

# Using the Silhouette Coefficient for Representative Search of Team Tactics in Noisy Data

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**Abstract:** Automatically recognizing team tactics based on spatiotemporal data is challenging. Deep Learning approaches have been proposed in this area but require a tremendous amount of manual work to create training and test data. This paper presents a clustering approach to reduce the needed manual effort significantly. A method is described to transform the spatiotemporal data into a canonical form that allows to efficiently apply clustering techniques. Since noise cannot be avoided in the given application context, the silhouette coefficient is applied to filter clusters considered to be noisy in a cluster technique independent way. Then, a variant of the silhouette coefficient is introduced as an indicator regarding the overall cluster model quality which allows to select the optimal clustering technique as well as the optimal set of cluster technique parameters for the given application context.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The application area of team tactics recognition in team sports uses the players' positions and data mining methods to automatically detect reoccurring tactical moves of teams. It has been proposed to use deep-learning-based classification techniques like (T)CNNs to solve this task (Schwenkreis, 2018a). However, the challenge of classification approaches is to find enough training and test data to extract a model with sufficient quality.

In the field of team sports like team handball, this means, that large sets of position data need to be manually labelled by experts before the actual model extraction can be performed. Particularly in case of deep learning models, this results in a tremendous amount of manual effort and requires a lot of time, because the experts need to watch videos that correspond with the positional data in order to be able to classify a move that happens in a given interval.


This paper presents an approach to reduce the manual effort significantly. The concept of representative search based on clustering is used to identify representatives of a group of similar team moves. When a representative is manually classified, then it is assumed that a whole cluster of similar team

moves belongs to the same class. Thus, not each team move needs to be classified manually to get the training and test data but only one per group. Alternatively, the labelled clustering model can be used directly to "classify" new data.

The results presented in this paper have been derived from data of five handball games from which 272 situations have been extracted that potentially contain a team tactic. Section 2 describes the method to transform the available data such that clustering methods can be applied. Section 3 introduces the notion of similarity that is used in case of team tactics. In section 4 the approaches of handling noise and selecting an appropriate clustering method are presented. Section 5 concludes the paper with a summary of the results and an outlook on future work.

## 2 CANONICAL POSITIONAL DATA

The starting point of the analysis presented in this paper is data from team handball matches. To be more specific, it is data of matches of the first German handball league (HBL), collected using the player tracking system of Kinexon® (Kinexon, 2017). This

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means that the data consists of the 3D coordinates of the sensors carried by the players between the shoulders, as well as of the coordinates of a sensor built into the ball. Since the elevation is not of interest in the context of the presented work, the data is reduced to 2D coordinates ranging roughly from (0,0) to (40,20), which are the dimensions of a team handball field in meters.

The positional data is generated every 50 ms by the Kinexon system and each component of the coordinates is provided with an accuracy of three digits after the decimal separator. However, the actual spatial accuracy of the Kinexon system is lower and the location of a player might be given with an overall accuracy of about 10 cm. Thus, the data has been reduced to a single digit after the decimal separator.

## 2.1 Basic Definitions

A *team positional state (tpos)* at a certain point in time is an ordered set of up to seven player coordinates, depending on the number of players who are currently allowed on the field (there might be suspended players which reduces the number of players on the field) plus the coordinates of the ball. The *match positional state (mpos)* at a given point in time is the union of the two team positional states (the ball coordinates are contained only once in the *mpos*).

A *team tactical move (ttm)* can then be defined as an ordered set of team positional states of the same team during a certain timeframe contained in a match. Based on observations of real-world data, it has been decided to use 5.5 seconds as the timeframe for a *team tactical move*. Given the Kinexon rate of 20 pairs of coordinates per second, a *team tactical move* is represented by 880 pairs of coordinates in the data.

Finally, we can define an individual positional state as the coordinates of a player or the ball at a specific point in time and a trajectory of a *ttm* as the extract of all individual positional states of a single player or the ball from a *team tactical move* in the temporal order of the contained coordinates.

