TIME BALANCING OF COMPUTER GAMES USING
ADAPTIVE TIME-VARIANT MINIGAMES

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By

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ABSTRACT

Game designers spend a great deal of time developing balanced game experiences. However, differences in player ability, hardware capacity (e.g. network connections) or real-world elements (as in mixed-reality games), make it difficult to balance games for different players in different conditions. In this research, adaptive time-variant minigames have been introduced as a method of addressing the challenges in time balancing as a part of balancing players of games. These minigames were parameterized to allow both a guaranteed minimum play time (the minimum time to complete a minigame to address the fixed temporal constraints) and dynamic adaptability (the ability of adapting the game during the game play to address temporal variations caused by individual differences).

Three time adaptation algorithms have been introduced in this research and the interaction between adaptive algorithm, game mechanic, and game difficulty were analyzed in controlled experiments. The studies showed that there are significant effects and interactions for all three factors, confirming the initial hypothesis that these processes were important and linked to each other. Furthermore, the studies revealed that finer temporal granularity leads to less-perceptible adaptation and smaller deviations in game completion times. The results also provided evidence that adaptation mechanisms allow accurate prediction of play time. The designed minigames were valuable in helping to balance temporal asymmetries in a real mixed-reality game. It was also found that these adaptation algorithms did not interrupt the overall play experience.
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I would also like to thank my family for the support through my entire life and in particular my wife, Sahar, without whose love I would not have finished this thesis.
Dedication

Dedicated to my lovely wife, Sahar.
Amin
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Video games became popular in the 1970s, when home computer games and different gaming consoles were introduced to the public. Many games are very successful – e.g., *World of Warcraft*\(^1\) has sold over 10 billion US dollars since 2004\(^2\).

Video games attract players with many different skill levels - from casual gamers to tournament champions - and *game balance* has received considerable attention as a way to make games challenging regardless of skill (e.g., [1, 2]). There are two main types of game balancing that are relevant to this work, *outcome balancing* and *player balancing*. Outcome balancing is concerned with ensuring that players of equal skill have an equal opportunity to win the game, regardless of their starting orientation or the setup of the game.

Truly balanced multi-player games are rare. From outcome balancing perspective, chess is a well-known example of a (nearly) balanced game, because both players start the game with identical resources, and also start with similar positions. Interestingly, there is one aspect of the game that is unbalanced: there is an unavoidable asymmetry of the game mechanic where one player has to play first.

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\(^1\) The alternative video game blog. Available: www.digitalbattle.com (Accessed 7 April 2013)

Several aspects of games have been investigated as potential means for accomplishing outcome balance, such as the available strategies for different character types in *NeverWinter Nights* 2\(^1\). *NeverWinter Nights* is a Massive Multi-player Online Role Playing Game (MMORPG) in which players create customized characters to represent themselves and have the opportunity create a group with their characters to finish a set of missions. There are several different strategies in the game that players can perform given their avatars. Each strategy is unique in terms of visual effects and the way it should be performed, but the consequences of these strategies are all reasonably balanced to prevent a player receiving a huge advantage based on avatar choice. The allocation of initial resources in *Age of Empires* 3\(^2\), and level of powers and damage in *Mortal Kombat*\(^3\), are other examples of different methods of outcome balancing. In *Age of Empires*, a player selects a specific tribe/race prior to the start of the game and receives a section of the game map, which offers a limited set of resources. Game designers can use these differences and resources for balancing purposes. In *Mortal Kombat*, players select their character before the game starts. Regardless of the character’s personality and features, game elements such as the level of power when hitting opponents and the amount of damage received from others are reasonably balanced.

Although outcome balance is an important aspect of game design, it can also lead to problems in situations where players do not have equal skill levels. The “equality” in

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outcome balancing refers to equality (or near-quality) of game resources and game opportunities for players with same the skill level. However, one of the factors that make multi-player games complex is the unavoidable difference in individual experience and skill. In such games, the other type of balancing method – player balancing – can be used to compensate for these differences and make it possible for any player to win. When players with different skills try to play a multi-player game, the experience can be problematic because players with more experience and expertise win proportionally more often, potentially making those with less experience unhappy. This situation may not be desirable for expert players either, because they can win games too easily.

In general, the goal of player balancing is that games should be balanced not only in terms of fairness, in that players with greater skill should usually prevail, but also in terms of competitive flow, in that the game should provide an engaging and competitive experience for players even if they have different skill levels. This is player balancing, which is the main focus of this research. Player balancing makes sure that the game remains competitive even if two players have different skill levels.

Some games have implemented mechanisms for player balancing. For example, real-world games such as golf or racing use handicaps or head starts to balance different skill levels. In the video game MarioKart¹, power-ups are allocated unequally to players based on their standing in the race: players at the back of the pack will receive more (and better) power-ups that help them to stay competitive.

In this thesis, I explore a mechanism that provides opportunities for player balancing – time. The focus is on the manipulation of time – that is, the amount of time

needed for players to complete activities in the game, such as obtaining resources, building units, moving to different locations or defeating an enemy – as a mechanism for player balancing in multi-player games.

There are relatively few mechanisms for balancing players that are non-obvious and that do not interfere with the gameplay experience. For example, in NeverWinter Nights, some of the items are unavailable in some situations for expert players to make the game harder. Variable loading time of the weapons is another example of player balancing in NeverWinter Nights. As the player progresses in the game, the level of the player’s character is increased, resulting in more powerful weapons with shorter loading time. During the game play, the loading time varies based on the player’s performance, and in some situations, the same weapon is loaded faster for a novice player than an expert. Although this approach adjusts the balance of the game, it may not satisfy expert players because the manipulation is obvious.

Another example is Diablo\textsuperscript{3} in which strength and the number of enemies surrounding the player varies based on the skill of the player: for an experienced player with good performance in the game, more enemies that are stronger will appear; conversely, for novice players, fewer weak enemies surround the player for fights.

Time-based activities can be seen in many games: in race-based games such as Mario Kart, in games requiring synchronized motion between heterogeneous agents [3], in games employing rates of production such as StarCraft 2\textsuperscript{2}, and in games with ‘cool-


down’ mechanics such as *World of Warcraft*¹. In this thesis, I introduce a novel game balancing method that uses *minigames* as adaptable units that can manipulate the timing of larger tasks and actions in games and deliver a balanced solution for certain design goals.

I focus on time as a balancing element because for game mechanics with a significant temporal component, the time taken for different activities is an obvious way that more-skilled players differentiate themselves from less-skilled players. For example, in *Age of Empires*, a professional player is able to quickly create an empire and start fighting with other nations, while a similar process takes much more time for a novice player. As a result, the less-skilled player will be beaten before getting a chance to build sufficient forces.

Some issues of time balancing can be dealt with in game design (e.g., ensuring that faster units are less powerful), but two particular situations cannot be completely solved in design, leading to temporal asymmetries that must be addressed during play. First, individual differences in experience or skill mean that two players will take different amounts of time to complete particular tasks; this situation affects a wide variety of multi-player games. Second, some games – e.g., *mixed-reality games* [3] and *pervasive games* [4] – involve aspects of the real world that impose fixed temporal constraints. For example, the amount of time it takes for a player to run from one game area to another is determined by the size of the real-world game space, and cannot be changed in the design of the game; once the game rules are set and players take roles, it is not possible to dynamically change those rules determined by players in the middle of the game to

address the unforeseen temporal inequalities that are raised during the gameplay. If the
game space is fixed, the only way to balance the timing of tasks is to make the players
faster, which is not usually possible.

The time-based mechanisms and actions in the main game can be manipulated to
balance players of different skill levels; however, directly manipulating the time or
timing parameters of main game activities can be disruptive for players, and complex
mechanics could be rendered unstable by the feedback loop created by the adaptation
algorithm.

An alternative approach is to manipulate time through activities that are outside
the main game – such as through minigames that appear at various points within the
game, but whose (usually simple) mechanics are different from the main game activities.
Minigames are simple activities contained within a larger game, and are common in
commercial titles (e.g., Mario Party, Sid Meier’s Pirates!, and Assassin’s Creed 2).
Minigames can help designers balance temporal aspects because they can add time to a
player’s main game task or reduce the time of the specific task in a mission. Figure 1
shows some of the four-player minigames in Mario Party. In this game the configuration
of each minigames depends on the overall progress of players, in which weaker players
receive small advantage in the minigames to get a chance to catch up with stronger
players and vice versa. In general, the balancing process is performed during the
minigames without changing the configuration of the main game. However, the
configuration of each minigames is set at the initiation time and remain constant during
the game play.
In this research, a novel way of carrying out time balancing through the use of adaptive time-variant minigames (ATMs) will be introduced. ATMs are simple minigames contained within a larger game that balance temporal flow by adding varying amounts of time to a player’s main-game task or mission. For example, a player might have to complete a lock-picking minigame to break into a building – and the amount of time taken can be controlled by appropriate parameterization of the lock-picking activities.

ATMs provide designers with considerable flexibility: in an ATM, the minigame is parameterized over a range of completion times, based on the game state and player skill. Minigames can be started as a part of traditional game mechanics, such as when a character casts a spell in World of Warcraft or when a production order is issued in StarCraft 2. The minigame would then spawn as part of the main-game mechanics. In order for the primary task to be completed, the minigame must be completed successfully.

The ATM approach has several strengths: it decouples the balancing activity from the primary game play; it allows the creation of specific minigame-based interactions to mask the temporal adaptation; and it provides the designer with two primary mechanisms to alter balance: the initial difficulty level (often based on the state of the main game), and dynamic elements of the minigame adjusted during gameplay (often based on player performance in the minigame).
To test the efficiency of ATMs as tools for balancing game time, four different minigames were developed with three different balancing algorithms (Discrete balancing, Continuous balancing and State balancing); I then carried out three studies using these games.

The first laboratory study examined whether the minigames were able to manage time correctly in isolation. This experiment used the simplest form of balancing algorithm, which adapted the minigames at only one point during the game play (Discrete). The second study tested the real-world effectiveness of ATMs in a real mixed-reality game called Stealth Hacker. In the third study the effect of temporal adaptation granularity and game genre on time balancing abilities of ATMs was investigated. In this experiment all the balancing algorithms (Discrete, Continuous, State) were used and compared in terms of accuracy and user experience. Although this research was a limited trial, the results showed that the adaptive time-variant minigames were able to provide
temporal balance without detracting from the main game. These experiences with ATMs suggest that the underlying principle can be used more generally to assist designers with time balancing in a wide variety of multi-player games.

This work provides three main contributions. First, it provides evidence that adaptive time-varying minigames are effective tools for time balancing. To show their effectiveness, the results of the experiments were analyzed in terms of enjoyment level and accuracy of completion times of the minigames. Second, it demonstrates the feasibility of ATMs in a real mixed-reality location-based game and that they were able to manage the time balancing of different tasks and activities in the game. Third, it shows the differences between three adaptive approaches with different adaptation granularities, and shows that the type and difficulty of the minigame had a substantial effect on the adaptation. Moreover, it demonstrates that Continuous balancing performed best both in terms of time manipulation and perceptibility. The results of this work provide new and valuable information for multiplayer game developers on the design, deployment, and evaluation of minigame-based techniques for time balancing.

In the following chapters, the concept of time balancing in games will be described and the research methodology and experiments will be described.

• In Chapter Two, a survey of related work will be presented which forms the foundation of this thesis. First, the general concept of game balance will be discussed; second, the different approaches in game balance will be discussed; and third, different time balancing methods in games will be discussed.

• In Chapter Three, time balancing in computer games will be discussed. First, the concept of time in computer games will be explained. Second, parameters in games
that are related to game balance will be identified. Third, the concept of balancing time will be explained in detail and some of the common issues of time balancing will be reviewed. Fourth, minigames as separable, manageable games that are independent from the main game will be introduced. Fifth, the idea of time balancing using minigames will be discussed.

- In Chapter Four, a model to record player progress during the game will be introduced. Later, three different balancing algorithms and their specification will be reviewed and compared.

- Chapter Five is dedicated to the evaluation phase of the research. In this chapter, the performance information about the balancing algorithms discussed in Chapter Four will be presented. In this chapter, the main focus is the accuracy of the balancing algorithms and the noticeability of the different balancing methods and players’ experience.

- Chapter Six presents a discussion of the most important outcomes of this work. Higher-level implications of the findings and issues related to the work as a whole are addressed.

- Chapter Seven briefly summarizes the main contributions of this research and highlights potential future work that are possible as a result of this research.
CHAPTER TWO
RELATED WORK

One of the most important goals of designing video games is to generate interactive, and appealing, experience [5, 6]. Nowadays, video games are known as a major field of the entertainment industry [7]. A computer game is a form of play that lets players to decide how to manage their resource to reach a certain goal using game rules and mechanics. [8]. Each game is, in fact, a system, which has several components - such as players, objectives, procedures, rules, and resources - that are interacting together to reach a goal [9, 10].

As Rollins and Adams state in On Game Design, “you need to keep the players in the balance sweet spot for as long as is practical in order to keep the game fun and let the underdogs have a chance to catch up. However, the major factor that determines winners should be player skill.” [11]. In fact, the goal of game balancing is to allow the best player to finish first, while keeping the competitive margin as small as possible.

