Understanding Player Experience Through the Use of Similarity Matrix

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ABSTRACT
Analytical accounts chronicling engagement with digital games can always benefit from empirical data outlining the patterns of behavior produced by different players as they engage with the same game, or similar sequence within a game. This paper presents an extension to the novel method previously introduced in Marczak et al. (2013; 2015) and Schott et al. (2014), termed feedback-based game metrics, which exploits the audio and visual output of an activated game to produce accounts of player performance. This paper offers an account of an affiliated method, based on similarity matrix, which is derived from the same measurement process and that has yet been applied to the interests of game studies (over design oriented research) to determine the similarity or diversity within encounters with particular games. This paper introduces the method and illustrates its potential applications in the analysis of performance.

Keywords
Similarity Matrix, Sound Processing, Player Experience, Gameplay Performance Segmentation.

INTRODUCTION
Trying to understand the specific experience that represents playing a videogame has been a core area of research in game studies for more than a decade now. This is notably challenging because a videogame is “both an object and process that must be played, [and] playing is integral, not coincidental” (Aarseth, 2001). Thus, to understand a player's experience, it is necessary to be able to assess the way a player goes about fulfilling the need of the system to be activated in play. Numerous approaches have been designed that not only account for the manner in which players actually engage with a game system, but also for the rationale behind their actions and interactions. A large range of works variously address how players engage in games. These works include more theoretically-oriented approaches, such as Gordon Calleja’s (2011) work on player involvement which speculates as to what constitutes the main factors explaining why players continue to
engage with game systems. The literature also includes more methodologically-oriented approaches, such as studies that accurately trace and log the different interactions between the player and a game system (Drachen, Thurau, Togelius, Yannakakis, & Bauckhage, 2013; Kim et al., 2008). Some approaches blend theory and method, such as the analysis of how flow theory (Csikszentmihaly, 1990) might be translated to game systems (Nacke & Lindley, 2008).

When hours of play experience need to be understood, summarized and/or visualized, several approaches have been suggested to automatically process and analyze a play session. This is for instance the case of gameplay metrics (Drachen, Seif El-Nasr, & Canossa, 2013), which are time-stamped quantitative data about player interaction automatically logged by the game system while activated; player modelling (Yannakakis, Spronck, Loiacono, & André, 2013) which focusses on understanding players in order to create a computer and mathematical model that can be used within the game system to improve the experience of play; or biometric storyboard (Mirza-Babaei, Nacke, Gregory, Collins, & Fitzpatrick, 2013), which displays biometric signals along with other core measures in order to propose an exhaustive representation of a play session.

The notion of experience can be expended to other measures and perspectives. In this paper, we suggest the use of similarity matrix for automatically summarizing and visualizing a play performance through the detection of segment of plays that carry strong similarities. More precisely, this paper seeks to demonstrate how the production of a similarity matrix, based on a sound analysis of audio outputs from game play can be used in order to perform a segmentation of a gameplay performance to express the manner players engage with selected games. We use the term performance (see Laurel, 1993), in order to insist on the fact that we focus on gameplay as relative to specific activations of the play — meaning that various player performances with the specific game are segmented – rather than the game as an absolute entity. By doing so, this paper focuses on one of the key themes of DiGRA 2015, the diversity of play, as this particular method of gameplay performance segmentation seeks to emphasize the extent to which individual player experiences with linear structures conform or diverge. It is important to specify that gameplay performance segmentation does not override the gameplay segmentation notion as previously defined by Zagal et al. (2008), which represents “the manner in which a game is broken down into smaller elements of gameplay” (Zagal et al., 2008, p. 178). Gameplay performance segmentation must be seen as a continuation of gameplay performance: after identifying gameplay elements using gameplay segmentation, it becomes then possible to focus on the evolution of each determined segment using a gameplay performance segmentation approach.