## 2.2 Challenges of Data Preparation

There are four basic challenges to get comparable data of *team tactical moves* collected from team handball matches:

- To be able to compare the coordinate values of *ttms*, the start and end of a *ttm* needs to be determinable and deterministic.
- There is no fixed schema for the origin of the coordinates of different matches. The origin depends on the location of the table of the

timekeeper of a match. The left lower corner from the timekeeper's perspective has always the coordinates (0,0).

- Team tactics in team handball are mostly restricted to the half of the field with the goal against which an attack happens. However, this part of the field changes with every attack. Thus, there are attacks in which most x-coordinates are significantly below 20m and there are attacks with most x-coordinates significantly above 20m.
- Sides are switched after half time break. This results in a change of attack coordinates from a player's perspective: If the same player has for instance attack coordinates in the range of (0,0) to (4, 5) in one half, a typical left-wing player, the same player has attack coordinates in the range of (36, 15) to (40,20) in the second half.
- The order of the players' coordinates of a team tactical move is arbitrary.

In the following the approaches to overcome these challenges are presented.

## 2.3 Timeframes of Team Tactical Moves

Particularly, the first challenge presented in the previous section, to have well-defined points in time when *team tactical moves* start and end, requires using knowledge beyond the positional data. For that purpose, additional match data is used (Schwenkreis, 2018b).

Since a *ttm* is only of interest in the context of this work if an attempt to score is made, the timeframe of a *ttm* is defined as follows:

- The end of a *team tactical move* is defined as the last *tpos* in which the ball is closest to the attempting player before the recorded timestamp of the attempt.
- The start of a *team tactical move* is 109 *tposs* before the last *tpos*. Thus, a *team tactical move* consists of 110 *tposs*.

## 2.4 Transformation of Coordinates

The second, third and fourth challenges described in section 2.2 denote the problem of "changing" coordinate values. Even if the "tactical" position of a player is the same with respect to his or her team, the values of his/her coordinates can be different. Thus, a concept is needed to avoid the changing origins and changing playing directions.

Again, the additional match data in combination with handball specific knowledge help to transform the data into a canonical format. Team tactics in team handball are used to generate situations in which an attempt has a high scoring probability. If the opponent team is playing with a goalkeeper, then the high scoring probability will only be achieved, if the attempting player is in the same half of the field as the opponent's goal. There are cases in which the attempting player is not in the half of the opponent's goal, but these cases are irrelevant for team tactics because in these cases the opponent's goalkeeper is usually not present (or just about to return to the goal) and thus no explicit tactics are applied.

Based on this observation, we can state that in case of the relevant cases in the context of this work, the attempting player needs to have a x-coordinate between 0 and 20, given that the opponent's goal has a x-coordinate of 20. If the x-coordinate of the attempting player is above 20, then we assume that we need to transform the coordinates of all players and the ball. I.e., we need a point reflection of the coordinates using the centre of the field.

As a result, all coordinates are transformed such that there are only attempts against the goal "of the right side of field" (from the point of view of the timekeeper of a match). Thus, the previously described challenges two to four of section 2.2 are resolved.

## 2.5 Sort Order of Player Coordinates

The concept of representing *ttms* as vectors has been introduced previously (Schwenkreis, 2018a). In this previous work, it has been proposed to use classification based on deep learning. To overcome the problem of "non-deterministic" *ttm* vectors, all permutations of players of the *ttm* representing vector were used to train the deep learning model. Now, if clustering is used rather than classification, it does not make sense to generate all permutations because it would significantly distort the clustering result. It is rather necessary to generate an order of players that is well-defined.

From the point of view of team tactics there is no need for a sort order across teams. It is rather sufficient to have a well-defined sort order for each team. Furthermore, it is irrelevant which sort order is chosen as long as the sorting results in the same sequence of player coordinates for all *ttms* that are to be compared. Furthermore, it is important to ensure that the vector position of a specific player remains the same across all *tposs* of a *ttm*.

To determine the vector position of a player in *tposs*, a heuristic is used that is derived from the handball method to number the players by their assigned offense position on the field: The "left-wing" player is numbered one, the "half-left" player two and so on. Finally, the goalkeeper gets number 7 and the ball number 8.

The offense position of players is defined by the line-up data which is part of the additional match data mentioned in section 2.3. For example, the player who has been assigned to the "left-wing" position in the line-up is assigned the vector position one as his or her "coordinate index" in a *tpos*.