When players with different skill levels play games, they might lose flow because of feelings of incompetence or lack of challenge. Flow represents the feeling of energized and immersed in an activity that is enjoyable [12]. One aspect of flow in game design [13] is the degree to which a game provides an experience for players that has an appropriate level of challenge: If the difficulty of challenges of a game overpasses the experience and ability of players, they might feel frustrated and leave the game because
they cannot overcome the challenges of the game. On the other hand, if challenges of a game are too easy for players, they might lose their interest to play it and become bored. [14, 15, 16, 17, 18]. Challenge is a crucial part of every game [19]. Crispini [20] has discussed criteria to make a simple online game enjoyable and appealing. The results of his survey show that the essential criteria for an enjoyable game are diversity, challenge and unpredictability.

The research domain of this thesis is balancing the timing of tasks and activities in multiplayer games using ATMs. To reach this goal, the following areas of research must be discussed:

1. Time balancing of computer games is a subset of different types of game balancing, hence the concept of game balancing will be defined and its parameters and types will be identified as the first step. Different terms and definitions, described by other researchers, provide a detailed knowledge about what game balance means and why it is important.

2. Game balancing methods vary in terms of game genre, number of players, frequency of executions of balancing algorithm and other parameters. Different game balancing methods of previous studies can provide insight into game balancing methods, best practices and key parameters that should be considered while designing a new game balancing method.

3. A secondary focus is on time balancing in multi-player location-based mixed-reality games. There are many successful multi-player mixed-reality games that have exploited different game balancing methods to synchronize digital and real players in mixed-reality games. In this section, previous multi-player mixed reality games will
be discussed and different approaches in game balancing for these games will be reviewed.

2.1 Game Balance in Computer Games

Computer game balance is recognized as a design issue that has profound effects on enjoyment – mutually influencing challenge and user satisfaction [21, 22]. Game balancing is a common issue in every game regardless of the number of players and genre. Previous research divides the game design process into several sections, and game balance is declared as an early stage of the design process [11, 23]. If balancing issues cannot be addressed during the game design process, they will be postponed to the later phases and will be more difficult to be dealt with. For example in *CatchBob!* [24], the balance of the game was affected by lack of sufficient lines of sight in the game’s location, which could have been addressed earlier in the design phase of the game.

In general, regardless of the method of balancing, traditional methods of game balancing, such as adjusting the difficulty of static pre-defined levels, are often labour-intensive [25]. Bateman et al. [26] divided game balancing into “gameplay balancing” and “player balancing” to emphasize on the role of players’ skill and experience in game balance and suggested three different approaches: *Matchmaking* (grouping players by their abilities), *Asymmetric Roles* (assign different roles to different players based on their skill level and experience) and *Difficulty Adjustment* (adaptively adjust the difficulty of the challenges in the game). In fact, maintaining optimal game balance often needs to be a dynamic process because of the evolution of the player’s behavior and skill [27]. A
good example of this is the constant upgrading in World of Warcraft to match newly discovered/created exploits.

2.2 Different Mechanisms in Game Balancing

A game balancing approach can be considered from two different aspects: the degree of adaptability of the overall approach of game balancing and actual game balancing algorithms employed to achieve the approach. Static game balancing and dynamic game balancing are the two primary approaches for the adaptability, which are considered here. Many game balancing algorithms are possible once an approach has been determined, and key implementations are discussed here.

2.2.1. Dynamic Game Balancing vs. Static Game Balancing

A primary issue in competitive games is that the different teams or players should have equal chances to win the game based on rules and starting positions [11]. Balancing fairness can involve manipulations of different game elements – for example, the capabilities and initial resources allocated to different player types such as Orcs and Humans in World of WarCraft. This type of balancing (called ‘static balancing’) is often carried out through repeated playtesting of the game mechanics and parameters [25], such as tuning the capabilities of individual weapons or units or armies [11].

The idea of balancing a game dynamically during game play is not new [27]. Dynamic balancing, considers a fully continuous spectrum of play, from the starting point of the game to its end. In Dynamic game balancing the interaction of player or players with game affects the state of the game, and different units and parameters in the game configuration should be adapted based on the current state of the game [28] rather than at
the start of play based on player models. Variable frequency of enemies in *Diablo 3* and variable power of enemies in *Assassin’s Creed 4: Black Flag*¹ are examples of dynamic balancing during game play.

### 2.2.2 Game Balancing using Playtesting

One traditional way of balancing games is playtesting. The playtesting is performed by iteratively refining the value of penalties, awards, setting thresholds and other important game parameters until the game is deemed balanced from game both designer’s and players’ perspectives [29]. In playtesting, game designers select a statistical population (players) to play the game and iteratively refine important parameters of the game to reach an optimum static value. These optimum values can be set based on either statistical analysis of test results or by players’ answers to questionnaires.

Playtesting is a time consuming process and it pushes designers to select small group of test players to achieve the final result faster and cheaper. Although reducing the size of test players decreases the overall time of playtesting, it diminishes the accuracy of the results. One big advantage of playtesting is that the target game is tested against the actual players. The results of playtesting provide a set of useful feedbacks about game difficulty, game mechanics, fun and etc., that game designers can take advantage of them; however there should be standard criteria about the testing processing. In fact, test players are statistical population that represents end users of the game.

2.2.3. Game Balancing using Artificial Intelligence (AI)

The quality of AI in video games has become an essential factor, which affects the sale results of games considerably [30]. AI in video games simulates the human intelligence and behaviour. However, most of the game players still prefer to play against real opponents (via a network) rather than smart AI-controlled ones [31]. Olesen has generated intelligent opponents in Real-Time Strategy (RTS) that are based on neuro-evaluation methodologies. The goal of his study was to dynamically generate appropriate challenge level for players that match the skill of players [32]. Several previous approaches focused on the different game’s AI methods to address dynamic balancing. In Knock’Em [33], dynamic game balancing was achieved by generating intelligent agents with adaptive behaviour using Reinforcement Learning techniques. In Reinforcement Learning, the intelligent agent received reward or penalty for every action in the game and the value of each action is calculated by the sum of its rewards or penalties. After a period of time, the intelligent agent will be able to make improved decisions based on the experienced value of each decision. Hunicke [26] developed a game based on Half Life 2\textsuperscript{1} and explored computational and design requirements for a dynamic difficulty adjustment system using probabilistic methods. She tried to dynamically adjust the difficulty of the game based on the available items in the player’s inventory and found that the cost of each solution for difficulty adjustment is a key parameter to choose the best possible balancing method in the game.

2.2.4. Player Balance in Multi-Player Games

There are four main ways that designers can balance competition in multiplayer games (also called player balancing [26]). First, a few methods exist for balancing competition without changing the game – for example, ranking systems and ladder tournaments help match players with opponents who have similar skill levels. The first attempt to provide rigour for ranking of measured entertainment level of board games was done by Lida [34]. He measured and ranked the entertainment level by introducing a general metric for different chess-like games. His metric was based on the possible moves and average length of game.

Second, games can be designed so that a stronger player is given an explicit disadvantage, such as handicapping in golf, or weaker players receive advantage such as a head-start in playground games. In computational environments, games can also be designed with asymmetric roles, placing the stronger player at a disadvantage [35]. Although this strategy can be successful, the balancing mechanism is readily apparent to the players, potentially reducing the sense of fairness, which is a primary goal of a balancing scheme.

Third, some games naturally evolve in such a way to make winning more difficult as the game progresses. For example, in 8-ball billiards, the leader has fewer balls to aim at, and more of their opponent’s balls to avoid [11].

Fourth, some player balancing techniques dynamically alter the characteristics of game elements during play to even out the competition. This approach was used in a version of Pong that was intended to allow parents and children to play together: the game automatically adjusted a player’s capabilities (paddle size and movement speed) based on the current score [16]. A similar capability adjustment is seen in the ‘Fatboy’
mode of *Unreal Tournament*, which adjusts the size of the avatars of players based on their kill-to-death ratio, making it easier to hit better players\(^1\). A third example is a method which provides differential targeting assistance using techniques such as target gravity or sticky targets [26]. The amount of assistance given to players is based on the score differential: as a player falls further behind, their targeting cursor becomes more attracted to the targets. A study of this technique showed that it increased competitiveness, and that neither the strong nor weak players noticed the adaptation.

### 2.2.5. Game Balancing using Player Satisfaction

Cognitive user models of playing experience, which are based on user’s feedbacks, provide different possibilities for the design of digital interactive entertainment systems such as augmented reality games. Modeling of entertainment or user satisfaction may open different features of play for both game and players, that relates to the level of player’s satisfaction. Digital entertainment systems can then be adjusted for different users based on this relationship to dynamically leverage player satisfaction in real time [36]. Some of the previous methods have considered “user satisfaction” as the key element to deal with game balance and have categorized different game balance methods based on it [21]. User satisfaction is measured using results of different questionnaires and surveys that are being asked from participants before, in-between or after the game play.

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2.2.6. Game Balancing using Time

The dynamic player balancing techniques described above all act on player capabilities; fewer techniques have explored adjustments to the time required for different player actions and tasks. One game genre that does frequently use time balancing is the racing genre – many racing games implement ‘catch-up’ or ‘rubber-band’ effects [26] in which a slower player receives a speed boost. For example, *Mario Kart* provides the ‘Bullet Bill’ power-up only to players who are far behind the leaders, which dramatically increases speed without the need to steer.

2.3. Game Balancing in Multi-Player Mixed-Reality (MMR) Games

Multi-player Mixed-reality games, which incorporate real and virtual components simultaneously, face particularly acute time balancing issues. Generally, the physical portion of the game relies on existing infrastructure such as buildings, roads, and bridges, and is difficult to modify; similarly, the behavior of real world participants is dictated by physics and human physiology and cannot be altered. The majority of time balancing must therefore take place in the virtual portion of the game.

Balancing a mixed-reality game is naturally harder than previously mentioned genres because game designers have to synchronize virtual and real worlds and balance the game on each world. There are many parameters that should be considered while balancing a MMR game especially those that are imposed from the real world. In *Treasure* [37], players should pick up coins scattered around an urban area and put them into a virtual chest. Results of the game showed that the chance to load up the found coins was higher with a better network connection, resulting in an unbalanced advantage for a group of players with better network devices. In general, the level of the player’s
knowledge about the physical terrain of a mixed-reality game affects the balance of the game [38].

Several approaches have been proposed to balance mixed-reality games. For example, online players may play on a scaled-down representation of the real playground with speeds adjusted proportionally to be appropriate for this scale [3]. NetAttack [39] divided players based on their roles and balanced play, but did not balance the timing of different tasks and activities based on roles. In Manhattan Story Mashup [40], static minigames have been employed to implicitly manage game balance. Players were given a clue as a part of their ‘mission’ and were then asked to take a picture of the most related object within a cool-down timer, but the timer in the minigame is fixed, and variations in skill or the surrounding context do not change the duration.

Most solutions to time balancing in MMR games have presumed that virtual interfaces are point-to-point mapped to the real world – that is, that virtual players play in simulacrum of the real playground. Timing is implicitly addressed by setting virtual locomotion speeds to be approximately equivalent to expected real world locomotion speed [41]. While straightforward and easy to implement, this assumption is overly limiting and constrains the design space for MMR games.

A new type of time-balancing mechanism will be introduced that can be used in a wider variety of game types. This new mechanism uses adaptive time-variant minigames (ATMs) to adjust the time taken for main-game tasks that incorporate a minigame as part of the overall action. As stated in [42], “minigames are particularly attractive for time balancing because they are intended as short-duration activities, and can unobtrusively
and selectively delay specific players without unduly disrupting the overall gaming experience”.

2.4. Summary

In this chapter, some of the previous works in the game balancing domain were reviewed. As most of these works suggested, game balance is a crucial issue, which should be addressed in early stages of the game development process. There are many game balancing approaches that have positive and negative points. The general trend of game balancing methods was categorized into two major classes: Static game balancing and Dynamic game balancing. Previous literature shows that dynamic game balancing has been successful in many game balancing scenarios. By reviewing the possible approaches to perform the dynamic game balancing, it is determined that in none of the previous works except one case [40], minigames have been employed for game balancing purposes. Also it is found that most of the previous works did not use time as the primary element for game balancing.
The idea of time balance is based on the phenomenon that activities in many games (particularly in digital games) take specified amounts of time. Players perform different activities toward the narrative of the game to finish it. If there was a way to calculate the completion time of activities in games, it would be possible to use this completion time as a parameter to balance different activities in games. In general, the total completion time of an activity is influenced by parameters such as gaming skill, the game interface, the difficulty of the game and the underlying game mechanics. In this chapter, these parameters will be discussed in detail.

