

Combining Video and Player Telemetry for Evidence-Based Decisions in Soccer

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Abstract: Technology is changing how soccer clubs train and interact with their supporters. Systems that provide acquisition and visualization of low-level player telemetry, like distance covered and speed, are already being widely adopted. A key observation is that such data when correlated with actual in-game video footage is a powerful tool for evidence-based decisions. As data volume and complexity grow, efficient tools for automated high-precision retrieval become essential. This paper describes the unique combination of a radio-based sensor platform and several custom video retrieval systems in operational use at Tromsø Idrettslag (TIL), a Norwegian premier league soccer club. The systems have been developed using an experimental computer-science method where several prototypes were built and deployed for evaluation in close collaboration with the intended users. Although our method of computer-system prototyping has not yielded commercial quality products, it has enabled us to construct several novel systems combining low-level player telemetry with video retrieval, annotations, and user-centric security.

1 INTRODUCTION

Analytic of precise player performance telemetry in combination with correlated video is reshaping how sports are played (Dizikes, 2013) and how athletes are being developed. Online real-time publication of detailed and precise game information and statistics also enables supporters to engage with their favorite team at a completely new level. As sensor technology advances, more athlete parameters become available for quantification and at an increasing level of precision.

Paradoxically, as data volumes and complexity grow, it is easy to lose overview of important parameters and their significance in the sheer volume of collected data. The ability to extract reliable high-level understanding from collected player telemetry is essential when performing quantitative analysis of athletes' performance for the purpose of making *evidence-based decisions*. Manually navigation large video and telemetry archives in order to locate and process the required data is time consuming and quickly becomes impractical as data volumes grows. Simple visualization of low-level player data, like total sprint distance and High Intensity Runs (HIRs), are also often not of sufficient practical value for complex

athletic development tasks. This is particularly true in soccer as each position requires a particular set of skills and physical attributes. To add to the complexity, different teams have different style of play, each requiring certain type of specialized training. For instance, some teams play with very offensive and attacking full-backs, while in others teams, this position is primarily defensive, providing protection from attacking wide midfielders.

The ability to extract useful high-level signals from voluminous data taking team specific *play styles* into account is therefore a key property of next generation sports analytic systems. Analyzing voluminous and complex data sets is known as *big data*, and we are investigating multiple approaches suitable for operational use in soccer clubs. A key observation we made is that such data analysis tools, when combined with efficient video retrieval systems, are effective tools for evidence-based coaching.

We are researching a broad range of emerging athlete quantification systems for use in Tromsø Idrettslag (TIL), a Norwegian premier league soccer club. This includes state-of-the-art industrial big-data approaches, as applying MapReduce data processing engines like Oivos (Valvåg et al., 2013), machine

learning (Karlberg, 2013), and user-side access control (van Renesse et al., 2013). We are using existing commercial systems as reference foundation to distill limitations and missing functionality; our primary goal is to develop novel computer systems filling the identified gaps. Non-invasive, privacy preserving, and accurate technologies are fundamental in this context, though best practice and general design principles are yet to emerge.

In this paper, we describe a set of complementary software components for quantifying both objective and subjective performance metrics and health data in the soccer domain. This includes *Davvi*, a search based video composition system (Johansen et al., 2012a), *Bagadus*, a video-based player tracking system (Sægrov et al., 2012), and *Muithu*, a mobile phone based notational analysis system (Johansen et al., 2012b). We have had these experimental systems in operational use through several seasons by TIL, both for training sessions and official matches. At the core of this technology platform is ZXY Sport Tracking (ZXY), a body-area sensor network system providing raw, physical data from individual athletes. We focus on our experience using this hardware and software stack for monitoring and aggregating data in the soccer domain.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents technical details about the ZXY system. Section 3 gives an example illustrating the complexity of interpreting quantitative data to gain new insight. Section 4 describes the video software components that we have developed in combination with ZXY to provide higher-order services, and Section 5 describes our data security mechanism. Finally, Section 6 concludes.

