



# Deal or No Deal: Modeling a Game Show with Utility Theory and Machine Learning

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# Table of Contents

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Background on Utility Theory
- 3 Data Description
- 4 Modeling the Banker
- 5 Modeling the Player
- 6 Future Directions



# The Setup

	\$0.01	\$1	\$5	
	\$10	\$25	\$50	
\$75	\$100	\$200	\$300	\$400
\$500	\$750	\$1,000	\$5,000	\$10,000
\$25,000	\$50,000	\$75,000	\$100,000	\$200,000
\$300,000	\$400,000	\$500,000	\$750,000	\$1,000,000



# Round 1





## Round 2





## Round 3





## Round 4





## Round 5







## Round 6





## Round 7





## Round 8





## Round 9: The Deal





## Problem Setup

We aimed to answer a few questions about the show.

- ① Given that there is no publicly available framework, how can we accurately model the banker's offer system?
- ② What do we notice about past players' gameplay?
- ③ How can we replicate empirical gameplay data and describe it in terms of utility theory?
- ④ What methods are best to generate an optimal player strategy?



## Expected Utility Theory

- A **utility theory** contains a binary **preference relation** on a set of  $X$  elements that represent choices or actions[2].
  - $x \succcurlyeq y \iff$  "x is not preferred to y"
  - $\text{not } x \succcurlyeq y \iff$  "it is false that x is not preferred to y"
- Utility functions characterize the behavior of  $\succcurlyeq$  via assigning values to outcomes that respect the preference relation.
- **Expected Utility Theory** is a method that identifies optimal decisions when presented with a risky choice. It is based off of expected value of the choice and individuals' utility functions.

	<b>Option A</b>	<b>Option B</b>
<b>Probability</b>	30% chance	70% chance
<b>Prize</b>	\$5	\$3
<b>Expected Utility</b>	\$1.50	\$2.10



## Example Player

Player	Education	Stop	Their Case	Winnings
Bezos	High	9	\$750	\$202,281.22

Round	Expected Value	Banker Offer
1	\$168,368.30	\$25,521.51
2	\$169,089.40	\$31,617.91
3	\$212,348.20	\$70,336.80
4	\$290,718.80	\$187,661.90
5	\$337,625.00	\$279,990.97
6	\$205,150.00	\$146,986.90
7	\$156,437.50	\$91,962.48
8	\$175,250.00	\$100,024.67
9	\$250,375.00	\$202,281.22



## Modeling the Banker's Offer: Linear Regression and Other Candidates

- Modeling the banker's offer is not a simple task.
- We partitioned our data to develop a model (75% training, 25% test).
- A log linear regression seemed fairly accurate at first. Could we do better?

$$\ln(\widehat{Bank\ Offer}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(\widehat{Expected\ Value}) + \beta_2 \widehat{Remaining\ Cases}$$

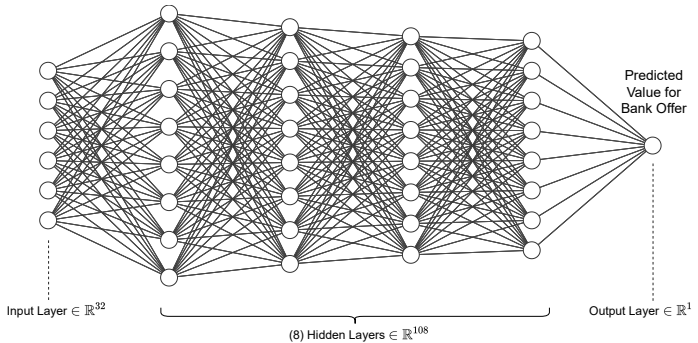
- How did other machine learning methods compare?

Model	Mean Absolute Error	Root Mean Square Error	$R^2$
Log Linear Regression	13977.0295	22824.6396	0.9171
Random Forest	15372.0245	23571.227	0.9116
kNN ( $k = 8$ )	16181.0126	22654.5502	0.9183
Deep Neural Network (Sequential, 8 hidden layers)	11368.5809	16849.2989	0.9548