In this research, the area of the game where time will be manipulated is that of minigames. Minigames are generally short, self-contained play experiences within a larger game framework, but with their own internal logic, game state, and mechanics [43]. Because minigames have their own internal mechanics, they can be configured independently of the main narrative or action, making them an attractive alternative for dynamic balancing. Minigames are particularly attractive for time balancing because they are intended as short-duration activities, and can unobtrusively and selectively delay specific players without unduly disrupting the overall gaming experience. In this chapter, a novel solution will be introduced to balance the timing of different activities in games using minigames.
In general, time balancing using minigames has four main steps:

1. Identify the type of the game and potential issues relating to the balance of the game:
   The type of the game includes a set of specifications of the game such as the number of players (single player or multiplayer), game genre (fighting, maze, shooter, etc.), game mechanics (match pattern, find signal, etc.) and so on. Each game balance method has a set of parameters that let the balancing algorithm manipulate challenges and total difficulty level of the game based on its context. For example, in a multiplayer first person shooting game, resources such as weapons are shared and players compete to earn them, while in a multiplayer racing game, players compete to finish the race as quickly as possible. Hence, the first step is to determine the type of the game and the preferred balancing method.

2. Design minigames that fit with the context of the game: Minigames are independent and can incorporate mechanics and design elements independent of the main game; however, immersion will likely suffer if there is design and mechanics inconsistency. For instance, it is not reasonable to put a silly minigame into a horror genre game, since this would adversely affect the overall mood; however, it does not mean that the type and genre of the minigame and the main game must necessarily be the same. One advantage in using minigames for game balancing is the required time for players to complete minigames, which can be used as a parameter to balance the main game. For example, a minigame can be started any time that the main game needs to be balanced.\(^1\)

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3. Identify manipulable elements in the minigames and their relationships: As will be discussed later in this chapter, each game has several constitutive components that interact together through the game mechanics. When the game mechanic is chosen – such as match pattern, find signals and etc. - it is possible to mathematically calculate the required time for each component and eventually calculate the total required time for given scenarios.

4. Find specific situations in the game state of the main game from which the chosen minigames should be triggered: Depending on the type of game and the balancing algorithm, it is possible to define trigger points in the main game, then select and run a minigame when the player reaches to these points. A trigger point is a specific situation in the main game, definable in the context of the main game and repeatable if the prerequisite situation is reached. Prior to starting the minigame, all the balancing variables, which are required to balance the main game, are passed to the selected minigame and the minigame loads the appropriate difficulty level based on received variables. Finally, the player returns to the main game after the minigame has finished.

In the next sections the above steps will be investigated in detail. Also the concept of timing in games will be discussed and some examples of commercial games and different time parameters that game designers have used to manipulate the difficulty level of the game will be provided. Finally, the relation between time balancing of the games and minigames will be investigated.
3.1. The Concept of Time in Computer Games

*Play time* represents the actual time taken to perform a specific activity in a game. In abstract games such as Checkers or Tetris, players play the game in real time and different moves can be thought of as happening instantaneously. The mathematical model for these games is based on finite-state machines where players start the game from an initial state and try to either reach the final state (or force the opponent to reach it) faster. Technically, most games are discrete finite-state machines. For example in Chess, the position of the pieces defines the state of the game. The initial state of the game is when all the pieces are arranged at their first positions in the chessboard. Then players try to proceed in the game by moving pieces to reach the final state as quickly as possible.

In *Quake III Arena*¹ as a first person shooter games or *Unreal Tournament*² players experience *duality*: the player exists in the real world and as a character in the game world [3]. As Juul [44] has suggested, using term *event time* to indicate the time of events happening in the game world distinct from the actions the player takes in the real world.

In many games, the relation between play time and event time is presented as identical. For example in Quake III Arena, performing certain actions in the game such as moving the mouse instantly affects the world of the game. In fact, there is a small delay beyond human perception where the input alters the digital game state. *SimCity*³ – an

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open-ended city-building game - provides another example of the concept of play time and event time. Game events, such as building different units in the game, happen faster than in the real world, and minutes of real world playtime might equal to a year in the game world. The relationship between event time and play time can be characterized as a *mapping*; meaning that the play time and event time are coincided into a game world. In fact, the play time is mapped to the event time relative to the speed of the game. For example, constructing a house may takes two days in the game (event time) while it takes one hour in the real world (play time).

Most action games tend to have a direct mapping of the play time to the event time to facilitate the feeling of urgency and action pacing. Some games such as *The Sims*\(^1\) – a strategic life simulation game – let players to choose the speed of the game, which declares the relation between playtime and event time. As a result, the play time can be mapped to event time with a different relationships while consistent during the game play.

The capacity to map play time to event time is critically important in games with different game worlds, particularly mixed-reality games. In all of the above examples, the play time denotes the actual time that players spend performing an activity in the game and event time is the time taken for specific events in the game. Mixed-reality games also must account for the time that a player spends to complete game tasks in the real world. Mixed-reality is a term indicating games that include both *real* and *virtual* components at the same time, and consequently game events and tasks are divided into

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two groups, Real events and Virtual events. Real events are those activities that a player performs in the real world, such as moving from one location to the other or taking a photo, and Virtual events are actions that are only defined in the game world, such as killing a virtual enemy, constructing a building or training an army.

Game designers have almost absolute control over the timing of events that occur in the virtual world but almost no control over those that occur in the real world. In mixed-reality games, unpredicted events during the game play can possibly break the balanced connection between the real and virtual worlds and consequently collapses the whole game because the real world’s players or virtual world’s players (or both types of players) cannot proceed in the game.

A fundamental requirement of MMR games is the ability to synchronize events in the two worlds (Real and Virtual) and map their events and activities to a shared component in the game. As it will be mentioned later in this chapter, there are several different ways to manipulate time of events in games, such as speeding up or slowing down the movement of certain pieces, but time in the real world is not manipulable by game designers and depends on players’ individual skills and random events.

To address this issue, many game designers try to design a virtual world similar to the real world, meaning that they try to provide direct mapping between the virtual event time and real event time: For example, if a player moves from one location to another location in real world, the player’s representation in the virtual world of the game moves similarly but with a different speed. For example in Can You See Me Now [3] the virtual world is a simplified map, which is directly mapped from the real location of the game in
the real world and the speed of the avatars of players in the game is equal to a fraction of
the actual speed of the players in the real world.

It is possible to map the player’s movement in the real word, to a different action
in the virtual world of the game, but still what matters is the mapping of these two worlds
to each other. For example in Pop&Dodge\(^1\) when players jump in the real world, their
avatars in the virtual world dodge the balls by sliding to right and left. Finding shared
game elements between real and virtual worlds and identifying the appropriate mapping
between the required time for real events and virtual events is a complicated process.
Game designers try to reduce the complexity of the game activities and constrain them
into a limited set of basic actions in the real world, such as moving in a playground or
pressing a button. This simplification limits the creative scope of the game, because
designers are limited to simple actions. Moreover, they are forced to use similar game
worlds in both real and virtual modes. Using ATMs is a novel way to address this issue.
Using ATMs not only makes the game more interesting and fun, but also solves the
unavoidable temporal asymmetries that exist in any type of game, especially mixed-
reality games.

3.2. Identification of Parameterizable Game Elements

*Time Complexity* of an algorithm in computer science specifies the total amount
of time required by the algorithm to be completed based on the length of its inputs [45],
but in computer games, *Complexity* is the number of steps needed to solve an instance of
a puzzle in a game. Consequently, when referring to time complexity of games, the total

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time that is required to take all the necessary steps of a solution in a game is being referred. Time complexity of computer games varies with the state-space of the game, the possible set of states reachable from the current state.

Games are usually complex activities that are divisible into several simpler tasks, allowing the measurement and manipulation of the total complexity by modifying the complexity of their constitutive tasks. The definition of time complexity in computer games proposes that the completion times in games can be measured by finding the number of required steps to reach the goal and summing the time of each step\(^1\).

As described in the related work section, substantial research has been performed on using parameter manipulation or selection to generate games of a specific difficulty [46] or for balancing player abilities [47]. These parameterizable game elements can also have varying effects on how long the game takes to play. In Pong, for example, the speed of the ball has a relatively straightforward effect on the time needed to reach a set score, but the speed of the paddle has a more complex relationship with game time, as a faster paddle allows the player to reach more shots and extend the rally, but may also increase the number of player errors.

In general, game size is one of the parameters that affect game time. Game size refers to the size of the game in terms of number of simultaneous ways of doing a specific task (Action Width) and the length of each task (Action Length). Action Width implies the number of available ways to perform an action in a game. For example in

*Neverhood Chronicles*¹ - a point and click adventure game - the rat puzzle (Figure 2) offers several solutions simultaneously to the player. The goal of the game is to guide the mouse to the cheese and the number of possible paths directly affects the difficulty of the game. The *Action Length* implies the time that an atomic action in the game takes to be completed. For example, in the same game, there is a very long route that the player has to take to reach an important object in the game (Figure 3), requiring an unavoidable minimum round trip time of 6 minutes irrespective of players’ actions.

Figure 2. *Neverhood Chronicles*: The cheese and rat puzzle (www.joystiq.com)

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There are also situations in which game designers use repetitive simple tasks to increase the difficulty of the game. Figure 4 shows the final battle of Sonic 2\(^1\) – a platform game in which the player characters are two hedgehogs move in the game by jumping, walking and running. As it is shown, the hedgehog, on the left of the scene, should jump over the giant robot, on the right side of the scene, to beat it. The giant receives damage on every jump. In this example, killing the giant is the overall mission and is done by repeating a smaller task (jumping repeatedly over the giant). When the player jumps over the giant, the game allocates damage and calculates the remaining life of the giant. Then it returns a value representing the remaining life of the giant and the color of the giant is changed to show the player how much progress has been made. The number of jumps is a fixed value which game designers, considering the desired

difficulty, set before the play starts. Another example is Lost Planet\(^1\) (Figure 5) – a third person shooter game that happens on a fictional planet - where the player has to kill the giant worm by shooting its energy sources (big yellow dots). Every time the worm jumps out of the ice, a cool-down timer is started and the player has to shoot the worm’s energy sources, otherwise when the timer is up, the worm returns to the ice and those resources that are not destroyed completely will be reset, prolonging the battle. In this level of the game, the worm receives a wound in every shot of the player. The game receives the worm’s damage and calculates the level of the damage by accumulating all the worm’s wounds while it has been above the ice. It then breaks the worm’s resources to show the player how much progress has been made. If the total level of damage is more than the total health level of the worm, it is killed and player wins the battle. On the other hand, if the total level of damage is less than the total health level of the worm, and the cool-down timer is up, the game resets the damage level of the worm and it returns to the ice.

![Image of Sonic 2: Final boss scene](www.deviantart.com)

Figure 4. Sonic 2: Final boss scene. (www.deviantart.com)

In this example the main action is killing the giant worm, which is divided into a number of subtasks, shooting the worm’s energy sources. Each subtask must be finished in a given time (while the worm is out of the ice). It is not specified that how many times the player has to shoot at the worm to kill it and complete the overall action, as this depends on the skill of the player. However, it is possible to specify a minimum time for a perfect marksman to complete the task, which introduces the concept of a minimum completion time for a game that has been used in ATMs, which will be discussed in Chapter four.

Figure 5. Lost Planet 1: Gigantic worm scene. (www.nwnews.net)

In general, the level of control affects the difficulty level of the game. The control level measures how much control the player has over the character in the game. For example in Classic Mario\(^1\) – a single player platform game - the possible actions of Mario are limited to moving right, moving left, jumping and shooting (Figure 6). On the other hand, in NeverWinter Nights 2, the player controls one character in the game

(Figure 7) with numerous options. In this game, players receive a set of actions, skills and weapons for their avatars. In every fight scene of the game, players are capable of choosing between several actions, skills and weapons, each of which has a specified level of damage. Each weapon has a specified amount of damage and speed, which lets game designers manipulate the total power of the weapon. Although a player controls only one character in the game, having several options for play increases the complexity of the game.

Figure 6. Classic Mario (www.classic-retro-games.com)

Most of the time, modifying one parameter of a complex action in a game will affect other aspects of play. In most situations when timing of tasks in a game is crucially important, it is hard to calculate the complex actions’ total time. Minigames, which typically have simple mechanics, can provide a method for specifying precise timing control within a larger game.
3.3. Game Balance as a General Concept

As previously mentioned, “game balance” is a technical term representing the fairness of the game and should not be confused with subjective measures such as “fun”. The first step of game balancing is to recognize the balancing methods of the game. For example, in a single-player game, the term balance is mostly used to indicate whether the challenge level of the different tasks in the game is appropriate for the current players, whereas in multiplayer games balance indicates the overall fairness between players.

Setting the challenge level is a fundamental game balance problem. Although it is possible to state that a challenge level should be higher for skilled players than novice players, it can be difficult to specify what is easy and what is hard for a particular game or game mechanic. The standard way to address challenge balancing is playtesting, because it reveals different players’ behaviours, but even playtesting is not a
comprehensive solution because not all players are exactly the same and not all strategies can be explored by playtesters for a complete game.

One approach to this issue is to test the game with a wide range of test players. Usually playtesting gives game designers a chance to analyze players’ performance and create progress charts and statistics, but there is still one question that remains unsolved: because not all players are the same, how should different players be ranked with respect to the result of playtests?

