of α , β , and γ as follows.

- *α* contributes to synchronization. When *α* > 0 (resp. *α* < 0), the players learn to synchronize (desynchronize) their actions.
- *β* contributes to rotation. The larger *β* is, the faster the cycling behavior of the learning is.
- γ matters only for m > 2 and contributes to the frequency of competition. When $\gamma > 0$, the players prune their action choices to two. When $\gamma < 0$, they decentralize their action choices.

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