2 THE ZXY SPORTS TRACKING SYSTEM

Positional data has already become one of the core data sources for athlete quantification, enabling us to track metrics like distance covered, sprints, and HIRs. A large number of commercial systems already exist for this purpose and is being rapidly adopted in soccer; a recent example is the adoption of Adidas miCoach data trackers by the US Major League Soccer teams (Ehrlich and Dennison, 2012). These systems typically use GPS for geo-tracking, or in some cases, computer vision algorithms processing video input (Valter et al., 2006). GPS, which is perhaps most commonly used, has been shown inaccurate for some purposes (Portas et al., 2010). Unlike these systems, ZXY relies on a radio-based signaling substrate



Figure 1: The ZXY Sport Tracking sensor belt.

to provide real-time high-precision positional tracking of athletes in combination with other sensor data like acceleration and heart rate.

2.1 Monitoring Substrate

As with many sport tracking systems, ZXY requires each athlete to wear a sensor belt around his or her lower torso. As shown in Figure 1, the 10 gram sensor is integrated into the belt and placed in contact with skin under the jersey and shorts. The positioning of the electronic sensor system at the players lumbar has in practice shown to provide the best compromise for monitoring signals corresponding to the power generated from each footstep.

Being light weight and low profile, the belt is considered non-invasive. In our experience, players do not feel any discomfort wearing the belt, and they accept it as a part of their training and match kit. The belt has been approved for usage both in the national top league and in UEFA matches, which allow us to track the players in official matches.

In addition to positional data, the belt includes an accelerometer that registers body movements in all 3-directional axes, a gyro, a heart-rate sensor, and a compass. The accelerometer provides valuable data in addition to the more common data of distance covered in different speed categories (Mohr et al., 2008; Mohr et al., 2003). The magnetic compass in combination with the gyro allows us to track the actual heading of the player. Battery capacity of the belt is approximately 10 hours when in use and 180 days in standby mode.



Figure 2: ZXY radio receiver mounted on antennas around the stadium.

2.2 Aggregation Substrate

Data from the sensor belt is aggregated and stored in a central relational database. Communication is through calibrated, stationary radio receivers mounted in poles or on the tribune roof around the sports arena, as seen in Figure 2. The current generation of the ZXY system is based on the 2.45 GHz ISM band for radio communication and signal transmissions. All receivers are interfaced to the data infrastructure using standard TCP/IP connections over Ethernet.

Each receiver has a field-of-view corresponding to approximately 90 degrees in room angle. In a deployment situation, this determines the number of sensors to be applied for the specific installation site. Alfheim, the home arena of TIL, is currently equipped with 10 receivers configured to receive data from overlapping zones of the soccer field. This redundancy provides high immunity to occlusions and signal blocking, which is necessary to ensure reliable operation.

Each stationary radio receiver computes the position data for each belt in the field using advanced vector based processing of the received radio signals. The processing system enables direct projection of each players position on the field without the use of conventional triangulation methods. The default positional sampling rate is currently fixed to 20 Hz for each belt transmitting in real-time to a central relational aggregation database. Furthermore, by includ-

ing all body sensor information in the same radio signal used for computing the positions, the system enables time synchronization of all data when stored in the database. Aggregated data can be exported as Microsoft Excel spreadsheets for detailed analytic in statistical tools like IBM SPSS Statistics and MathWorks MATLAB.

2.3 Data Accuracy

A disadvantage with ZXY is a relatively high infrastructure cost and that it is stationary. GPS systems based on satellite tracking are generally cheaper and more spatially portable, but might be less correct with regard to positional data. We have been interested in evaluating how a stationary radio based system as ZXY compares to GPS based tracking systems. We therefore tested both the inter and intra reliability of ZXY and GPS based tracking systems.

In the inter reliability test, we equipped seven players with both the ZXY sensor belt and the GP Sport SPI-ProX1 5 Hz sensor belt, a common GPS based athlete tracking system. Wearing belts from both systems, the players performed the Copenhagen Soccer Test for Women (CSTw) (Bendiksen et al., 2013) while we recorded their movements. The SPI-ProX1 system measured the average covered distance for a player to $11.668 \pm 1.072\text{ km}$ with some tracks well outside the test field. This is to our surprise less accurate than we expected. ZXY gives a more accurate measurement with an average of $10.204 \pm 0.103\text{ km}$ and with all recorded tracks inside the area of the test.

Although the CSTw test specifies a 10.331 km preset course that the players should follow, some discrepancies in the measured distance are to be expected. This because even small deviation of the sensor device from the set trajectories of the test, like the player leaning in the corners, will impact the measurements and adds up throughout the test.