In multi-player games, players play together and the balancing concept changes. Multi-player games are naturally asymmetric which means different players of the game are not equal in terms of skill and experience, making multiplayer games harder to balance. Game designers often employ different game components to adjust the fairness, for example by changing the starting point, certain resources, or character’s state. In multi-player games where more than one strategy exists, the advantage of each strategy should be clearly balanced. Similar concepts work for resources in games as well; in a balanced game, the cost and benefit of resources in the game are fair, so controlling a particular resource would not destabilize the game balance. Two resource pools are balanced when they have similar cost and benefit for the players.

In general there are four ways to balance games:

1. By using the experience and instinct of the game designer; in this way the game designer tries to play the game several times until it feels right. Unfortunately this method is not reliable because, while an expert, the designer is biased.

2. By calculating the relationships between the components of the game to ensure that every entity in the game has the appropriate cost and benefit: Although this method of
balancing is reliable in terms of the correctness of the formulas, it is hard to calculate all the possible situations of the most games. Additionally, any errors in assumptions underlying the formulation can cause the balance to fail catastrophically when violated.

3. By playtesting the game: Similar to the first method, the designer keeps testing the game until most of the players have a reasonably good and fair experience. One drawback of this system is that playtests are usually time consuming. Additionally, the outcome of the experiments is dependent on how representative the test players are of the overall population.

4. By dynamic balancing during game play: In this method the game starts with an initial setting, which has been acquired via one of the above approaches, and the rest of the balancing parameters are adjusted dynamically.

3.4. Manipulation of Time in Games

As mentioned previously, to use time balancing in games, a game designer should be able to assign completion time to a set of activities in the game, implying that there should be a time chart that shows how long specific activities in the game take. Obviously, better players should be able to complete the task faster than weaker players, but the variation of completion times should be modest to increase competitiveness, and the mean of these variations should coincide with the duration the designer desires. Although time manipulation can be used for many design elements in games (e.g., to
artificially synchronize player action [6]) the focus here is on time manipulation as a player-balancing tool.

Minigames have several parameters that can be manipulated to speed up and slow down the playtime. Although there are several ways to manipulate the playtime such as changing the game size, these variations have side effects, meaning that if one component of the game is manipulated, all the other components of the game that are related to the modified component will be affected. For example, suppose that there are two games: one with numerous easy activities and the other with a few complex activities. It would be difficult to compare the playtimes of these games without empirical data.

The simplest example involves controlling the scope of a repetitive task, such as shooting asteroids or aliens, where the number of times the task must be repeated changes. Another simple example is the manipulation of game physics (or physics analogues) to increase or decrease the speed of active components: for example, increasing the speed of falling bricks in Tetris can allow faster completion times because the blocks cross the screen faster.

3.5. Minigames and Time Balance

As a part of time balance using minigames, the designer must identify elements and mechanics in the minigame that affect completion time, and must determine the parameterization of those elements. Also, the designer must determine which elements should be adapted at the start of the minigame, and which can be adjusted dynamically during play.

Minigame-based time balancing can be divided into two phases: a static phase and a dynamic phase. The static phase, which occurs before the minigame starts, sets the
minigame’s parameters and mechanics to satisfy an anticipated time constraint – potentially determined by the main game state. For example, elements such as the size of the game, the number of levels to complete, or the starting difficulty can all be set before the minigame begins. To do this, one of the previously mentioned methods, such as experience of the game designer or playtesting, can be employed to determine this initial setting. In the dynamic phase, dynamic balancing is achieved by periodically comparing game state to an a priori desired state, and adjusting one or more parameters of game elements such that the completion time of the minigame will approach the desired time.

Although time balancing of games with minigames sounds simple, it has several complexities that a game designer should address. Figure 8 shows the general concept of time balancing using minigames. As shown, two players with different skill play a multiplayer game together. Suppose that player A is much more skilled than player B, and the game starts at the same time for both players. The game is a simple running match and players have to finish the path as fast as possible. Every red point in the paths represents a station where players have to stop and rest.

At each station, player will be given a minigame to play. Minigames start with an initial setting, the small rectangles tagged as “Static”, which have been set prior to the minigame. This is what the game designer has set based on experience, playtesting or mathematical calculations. This amount is consistent until the game is finished and can be used as initial difficulty level of the game. The dynamic part of the minigames, the rectangles with variable size and tagged as “Dynamic”, will be activated during the game play to help the weaker player and make the game harder for strong players. By changing the difficulty of the game dynamically, the game will be more challenging for the
stronger player, and less frustrating for the novice player. It is worth mentioning that the above setting is still subject to change. For example, if the game would be too easy for the weaker player, the adaptation mechanism makes it harder again.

![Diagram of Player A and Player B](image)

Figure 8. General concept of game balancing using minigames

Although the setting of the minigames in the above example is dynamically modifiable, it is also possible to change the frequency of the minigames during the main game. For instance, the game could trigger more minigames for the stronger player. To be able to change the difficulty level and the frequency of minigames, game designers should address the two following questions:

1. How frequently should minigames be used?
2. How much change in the difficulty level of the minigames is appropriate?

There are several ways these adaptation decisions can be made which will be discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR
ATM: ADAPTIVE TIME-VARIANT MINIGAMES

Two main issues regarding game time balancing using minigames are studied here: First, if minigames are used to perform the time balancing in a game, how often should minigames be updated? Second, how much should time vary within a single minigame?

The following experiments were performed to evaluate these issues:

1. Find the appropriate vs. frequency of adaptation, three different adaptation methods:
   Discrete (One-shot) balance, State balance and Continuous balance were investigated.

2. Find the appropriate amount of manipulation in minigames’ game mechanics;
   parameters that affect player’s overall performance, the completion time, are tabulated: In this research the focus is on Aggressiveness, Number of Elements, and Interaction against noticeability of the modification.

3. A progress-vs.-completion model called Temporal Exemplar was created to acquire a reusable model of players’ experience while playing the minigames.

   In this chapter the Temporal Exemplar Model is discussed first. Next, the effective parameters on players’ experience and three different balancing frequencies are
examined. Finally, four different minigames that are compatible with time balancing algorithms are presented and their performance when different balancing algorithms are employed will be discussed.

4.1. Temporal Exemplar

As mentioned previously, one of the issues common to every balancing algorithm is that the game designer does not know what constitutes as easy, medium and hard difficulty for the game. To address this issue and to be able to deliver a particular total completion time in minigames, the system must have a model of how long the minigame should take. This model can be as simple as a single completion time value or more complex if techniques such as continuous adaptation are to be used (discussed later in this chapter).

To find how different players progress in the minigames, an exemplar model for each minigame was developed by asking eight people to play the minigames without any adaptation, and creating a time-vs.-progress model from the averaged data (see example in Figure 9). This figure is meant to present to the general concept of time-vs.-progress model and is not the actual model. Players were asked to finish the game as quickly as possible, using as few resources as possible. For instance, the exemplar model for a puzzle game records the average time for each puzzle piece to be placed correctly. Consequently, for a puzzle game with 20 pieces the exemplar model has 20 points and each point represents the average time of all test players to insert that specific piece of puzzle correctly. Hence the overall model shows the average progress of test players when there is no adaptation is employed. In the actual game play session, the progress of players is compared with the temporal exemplar model for every puzzle piece and the
overall progress will be calculated by adding all the completion times of previous pieces. Finally, it is possible to adjust the difficulty of the actual game based on the result of this comparison.

Using the time-vs.-progress model, every point of the adaptation algorithm, which will be discussed later in this chapter, can be mapped to the model, allowing for the entire or a subsection of the minigame to be estimated. Expert design or mathematical derivation could also have been employed, but exemplar data was chosen as the least likely to confound subsequent experiments.

![Sample Time-vs.-Progress model](image)

**Figure 9. Sample Time-vs.-Progress model**

### 4.2. Important Parameters in Noticeability of Adaptation Algorithms

The adaptive algorithm controls the type and magnitude of adaptations. These algorithms compare the player’s current performance to some model of desired performance. Within this general class, adaptive algorithms can still vary across several characteristics. For example:
• **Aggressiveness:** the algorithm can be more or less aggressive in correcting a disparity between the player and the ideal. For example, Bateman and colleagues noted that cautious adjustments were sometimes not able to make up a disparity before the game finished [26].

• **Number of elements:** algorithms can change a single parameter of a single game element at a time, or can change several simultaneously. Changing multiple elements can reduce the visibility of adaptation in game, but can also be more difficult to model.

• **Interaction with game narrative or appearance:** algorithms may attempt to make their adaptations less noticeable by interacting with the game narrative – a change to an element’s parameter could be explained through additional narrative elements (e.g., there are more enemies to defeat because reinforcements have arrived; the ball is moving slower because a penalty brick was hit).

### 4.3. Frequency of Adaptation Algorithm

In addition to the characteristics of adaptation algorithm mentioned in previous section, the *frequency* at which adaptation decisions are made is a critical part of the adaptive algorithm. Game state adjustment could be continuous, such as the continuous adjustment of traffic load in *Need For Speed: The Run*¹ to adapt the challenge level, or could be discrete, as with the preferential distribution of “power-ups” in *Mario Kart.*

---

Frequency of adaptation plays a major role in this process, because the granularity of adaptation can dramatically affect noticeability.

4.3.1. Discrete (One-Shot) Balance

In this method, players play the game with the starting parameters until a preset duration is exceeded, then a single immediate adjustment in balancing parameters occurs. The preset duration can be any value chosen by game designers. In this research, this balancing method was evaluated with two different targets: minimum completion time and average completion time.

![Figure 10. Variation of game's configuration based on time](image)

In this case, the adaptation algorithm is employed only once, and it dynamically changes other components of the game to compensate for the latency of players (Figure}
10). The adaptation algorithm starts when the minimum time (or any time which is set prior the game start) is passed. Some of the advantages of this method are:

1. Discrete balancing is simple and easy to implement. It requires the least amount of information about the game state.

2. It can provide a minimum completion time in conjunction with game mechanics because adaptation will not occur until a minimum time is reached.

Although this method does provide a degree of dynamic balancing, it has the following shortcomings:

1. The minigame takes a minimum amount of time to complete, which would reduce flexibility if a minimum time is undesirable.

2. The adjustment may be too coarse, making it difficult for novice players, and also more likely to be noticed by players.

These issues can be addressed by employing a fully dynamic adaptation that modifies the adaptable elements of the game as play proceeds. In the next two balancing methods, State balance and Continuous balance, the temporal adjustment without any minimum time constraint was employed.

4.3.2. State Balance

In State balance, a player’s performance is compared with an exemplar every time a particular game state changes (e.g., a subtask is completed). For example, in a puzzle game, players should assemble all the pieces successfully to finish the game. Putting each
piece of puzzle into its correct place is a subtask. In a state-based update, balancing parameters would be recalculated after every puzzle piece was placed.

Using collected times for each state change, a progress-vs.-time model can be implemented (see section 4.1). The total completion time is then the sum of the completion times for each subtask. For example, in Figure 11, each milestone represents a successful piece placement in a puzzle game in the time-vs.-progress model and the black line shows how a new player has played the game. When the player reaches the first milestone, the State balance algorithm is called, which checks whether the player is ahead the time-vs.-progress model or not. If the player is faster than the reference, the State balance algorithm manipulates the game components and makes it harder, for example decreasing the mouse speed. If the player was initially slower than the model, the State balance algorithm makes the game easier to let the player progress faster. This process repeats at each milestone and tries to make the new player’s total completion time as close as possible to the total completion time recorded in the progress-vs.-time model.

4.3.3. Continuous Balancing

In Continuous balance, a player’s performance is compared with an exemplar at regular intervals (usually a factor of the game’s heartbeat - the speed at which the game is rendered) (Figure 12). The Continuous method is a balancing method with a finer granularity, able to detect a change in game state smaller than a subtask. This balancing method is called “Continuous” because the intervals employed were much smaller than human perception, appearing continuous to the player. In this method, similar to State balance, the progress-vs.-time model is used to decide how to balance the game.
Figure 11. Time-vs.-Progress model for State Balancing: The player's time oscillates around the desired time that the designer set in design stage of the game.

Figure 12. Time-vs.-Progress model for Continuous balancing
There are some differences between Continuous balance and State balance:

1. In State balance, the granularity of the progress-vs.-time model (milestone in Figure 11) is equal to every activity in the game that changes a subtask level element, for example placement a piece in its place in a puzzle game. The granularity in Continuous algorithm is usually a multiple of the game heartbeat, and balance is recalculated regardless of subtask state.

2. In State balance, the balancing algorithm tries to make the game state as close as possible to progress-vs.-time model at the same milestone independent of total completion time. In Continuous balance, the algorithm compares the current state of the game with the progress-vs.-time model as frequently as possible and, if the difference is more than a threshold, the balancing algorithm manipulates the balancing parameters to compensate.

4.4. Four Example Minigames

Four minigames were used to test the efficacy of the balancing algorithms: Spinning Puzzle, Electris, Click-and-Hack, and Brickout. Each game has both static and dynamic balancing mechanisms. While the primary purpose was to evaluate the dynamic balancing algorithms, also evaluated two static balancing settings (deployed as two difficulty levels) for each minigame to ensure that the dynamic algorithms’ performance was not specific to a given starting configuration.