# Modeling the Banker's Offer: Neural Network



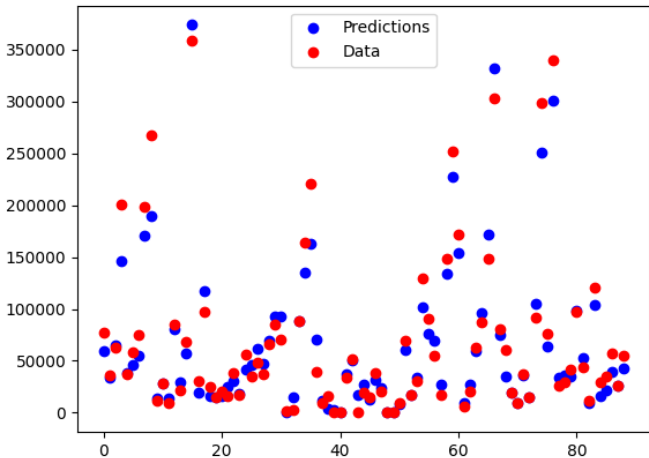


## Modeling the Banker's Offer: Neural Network (cont.)

- Inputs into the neural net:
  - Round number
  - Status of each case
  - Number of remaining cases
  - Bank offer of the previous round
  - Expected value
- Activation Functions:
  - Sigmoid for input layer
  - Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) function for hidden layers
- Measures of Fit:
  - Mean Absolute Error: approximately 11000-13000
  - Mean Squared Error: approximately 16000-19000
  - $R^2$ : approximately 0.94-0.957



# Bank Offer: Neural Network Visual





## Modeling the Player: Neural Network

- Initially, we tried to implement a neural network to model whether or not the player decided to take the deal in each round.

75/25	80/20	90/10
86.5%	88.7%	80%
89.9%	91.5%	82.9%
88.8%	94.4%	94.3%
84.3%	88.7%	97.1%



## Modeling the Player: Logistic Regression

- The model is trained on the dataset from Post et al.
- It outputs probability of the player taking the deal.
- A cutoff of 50% probability is used to generate the decision of the player.

	<b>Deal</b>	<b>No Deal</b>
<b>Deal</b>	26	11
<b>No Deal</b>	15	303

This model predicted the player's decision with 92.7% accuracy. It was used to generate decisions for the 1000 simulated players.



## Modeling the Player: Expo-Power Utility Function

- Our first attempt at a utility function was an expo-power function [1]:

$$u(w) = \frac{1 - e^{\frac{-\beta \cdot w^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha}}}{\beta}$$

- The alpha parameter controls the absolute risk aversion.
  - Used value from Blavatsky [1]: -0.3567
- The beta parameter controls the relative risk aversion.
  - Found a value experimentally:  $1.0 \cdot 10^{-7}$



## Modeling the Player: Inputs into Utility Function

- In each round contestant has a choice between two distinct outcomes: taking the deal or refusing the deal and advancing to the next round.
- Our first attempt at the utility for taking the deal was simply plugging in the value of the bank offer into the utility function.
- Our first attempt at the utility for selecting No Deal was to pass all potential states for the next round through our bank offer neural net and take the average.
  - Intuitively, this is the average predicted bank offer of the following round.



## Modeling the Player: Final Utility configuration

- After trying a multitude of inputs, we settled on the following:
  - Utility for a deal is the bank offer plus the scaled difference between the expected value of the round and the expected value that had been predicted for that round:

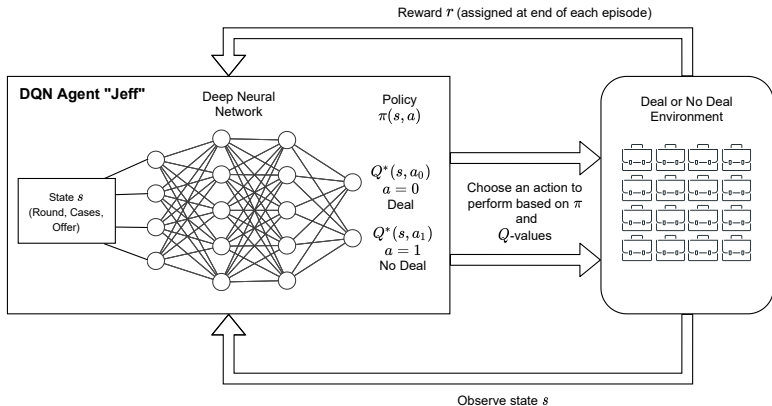
$$u(\text{offer}) + 0.1 \cdot (EV - PEV)$$

- This is inspired by the path-dependent model given by Kőszegi and Rabin [3].
  - Utility for a no deal is the the average expected utility over all possible states of the next round, plus a scaled average predicted banker offer.
- This resulted in an accuracy of up to 92.12% on the empirical data and 86.74% on the simulation data.





