

A success metric for individual player encounters in Ice Hockey videos

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Abstract

Player scouting is a critical component of hockey, enabling teams to identify standout players, devise strategies, and assess performance. However, traditional scouting methods are resource-intensive, requiring substantial time and travel expenses for organizations. An approach to performance assessment has been video footage analysis; however, in the context of ice hockey, challenges arise primarily due to the fast-paced nature of the sport and the limited field of view in broadcast footage. This makes it difficult to consistently track all players on the ice simultaneously. A solid performance metric that would make the most out of the information at hand is thus required. We present a 1v1 Success Metric Pipeline, an autonomous system designed to analyze video footage and calculate a success metric to evaluate defensive plays. By automating the tracking and evaluation process, this tool not only streamlines scouting but also provides coaches with valuable insights for player performance, which may come into play during line matching and other strategic decision-making during games. Results show that the ISM metric properly reflects the danger level of a one on one encounter and that despite the sample size being small, the model achieves low root mean square error.

1 Introduction

One of the key concepts in sports analytics is success metrics, also referred to as Key Performance Indicators (KPIs). Success metrics measure specific dimensions of performance within a sport. For example, they may assess the effectiveness of passing systems that lead to

goals [1] or determine metrics that increase a team's winning percentage over a season [2]. Choosing the right success metric is crucial, as it highlights the aspects of the game to prioritize in order to achieve the desired objectives.

Success metrics are critical in areas such as scouting and coaching. Historically, in the field of ice hockey, there has been a strong emphasis on offensive metrics. Traditional metrics predominantly focus on goals, offensive plays, and game wins [3, 4, 5, 6], while defensive metrics have received less attention. This has resulted in a gap in establishing success metrics related to defensive plays. The present work seeks to address this gap.

To provide context, in ice hockey, each team has six players on the ice, assigned to specific positions: three forwards (center, left wing, and right wing), two defensemen (left and right), and one goaltender. Each position carries distinct responsibilities that contribute to the team's overall strategy.

Defensemen play in front of their team's goal, focusing on blocking shots, clearing the puck, and disrupting the opposition's offensive efforts. They also support forwards by transitioning the puck up the ice, initiating attacks, and maintaining control in the offensive zone.

The primary objective of this paper is to develop a specialized metric for evaluating defensemen's performance in hockey, particularly in one-on-one situations. This metric aims to help teams and coaches accurately assess a defenseman's ability to isolate and neutralize offensive threats. Specifically, the metric focuses on scenarios where a defenseman is the only obstacle between a puck-handling forward and the opposing goalie (see figure 1).

To achieve this objective, we have developed a dedicated data generation and labeling pipeline, enabling the creation of comprehensive defensive performance metrics. We have also leveraged recent breakthroughs in

computer vision to extract player tracklets from broadcast video footage. These tracklets are used to calculate distances between reference objects, and this data, combined with expert reviews, is utilized to train a model capable of automatically assigning a success score to specific defensive situations.

The paper is organized as follows:

In section 2, we'll discuss related work and review key performance indicators used in previous studies. Section 3 details our approach to processing footage, ensuring accurate player detection, and extracting player positions. We also explain the labeling process, outline relevant geometrical variables used in our metric, and discuss the implementation of the extreme gradient boosting method for training the model.

The 4 section presents our qualitative and quantitative findings.



Figure 1: One on one encounter between a forward and defenseman

2 Background

2.1 Key performance indicators

The field of sports analytics abounds with KPIs that can significantly impact both team and individual performance. These KPIs can be broadly categorized into technical, tactical, physical, interpersonal, and combinations of these factors.

Technical KPIs involve game elements such as passes, recoveries, rebounds, and shots, which directly relate to the execution of skills during gameplay [2, 7, 8]. Studies have shown that passing patterns can be used to develop indices for evaluating player performance. For instance, [1] utilized passing patterns to create a performance index that was validated against traditional scoring metrics, offering practical insights that reduce the reliance on subjective coaching assessments and improve training and competition analysis.

Tactical KPIs focus on strategic elements like player positioning and team formations. Tactical analysis pro-

vides insights into how well a team maintains structure and adapts to various scenarios during a game, influencing overall team performance [9].

Physical KPIs include metrics such as the distance covered, player speed, and playing time. These indicators assess the physical contributions of players and their fitness levels. For example, [10] examined how the allocation of playing time among players impacts the likelihood of winning, highlighting the importance of physical performance in game outcomes.