Some special cases need to be considered with this approach: There might be the case when two players with the same "nominal" offense position are on the field, which would result in the same coordinate index and an empty pair of coordinates in the *tpos*. In this case, the y-coordinate in the starting position of the *tpos* is used to determine the coordinate index. There are three groups that are handled separately: The two players with positions on the left side, the three players in the mid and the two players with positions of the right side.

- In case of the offensive team, the player with the highest y-coordinate is treated as the player with the position defined in the line-up record. Then the next empty coordinate slot in the same player group of the *tpos* with a higher index is used for the second highest y-coordinate.
- In case of the defending team, the player with the lowest y-coordinate is treated as the player with the position defined in the line-up record. The next empty coordinate slot in the player group of the *tpos* with a lower index is used for the player with the second lowest y-coordinate.
- Cases with more than two players with the same assigned position in the line-up are not covered at this point.

## 3 TEAM MOVEMENT SIMILARITY

Like classification clustering belongs to the family of segmentation methods. The basic difference between the two approaches is that clustering needs an explicit notion of similarity (or distance), while classification derives this notion implicitly based on the attribute values of records with the same class label. Since the assignment of class labels is very costly in the given application scenario, the use of a non-supervised approach based on clustering is proposed. Thus, a

suitable notion of similarity needs to be selected or defined respectively.

Clustering to find groups of similar tactics means to find groups of similar *ttms*. Hence, we need to define a notion of similarity for *ttms*. However, a *tmm* consists of the discretized trajectories of involved players and the ball. Thus, the similarity of two *ttms* depends on the similarity of the contained individual projections of the *ttms*.

### 3.1 Distance of Trajectories

Since the trajectories described by the individual projections of a *tmm* consist of the spatiotemporal data of the players and thus of an ordered sequence of 2D-coordinates, it makes sense to define the similarity of two trajectories based on a distance criterion. It is easy to calculate the Euclidean Distance of the 110 points that are part of an individual projection of a *tmm*, but there are multiple options for the aggregated distance of the two (Kumar, Chhabra, & Kumar, 2014).

Given the total order of the points of the trajectories based on the timestamps of the coordinates and the fact that all trajectories consist of the same number of points, the Discrete Fréchet Distance  $D$  has been selected as the aggregated distance of two trajectories (Aronov, Har-Peled, Knauer, Wang, & Wenk, 2006). Given two trajectories  $A$  and  $B$  of the same time interval  $T$ ,  $D$  is the maximum Euclidean Distance  $d$  of any two points  $p_A(t)$  and  $p_B(t)$  contained in  $A$  and  $B$  at any given point in time  $t$  of the interval  $T$ .

$$D(A, B) = \max_{t \in T} \{d(p_A(t), p_B(t))\} \quad (1)$$

### 3.2 Distance of Two Sets of Trajectories

To define the distance of two *ttms*, we need to aggregate the distances of the trajectory pairs of each contained player (and the ball). Again, there are multiple options to aggregate these trajectory distances and the process of identifying the optimal aggregation function is still ongoing.

The challenge is to find an aggregation function that matches the human perception of the similarity of *team tactical moves*. There are at least some application specific details which help to narrow down the degree of freedom:

- Goalkeepers are usually not involved in team tactics. In fact, there are only very few tactics that involve more than 4 players.

- Having some close trajectories compensates for far trajectories to some extent.
- The ball can only be part of a team tactical move in case of the offensive team – the defensive team does not have the ball.
- The ball moves much faster than the players which also leads to larger differences of the trajectories. In average, the differences of ball trajectories are three times the differences of the player trajectories. Hence, the trajectory distances of the ball are multiplied with a factor of one third to compensate for the differences in velocity.