A similarity matrix represents a meaningful approach to segmentation for both the assessment and representation of the similarities between different documents or similarities within the same document (termed auto-similarity matrix). A similarity matrix can be employed for a large variety of modalities, such as textual documents (Choi, 2000), visual documents (Cooper & Foote, 2001) and musical documents (Hanna, Robine, & Ferraro, 2008). However, while similarity matrices have been successfully applied within computer science, they have yet to be employed within game studies to aid understanding and assessment of player experience. Having made this point, an approach that seeks to assess player experience through the automatic analysis of audio-visual streams has recently emerged in the form of feedback-based gameplay metrics (Marczak et al., 2013; Schott et al., 2014; Marczak & Schott, 2015). This method exploits the audio and video feedback streams produced by a game once it has been activated and recorded,
to process it as data in order to describe the manner in which a player engages with a specific game system. As similarity matrices can be produced based on sound or video data, this paper outlines an exploration into the potential of this form of analysis as a component of feedback-based gameplay metrics. The main contribution of feedback-based gameplay metrics is that they can be captured from any game, whether the source code is available or not, thus offering access to a wider range of games. Moreover, feedback-based gameplay metrics represent a post-processing method, allowing an analyst to explore the data however they wish and as many times as they wish. Currently, however, feedback-based gameplay metrics require a pre-analysis stage, in order to elicit the significant elements of the game to be processed by the method. What similarity matrices offer this mode of game metrics gathering is a means of exploiting the sound stream produced by the game play performance without the need for any pre-processing.

In this paper, three different usages of similarity matrix are illustrated, using three different games in order to also demonstrate the broad nature of this approach. The first one is dedicated to a comparison of two different gameplay performances produced by separate individuals playing the same game. The second example illustrates the detection of repetitions from within the same performance (that is, which sections of the game are replayed and experienced more than once by the same player). The last example, illustrates how it is possible to compare a performance by exploiting the game soundtrack to study player progression. Before illustrating the creation and analysis of similarity matrices applied to understanding gameplay, it is important to outline what a similarity matrix entails.

**SIMILARITY MATRIX**

A similarity matrix is a mathematical entity consisting of a rectangular array in which each entry describes the degree of similarity between the element represented by the current row, and the one represented by the current column. In the case of media documents, similarities are computed for each sub-units of a document, with every sub-unit of another document. For a textual document for example, a sub-unit can be a word or sentence; for video document, a sub-unit can be a frame; and for an audio document, a sub-unit can be a sound sample. In a similarity matrix, the columns represent the ordered sequence of consecutive sub-units from one document, and the rows represent the ordered sequence of consecutive sub-units from a second document (or the same one in the case of auto-similarity matrix). Each entry of the matrix at the intersection of a row and a column contains the similarity score between the two sub-units represented by the matching row and column.

Each similarity estimation is generally a score comprise between 0 (no similarity) and 1 (identical). Once the matrix has been completely filled, all sub-units of a document have been compared with all the sub-units of the second one; and a score has been given for each comparison. That means that a similarity matrix represents an exhaustive comparison process between two documents (or inside the same one in the case of auto-similarity). It becomes then possible to look for the highest scores in the matrix in order to extract similar sections of documents. A similarity matrix may therefore be used to determine the degree of linearity and freedom designed into a game, the agency of the player to determine how they progress and whether this yields a quite different experience from within the range of experiences available by the game, the nature or style of play employed by players (e.g. explorative or instrumental and goal driven), or the degree of repetition contained within a game experience.
One of the strengths of similarity matrices is their ability to be easily displayed as an image, visualizing the data so that similar sections of documents can be quickly and easily identified. Indeed, a low similarity score can be represented by a white dot, and a high similarity score can be represented by a black dot. Then, similar sub-units of documents can be immediately spotted. Moreover, because the rows and columns represent ordered consecutive sub-units of documents (that is, words in the order in which they appear in a textual document; frames from the beginning to the end of a video document; or samples from the beginning to the end of an audio document), it is also easy to detect, not just similarities between sub-units, but similarities between consecutive sub-units (such as a full sentence or paragraph, or a long sequence inside an audio-visual document). For that, it is only required to identify black diagonals inside the similarity matrix image representation. Indeed, a black diagonal means that a sequence of consecutive sub-units is fully identical with another sequence. In the following sections, we will focus on the diagonals to interpret the different similarity matrices that have been produced using gameplay audio.