# Modeling the Player: Reinforcement Learning



- $\epsilon$ -Greedy Policy for action  $a$  at state  $s$  for  $\epsilon \in [0, 1]$

$$a_s = \begin{cases} \max(Q^*(s, a)) & \text{with prob. } 1 - \epsilon \\ \text{choose random } a & \text{with prob. } \epsilon \end{cases}$$



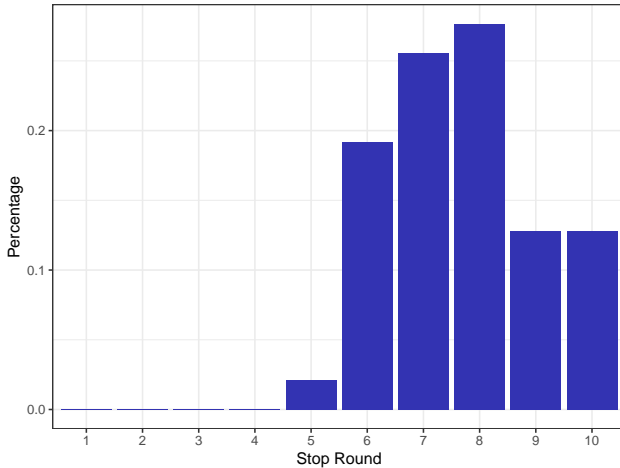
## Modeling the Player: RL Results and Implications

- Jeff tends to end the game early, often going with safer offers without maximizing winnings compared to human players.
- On the other hand, the DQN agent [4] occasionally prioritizes playing through all 9 rounds because of times it remembers constantly saying “no deal” and walking away with a big case (eg. \$1,000,000). This creates a sporadic distribution of ending rounds.
- Discount factor  $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ , which accounts for how events in the distant future are weighted less than events in the immediate future ( $\gamma = 0.95$ ).
  - Take the deal given offers higher than the expected value of all 26 briefcases, \$131,477.54.
- Performance compared to simulation data:
  - Jeff went home with more money than the simulated contestants 42.3% of the time (lots of room for improvement).



# Where to Quit?

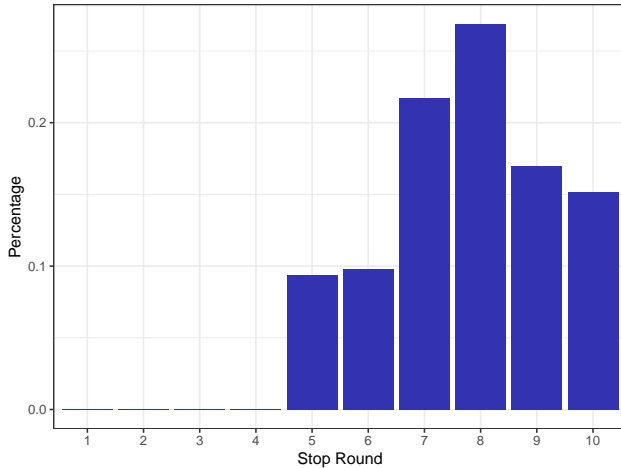
Frequency of Stop Rounds  
Empirical Data (47 Players)





# Where to Quit?

Frequency of Stop Rounds  
Simulated Data (1000 Players)

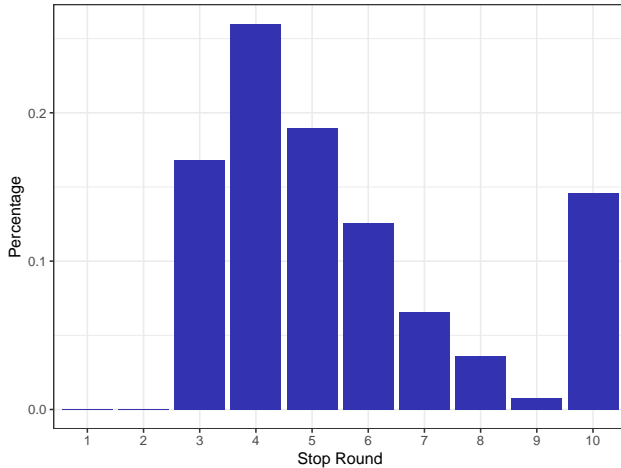




# Where to Quit?

## Frequency of Stop Rounds

Jeff Data (500 Games)








## Future Investigations and Improvements

- We can incorporate stochastic choice into our player utility model.
  - Utility theory models assume that players will choose the option with the greatest utility.
  - People don't always act in this fashion, and they sometimes choose plays with lower utilities.
  - This is defined as a **tremble**.
  - By nesting our utility function in a model of stochastic choice, we can incorporate this behavior into our model and possibly improve the accuracy of our predictions.
- We can modify or improve the policy and reward system of the DQN agent to better maximize winning strategies.



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Thank you!



This presentation summarizes the results of the CC-REU NSF summer REU experience (DMS-2050692) where these questions were explored.