Interpersonal and psychological KPIs examine the social dynamics and mental aspects of players and teams. These factors can involve personality traits, communication, and the quality of relationships between players and coaches. Studies like [11] explored the influence of personality traits on team sports performance, while [12] analyzed the effects of interpersonal dynamics, such as closeness, commitment, and complementarity, within the coach-athlete relationship. In many cases, a comprehensive evaluation of team and individual performance involves a combination of these factors. Studies like [13] and [14] emphasize the importance of integrating multiple KPIs to gain a holistic understanding of what contributes to success in sports.

While sports like basketball and soccer have an extensive body of literature addressing success metrics across various dimensions of the game, ice hockey has comparatively less.

2.2 KPIs in Ice Hockey

As stated earlier, the literature on KPIs for ice hockey is relatively sparse and predominantly focused on offensive metrics. Furthermore, in some cases, these metrics are poorly defined and can introduce biases. Studies such as [15, 16] highlight how bias can significantly influence scouting and player selection. For instance, despite French Canadian players outperforming their English Canadian counterparts in offensive metrics, biases rooted in geopolitical tensions and stereotypes regarding their defensive abilities created additional barriers for them. These findings suggest that subjective perceptions, rather than objective performance, often impact scouting decisions in the NHL. Such examples underscore the need for rigorous, performance-based metrics that focus solely on gameplay, free from biases and irrelevant characteristics.

The development of a rigorous performance metric is further motivated by shortcomings in existing metrics, which often emphasize physical attributes over actual performance. For example, [17] discusses how traditional scouting frequently prioritizes characteristics like height and weight over meaningful performance data.

Another challenge in establishing a success metric for

ice hockey lies in the extent to which information can be extracted from broadcast footage. Fortunately, recent breakthroughs in computer vision have enabled significant progress in this area.

2.3 Extracting data from broadcast footage

Video footage provides a primary source for live or post-game analytics, offering a rich dataset to analyze player actions and team dynamics. However, human analysis is limited by factors such as attention span, fatigue, the difficulty of tracking multiple concurrent events, and the long duration of games. These limitations highlight the need for computer-based algorithms capable of automatically and consistently identifying actions, game events, and team strategies from video footage.

In hockey, video analysis faces specific challenges due to the fast pace of the game, frequent motion blur, and limited field of view in broadcast footage. Several studies have attempted to detect actions and events within these constraints, yielding mixed results [18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27]. These challenges complicate the consistent detection of actions or events, such as puck possession or defensive plays. This paper proposes a new method designed to work effectively despite these limitations.

The field of multi-object tracking (MOT) has provided numerous opportunities for tracking individuals within a specific scene [28]. MOT datasets have been widely used to benchmark various tracking algorithms. Recently, hockey-specific datasets adhering to the MOT format have been introduced [29], tailored to ice hockey settings. Additionally, some studies have incorporated scene-specific elements and concepts, such as homography, to further enhance the tracking process [30].

The computer vision techniques mentioned above have been instrumental in our development of a defensive hockey metric. The next section delves into the experimental details.

3 Methodology

3.1 Data Collection

Video subsequences ("shots") were extracted from our private NHL dataset, resulting in 150 clips, each lasting 10 seconds, featuring one-on-one encounters between players. Each clip was processed with our custom-trained YOLOv10 object detection model, enabling accurate tracking of players and generation of bounding boxes. The technic described in [30] was utilized. The bounding boxes were used to determine player foot-

prints, defined as the midpoint of the lower bounding box edge. Homography allowed for the transformation of video frames to account for perspective distortions. Player tracking was then performed on the warped video frames, and key measures like distances and angles were computed for each frame. For each clip, we documented player IDs, the frame at which the forward initiated a shot, the calculated instantaneous success metric (ISM) values, and the defensive net's side on the rink. This annotated dataset provides the foundational data we can use to extract the geometrical features required for training our extreme gradient boosting model as seen in figure 2:

1. Distance between the forward and the net, denoted as d_1 .
2. Distance between the forward and the defenseman, denoted as d_2 .
3. Distance between the defenseman and the shooting lane, denoted as d_3 .
4. Angle of the forward with respect to the center line of the net, denoted as θ .

To obtain the features, we generated a filtered dataset containing only the bounding box coordinates for the two players of interest, derived from the original tracking output. We then applied homography transformations to map the player footprints onto the rink's spatial coordinates to determine the position of the forward and defenseman. Additionally, knowing the orientation of the net (left or right side of the rink) allowed us to accurately define the net's center position for each clip.