In the intra reliability test, we equipped five players with two GP Sport SPI-ProX1 belts and seven players with two ZXY belts. The measured discrepancy between the two belts on the same player ranged between $0.800\text{--}2.071\text{ km}$ for SPI-ProX1 and for ZXY it ranged between $0.025\text{--}0.290\text{ km}$. Our observation that the SPI-ProX1 system seems to measure higher values for distance covered is further supported by an experiment where 19 players of two junior elite teams were equipped with both ZXY and SPI-ProX1 in a similar manner as our inter reliability test. The average distance covered was here measured by SPI-ProX1 to $10.805 \pm 0.847\text{ km}$, while ZXY measured the distance to $9.891 \pm 0.974\text{ km}$ (unpublished data).

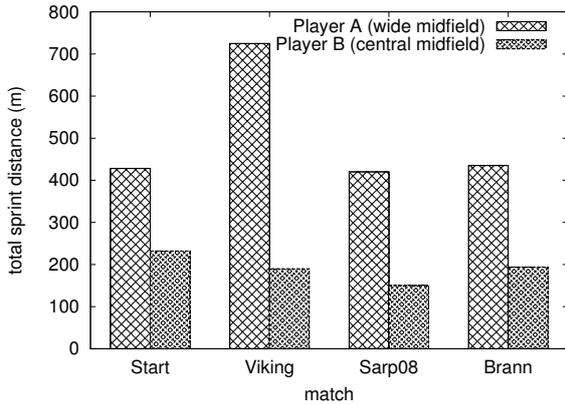


Figure 3: Measured sprint distance.

The producer of ZXY claims accuracy in the order of 0.5 m for our version of the system. This conforms to our experience from having athletes run on visually identifiable trajectories on the soccer pitch like on the midfield circle, the 16 m squares, and the midfield line. We thus conclude that ZXY provides significantly more accurate positional data relative to the GPS counterpart.

With the ZXY as an accurate base layer for player telemetry, we have been able to evolve a unique and accurate data analytic platform for evidence-based coaching, consisting of several software components.

3 BIG SOCCER DATA

Although basic athlete measurements and parameters can easily be drawn from reliable data sources, the relevance and importance of these insights might vary. For instance, using positional data one can quite easily compute and visualize the distance each player has spent walking, sprinting, or in HIRs during a game.

By plotting these numbers for the different speed categories for a series of matches and for several players, one might gain insight in the intensity of the game and the energy spent by the players. As an example, we have in Figure 3 plotted the total distance covered at sprint speeds (i.e., $> 25.2\text{ kmh}^{-1}$) for two of our players, here denoted Player A and Player B for anonymity, in four different games, as captured by ZXY. In all these games, Player A is a wide midfielder and Player B is a central midfielder.

On average, soccer players cover $10\text{--}13\text{ km}$ during a typical 90 minutes elite soccer match (Bangsbo et al., 2006), with variance from specific positions and play styles. As can clearly be seen in the figure, Player A covers more of his distance at sprint speeds compared to Player B. This is explained by the fact

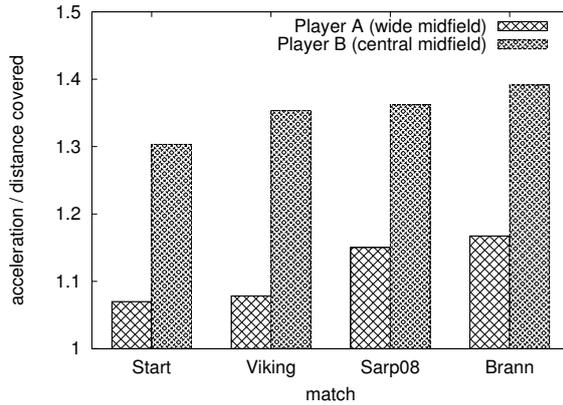


Figure 4: Measured effort level.

that Player A was a wide midfielder during all these matches and was expected to sprint more than the central midfielder position of Player B.

Having only positional data one might therefore be tempted to conclude that Player A is spending more energy than Player B. Energy expenditure, here defined as effort is, however, harder to quantify accurately compared to distance covered and involves other parameters than positional data. Player specific video feeds and gathered player wellness reports in combination with the experiences of head coaches give strong indications that a sole focus on distance covered at different speed levels will not give a complete view and understanding of the physical demands of a game. Using player telemetry and video, such insight can then be quantified in specific data points using analytical big-data techniques, which combine and refine data from multiple sources through an iterative multi-step process.