Overall, the distance value  $\Delta T$  of two *ttms*,  $A$  and  $B$ , is defined as the mean value of the trajectory distances of the contained players  $A_1$  to  $A_6$  and  $B_1$  to  $B_6$  respectively (see section 2.5). In case of the offensive team, the distance of trajectories of the ball ( $A_8$  and  $B_8$ ) might be added to the calculation of the mean value.

$$\Delta T_{w.Ball} = \frac{1}{7} \left( \sum_{n=1}^6 D(A_n, B_n) + D(A_8, B_8) \right) \quad (2)$$

$$\Delta T = \frac{1}{6} \left( \sum_{n=1}^6 D(A_n, B_n) \right) \quad (3)$$

## 4 CLUSTERING ASPECTS

### 4.1 Constraints

Clustering denotes the search for groups of similar data sets and there are quite several different approaches to it (Xu & Tian, 2015). In the given application context, we have constraints which limit the applicability of some approaches.

The given trajectories might represent a team tactical move, but they also might not contain a move that qualifies as a real tactical move. Some attacks in handball are finished based on *individual decisions* rather than containing the coordinated move of several players. Thus, the *ttms* containing an individual move rather than a tactical move are considered as *noise* in the context of clustering: They should not be assigned to any cluster.

Furthermore, the number of played tactics is unknown and there might be more tactics than represented by the data set we are looking at. I.e., if we need to specify the number of clusters upfront, then we might have not enough clusters compared to the number of tactics contained in our data set. As a

result, some *ttms* might be treated as noise or they will be assigned to clusters which consist of records that are not similar from a handball perspective.

On the other hand, there is the case when we specify too many clusters. In that case we want the clustering approach to allow empty clusters rather than enforcing the assignment of at least one record to each cluster.

## 4.2 Considered Methods

Given the constraints of section 4.1, all clustering methods have been excluded that require to specify the number of clusters upfront unless empty clusters are supported. The following three methods have been evaluated in the described context

### 4.2.1 DBSCAN

A method fulfilling all described constraints is Density-Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise or short DBSCAN (Ester, Kriegel, Sander, & Xu, 1996). The method searches for clusters based on the criterion that there is a certain minimum number of close neighbours of a data point (also denoted as node). Further points are added to the cluster if they are direct close neighbours, or in case they are indirect close neighbours of other neighbouring nodes. If points do not have the minimum number of neighbours, they are treated as noise, i.e., they are assigned to a special noise cluster.

Two parameters of the method influence the result of DBSCAN significantly:

- The distance that is used to identify direct neighbours.
- The minimum number of neighbours that is needed to build a cluster.

Given the two parameters, DBSCAN finds an arbitrary number of clusters of arbitrary shape.

### 4.2.2 Hierarchical Clustering

Both, Divisive Hierarchical Clustering as well as Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering do not require to specify the number of clusters upfront. They both generate a hierarchy with the points of the data set at the leaves based on the application specific distances between the points (Murtagh & Contreras, 2012). Then the tree representing the hierarchy can be interpreted as a set of clusters by evaluating the links of a certain level in the tree.

In the context of this work, the evaluation of the links is done using the inconsistency coefficient as a criterion (Martinez & Martinez, 2005). The

inconsistency coefficient can be calculated for each link in the tree, which are potential clusters. When a link has an inconsistency coefficient that is lower than a specified maximum inconsistency coefficient, it is accepted as a cluster. Child links of the identified link in the hierarchy are not further evaluated.

With this approach there might be clusters consisting of single points of the data set, because the leaf level has an inconsistency coefficient of 0 and thus qualifies in case no parent link has qualified before. These clusters are treated as noise. In the context of this paper only the agglomerative variant of hierarchical clustering is further evaluated.

### 4.2.3 Self-Organizing Maps

Self-Organizing Maps (SOMs) or Kohonen Networks belong to the family of artificial neural networks (van Hulle, 2012). They require the specification of the length and width of a rectangular shaped two-dimensional output area of neurons. The length and width are expressed as the number of neurons of each dimension and the product of the two corresponds to the maximum number of clusters that can be distinguished. SOMs “tolerate” empty clusters in the sense that it does not negatively impact the model when no input record is depicted on a certain output neuron.

SOMs are very flexible in terms of the cluster shapes which can be identified but they do not take into account the notion of an application specific distance. On the other hand, they have several parameters that allow to adjust the SOMs for specific needs as:

- The number of output neurons in each dimension.
- The size of the neighbourhood of a neuron.
- The layer topology function.
- The distance function to calculate the distance between the weights of neurons and input sets.