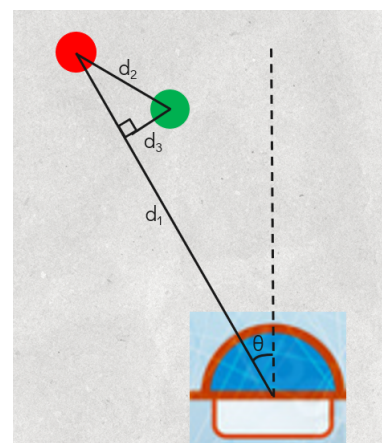


Figure 2: Diagram showing the features for our samples: the forward is in red while the defenseman is in green

The distances between the forward and the net d_1 and between the forward and defenseman d_2 are calculated using the Euclidean formula, which finds the square root

of the squared differences in x and y coordinates between each pair of points. To calculate d_3 , the perpendicular distance from the defenseman to the shooting lane between the forward and the net, we used vector projections to locate the nearest point on this line segment. Finally, the Euclidean distance between this closest point and the defenseman gives us d_3 , indicating how close the defenseman is to the shooting lane. Finally, the angle θ between the forward and the net is found using the arctangent of the y and x differences between the forward and the net.

3.2 Instantaneous Success Metric (ISM)

Each one-on-one encounter was evaluated using expert reviews, which assigned a score known as the ISM. This score provided a quantifiable measure of the likelihood the forward were to score if they were to shoot the puck at that instant.

3.3 Extreme Gradient Boosting

The collected data was used to train an XGBoost model. XGBoost (Extreme Gradient Boosting) is a robust machine learning algorithm designed for supervised learning tasks such as classification and regression. It operates based on the principle of gradient boosting, combining an ensemble of weak prediction models (typically decision trees) to enhance predictive accuracy [31].

$$\mathcal{L}(\phi) = \sum_{i=1}^n l(y_i, \hat{y}_i) + \sum_{k=1}^K \Omega(f_k)$$

Where $\mathcal{L}(\phi)$ represents the overall objective function to be minimized, with n denoting the number of training examples. The term $l(y_i, \hat{y}_i)$ is the loss function that quantifies the difference between the predicted value \hat{y}_i and the true label y_i .

The loss function is given by:

$$l(y_i, \hat{y}_i) = (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

The regularization term, $\Omega(f_k)$, penalizes the complexity of each tree f_k to mitigate overfitting:

$$\Omega(f_k) = \gamma T + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \sum_{j=1}^T w_j^2$$

Where T is the number of leaves in the tree, w_j represents the weight of leaf j , γ is a parameter that penalizes the number of leaves, and λ is a parameter that penalizes the L2 norm of the leaf weights.

The model's prediction for each instance is represented as:

$$\hat{y}_i = \sum_{k=1}^K f_k(x_i)$$

To model the ISM, we applied an XGBoost regression algorithm, utilizing game-specific features to capture the impact of spatial dynamics in one-on-one encounters. Our input dataset included four predictor variables: distances d_1 (forward to net), d_2 (forward to defenseman), d_3 (defenseman to shooting lane), and the angle θ between the forward and the net. The ISM served as the response variable, representing the scoring potential for each scenario. To preprocess the data, we included organizing features (X) and target variables (y), which we loaded into a DMatrix, an optimized data format for efficient memory usage and computational speed in XGBoost.

We configured the XGBoost model with parameters suitable for regression tasks. The objective of the model was configured to minimize squared errors, with model performance assessed using root mean squared error (RMSE). Additional parameters were selected based on initial experimentation and insights from previous predictive modeling research, aiming to achieve a balance between model complexity and generalization. These included:

- **Learning rate** ($\eta = 0.1$): Controlled the step size for each boosting iteration.
- **Maximum tree depth** (6): Set to capture interactions between variables without overfitting.
- **Subsampling rate** (0.8): Enhanced model robustness by training on 80% of the dataset per iteration.

Model training proceeded through 100 boosting rounds, where each iteration optimized predictive accuracy by minimizing residual errors. This iterative boosting process enabled the model to capture complex interactions among features, leveraging XGBoost's strengths in handling structured data with nonlinear relationships.

This approach allowed us to predict ISM values effectively, integrating spatial metrics that reflect player positioning and engagement dynamics in one-on-one plays, contributing meaningful insights into scoring potential.