All the games were implemented in C# using the XNA framework. Continuous updates were tied to the XNA game heartbeat, of 16.7 millisecond. Each game has manipulable components which game designers can use to modify the total completion
time of the minigame. In order to mask dynamic changes in game mechanics, the intensity of the change was reduced and the change was reflected gradually in the minigame. For example, if any change in the speed of a component in a minigame is required, it was performed linearly over a two-second period. Hiding these changes was required to make sure that players were not interrupted by sudden changes in game’s routines.

4.4.1. Click-and-Hack

Click-and-Hack is a variant of the fairground game “Whack-a-Mole.” Players must click on the “Hack” button and then quickly click on a computer image that appears at a seemingly random location on the screen (Figure 13). Click-and-Hack is essentially a Fitts’ Law task [48], where the difficulty of the challenge is proportional to the size of the target and the distance from the Hack button.

**Static and dynamic elements:** The static balancing mechanism is the number of targets that must be clicked to complete the game. The combined distance-size tradeoff – generally termed the index of difficulty in Fitts’ law studies – is the dynamic balancing mechanism.

**Dynamic adaptation method:** The target size and distance between the “Hack” button and targets were used as the adjustable parameters. In Discrete balancing, two different methods were tested:
1. During normal game play, the computer can appear anywhere on the screen at a fixed size. After the minimum time is reached, the size of the target will be increased and the game gets easier for players.

2. In general the game window was equally divided into three different areas: “Close”, “Middle” and “Far”. During the normal game play, the computer can appear anywhere in the “Middle area” (Figure 14). When the player is progressing more quickly than the exemplar and the average completion time of the minigames is reached, targets are drawn from a distribution biased to provide more distant targets. When the player is slower than the exemplar and the average completion time of the minigame is reached, targets are drawn from a distribution biased to provide closer targets.
3. Dynamic adaptation could be also accomplished by reducing the number of targets. For example, when the minimum time is reached, the game finishes and the player is led to believe that the goal has been accomplished; however this method was not investigated here.

In the State Balancing algorithm, clicking on each computer changes the state of the game and causes the State Balancing algorithm to compare the player’s progress with the exemplar model. If the player is slower than the recorded time in the model, new target will appear in the “Close area” (shown in Figure 14) to make the game easier. If the player is faster than the corresponding sample in the exemplar model the next target will appear in the “Far area”, causing the game to be harder. These areas are obtained by dividing the available surface by three.

Figure 14. Click-and-Hack: There are three different areas: "Close", "Middle" and "Far"
The Continuous balancing mode is similar to State balancing in this case, because it is not possible to modify the game balance any faster than State balancing algorithm without employing mouse trajectory modeling. To adjust the game balance in Click-and-Hack the size of the targets, or the distance of the target from the fixed Hack button, is used, which can only update once a subtask has been completed. In both Continuous and State balancing methods, the threshold of the difference between player’s time and the equivalent time in temporal exemplar model was one second.

4.4.2. Spinning Puzzle

In the Spinning Puzzle game, players must align a series of disks to make a continuous path from a chip to a cooling fan. There is only one solution, so the game poses a similar gameplay challenge to a physical geometric puzzle (Figure 15).

**Static and dynamic elements:** The static balancing mechanism is the number of disks in the puzzle. The dynamic balancing mechanism is the rotational speed of the pieces.

**Dynamic adaptation method:** In this game, the rotational speed of the disks is modified dynamically in the game to adjust the balance. In all cases the speed begins at 12°/s (Normal speed) and when needed, it increases to 18°/s (Fast speed) or decreases to 8°/s (Slow speed).
Two methods of dynamic balancing were employed:

1. During the normal game play, the rotational speed of the disk is Normal. When the minimum completion time of the minigame is reached, the rotation speed will be set to Fast speed to make the game easier.

2. During the normal game play, the rotational speed of the disk is Normal speed. When the average completion time of the minigame is reached, the rotation speed will gradually be set to Fast speed to make the game easier, to hide this change from player.

In the State Balancing algorithm, the rotation speed is recalculated every time a player moves a disk to the correct location. The number of recalculations for the State algorithm is therefore equal to the number of disks minus one (assuming that players do
not move a correctly placed disk to an incorrect position). If the difference of the current game play time for the correctly located disk and the recorded time for the same disk in the exemplar model exceeds the threshold (one second), the rotation speed will be set to Fast speed for the next disk. If the player is slower than the exemplar, the rotation speed will be set to Slow speed for the next disk.

The Continuous algorithm measures the game state every 16 ms (equal to the heartbeat of the game) and updates the rotation speed at the same rate if necessary. The algorithm compares the current player’s game play time with the recorded time in the exemplar model and if this difference exceeds the threshold (one second), it changes the rotation speed. In this case, the State and Continuous cased are different because game State and subtask States are distinct.

4.4.3. Electris

Electris is a variant of falling brick games such as Tetris or Bejeweled. Electrical components fall from the top of the screen down changing their appearance sequentially with every downward step. The player must match a particular electric circuit shown at the top of the screen. Like most falling brick games, the bricks fall at a set rate from top to bottom. While the component falls, the player can move it to left and right with the arrow keys, and can commit the component by pressing spacebar, which causes the component to stop cycling and fall at a faster rate (Figure 16).

Electris is distinct from the other games, because there is a substantial error cost. Once a component has been played, it cannot be removed easily. To remove an incorrect component, the player has to put another similar component next to the incorrect component to remove it, which may not be possible. If there is no room beside the
incorrect component, it negates an entire row and requires the player to finish filling the row so they can begin a new row on top.

**Static and dynamic elements:** The primary static balancing mechanism is the number of rows that must be completed. The primary dynamic balancing mechanism is the speed at which pieces fall after the spacebar is pressed.

**Dynamic adaptation method:** In this game, the falling speed is changed to adjust the balance of the game. In all cases, pieces fall at a rate of 120 pixels/second (Normal Speed) and when it is required, this rate is increased to 360 pixels/second (Fast Speed) to let players progress faster, or decreased to 80 pixels/second (Slow Speed) to prevent players from finishing the game too quickly.

Similar to the previous minigames, in Discrete balancing two different methods were employed:

1. In the normal setting, pieces fall at Normal speed until the minimum completion time of the minigame is exceeded, and then pieces fall at a Fast speed.

2. In the normal setting, pieces fall at Normal speed until the average completion time of the minigame is exceeded, and then pieces fall at Fast speed. To intertwine the adaptation with the narrative, the color of the background varies (red for Fast, green for Normal, blue for Slow – Figure 17). The goal of this visualization is to hide the adaptation process from the player’s perspective. Players were told that the variation in falling speed is a random event in the minigame.
Figure 16. Electris: The player is trying to create the same pattern as shown on top of the screen, but has made several mistakes and lost the very first rows.
In the State Balancing algorithm, the falling speed is set based on the number of correct pieces placed when compared with the exemplar. Every time the player places a piece correctly, the State balancing algorithm compares the current play time of the game with recorded time in the exemplar model. If the player is slower than the model, the next rate of the falling for the next piece will be set to Fast speed. If the player is faster than the exemplar model, the rate of falling for the next piece will be set to Slow speed.

In Continuous balancing algorithm, the current play time of the game is compared with the recorded time in the exemplar model on every 16 ms and the falling speed will
be adjusted based on the difference between these two times to one of the Fast, Normal, or Slow values. In State balance mode, the rate of the falling cannot be changed between placements of pieces. If a player places a piece slower than the exemplar model, the rate of falling will be set to Fast and it remains consistent until the next piece is placed correctly. In Continuous mode, based on whether the player is faster or slower than the exemplar model, the rate of falling will be adjusted. In both Continuous and State balancing methods, the threshold of the difference between player’s time and the equivalent time in temporal exemplar model was five seconds.

4.4.4. Brickout

In Brickout, the player must guide a bouncing ball such that it hits a series of bricks at the top of the screen. Bricks disappear when struck, and the game is complete once all the bricks have been eliminated (Figure 18). Brickout represents a baseline for the other styles of adaptation because the brick count (and therefore the total distance travelled) and ball velocity represents the most direct mapping to total time as the ratio of distance and speed.

*Static and dynamic elements:* The static balancing mechanism is the number of rows of bricks. The dynamic balancing mechanism is the speed of the ball.

*Dynamic adaptation method:* In this game, the speed of the ball is changed to be able to adjust the balance of the game. Normally, the ball moves at 20 pixel/second (Normal speed). The Slow speed was 10 pixels/second and the Fast speed was 30 pixels/second.
In Discrete balancing two methods were employed:

1. When the game starts, the ball moves at Normal speed and when the player exceeded the minimum completion time, the algorithm increases the speed of the ball to let the player progress faster.

2. The initial speed of the ball is set at Normal speed. When the player exceeded the average completion time of the minigame, the ball’s speed gradually increased to Fast. The ball’s color changes when the speed is adapted using the same scheme as the Electris background (Figure 19).

In the State Balancing algorithm, every time a brick is hit, and the speed of the ball is changed on the rebound. If the player is slower than the recorded time in the exemplar model (one second threshold), the ball speed will be set at Fast, if the player is
faster than the recorded time in the exemplar model (one second threshold), the speed of the ball will be set at Slow. All the speed variations are reflected gradually in the game to hide the balancing process from the player’s perspective.

In Continuous balancing, the speed of the ball is continuously and gradually adjusted based on the difference between the current play time and the recorded time in the exemplar model. In the State balance algorithm, the speed of the ball is adjusted when a brick is hit and remains consistent until the next brick is hit. In Continuous balancing, every time that the differences of the current play time and the corresponding recorded time in the exemplar model exceeds the threshold (one second), the speed of the ball is adjusted.

4.5. Minigame Completion Times and Game Mechanics

As mentioned earlier, each minigame includes two different types of elements: static elements and dynamic elements. Static elements of the minigames help game designers adjust the balance of the initial condition of games. For example if the game designer decides to use the Spinning Puzzle minigame, the number of disks can be used to set the difficulty of the minigame. The “static” term is used for these elements because they are set initially and are independent of a player’s subsequent performance in the game.
Figure 19. Brickout minigame: in the top game the ball's color has changed to red to show the increased speed, while in the bottom image the ball is moving relatively slowly and its color is blue.

On the other hand, the dynamic elements can be changed during game play and therefore the difficulty level of the minigames is adjustable. Table 1 shows all the static and dynamic elements of the minigames, elements that are used for initial settings and mathematic formulas that are required for all calculations. In principle, other components as diverse as play area or number of avatars or simultaneity of tasks could be utilized as manipulable parameters, but those parameters that were actually implemented are listed.
In this chapter the Temporal Exemplar Model (progress-vs.-time model) was introduced. Also the effect of parameters on players’ experience was investigated and three different balancing algorithms: Discrete balancing, State balancing and Continuous balancing, which presented three different approaches in frequency of balancing algorithms were introduced. Finally, four different minigames were presented that were compatible with the introduced time balancing algorithms and discussed their performance when different balancing algorithms are employed. In the next chapter, the performance of these balancing algorithms will be evaluated using the four different minigames introduced in this chapter.

### Table 1. Minigame parameters and formulas. In all formulas “h” represents the height of the screen.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Game</th>
<th>Manipulable Components</th>
<th>Initial Settings</th>
<th>Adaptive Component</th>
<th>Minimum Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Click-and-Hack</td>
<td>Mouse speed (v), target size, number of targets (n), distance (x)</td>
<td>Target size, # of targets</td>
<td>Target size, distance</td>
<td>[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2x_i}{v} ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electris</td>
<td>Piece speed (v), number of lines (N), Number of pieces in each line (n)</td>
<td>Number of lines (N)</td>
<td>Piece speed</td>
<td>[ N \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{h_i}{v} ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spinning Puzzle</td>
<td>Rotation Speed ((\omega)), number of disks (n), min. # turns required ((\theta))</td>
<td>Number of disks</td>
<td>Rotation speed</td>
<td>[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\theta_i}{\omega} ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brickout</td>
<td>Number of bricks (n), speed of ball (v)</td>
<td>Speed of ball</td>
<td>Number of bricks</td>
<td>[ \sum_{i=2}^{n} \frac{2h_i}{v} ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.6 Chapter summary

In this chapter the Temporal Exemplar Model (progress-vs.-time model) was introduced. Also the effect of parameters on players’ experience was investigated and three different balancing algorithms: Discrete balancing, State balancing and Continuous balancing, which presented three different approaches in frequency of balancing algorithms were introduced. Finally, four different minigames were presented that were compatible with the introduced time balancing algorithms and discussed their performance when different balancing algorithms are employed. In the next chapter, the performance of these balancing algorithms will be evaluated using the four different minigames introduced in this chapter.
CHAPTER FIVE
EVALUATION

In this chapter the performance information for ATMs will be provided. Also the key elements in time balancing will be identified and the design parameters will be reviewed. The following questions will be investigated to be able to evaluate the performance of ATMs:

1. Were the minigames playable?

2. How fun was the players’ experience?

3. Were the minigames able to deliver the desired time constraints using the three time balancing algorithms?

4. Were the minigames able to balance the timing of tasks in a real game?

To answer the above questions, the evaluation was divided into three phases:

1. A laboratory study to examine whether it is possible to manipulate the completion time of minigames using a time balancing algorithms. The simplest of balancing algorithms, Discrete balancing, was evaluated for all four minigames in terms of performance and user experience.
2. An integrated study tested the performance of balanced games embedded within a larger game. It was interesting to see whether the larger game is still fun to play when balanced using minigames.