As in case of hierarchical clustering, SOMs might generate clusters consisting of single records. To be specific, the clustering model depicts just a single record on a certain output neuron when the trained network is applied to the training set. These “single” records are treated as noise.

## 4.3 Cluster Model Quality

### 4.3.1 Basic Criterion

A very important aspect of clustering is the evaluation of the extracted clustering model. Particularly when comparing clustering methods or parameter settings



of clustering methods, a metric is needed that allows to rank the approaches and settings thereof.

There is a multitude of so-called validity indexes for clustering (Saitta, Raphael, & Smith, 2008). In the scope of this work, we selected the silhouette coefficient as the base criterion for the following reasons:

- It is calculated based on the application specific notion of distance.
- The computational complexity is low if distances of the records of the dataset can be pre-calculated – which is possible in our case.
- It takes into account the cluster density as well as the distance to other clusters. The silhouette coefficient ranges between -1 and +1 and values below 0 are indicating a bad cluster association of a record.
- It can be calculated for each point of the data set, for a cluster and for an overall cluster model. The silhouette coefficient of a cluster is the mean value of the silhouette coefficients of the contained records. The silhouette coefficient of a model is the mean value of all records.

Furthermore, the visualization of silhouette coefficients as a silhouette plot provides a simple means for the intuitive evaluation of a clustering model (MathWorks, 2022).

However, there are drawbacks that come with the silhouette coefficient. Since the aggregation of the silhouette values of clusters is done based on calculating the average of the silhouette coefficients of the contained records, the silhouette coefficient is well suited for clusters with a convex shape but has limitations in case of concavely shaped clusters. Furthermore, having a model consisting of a single cluster, results in a silhouette coefficient of 1 which indicates a perfect clustering model.

When data is present that has been identified as noise, the calculation of the silhouette coefficient needs to be adjusted accordingly. Noise should not influence the values of the silhouette coefficients. Thus, special noise clusters and contained data must be excluded before the calculation of the silhouette coefficients.

### 4.3.2 Weighted Silhouette Coefficient

There are multiple extreme cases when varying the parameters of clustering models:

- All records are treated as noise and no cluster is identified. The silhouette coefficient is not defined in this case.

- Only a single cluster with a low number of records is identified, while all other records are treated as noise. Then, the silhouette coefficient reaches its maximum.
- All non-noise records are part of a single cluster. This is like the sphere surrounding all data points. Again, the silhouette coefficient becomes maximal in this case.

Particularly in case of the DBSCAN clustering method, all three cases can be created easily when varying the minimum distance parameter for identifying neighbours. As depicted in Figure 1, there is only noise until a value of approximately 1.3 and no silhouette coefficient value is depicted. Then the first cluster is identified, and the silhouette coefficient becomes 1. With increasing values of the minimum distance, the value of the silhouette coefficient varies until around a minimum distance of 3. Then all records are considered to belong to the same cluster and the silhouette coefficient jumps back to 1.

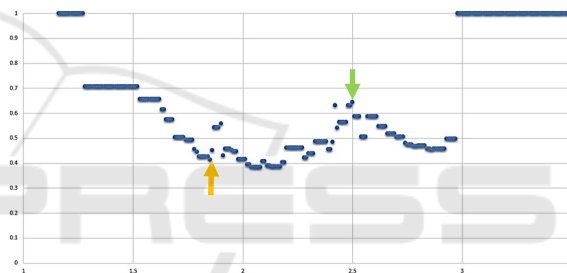


Figure 1: Distribution of DBSCAN silhouette coefficient values over a variation of the minimum distance parameter, defence data.

When looking for the optimal distance to be used with the DBSCAN method, the direct interpretation of the silhouette coefficient does not help. In the case depicted in Figure 1, the local maximum around 2.5 seems to be the optimal point (indicated by the green arrow), but there is no general rule that allows to determine it.

Therefore, knowledge of the application level has been used to find an appropriated indicator. When searching for team tactics in terms of similar *ttms*, we need to compromise between a clustering model with an optimal silhouette coefficient and the number of clusters that are detected. It is known upfront that there must be more than one cluster. In fact, we know for sure that there are more than 10 clusters.