In our case, we correlated the sprint distance data from the positional sensor with data from the accelerometer also worn by the players. By counting the number of positive or negative changes in speed in the sum of all three dimensions during 20 Hz intervals and after factoring out the effect of gravity, we obtain a measurement of the *total effort* load of each individual player. As can be seen from Figure 4, when the acceleration-based effort level measurements of players A and B are compared to their individual total sprint distance, the situation observed in Figure 3 becomes the opposite: Player B is now seemingly spending more energy than Player A, even if he is sprinting less than 50% of Player A. This observation is more in line with what is expected from studying actual in-game video footage of the play styles of A and B. As a central midfielder, Player B more often accelerates, decelerates, and makes sharp changes of direction compared to the wide midfielder role of

Player A.

This type of insight should impact training practices. For instance, sprinting exercises for a wide midfielder should contain sprints that are longer and more straight line. The central midfielder should probably follow a different run pattern during training with much shorter sprints and more 180-degree turns. It is also clear from this example that data alone might hide important details necessary for evidence-based coaching.

4 VIDEO INFRASTRUCTURE

Because game statistics and analytics data might contain ambiguities and leave out important information, an additional level of information is required for evidence-based coaching. Video footage of both games and training is a useful tool in this regard and we observed that significant volumes of video data related to TIL players were being generated and stored. This included exercises filmed by the coaches with hand held amateur cameras and professional footage of matches by national and international broadcasters. We also often deploy multiple small, low-cost, and portable action cameras to capture digital footage of the physical activities while unfolding. Although such video content has great value for evidence-based coaching, we experienced that an available video-archive, having video data captured by more than 10 cameras with hours of video for each game, made analysis and retrieval of relevant content very time consuming and impractical.

4.1 Searching Video Archives

To make the stored video footage more accessible and useful, we developed the experimental video-search system Davvi (Johansen et al., 2012a), which enables users to drill down and search into large stores of multimedia data. Its primary interface is a keyword search input box, much similar to those already widely used in web-search systems like Google and Bing. This enables coaches to submit free text queries like:

“sliding tackle by Thomas Drage Yellow Card”

Additionally, the structural elements like “home-team=TIL” and “how=heading” can also be used to refine the query further.¹

Given such a query, Davvi responds with a list of matching video events, sorted by their relevance to the query or by game clock, as shown in Figure 5.

¹See demo video of Davvi here:
<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cPtvZ2kbt0w>



- 1) Keyword search input box
- 2) Time constraint for search output
- 3) Search result list with video and event descriptions
- 4) Playlist containing user selected clips
- 5) Slider for adjusting clip length
- 6) Control bar for video playback

Figure 5: User interface of the Davvi video retrieval system.

Per user customized videos can then be produced on-the-fly while searching through enormous amounts of video data archives. Using for example drag-and-drop of the search results, a personalized video can be composed in a playlist where the corresponding video frames are combined into a video summary. The search result video clips have a default length of 30 seconds, but this can be adjusted. The resulting composition can be viewed immediately as one continuous video without having to materialize it on the server. Such *search-based video composition* is in particular a potent tool for non-technical users since it enables them to access the content through a powerful yet simple interface.

4.2 Capturing High-Level Game Events

A key problem for keyword-based video search systems like Davvi, is how to annotate the video with textual meta-data for indexing. There exists a large number of fully automated annotation tools that can identify and describe video events using low-level video features like colors, textures, and shapes using complex visual analysis techniques (Ekin et al., 2003). The precision of such software tools is, however, not yet at a sufficient level of quality to reliably cover the semantic gap between low-level visual features and high-level concepts for practical use in soccer clubs.