3. The effect of intensity and frequency of the balancing algorithms crossed with different genres of game (shooter, puzzle, click-and-point) was evaluated by comparing all three balancing algorithms (Discrete, State and Continuous) together in terms of performance, noticeability of adjustments and perceived enjoyment of the minigames.

5.1. Testing Discrete Balancing Algorithm using Adaptive Time-Variant Minigames

Understanding whether time balancing algorithms are able to manipulate the completion time of the minigames is important because if time balancing algorithms cannot manipulate the completion time of the minigames, the impact of the type of adaptations is of limited interest.

5.1.1. Goal

The main goals of this phase of the experiment were as follows:

1. Identify the performance of the Discrete balancing algorithm in controlling the total completion time of the minigames. The performance of the balancing algorithms will be investigated from different perspectives such as user experience and accuracy of balancing algorithm.
2. Determine the performance differences between different minigames in achieving balance.

3. Determine the relationship between the difficulty level and the performance of the balancing algorithm.

5.1.2. Method

A group of 15 participants (10 male and 5 female, aged 22 to 33) was asked to play all the minigames. The experiment ran on a Dell 6500 laptop (Intel Core 2 Duo, 2.53 GHz) with a 15-inch 1800x1200 display, and using a standard keyboard and mouse. Players were trained on each minigame at each difficulty level once to reduce training effects, and then further played each minigame once for every difficulty level both with and without Discrete adaption. The difficulty levels for each game are shown in Table 2. The difficulty parameters are the static elements of the minigames that were consistent during the game play. By initializing the value of these parameters prior to start of the minigames, it was possible to set the difficulty, and therefore, the minimum completion time of the minigames.

As shown in Table 2, the number of difficulty levels for Spinning Puzzle and Click-and-Hack is not the same as for Electris, because it was possible to bias the result by setting the difficulty too high. As discussed in chapter 4.4.3, the penalty for error associated with Electris is high and setting the difficulty at a high level could lead to negative play experiences. Brickout was not used in this experiment because it was used for another purpose, which will be explained in section 5.2.2.1.
Participants were told that minigames would be used in a larger game in the future and were not told anything about the adaptation algorithms in the games. To hide the adaptation process from players, participants were told that the environments of the games are imaginary and the story of the main game will be in a mysterious, unknown world.

Table 2. Difficulty level of the minigames. The table shows the difficulty of the minigames with respect to their configuration. For example Spinning Puzzle with 4 disks (rings) is the easiest and 8 disks is the hardest configurations of this game

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Game</th>
<th>Difficulty Parameter</th>
<th>Value of Parameter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spinning Puzzle</td>
<td>Number of rings</td>
<td>4,5,6,7,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electris</td>
<td>Number of rows</td>
<td>1,2,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Click-and-Hack</td>
<td>Number of targets</td>
<td>10,20,30,40,50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1.3. Analysis and Result

This study was intended to verify that time of completion is controllable through the Discrete balancing algorithm using the static and dynamic elements of the minigames. The results showed that all the completion times were faster with adaptation, and linear with difficulty, albeit with a smaller slope. Results for the three tested games are shown in Figure 20.

These results demonstrate three important properties of the adaptive minigames:

- Minigames completion times increased linearly with difficulty. The more difficult the game is, the more time it takes for the player to finish. This fact, at first, sounds obvious but it is important for design. Furthermore, the linear increase means that the manipulation of initial estimated or minimum completion time is straightforward and predictable.
Although increasing the number of disks in Spinning Puzzle makes the game longer, the role of other parameters such as the initial offset degree for each disk should not be underestimated. These charts (Figure 20) indicate the change in completion time when changing one adaptive element of the minigame and keeping the rest constant.

- There is a game-dependent decrease in completion times with adaption. In Figure 20, the lower line, marked with red circles shows the average completion time of the minigames for different difficulty levels. Although this decrease is not the same for different minigames, it establishes the functionality of the adaptation algorithms.

- The means and variation of completion time of each of the games are different. The mean shows the expected completion time, since it is calculated over a range of players. Variation measures how far the completion times are spread from the mean value and indicates the degree of heterogeneity amongst players. The variation shows the differences in different players’ skills and experience. It indicates that the completion times of different players vary based on parameters other than the level of the difficulty. For example, in Click-and-Hack, this range changes linearly with the difficulty level of the game, while in Spinning Puzzle it does not occur. In fact, Click-and-Hack is a repetitive task, which is hidden within the narrative of the game, every subtask is a smallest and simplest possible activity in the game and the penalty of player’s mistakes is minimal. These reasons decrease the variation of completion time of the different players. On the other hand, Spinning Puzzle requires some thought and state of mind, which is highly dependent on the individual’s skills and experience.
Figure 20. A: Average completion times for Spinning Puzzle for 5 different difficulty levels. B. Average completion times for Click-and-Hack for 5 different difficulties. C. Average completion times for Electris for 3 different difficulties (n=15).
5.2. Testing Discrete Balancing using A Real Game: Stealth Hacker

As a part of the second evaluation phase, an experiment was run on a MMR game. A mixed-reality location-based game called Stealth Hacker, inspired by the playground game Cops and Robbers, was developed and ATMs were exploited to balance the timing of its components. Evaluation of the time balancing algorithms using a larger game was essential to establish whether the time balancing using adaptive time-variant minigames can impact overall game balance.

5.2.1. Goal

The main goal of this phase of the experiment was to evaluate the performance of the adaptive algorithms in a larger game, in particular the user experience in terms of perceived enjoyment level of the game (and minigames), noticeability of the balancing algorithms, in both minigames and the main game, and the efficiency of the minigames at maintaining balance.

5.2.2. Method

5.2.2.1. A Multi-Player Location-Based Mixed-Reality Game: Stealth Hacker

*Stealth Hacker* is a mixed-reality location-based game inspired by the playground game *Cops and Robbers*, played with several Cops and a single Hacker. The shared playground is a network of computers, which the Hacker attempts to infiltrate. The Cops navigate this playground physically, moving from computer to computer and scanning
them with smartphones (Figure 21.A). The Hacker, fittingly, moves from computer to computer virtually, by navigating a simple avatar around a network diagram (Figure 21.B).

The movement speed of the Hacker, fitting the narrative, is on the order of seconds, providing the feeling of zipping across the network from computer to computer. Cops, in contrast, move from computer to computer on foot, with elapsed times on the order of tens of seconds, fitting the Newtonian physics that governs motion in the real world. This asymmetry of spatial representation and navigation speed creates an interesting timing dichotomy: in the real world, the Cops predominantly spend time moving between nodes, but spend little time at each node, while the Hacker can transit between nodes quickly, and therefore must be forced to spend more game time at network nodes to maintain time balance.

The Cops’ interface provides them with information on the location of their partners (both current location and planned movements), the last known location of the
Hacker, and a chat interface. When the Cops scan a computer, the program records the computer’s Bluetooth Media Access Control (MAC) address, and transmits it to the server wirelessly. The scanned computer does not actually contribute anything other than its Bluetooth address, because the server manages the game state, and the hacking and scanning are simulated as minigames on the smartphones or the Hacker’s PC. The Hacker tries to hack every computer in the network. Minigames are launched when the Hacker attempts to infiltrate a computer, and these minigames provide dynamic balance through guaranteed minimum and expected mean and maximum times at each node.

In Stealth Hacker, one of three minigames (Click-and-Hack, Electris, or Spinning Puzzle) is allocated to an individual node when the Hacker arrives and attempts to break in to the computer at that node. The game choice and its initial complexity are based on the average real-world distance from the attacked computer to the two nearest Cops, based on an estimated foot speed of 4.95 ft/s\(^1\). Although Cops were allowed to run among different computers, this speed was assumed as their average speed because it was not possible to calculate the average speed of Cops inside of the university building. Two Cops were chosen - first to motivate the Cop players to go together to arrest the Hacker, and second, to balance the powers of the Hacker and the Cops. In fact, the game was designed in such a way that arresting the Hacker was most unlikely for a single Cop and at least two Cops had to cooperate to be able to catch the Hacker. The appropriate equation in Table 1 is used to calculate parameter settings for each game and that will provide a target completion time that matches the estimate of the Cops’ travel time (from the distance and speed heuristic). The Discrete adaptation was used to balance the game,

\(1\) Aspelin, K., Establishing Pedestrian Walking Speeds, A proposal submitted to Portland State University, 2005
which means that once the Hacker has played the minigame for the minimum time, the game adapts to allow the Hacker to finish whatever tasks remain as quickly as they are able, by increasing the speed of the adaptive component listed in Table 1.

The Brickout game is given a special role. It is triggered if the Hacker is caught by one of the Cops. Catching the Hacker occurs if a Cop arrives at the same physical location as the Hacker’s virtual location, and ‘scans’ the computer. For every Cop that ‘scans’ the Hacker during a single instance of the Brickout game, an additional row of bricks appears, making the game more difficult to complete. If the Hacker completes the game before a timer runs out, they escape back into the network. If the Hacker fails to complete the minigame, they are captured and the Cops win.

The minimum game completion time for Brickout, as set by the ball speed, is slightly longer than the average physical transit time between any two physically adjacent nodes in the network. Well-organized teams of Cops therefore have the chance to ‘gang up’ on the Hacker by ensuring that reinforcements are sufficiently close. This special case demonstrates that minigames can be tuned to manipulate game balance based on user input as well as the initial game state.

5.2.2.2 Game Balance in Stealth Hacker

As mentioned previously, game balance in a mixed-reality game is critical, and ATMs were used as the main balancing mechanic, both to balance the timing of the tasks in the game, and to improve the enjoinment of the game for the players. In Stealth Hacker, Cops play the game in the real world while the Hacker plays in a virtual world. Obviously there is a huge difference between these two types of worlds that should be considered in the game balance:
• Cops can freely move in the real world and change their location, while the Hacker is limited to the virtual world of the game.

• Cops can move with their desired speed (as fast as or as slow as they want) but the Hacker moves with a constant speed that the game designer has set prior to the game.

• The Hacker moves from one computer to another without any obstacles while it is possible for Cops to be trapped by the potential obstacles of the real world such as dead ends, lack of signal coverage and locked doors.

Figure 22. Infrastructure of Stealth Hacker

Stealth Hacker was implemented as a test bed to evaluate the performance of the ATMs. Although managing technical issues in MMR games is a challenging task, it is possible to address many of the timing issues by exploiting ATMs. The goal here was to
make the gameplay enjoyable for players. It would be easy to force a virtual player, the Hacker, to wait for the real players by arbitrarily pausing at nodes; however, watching loading bars is not generally regarded as a recreational experience. In Stealth Hacker, it is possible to check the game state continuously while the Hacker is in the middle of the hacking process and change the minigame’s game mechanic to reach balance.

5.2.2.3. Implementation

Stealth Hacker is implemented with C# .NET using Visual Studio 2010 and Android using OpenGL ES and Eclipse Helios. Stealth Hacker contains more than 12000 lines of code for all game components. Figure 22 represents the infrastructure of the game. As shown in the figure, the game has two different sections; real and virtual, where Cops and the Hacker play. The mixed-reality engine of the game is responsible for executing the game play and synchronizing the real and virtual sides. When a Cop gets close enough to one of the computers, the Cop’s device detects the presence of a new location via the Bluetooth signal of the computers. The Cop’s device sends a request to the server including the state of the game (location of players), and asks for the latest update on the Hacker’s position. The server receives the Cop’s request and reflects it to the current state of the game in the database server of the game (based on Microsoft SQL Server) and updates the state of the game. The server then sends the Cop the updated game state. The Hacker’s system also frequently asks the server for the latest game state and represents it in the Hacker’s interface.

Since time management and synchronization in multiplayer games is one of the most important factors that affect the game play, it was crucial to handle the timing of
tasks in both the real-world and the virtual-world. Moreover, location-based games are usually vulnerable to stochastic confounds such as interruptions in network coverage.