Thus, we use a weighted silhouette coefficient  $w_s$  as the validity index of a clustering model  $M$ . The weighted silhouette coefficient is defined as the product of the silhouette coefficient  $s(M)$  of a

clustering model and the number of identified clusters  $c$  contained in  $M$ :

$$ws(M) = s(M) \times |\{c_i\}|, c_i \in M \quad (4)$$

An alternative weighting with the number of records that are contained in the set of identified clusters has been discarded, because it also becomes maximal when all records are grouped into a single cluster.

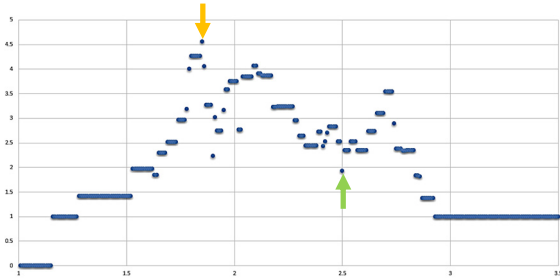


Figure 2: Distribution of the weighted DBSCAN silhouette coefficient values over a variation of the minimum distance parameter, defence data.

Figure 2 shows the distribution of the weighted silhouette coefficient given the same variation of the minimum distance parameter as depicted in Figure 1. The global maximum value of  $ws$  is reached at a minimum distance of 1.85 (indicated by the orange arrow) which is significantly different from the minimum distance of the local maximum of the non-weighted silhouette coefficient value: 2.5 (green arrow in Figure 2). It is surprising that the non-weighted silhouette coefficient has a local minimum at 1.85 (orange arrow in Figure 1) while the weighted silhouette coefficient has a maximum and that the weighted silhouette coefficient has a local minimum at 2.5 while the silhouette coefficient has a maximum. We do not have an explanation for this phenomenon at this point.

### 4.3.3 Advanced Handling of Noise

As mentioned in section 4.2, not all considered clustering techniques have an explicit notion of noise. Even worse, the SOM method cannot even apply the application specific distance function to identify noise. Nevertheless, it must be ensured, that noise does not impact the clustering model, whether the technique that generated the model considers an application specific distance function or not.

It has already been described in section 4.2 that clusters consisting of a single record are treated as noise although they have a silhouette coefficient of 1. Furthermore, the application area is only interested in having records being assigned to a cluster if there is a

minimum certainty that the record belongs to the cluster. As mentioned in the introduction, we are looking for representatives and each record of a cluster should be a valid representative for a whole cluster. Hence, a minimum silhouette coefficient is required for all records. Records with a silhouette coefficient less than the minimum record-level silhouette coefficient are treated as noise as well. The results presented in this paper have been calculated using a record-level minimum silhouette coefficient of 0.1.

In addition to the record-level minimum silhouette coefficient there is also a minimum cluster-level silhouette coefficient which must be greater than the minimum record-level silhouette coefficient to have an effect. If a cluster has a silhouette coefficient less than the minimum cluster-level silhouette value, then all records of the cluster are treated as noise. A cluster-level minimum silhouette coefficient of 0.3 has been used in the context of this paper.

Overall, the following “filtering” steps are applied after the computation of a clustering model to derive the final clustering model and to calculate the overall silhouette coefficient:

- Records not having neighbours in the same cluster are removed (including the clusters).
- Silhouette coefficients are calculated.
- Records with a low silhouette coefficient are removed (see above) and records not having neighbours in the same cluster are removed.
- Silhouette coefficients are recalculated.
- Clusters with a low silhouette coefficient and contained records are removed (see above).
- Silhouette coefficients are recalculated, and the overall  $ws$  of the model is calculated.

## 4.4 Comparing Clustering Methods

Since offense  $ttms$  and defence  $ttms$  differ significantly, it cannot be assumed that the same clustering method is optimal in both cases. Hence, the method selection needs to be done two times, for the offense case and the defence case.

The selection of the clustering technique to generate the model for the representative search has been a two-phased process:

- In phase 1 the optimal parameter setting for each considered method was searched
- In phase 2 the previously found optimal parameter settings were used to select the optimal clustering technique.

In both phases the weighted silhouette coefficient is used as the decisive factor.