4 Results

In the qualitative results found in figure 3, our trained XGBoost algorithm predicts the ISM for each frame based on distances and angles, visualized over the hockey rink. We generated a time series graph of ISM to identify sections of the clip where the defenseman allowed the highest scoring opportunities. Another feature of the visualization is that, after the forward shoots the puck, the ISM display changes from white to red

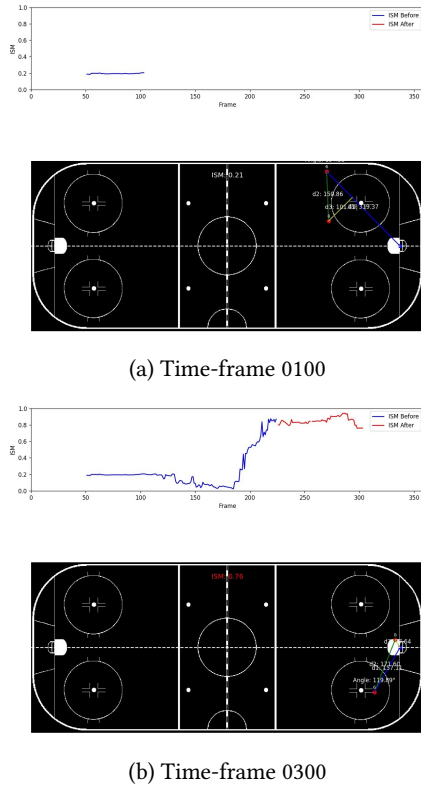


Figure 3: ISM values and play on 2D rink template for various time-frames of a one-on-one encounter

font, clearly indicating the moment of the shot. Currently, we must manually input the frame number when the forward shoots the puck, but this could be automated using further research of hockey shot detection.

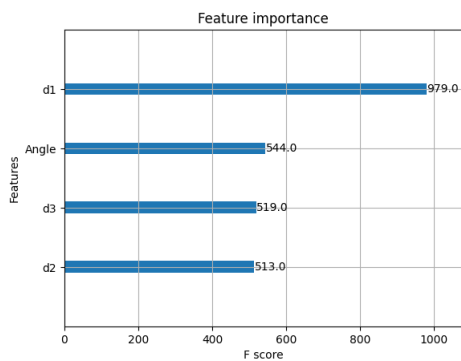


Figure 4: The plot shows the importance scores for each feature used in the model. Feature importance scores reflect how useful each feature was in improving the model's accuracy.

Figure 4 illustrates the model's RMSE (Root Mean Square Error) during training over 100 boosting rounds. The training RMSE steadily decreases, indicating that the model continues to learn from the data. However, the validation RMSE plateaus after an initial decline,

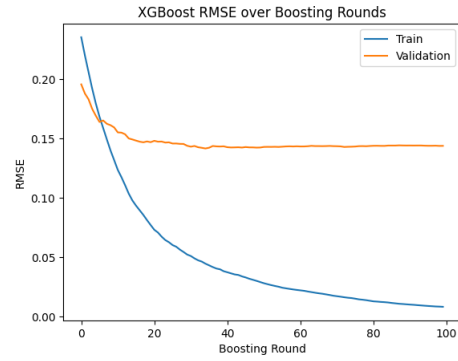


Figure 5: Tracking the model's error reduction over boosting rounds to assess learning progress and generalization

suggesting that additional rounds might not improve performance on the validation set and could lead to overfitting.

Figure 5 shows the importance of various features used in the model, measured by the F-score. Feature d_1 has the highest importance, with a significantly higher F-score than other features, indicating it contributes the most to model predictions. Other features (θ , d_2 , and d_3) also play a role but are less influential in comparison. This analysis helps in understanding which features the model relies on most for accurate predictions.

5 Conclusion and Future work

Using the ISM (Individual Scoring Metric) for defensive players throughout a game can offer insights into team performance. This metric could be leveraged in line-matching strategies, where analyzing the peak ISM allowed by each defenseman against various forwards would help identify optimal defensive pairings that collectively minimize team-wide ISM. Such an approach could enhance line compositions, providing coaches with a ranking of the most effective defensemen based on the specific forwards currently on the ice. By optimizing these matchups, teams could reduce opponents' scoring opportunities and improve overall defensive effectiveness.

Effective one-on-one defense is a critical skill in high-pressure situations, requiring a blend of positioning, stick work, and decision-making. A dedicated metric to quantify these abilities would aid in scouting, targeted training, and player development.

With advancements in computer vision, deriving such metrics has become increasingly feasible. Automated techniques now enable the extraction of precise player measurements and behaviors directly from video footage, reducing subjective biases and enhancing the

consistency of analyses.

In the future, we would also like to go beyond focusing solely on one-on-one encounters and develop metrics that involve the entire team and their positioning as well.

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