Figure 23. Class diagram of Stealth Hacker

The system minimizes data transfer by eliminating worthless data transfers from the player-server communication (Figure 23). For example, whenever a Cop asks the server for the latest update, the server checks the latest update time of the game state package received from the Cop with the most recent update of the game state in the server and answers to the Cop’s request only if these two states are different. The code below shows a sample of the XML message that is transferred between a Cop and the server:

```xml
<Inspectors>
    <inspector id="0" position="0"/>
</inspectors>
```
5.2.2.4. Experiment

A group of four players aged from 25 to 39 years played Stealth Hacker eight times. Each time a different participant played the Hacker, meaning each player played the Hacker twice. Prior to the real experiment, participants played a practice round to make sure that the system worked smoothly and players understood the narrative and mechanics of the game. The experiment was run in the Thorvaldson building of the University of Saskatchewan. Computers were arranged in two different floors of the building:

- Three computers in a second floor laboratory
- One computer in the third floor corridor
- Three computers in a third floor laboratory

5.2.3 Evaluation of the Stealth Hacker MMR Game

To evaluate the subjective user experience during play, a survey was administrated (Appendix A). Players felt that the minigames were fun (mean rating 3.6 out of 5), and added to the overall game (4 Yes, 0 No), which was also seen as fun (mean rating 4.25 out of 5). Also participants were asked to rate the percentage of time they spent playing minigames (mean 62.5%), which was substantially less than the value
measured from the logs (mean 79.8%), which may indicate that players were attracted by
the minigames.

The balance of opportunity and outcome were examined by determining the
number of hacked systems per game and plotting an annotated node occupancy diagram
for one of the shorter games played. The ‘number of hacked systems’ metric is a measure
of overall balance because if the number is too small, it indicates that the Hacker had
little chance of winning; if too large, it indicates dominance by the Hacker. The Hacker
hacked all seven systems three times, winning the game, but still managed to hack at least
3 and an average of 5.75 systems in the 5 losses. The dynamic timing balance achieved
by the adaptive minigames is shown for a single game in Figure 24.

In this figure, the dark boxes represent the Hacker playing a minigame and the
numbered light boxes represent the three Cops while each number refers to one of the
Cops. The length of each box represents the time that each player has spent in a location.
The y-axis is the node location (one of the seven computers). Early in the game the Cops
were near the Hacker, and the minigame engine spawned three relatively easy games.
Once the Hacker moved to a more distant node, a much more difficult game was
spawned, which the Hacker successfully completed. In the final game, a more difficult
game was also spawned, as the Cops were initially far away, but rapidly converged on the
location of the Hacker and trapped him with three consecutive rows of Brickout, shown
by the occupancy of location 3 at the end of the game.
To verify that the minigame duration reflected the game state as the game evolved, an analysis was carried out and the results showed in Figure 24. This figure shows that in a single instance at least, the Cops were often proximate to the Hacker while the Hacker played the minigame. However, a single game does not provide compelling evidence of efficacy.

Figure 25 shows every minigame played over all eight conditions (each column represents one round of the game while one of the players was the Hacker). In this chart, each point represents a specific time while a minigame is being played:

- The red points are the “Actual Time” which show the time that has been taken for the player to finish the minigame.
The blue points are the “Estimated Time” which is calculated by the game engine and represents the minimum time that it takes for two Cops to reach the Hacker.

The green points are the “Minimum Time” which represents the minimum completion time for the current minigame.

As shown in the chart, the estimated average time for two Cops to reach the Hacker closely tracks the minimum calculated completion time of the minigame, demonstrating that the employed techniques have sufficiently high temporal resolution to capture variable game states. The actual time of completion follows the minimum values and shows variability both within and between subjects demonstrating the techniques provides game balance control without artificially limiting the game, by still allowing for player expertise and chance to play a role.

Figure 25. Completion times for all minigames in the experiment
In general three outcomes were observed: players had positive experiences playing the game as the Hacker, the game remained balanced in opportunity if not outcome, and the minigame timing reflected the game state at the time of instantiation.

5.3. Testing the Effect of Temporal Adaption Granularity and Game Genre on Abilities of Time Balancing Algorithms

Only the Discrete balancing algorithm has been presented thus far, both individually and embedded within a larger world with a MMR game. The third study tests the performance of other balancing algorithms – State and Continuous – and compares their results. To test State and Continuous balancing algorithms a time-vs.-progress model was required (see section 4.1). Hence, the third study is divided into two sections:

1. In the first section, an experiment was run to record players’ data while playing minigames separately. The result of this experiment was used to create as temporal exemplar models for each minigame.

2. In the second step, the balancing algorithms for all minigames were evaluated using a different pool of participants.

5.3.1. Exemplar models

The time-vs.-progress model represents the player’s thinking and reacting behaviour, and generally, the way that players are playing a game. Since the model is a step-by-step record of progress over time, it can be used to investigate the general balance of the game. The main goal of this phase of the study was to create the progress-
vs.-time model from players’ data for each minigame and represent it as a function of time. To be able to perform the Continuous balancing and State balancing algorithms, it is important to have a model that describes players’ experience as a form of progress over time.

A group of eight volunteer participants was recruited to play each of the game conditions. The average performance of the eight players within each game was recorded in a temporal exemplar model, similar to Figure 9 in section 4.1, where ‘performance’ was defined differently for the different games: time per disk in Spinning Puzzle, time per brick in Breakout, time per targeting action for Click-and-Hack, and time per piece for Electris.

5.3.2. Testing the Effect of Temporal Adaptation Granularity and Game Genre on Abilities of Time Balancing Algorithm

The goal of this experiment is to investigate two main issues with time balancing algorithms:

1. Accuracy in managing completion time - which addresses the following questions:

   Question 1: are the adaptive approaches more accurate than the non-adaptive condition?

   Question 2: which adaptive approach is most accurate?

   Question 3: does game type or difficulty level affect accuracy?

2. Player experience – which contains the following questions:
Question 4: Were there differences in the players’ perception of the different adaptive approaches?

Question 5: Did differences in adaptation alter the players’ enjoyment of the game?

5.3.2.1. Method

For this study, 24 test subjects were recruited (12 male and 12 female, average age of 27 years) from the university community. Participants were all experienced with mouse-and-windows software, and had a wide range of experience with video games (18 played games rarely – less than 3 hours a week, 5 played regularly – between 3 to 10 hours a week, and 1 played frequently – more than 10 hours a week). The study was carried out in a controlled environment using two systems, on a Windows 7 PC with a 1920x1080 screen and a dual core laptop with 1280x800 resolution. Minigames were run full-screen, and were all controlled with a standard two-button optical mouse. The study software recorded all performance measures and questionnaire data was gathered using online forms.

Participants played two versions of each of the four minigames described in section 4.4 (Click-and-Hack, Brickout, Electris, and Spinning Puzzle). One version had ‘easy’ starting difficulty, and therefore a lower expected completion time, and one version had ‘medium’ difficulty and a longer expected time. The specific starting values for easy and medium were dependent on the type of game, and are shown in Table 3.

Fatigue may lead to biased results so the difficulty of the minigames was set such that the experiment would be completed quickly. Participants played the eight different minigames (four game types and two difficulty levels) under the four different adaptation
approaches described in section 4.3 (No balancing, Discrete balancing, State balancing and Continuous balancing).

Table 3. Different settings for all minigames in the experiment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Easy</th>
<th>Medium</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Click and Hack</td>
<td>30 targets</td>
<td>50 targets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spinning Puzzle</td>
<td>5 rings</td>
<td>6 rings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electris</td>
<td>1 row</td>
<td>3 rows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breakout</td>
<td>1 row</td>
<td>3 rows</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each player was briefed on the different games and the procedure of the study. Players were told that different game configurations would be tested, but not what the differences between the conditions were or the ordering of the conditions. Similar to the first study – Testing Discrete balancing, players were told that minigames were going to be used in a bigger game and that the purpose of the experiment is to find the best parameter settings, so there could be some differences in the games. The players then played the eight minigames shown in Table 3 (four game types and two difficulty levels) with each of the four balancing algorithms. Players played all of the difficulties and balancing algorithms within each game in a different order, based on a Latin square design.

After every game, participants were given a short questionnaire to determine their play experience and their impression of the perceptibility of the algorithms. Participants were asked to complete the questionnaire (Appendix B) right after the experiments to make sure that the participant’s memory of the game was fresh. Game state and all parameters associated with the time balancing algorithms were logged. Once the
participants had completed all games, they were given a final questionnaire on their experience and a brief demographic survey.

5.3.2.2 Evaluation

The study used a factorial within-participants design, with three factors:

- **Adaptation Algorithm**: No-Balance, Discrete balancing, State balancing, Continuous balancing

- **Difficulty**: Easy or Medium starting difficulty

- **Game**: Click-and-Hack, Electris, Spinning Puzzle, Brickout.

The order of presentation of the games, and the order of presentation for the difficulty and adaptation conditions within each game, were balanced using Latin square designs. The main dependent measures were game completion time and game performance (progress over time was also recorded for the adaptation mechanism and is also used in the analysis). Timing data gathered from computer logs were analyzed with three-way ANOVA tests; post-hoc tests were conducted using Tukey’s Honest Significant Difference (HSD). Survey results were analyzed using Friedman’s ANOVA for related samples. For all tests, \( \alpha \) was set at 0.05.
5.3.2.3. Overall Completion Time

The ultimate goal of ATMs is to provide game designers with the ability to deploy situation-dependent time-balancing minigames within a larger game, and maintain tight control over the minigame completion time by using dynamic adaption to move individual performances toward an exemplar. Figure 26 shows the completion time distributions for all conditions in the second experiment.

Figure 26. Completion time distributions for all minigames and all conditions with minimum, 25 percentile, median, 75 percentile and maximum values

Within each game category, the Continuous adaptation is usually the minimum in time and variation, and No-Balance adaptation case is usually at maximum. The exception is Spinning Puzzle in easy mode (5 disks), which was dominated by a few notable outliers in the State case, where completion time was dominated by the difficulty of the puzzle, not the speed of the disks. In all cases the quartiles (represented by the extent of the box) and the 95% confidence interval (represented by the whiskers) are smallest for the Continuous case, indicating that player performance more closely adhered to the exemplar.
5.3.2.4. Accuracy in Managing Completion Time

Accuracy was determined by subtracting the completion time for each different game from the desired time indicated by the exemplar model; this provides an error for each minigame. Given the four adaption scenarios examined – No-Balance, Discrete, State and Continuous – the adaptive cases – Discrete, State and Continuous – should converge toward the exemplar, and the No-Balance case depart from the exemplar. Given the nature of the games, there should be differences in the relation between the balancing algorithms and the completion time for different games and difficulty levels.

The ANOVA showed significant main effects of all three primary factors on error amount (Algorithm: $F_{3,69}=14.67$; Game: $F_{3,69}=48.27$; Difficulty: $F_{1,23}=16.13$, all $p<0.001$). A summary of mean error amounts for these factors is shown in Figure 27.

The primary interest in following up these main effects was to find whether the adaptive approaches were more accurate than non-adaptive case (Q1) and to explore the most accurate adaptive balancing algorithm among all the adaptive algorithms (Q2). A Tukey’s HSD test showed that there were significant differences between the balancing algorithms (all $p<0.05$): all of the adaptation conditions had significantly lower error amounts than the No-Balance condition, and the Continuous algorithm had significantly lower error than Discrete and State; no other differences were found.
The ANOVA test also showed significant interactions between Algorithm and Game ($F_{9,207}=7.20$, $p<0.05$), and between Algorithm and Difficulty ($F_{3,69}=4.19$, $p<0.05$). Figure 28 summarizes these differences; as the figure indicates, the different algorithms performed differently on different games and difficulty levels. In particular, all algorithms performed better on Click-and-Hack than on the other games; and for some games (Spinning Puzzle and Brickout), differences between the algorithms were larger with the more difficult starting conditions, whereas for others (Electris), the differences were larger with the easy version of the game. These findings confirmed that there are...
many hidden elements in games that should be considered during the balancing process as discussed in section 3.2. Some of these variables are adjustable by game designers, but there are several factors that are out of designers’ hands. For example, the reaction speed of the players, or the time it takes for different players to solve a puzzle in a game are outside of a designer’s control.

Based on these results (Figure 26 and 27), the adaptation algorithm does have an effect on the results of balancing (Q1). Moreover, it is obvious that the choice of adaptation algorithm does affect accuracy, with Continuous having significantly lower error amount than other approaches (answer to Question 2). However, these results depend to some degree on both the type of game and the difficulty level (answer to Question 3).

5.3.2.5. Player Performance under Adaptation

Figure 28 shows the error times (actual completion times minus baseline exemplar time) for all of the adaptation algorithms for Spinning Puzzle (medium), and Brickout (medium). Figure 29 shows the performance and exemplar of a single player for the same pair of games.

Each graph in Figure 28 shows the absolute error performance of an individual participant for the given game and level combination. Players are sorted by completion time in the No-Balance case. Several notable outliers are evident in the State adaptation case for the Spinning Puzzle game. These outliers are primarily due to feedback effects and the low frequency of State updates in the Spinning Puzzle game, which only calculates balance once a disk has been correctly positioned. Players who performed
particularly well on a particular piece are unduly punished with a speed reduction on the next piece, potentially dramatically increasing completion time.

This performance oscillation is evident in Figure 29 (left), which shows the game performance for a single player overlaid on the exemplar. In Brickout (Figure 29- right) player performance follows the exemplar more closely, except for the Discrete balancing case. The Discrete algorithm shows a marked departure from the exemplar near the end of the game. This performance lag was due to the player missing the last brick, and having to bounce the ball back and forth over the width of the screen and back again to achieve the correct angle to strike the final brick and end the game, demonstrating that while adaptation can drive the player performance distribution towards a desired shape in aggregate, individual player performance still matters for the outcome of the game.