Figure 1 illustrates what a similarity matrix is, and what a similarity matrix image looks like. In this figure, Document A has been cut into 20 sub-units and Document B into 15 sub-units. The second sub-unit of Document B is similar to an 8th of Document A for instance, or a 17th of Document A is similar to the 6th one of Document B. More than that, it is possible to highlight similar sequences by looking for diagonals. For example, sub-units 3 to 4 in Document A are similar to sub-units 11 to 14 in Document B. If the two documents of Figure 1 are sounds for instance, with each sub-unit being one second of sound, it would be possible to say that the sequence from 8 seconds to 10 seconds in Document A sounds the same as the one from 2 seconds to 4 seconds in Document B (upper diagonal); the sequence from 17 seconds to 18 seconds in Document A sounds the same as the one from 6 seconds to 7 seconds in Document B (middle diagonal); and that the sequence from 3 seconds to 6 seconds in Document A sounds the same as the sequence from 11 seconds to 14 seconds in Document B (lower diagonal).
Figure 1: Schematized version of a similarity matrix, illustrating the similarities between two documents.
In this paper, and in the following sections, we produced a similarity matrix by using the audio streams generated by games from players’ interaction with the game system. To achieve that, we recorded the gameplay footage using a screen-capture software system FRAPS (Beepa, 2013), then we discarded the video stream in order to obtain an audio file. The audio stream is then cut in small sub-units of several milliseconds, and the unit is translated into a chroma representation (Serra, Gomez, Herrera, & Serra, 2008). A chroma, or Harmonic Pitch Class Profile (HPCP) is the frequency distribution of a portion of music in term of the 12 usual semitones of the equal tempered scale. By using the chroma representation instead of the raw sound stream, we insure that small noises will not have a strong influence on the similarity result. Then, each computed chroma of one sound is compared with the computed chromas from a second stream (in terms of distance, the shorter the distance, the greater the similarity), generating the similarity matrix. Finally, in order to generate the similarity matrix image, a threshold value is selected under which a dot would be white (dissimilar), and over which a dot would be black (similar). The three examples of similarity matrices presented below are all based on this approach using sound streams and chromas representations.

GAMEPLAY PERFORMANCES: SIMILARITY
The first similarity matrix introduced in this paper has been produced using two performances derived from the game Max Payne 3 (Rockstar Studios, 2012), by two different players. In the third-person shooter game Max Payne 3, the player controls Max, a security guard, in charge of the security of a wealthy and famous family. The narrative has a strong role during the gameplay, through two main mechanisms: Max Payne thinking aloud to inform the player about what is happening and what Max recalls in conjunction with the current action; and cut-scene explaining further to the player the context in which he/she interacts. These cut-scenes, sometime included suddenly between player’s actions (i.e., not uniquely between two levels), can be long, and are recognizable through their specific sonic atmosphere. Moreover, the cut-scenes order of appearance is linear, as they always appear in the same order regardless of the player activations. Then, identifying the cut-scene is a way of identifying a player progression.

Figure 2 shows a similarity matrix produce using two soundtracks (truncated after 80 minutes for readability purposes) recorded during game sessions with two different participants. Each dotted square represents 5 minutes of play. As explained in the previous section, the pattern to look for is the diagonals, as they represent contiguous sequences of similarity. Figure 3 is an annotated version of Figure 2, highlighting the interesting patterns on which it is possible to discuss.