Fortunately, it is also possible to make use of human generated commentaries at external high-quality publication sources (Xu et al., 2006). In the sports domain, numerous Internet news portals, social net-

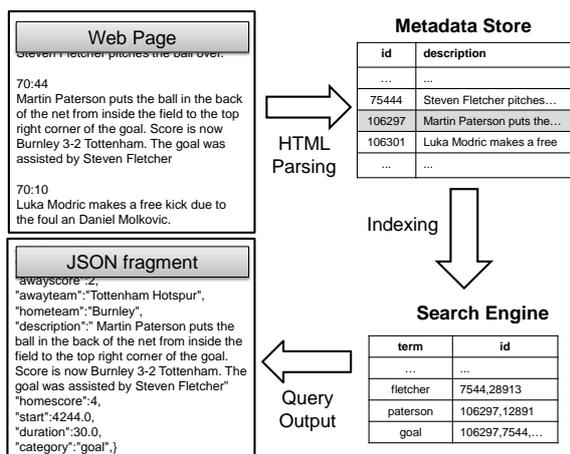


Figure 6: Video annotation using web content in Davvi.

working groups, and official sports club pages publish time-synchronized and relevant game data, often close to real-time while the event happens. For soccer video content, this data typically contains general information, like the names of the playing teams, and where the games are played. More importantly, it also contains textual information about events that have occurred within each individual game, like descriptions of each scored goal or penalties, and a time value for when in the game they occurred.

By configuring Davvi with site specific parses, such data sources can be crawled for this type of semi-structured meta-data, as illustrated in Figure 6. The result is a *meta-data store* containing time coded textual descriptions of in-game events, often written by human experts who are very likely to comments on just the type of events that coaches and supporters are likely to later query for. Using the commonly available Apache Solr search engine ², we then construct a reverse index of the words in the collected textual descriptions, each pointing back to the in-game events it occurs in. This tool is particularly useful for generating sequences of short video snippets containing similar situations, like when a player makes a free kick, for comparison and evidence of certain player behavior.

To further reduce the manual labor of accessing captured videos, we also developed Muithu (Johansen et al., 2012b), a light weight and portable *digital notational analysis system* that enables members of the coaching team, using a tablet or mobile phones, to register predefined events quickly with the press of a button or provide textual annotations.

The correlated video can be extracted automatically and shown to the coaches and players. This

²<http://lucene.apache.org/solr/>

either as an immediate playback during a game or a practice session in an online mode, or in an offline mode like in the half-time break or after the game.

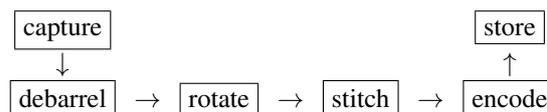
An internal multimedia-based social network is also used for athlete development and coaching. The coaches can send, for instance, a video sequence with comments to a single or group of players starting an educational and reflective dialogue. The novelty is that this is done almost fully automatic and in real-time by the soccer coaches; no retrospective, labor intensive analysis are needed. Because such dialogues often are centered around specific video events, they can be a good source for time-coded video meta-data. This data might, however, be highly personal and we are therefore investigating security mechanisms that allow user controlled sharing of such information.

4.3 Player Tracking

Video from professional broadcasters, though of high-quality, mostly focus on small regions of the soccer field interesting for the spectator. For coaches, other areas of the field might be more interesting.

To have complete game video of each player, TIL had on earlier occasions enlisted 22 people, each equipped with a hand held camcorder, to follow his or her designated player throughout the game, generating a total of more than 1980 minutes of video. Clearly, such a solution is costly in the long run if volunteers cannot be enlisted on a regular basis. The quality of the resulting videos is also not optimal as accurately tracking a moving soccer player for 90 minutes with a camcorder is difficult.

To automate this process in a reliable manner, we have developed *Bagadus*³ (Sægrov et al., 2012), which integrates a video camera array with ZXY to enable real-time video tracking of the players on the field and with *Muithu* to automatically play back annotated events from the coaching team. The system makes use of a stationary camera array, as shown in Figure 7, of several small shutter-synchronized high-resolution video cameras. These cameras cover the full field with sufficient overlap to identify common features necessary for camera calibration and image stitching. Generating panorama videos in real-time includes running each captured frame through the following (simplified) pipeline processing stages:



³See demo video of Bagadus here:
<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1zsgvjQkL1E>