### 4.4.1 Investigated Parameter Settings

#### DBSCAN Parameters

In case of the DBSCAN method there are two major parameters: The minimum distance of neighbour points and the minimum number of points required to build a cluster. The latter parameter was set to two because it was assumed that some *tms* were only contained two times in the data given the available amount of data (see introduction). Hence, only variations of the minimum distance had to be evaluated.

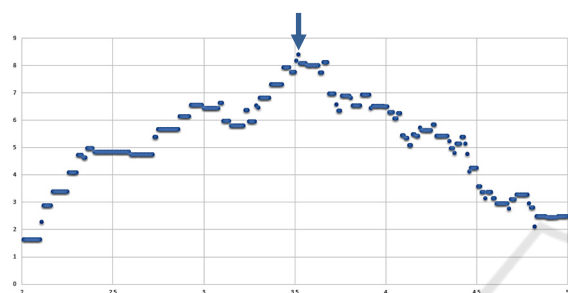


Figure 3: DBSCAN: weighted silhouette coefficient, offense data.

To get an idea of the needed variations, the minimum, and the maximum distances of all available *tms* have been calculated. It turned out that the defence *tms* have a closer distance than the offense *tms* and that we reach the maximum weighted silhouette coefficient relatively early. In the end it was sufficient to cover the range of [1,3.5] in case of the defence *tms* and the range of [2,5] in case of the offense *tms*. The resulting weighted silhouette coefficient in the defence case has been depicted in Figure 2. Figure 3 shows the corresponding values of the offense case.

#### Hierarchical Clustering Parameters

The agglomerative hierarchical clustering itself does not have any parameters and generates a complete tree which is based on the application specific distance function. The complete link criterion has been used to generate the trees described in this paper. On the other hand, the interpretation of the tree as a clustering model is somewhat arbitrary. The approach described in this paper uses the MATLAB™ inconsistency coefficient to determine the links in the tree that are considered to be clusters of the clustering model (Martinez & Martinez, 2005).

The inconsistency coefficient is a means for the dissimilarity of the records belonging to a link. The lower the value, the more similar are the records that

are connected to the link. From that perspective, the inconsistency coefficient is similar to the minimum distance parameter of the DBSCAN method.

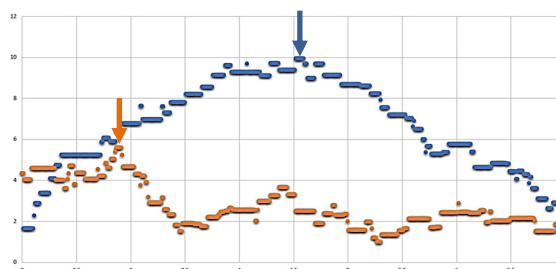


Figure 4: Hierarchical Clustering: weighted silhouette coefficients for offense (blue) and defence (orange) data.

There is no general rule regarding the range of the inconsistency coefficient. It needs to be determined for each case. Figure 4 depicts the variations of the inconsistency coefficient in the interval [2,7]. The orange curve depicts the variations in case of defence *tms*, while the blue curve covers the offense *tms*. The arrows in the corresponding colour indicate the maximum weighted silhouette coefficients for both cases.

#### SOM

As introduced in section 4.2.3 there are several parameters that can be set for self-organizing maps. So far, a systematic evaluation of all parameter settings is not available. Particularly, we cannot tell at this point how the amount of available data will impact the parameter settings that have been evaluated so far. However, several settings have been tested and for the results presented in this paper the following settings are used:

- A rectangular shaped two-dimensional net of 10 x 15 neurons.
- 100 initial coverings steps.
- The grid topology function.
- The Euclidean distance function to calculate the distance between records and the weights of the neurons.
- 300 epochs to train the network.

The automated tests are done based on variations of the number of neighbouring neurons contained in the initial neighbourhood. Figure 5 shows the weighted silhouette coefficients of varying the initial neighbourhood size between 3 and 30. Manual tests beyond that range showed lower values of the weighted silhouette coefficient. It is visible that there is no “obvious” connection between the initial neighbourhood size and the quality of the resulting



model. The points in the diagram seem to change their value arbitrarily and further experiments are needed to evaluate the connections between the parameter settings and the quality of the resulting model. The maxima are again indicated by the two arrows in blue and orange respectively.