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Figure 2: Similarity matrix using two performances with the game *Max Payne 3*
In Figure 3, (1) represents the introduction cut-scene, lasting for around 5 minutes and unskippable, that crossfades directly into the main menu (the cut-scene continues in background, looping on Max drinking and smoking, sat at a table). (2) represents the first game chapter introduction cut-scene which is played once the player exit the main menu. It is interesting to focus on the break in the line between (1) and (2), because it indicates different player engagements with the game. Indeed, this break indicates that Participant 1 spends around one minute more in the main menu, while Participant 2 obviously goes directly into the game action. For Participant 1, it is important to customize the game to his/her wishes before starting the actual game (probably in order to match preferred control), while Participant 2 does not want to lose any time configuring the gameplay to come. (3) represents the cut-scene between chapter 1 and chapter 2, that Participant 1 achieves after twenty minutes of play, and Participant 2 after twenty-two minutes. This very close duration indicates that both participants have the same level of skill on this level, or that the level is designed for not offering large latitude to the players. As the first level of *Max Payne 3* it is actually a tutorial, therefore is is reasonable to expect players to take a similar time to complete it. There is likely to be a desire, on the developer’s part to
keep this level, interesting, diverse and not too challenging. The square on the (3) line represents a moment in the cut-scene when the music is looped, making all the units in the area similar. (4) highlights the hardest sequence of chapter 2, and both participants 1 and 2 obviously die a lot during this sequence. As the game soundtrack loops when a player dies (the music starts again from the beginning, and Max is speaking again to himself in order to recall his current state to the player), the more the diagonals are present inside the similarity matrix, the more the players had to redo the sequences. Finally, (5) and (6) represent the cut-scene between chapter 2 and 3, which becomes semi-interactive half-way. The player can die during the semi-interactive sequence (they can just move, but not shoot). Participant 2 obviously does not die, as (5) and (6) are vertically continuous, but Participant 1 dies once, explaining the horizontal break between (5) and (6). (6) ends when the player gets back the full interactivity, and participants 1 and 2 are playing differently from this point onwards, and this, therefore, ends the diagonal.

Thanks to such similarity matrices comparing different player engagements with the same game sequence, it is possible to appreciate the distinct strategies of players (like diagonals (1) and (2) in Figure 3 showing a difference between players who need a customization stage, and players who want to go straight into the action), whilst also demonstrate that difficulty and challenge levels will produce a less fluid experience causing some players to engage more in some environments more than others that may have impact on motivation, enjoyment and length of game play session (when self-determined outside of research contexts).

GAMEPLAY REPETITION AND AUTO-SIMILARITY

Similarity matrices can also be employed in order to detect repetitions from within a performance. In this case, the similarity matrix is termed auto-similarity matrix. In this paper, we propose to use a performance from the game Battlefield 3 (EA Digital Illusions CE, 2011) in order to demonstrate the usefulness of auto-similarity matrix applied for the study of gameplay performance. The first-person shooter game Battlefield 3 uses less musical induced atmosphere than Max Payne 3. However, the death sequences and the loading screen following death are recognizable by their highly specific sound background. When comparing a performance with itself, the repetitive moments in a performance with the game Battlefield 3 are highlighted, and likely to represent dead sequences for this specific game.

Figure 4 shows the auto-similarity matrix generated using a 45-minute session with the game Battlefield 3. In auto-similarity matrices, the main diagonal needs to be discarded, as it represents a sub-unit compared with itself. Moreover, auto-similarity matrices are symmetrical using this main diagonal. In Figure 4 several short diagonals can be distinguish, aligned on the same row or column. This means that all these diagonals represent exactly the same sound. Figure 5 is a zoomed version of the bottom right corner of Figure 4, in order to have a better view on these diagonals.
Figure 4: Auto-similarity matrix using the game *Battlefield 3*. 
Figure 5 actually represents one of the hardest sequences in the game *Battlefield 3*, where the player is asked to protect a bridge from numerous enemies. During this sequence, six deaths can be distinguished at time 1890, 2134, 2233, 2390, 2443 and 2521 seconds, by counting them vertically or horizontally as showed by the blue lines. But actually, such a matrix representation can highlight more than death screens with *Battlefield 3*. Figure 6 illustrates that a diagonal actually accounts for more than the actual death screen. When dying, a full sequence is repeated: the death screen, the loading screen (with a specific background music) and, importantly, the beginning of the bridge sequence, initiated by the same incoming radio message sent by a member of the team.