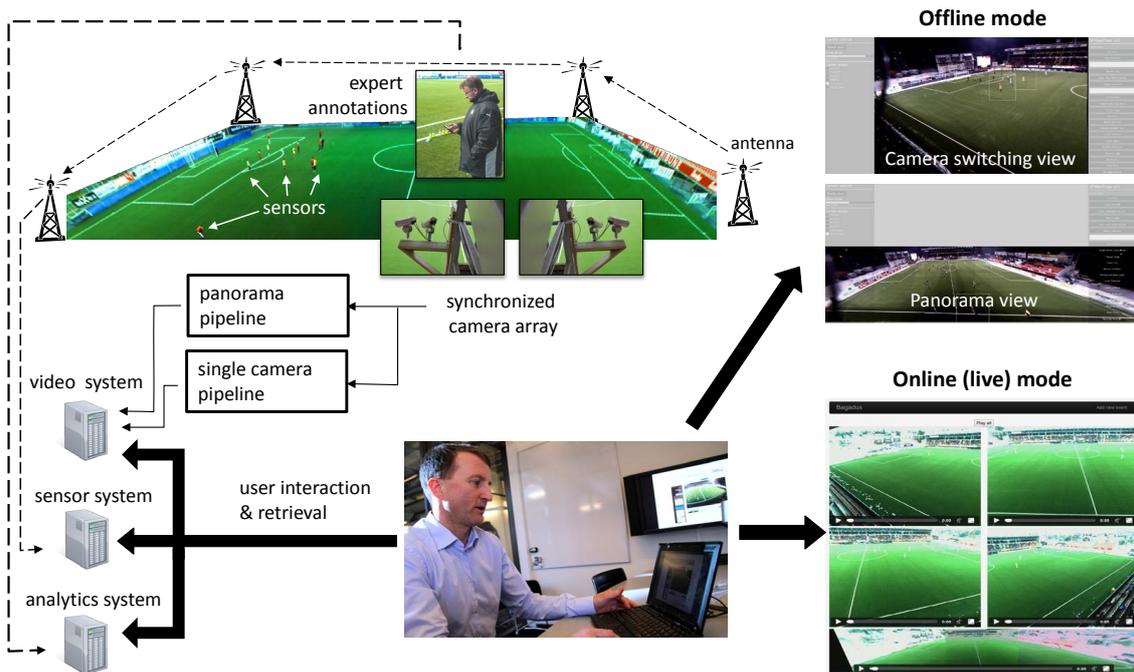


Figure 7: Architectural overview of the Bagadus player tracking system.

As seen in Figure 7, Bagadus supports several different playback options. One is playback of video that switches between streams delivered from the different cameras, either manually selecting a camera or automatically following players based on sensor information. A second option plays back a panorama video stitched from the different camera feeds.

Tracking people through camera arrays has been an active research topic for several years. The accuracy of such systems has improved, but there are still errors. To identify and follow players on the field, we again use the ZXY system to capture the exact position of the players, or groups of players. This enables us to zoom in on and mark player(s) in the retrieved video on the fly, or to automatically generate a video following a particular player.

The sensor-video systems integration also enables automatic extraction of complex video summaries. For example, we are able to automatically present a video clip of all the situations where a given player runs faster than 7ms^{-1} , when a defender is closer than 5 meters from an opponent's striker or when all the defenders were located in the opponent's penalty box in the second half. The last example is supported by a SQL database query like:

```
SELECT timestamp, x_pos, y_pos
FROM zxy_oversample
WHERE (y_pos > 17.5 AND y_pos < 50.5) // penalty box
AND (x_pos > 0.0 AND x_pos < 16.5)
AND timestamp > 45 // second half
AND tag_id IN ("the tag_ids of defenders")
```

This query collects all the timestamps and defender positions inside the penalty box, and where the timestamps are used to select video frames. In the current system, the video summary starts playing in less than a second, an operation that without such a retrieval system would require large amounts of manual work and time corresponding to at least the time to view the entire game.

Thus, where people earlier used a huge amount of time for analyzing the game manually, these software components in combination with the ZXY system, automate much tedious manual work freeing time for the coaches to focus on his or her core activities.

5 Data Security

A key requirement for TIL was the ability to externalize collected data to third parties that specialize in complex sports analytics. The new generation of sport viewers, familiar with social networks and micro-blogs, also expect such performance data to be published on social media and on more traditional broadcasting channels while watching sport events. For instance, during the last European soccer championship in June 2012, major broadcasters distributed real-time performance data on social media platforms and traditional television broadcasts while games unfolded. This included statistics about successful passes, num-

ber of corners, attempted shots on goal, meters covered by individual players and the like.