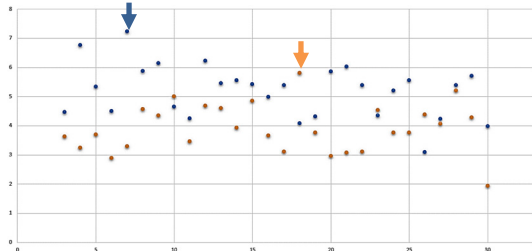


Figure 5: SOM: weighted silhouette coefficients for offense (blue) and defence (orange) data.

#### 4.4.2 Identifying the Clustering Method

After selecting the optimal parameter settings, the silhouette coefficients of the clustering models have been compared. Table 1 gives an overview of the values in case of the offense and the defence *ttms* respectively.

Table 1: Comparison of model quality.

Method	s	$ \{c\} $	ws
<b>Offense</b>			
DBSCAN	0.467	18	8.407
Hierarchical	0.497	20	9.943
SOM	0.452	16	7.235
<b>Defence</b>			
DBSCAN	0.414	11	4.555
Hierarchical	0.431	13	5.599
SOM	0.415	14	5.812

The overall quality values of the cluster models in the offense case are significantly greater than the values of the defence case. Furthermore, the differences of the quality indicators are significantly larger in the offense case compared to the defence case.

The best weighted silhouette coefficient in case of offense *ttms* is achieved by Hierarchical Clustering followed by the DBSCAN method and the Self-Organizing Maps. In case of the defence data the SOM has the highest weighted silhouette coefficient followed by the Hierarchical Clustering and the DBSCAN approach.

In both cases the Hierarchical Clustering has the highest non-weighted silhouette coefficient, given the optimal parameter settings with respect to the

weighted silhouette coefficient, even though the weighted silhouette coefficient of the SOM approach is higher in the defence case. None of the approaches fails completely to find an appropriate clustering model.

In conclusion, Hierarchical Clustering has been selected to identify representatives for offense *ttms*, while the SOM network is used to cluster defence *ttms*.

## 5 RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

### 5.1 Result Summary

20 clusters spanning 47 records have been identified using Hierarchical Clustering and a maximum inconsistency coefficient of 4.52 in the offense case. From an application perspective it was possible to identify 11 different team tactical moves that were represented by the 20 clusters.

14 clusters representing 35 records have been identified using self-organizing maps and an initial neighbourhood size of 18 in the defence case. The clusters were associated with 12 different team tactical moves by experts.

The differences between clusters that have been associated with the same team tactical move but belong to different clusters are still under investigation. There seem to be only subtle differences that are not easy to explain for human experts at this point. Video clips based on the trajectories of the team tactical moves have been generated as a basis for the human classification of representatives.

### 5.2 Conclusions and Outlook

It has been successfully shown that using the silhouette coefficient as a concept to determine the quality of cluster models even in case of clustering methods that use a different notion of distance is applicable and allows to compare the clustering model. Although the silhouette coefficient is difficult to be used directly, the weighted variant of the coefficient can be applied easily.

The results presented in this paper must be seen as a proof of concept rather than a complete study. The used data are rather small in terms of the number of extracted *ttms*. Extracting the *ttms* and subsequently processing them using the clustering methods have shown that the timing accuracy during recording is crucial. As a side effect the extraction of *ttms* can be used to get an indication of the quality of the recorder.

The number of identified team tactical moves seems to be small but given the small amount of data it is surprisingly large. From an application perspective it is far beyond human capabilities to identify more than 20 different team tactical moves by the observation of just 5 matches. Furthermore, handball experts were particularly surprised by the identified defence tactical moves that the clustering approach was able to differentiate.

There is still a significant number of parameter settings that need to be evaluated systematically – especially in case of the SOMs. Investigating the SOM settings is particularly time consuming because the computation of a SOM model takes about a hundred times longer than the computation done with other techniques that exploit pre-computed distances.

However, we are very confident that the approach allows to avoid the need for the manual classification of thousands of *ttms* to be able to train a deep learning network. There will be data of much more matches available soon when the handball league decides to share positional data across teams which will allow to generate a more comprehensive view of played handball tactics.

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