![Figure 5: Zoom of the bottom right corner of Figure 4](image)

Knowing that, the top diagonal in Figure 5 (pointed by a blue arrow), which is shorter and matches the end of all the death diagonals in this section, actually represents the first instance of the radio message, without any prior death. It is then possible to locate the first time the player entered the difficult section, around 1863 seconds. Thanks to the auto-similarity matrix, it is possible to not only quickly identify hard sequences when the player is forced to play again after dying, but it is also possible to detect the exact entry point of the difficult section of the game.
Figure 6: The three sequences constituting a death diagonal in the self-similarity matrix
SOUNDTRACK SIMILARITY

The last use of similarity matrix is about comparing a performance of the game *Super Hexagon* (Terry Cavanagh, 2012) with the original soundtrack of the game. Indeed, in the challenging game *Super Hexagon*, which main goal consists in surviving the longest possible, a progressively lively music score accompanies the game play adding to intensity. Each time the player loose, the music suddenly stop, and is started again at a random position (can be from the beginning, or anywhere in the middle of the song) when the player presses start again. By comparing the audio of a performance with the original soundtrack, it is possible to have an idea of the skill level of the player. It is important to note, however, that due to the repetitive nature of the music, some square noises appears on the matrix, and can harden the detection of the diagonals. But it is still pretty easy to have a sense of the player’s skill level.

Figure 7 for instance illustrates a very skilled player, which succeed in surviving during long periods of times without losing. The matrix in Figure 7 is actually a 4-minute performance, and the player played the level 3 times, meaning that each performance lasted roughly one minute.

![Participant 4 – Super Hexagon](image)

**Figure 7:** Skilled player interacting with *Super Hexagon*
Figure 8, on the other hand, shows a 3-minute performance by a beginner. During this performance, not less than 9 diagonals can be distinguished, indicating that the player never actually survived more than 30 seconds.

Thanks to this similarity matrix representation, it is possible, at a glance, to have a clear idea of the skill level of a player, by studying the number of deaths and the repetition of sequences.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present paper showed that similarity matrices, commonly used in computer science for segmenting audio-visual material, can actually also be applied within game studies for the analysis of gameplay performances, and the understanding of player experience. Similarity matrices offer both a means of analysis, and a means of visualization, in order to ease the work of game studies researchers interested in exploring particular dimension of player experience with particular games. This paper has promoted and illustrated the value use of similarity matrices for the analysis of games, based on recorded audio footage, through three different applications: comparison of performances, intra-performance repetitions detection and player progression assessment by using the audio footage and the game original soundtrack.

Moreover, the outcomes derived from similarity matrices analysis can be applied beyond a mono-modal consideration of performances (i.e., where only similarity matrices are considered on their own or in isolation to describe player experience), and used in
conjunction with other modalities that provide measures of player experience. The modalities of interest include, but are not limited to, biometry and keystroke. For instance, it would be valuable to study the player’s controller inputs while redoing similar sequences, in order to assess if the player is reacting similarly or using different strategy (approach similar to the one published in a previous DiGRA conference (Schott, Marczak, Máyrá, & Vught, 2013)). It would also be interesting to map the detected similarity outcomes with biometric research (Mirza-Babaei et al., 2013; Schott et al., 2014) in order to assess if similar sequences produce similar bodily responses.

However, this paper is only an introduction of what similarity matrices can bring to the understanding of player experience. Indeed, numerous improvements can be made in the future. For instance, the video stream similarity can also be assessed in conjunction with the sound stream, thus reducing the amount of noises inside the matrices when the sound is looped. Moreover, it would be highly valuable to be able to automatically detect the diagonals through the use of image processing algorithms based on the similarity matrix image once produce. For instance, an algorithm that can automatically count the number of distinct diagonals would also automatically classify beginner from skilled players in the Super Hexagon example presented above.

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