We have also developed a system that provides timely and accurate *wellness parameters* prior to practice planning and execution. After each physical session, all players input their rating of perceived exertion through their cellular phones. This data is aggregated and compared with expected and planned intensity level. Next morning, each player further provides, for instance, their perceived fatigue, soreness, and sleep quality. This data is immediately inspected by the medical staff to adjust the *training load* of the upcoming training session or to customize practices for individuals. In some cases, players are pulled away from the team practice for more detailed medical examination to, for instance, avoid potential injuries.

Obviously, there are strong security constraints related to athlete and team performance data. Medical related information like heart-rate and injuries are highly personal and must in particular be handled with great care. Existing infrastructures provide athletes with little control of how such sensitive personal data is used. The European Commission has already stated its concern about the lack of user control of personal data being stored in online services (European Commission, 2012). This concern must also be addressed in the next generation of athlete tracking systems.

Current available mechanisms for *discretionary access control* in web and cloud-based Internet services are based on a combination of authentication and Access Control Lists (ACLs) that map principals, roles, or attributes of principals to a predetermined set of rights on the recorded athlete data. But these mechanisms do not support key functions required for fine-grained user control of personal data, like delegation and confinement of access rights. We experienced that it became difficult to maintain fine grained control over distribution and access of sensitive player data. Indeed, some argue that ACLs are not a good solution at all in service oriented architectures with *transitive access* patterns (Karp and Li, 2010). With ACLs each layer would need to have accounts with the lower layers, which quickly becomes an unmanageable task, and makes it difficult to avoid security issues like confused deputies (Hardy, 1988).

To address this concern, we are working to integrate *codecap* (van Renesse et al., 2013), a user-side access-control mechanism that gives athletes more control of their personal performance telemetry. A codecap c_n is a pair $\langle h_n, k_n \rangle$ consisting of a *heritage* and a *private key*. The heritage h_n is a chain of X.509 public key certificates $[C_1 :: C_2 :: \dots :: C_n]$ correspond-

ing to a chain of $n + 1$ principals $P_0 \dots P_n$, where the operator $::$ denotes list concatenation. In this case, P_0 has delegated certain rights to P_1 , P_1 has delegated rights to P_2, \dots , and P_{n-1} has delegated rights to P_n . For example, P_0 could be the soccer club's data server, P_1 a player, P_2 the medical staff, P_3 the coach, and so on.

Certificate C_i is signed by $k_{i-1} = P_{i-1}.\text{privkey}$, where k_n is the private key of P_n . Codecap c_n is owned by principal P_n and gives access rights to services provided by principal P_0 . However, as P_0 does not maintain ACLs, it does not need to know anything about P_n , and only needs to maintain its private key k_0 . In our case, this implies that player P_1 , without involvement of any system administrator, can delegate access to his telemetry, for instance to external medical personnel after an injury.

To confine and control how delegated access rights can be used, each certificate C_i includes a $C_i.\text{rights}$ attribute containing a boolean functions that returns true if and only if the function allows the request. Currently the rights functions are expressed in Javascript, enabling a flexible and fine grained control over rights policies. Principal P_0 will execute the request r only if $C_i.\text{rights}(r) = \text{true}$ holds for all i in $1 \dots n$. As such, player P_1 may grant P_2 , the medical staff, full access to his data, but restrict their ability to further delegate access to sensitive information, like the sleep quality data collect by the system described in Section 4.2. This implies that the coaches P_3 , in our example above, cannot access this sensitive data from the access token received from P_2 . He, must receive explicit permission from P_1 for that.

Using existing ACLs mechanisms, such fine-grained rights management would quickly become an unmanageable task, resulting in frequent violation of the *principle of least privilege*. As a consequence of having their data too widely available, players might be less inclined to adapt new sensor technology and athlete quantification methods. Giving players control of their personal data through rights delegation and confinement chains, is essential for further adaptation of evidence-based technology in soccer.

6 Conclusion

Insight in the soccer domain can be drawn from applying big-data analytics to in-game player telemetry. When coupled with video footage of actual matches and exercises, an important platform for evidence-based coaching emerges. We are currently researching software algorithms, architectures, and systems in correlation with the technology applied by TIL,

a Norwegian premier league soccer club, to automate some of the more tedious aspects of developing, evolving, and using such performance indicators. Our unique software and hardware stack ranges from low-level body sensors, to a hand-held coach notation system, video analytics, machine learning algorithms, and player-side data security.

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