In the State case, small oscillations in the exemplar and player performance feedback upon each other to drive increasingly larger swings in performance, culminating in a final completion time is substantially slower than the exemplar or the Continuous balancing (Figure 30).
Figure 28. Error times for Spinning Puzzle - medium (top) and Brickout - medium (bottom) by person.
Figure 29. Performance and exemplar for a single example player for Spinning Puzzle - medium (left) and Brickout - medium (right). The bold line indicates the exemplar.

Figure 30. Spinning Puzzle (Medium- 6 rings)

5.3.2.6. Player Experience

The experiment established that minigames have useful properties for the parameterization of adaptation. However, appropriate balancing is of little utility if the adaptation algorithm destroys the game experience. To investigate the effects of different balancing techniques on player experience, participants were given the questionnaires after playing every condition and at the end of the session. Appendix B-1 indicates the
questionnaire that was given to participants after each set of minigames and appendix B-2 show the final questionnaire that was given to participants at the end of the session.

As a part of the results of the user study, the below statements were concluded:

• Over 59% of the players felt that minigames were fun or very fun (Figure 31) in every condition but State balance, also 12% of players felt that minigames were not fun in every condition except State balance. In State balance case, 46% of the players stated that the games were fun, but 29% have felt that games were not fun.

• A Friedman test of the responses to this question (see question 3 from appendix B-1) indicated no significant differences in level of fun between the different games, indicating either that adaptation algorithms did not affect player enjoyment of the game, or that the employed instrument was insufficiently precise to find the differences (Answer to Question 5).

![Figure 31. The fun level of games by adaptation algorithm](image)

It is also important to determine the relative perceptibility of the adaptation algorithm in each game. At the end of the experiment participants were asked “Did you notice a difference in the game mechanics between the four versions of <Minigame>?”, and “Did you notice that the game mechanics in <Minigame> would change based on your performance in the game?” Since the first question refers to the different
configurations of each game in the experiment, and each configuration represents a unique balancing algorithm, discovering whether players have noticed the differences between three balancing algorithms and No-Balance method was of a greatest interest. The answer of this question indicates whether players have noticed that the games were manipulated. The second question targets the relation between the adaptation algorithms and players’ performance, which reveals the noticeability of the exploited game mechanics. The yes/no responses to these questions are plotted in Figure 32 A and B. These two important questions were, intentionally, postponed to the end of the session because if these questions would be asked after every set of minigames (every adaptation algorithm), players might have noticed that there should be an adaptation mechanism.

The majority of participants noticed a difference in game mechanics between the four cases, although this is possibly due to the appearance changes in the games when adaptation was employed. The main reason of these variations in appearance is to hide the actual adaptation process and pretend that all the changes in the game mechanics come from visual effects.

Figure 32. Perceptibility of adaptation algorithms (A). Perceptibility of game mechanics (B)
Participants were also asked after each game condition to comment on whether they noticed any changes within the game. The question was kept intentionally vague to avoid biasing the within-subjects design. For all the games, only three participants (for Continuous and State) and five participants (for Discrete) responded affirmatively. Most of those responses commented on the change in game appearance. No respondents noted that the game mechanics changes seemed to be tied to their performance. In the Continuous case, participants actively stated that changes in mechanic were unrelated to their performance. For example for the Continuous cases:

“The background of Electris changes all the time during the game but it wouldn’t affect my performance.”

“The colour changes are fine, but seem to coincide with speed reductions in the parts of the game I do not control.”

“The color change in the middle of the Electris game does not have any significant meaning, and was initially misleading.”

These comments are distinct from feedback for the State cases where all players noted that the change in display was related to the speed of the game, indicating that the larger, less frequent speed changes in the State case were more noticeable.

“In Electris: I think the idea that the background colors changed was not bad but the speed kept changing too... made it less predictable.”

“The blue is a nice touch, though it seems to indicate slower gameplay, so I found myself looking forward to the red.”
“I liked the change of ball color in the Brickout game, perhaps it indicated the speed of the ball”.

Based on the survey results and participants’ comments, it is concluded that while some players noticed the change in the dynamic adaptation, none perceived that it was tied to their performance, indicating that dynamic adaptation was not noticeable in the experiment (Answer to Question 4).

In fact, by changing the appearance of the minigames during the game play, participants thought that changes of the game mechanics are consequences of changes of the game appearance, not their performance.
CHAPTER SIX
DISCUSSION

6.1 Outcomes of the Studies

My evaluations provide evidence for the efficacy of adaptive time-variant minigames as a mechanism for balancing time. In the first laboratory study the simplest form of balancing algorithm was used, the Discrete balancing algorithm, to manipulate the completion time of the minigames. This phase of the evaluation showed that it is possible to manipulate the completion time of minigames using time balancing algorithms. It also revealed that there are differences among players with various experience that lead to different overall completion times. The difference of player’s skill is important because it demonstrates that adaptive minigames alter but do not determine the game outcome.

In the second phase of the experiment, the real world study, the performance of the Discrete balancing algorithm was tested which was employed in a real mixed-reality multi-player game, Stealth Hacker. The result of the study showed that the minigames, using the Discrete balancing algorithm, are enjoyable and are capable of balancing the large game, which they embedded within. In the third phase of the study the effect of the frequency of the balancing algorithms update was investigated by using all the balancing algorithms crossed with all the games. The results of this study showed that it is possible to improve the accuracy of the adaptation by changing certain parameters in adaptation
algorithms and in particular, the connection between adaptation granularity and perceptibility was demonstrated. Results also showed that individual differences are still preserved.

6.2 What other types of ATMs are possible?

This work makes several contributions to the design and engineering of adaptive game mechanics. The idea of adaptive minigames can be applied much more widely than just the example systems demonstrated here. For example they can be used as time filters while levels are loading. The core elements of designing ATMs involve analyzing the time requirements for each game mechanic in the minigame, determining how the game can be parameterized to control completion time, and designing an adaptive algorithm for responding to run-time events.

This process is applicable to a wide variety of game genres. For example, a search minigame (e.g., *Where’s Waldo*) involves visual search as the main game mechanic. The time needed for visual search is a function of the number of items that must be searched, and the time needed to evaluate each item, allowing parameterization of items to the visual differences between the target and the distracters.

Many possible game mechanics can be considered:

- Pattern matching: includes recreating a previously shown pattern
- Aiming: includes targeting and shooting
- Pursuit tracking: includes purchasing a previously shown track step by step

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1 Official website of the Where’s Waldo: http://whereswaldo.com/index.html#home (visited on April, 2014)
• Short-term memory: includes repeating a set of related or unrelated event
• Spatial memory: includes selecting the location of the previously shown items in the game.

The timing profiles of some mechanics have been modeled (e.g., Fitts’ Law [48], Hick’s Law [49, 50], the Keystroke Level Model [51]), permitting the use of existing models as starting points for analyzing and parameterizing minigames.

The time needed for minigame tasks involving cognition (e.g., calculation, reasoning, or mental rotation) will be more difficult to predict and will be subject to greater individual differences, and so are less useful for use within an ATM. However, even cognitive tasks could be modeled using empirical testing – that is, a mean time and a distribution around that mean can easily be found by asking a sample group to play the game during design and testing, such as the exemplar presented here.

6.3 Explanation about Time-vs.-Progress Model

As previously mentioned, The time-vs.-progress model represents the player’s thinking and reacting behaviour, and generally, the way that players are playing a game. Since the model is a step-by-step record of progress over time, it can be used to investigate the general balance of the game - for example if the total completion time of a game is strongly affected by only one element of the game for all players, it indicates that this element may not be functioning properly. This element could be a minigame, which is residing inside of a bigger game, or could be a specific task or activity inside of a game or minigame. Although there are many possible uses of progress-vs.-time model, the implementation was kept simple, suitable for the preliminary analysis performed here.
6.4 Explanation for the main results

Accuracy of the adaptive methods. The results of the study showed that the adaptive algorithms performed well, and their success is a basic confirmation of the initial premise in this research – that the simpler mechanics of minigames can be analyzed and understood to the point where manipulation of completion time is possible. The overall completion times, mean errors and errors in different conditions and the in-depth examinations of player progress (e.g., Figure 26, 27, 28 and 29) showed that the algorithms were effective in recognizing divergence from the desired time, and effective in altering the games to shift the player’s time toward the exemplar.

Differences between game types. The adaptation methods performed differently for the different games. In Click-and-Hack, there was very little difference between any techniques, including no adaptation at all. In this case the game time is so well described by the underlying Fitts’ Law model that setting the static initial parameters may be enough to provide a particular time value. In contrast, time error in Electris was much larger and more varied across the different algorithms. In this game, the gameplay follows a much less linear path than Click-and-Hack, primarily due to the effects of making errors. These results indicate that the complexity of the game mechanics play a large role in the behavior of dynamic balancing algorithms such that some events in one game lead to a huge delay in completion of the game whereas in other games has much less effect on the overall completion time.

The value of more-frequent adaptation. Making adaptation decisions more frequently (as in the Continuous and State algorithms) was less perceptible and caused fewer oscillations in the players’ performance. The significant oscillations evident in
some cases (e.g., for some players in Electris) suggests that effective time balancing may only be possible in simple games such as simple minigames. More complex games (i.e., most main games) have much more sophisticated mechanics, and are likely to exhibit non-linear behavior when adaptations are introduced. By constraining the adaptation to games with simple mechanics that respond linearly to an input parameter - the risk of complex and difficult-to-control behaviors disrupting game balance is reduced.

**Retaining individual differences.** The studies also showed that employing an adaptive algorithm does not remove all variability from the games – as stated earlier, it is important to provide competitive balance but without negating the effects of player skill or game design. In the study results, there were larger variations between games and between difficulty levels than there were between algorithms. This is desirable because it demonstrates that the adaptation is not the dominant factor in determining completion time, and that designers have freedom to create the timing profiles they desire by appropriately choosing the game and difficulty level prior to instantiation. It is also worth noting that the Continuous algorithm did not disrupt game timing when the players’ performance was near the exemplar. Overall, the completion times still formed a distribution (albeit with significant variation in mean, and variance between games), with means driven towards the desired values specified by the exemplar.

**Cost vs. performance.** Although the Continuous balancing method is chosen as the most accurate balancing method it is obviously a trade-off between the cost and performance of the balancing method. In specific situations, Continuous balancing is relatively expensive, where the cost of each algorithm can be calculated by the consumed
time of the Central Processing Unit (CPU) of the computer, since it evaluates the player’s performance and game state moment by moment.

The performance of the Continuous adaptation. As mentioned earlier, one major step in time balancing using ATMs is to decide which adaptation algorithm should be carried out, for example Continuous or State; therefore, one important questions are the frequency at which the adaptation algorithm should be invoked during game play and the intensity that the adaptation algorithm performs on the adaptive components of the game. Since in each type of adaptation – Discrete, Continuous and State – the current state of the game is compared with a previously calculated exemplar, the frequency of the comparisons can affect the final result of the adaptation. With this in mind, regardless of its cost, it could be concluded that the Continuous adaptation is the best at any situation except when the cost of the balancing algorithm is crucially required to be low.

The performance of an adaptation algorithm depends on other parameters such as game type, player type, frequency of adaptation and underlying game mechanics. Moreover, each algorithm should be hidden from the player while managing the game-completion time. In fact, an adaptation algorithm that performs accurately is not necessarily the most desirable if it interferes with player experience. For example, consider an adaptation method which compares the elapsed time with an exemplar and when reaches a certain time, finishes the game suddenly. This method is accurate because the total completion time of the game will be exactly as specified, but the heavy-handed manipulation could destroy the gameplay experience for the player.

Although one of the goals of this research is to investigate the role of temporal adaptation granularity and game genre in time balancing capabilities, the players’ game
experience is implicitly addressed. While it is a reasonable hypothesis that a higher frequency adaptation leads to improved accuracy, it is still necessary to evaluate the players’ experience. In the third study of the evaluation phase of this research, 24 participants were asked to play the 4 minigames with different configurations to determine the perceptibility of adaptation algorithms and game mechanics, and consequently to see how enjoyable these algorithms are for players.

The adaptive algorithms were evaluated with respect to accuracy of completion time, and player experience. Player experience was further divided into the enjoyability of the game (fun), and the consenting perceptibility of the adaptation and adaptive mechanic. By considering the results in Figure 26 and Figure 27, the Continuous adaptation is the most accurate method among all other adaptation algorithms. Moreover, it deviated least from the desired completion time of all the algorithms. The more frequent operation of the mechanism dampens oscillation in players’ performance (Figure 29) and consequently leads to smaller variations in game mechanics and is therefore less perceptible to the players (Figure 32).

Since Continuous adaptation compares the current progress of the game with a previously obtained model, there should be a model with a sufficiently high temporal granularity and measurement accuracy to serve as a baseline. Generating these exemplar models (progress-vs.-time models) usually requires time and energy. To create exemplar models of games, researchers need to first, find all the effective elements of the game that impact the total completion time of the game, and second, run several experiments to record progress of several players during their gameplay and reflect all of them into one
model. This research used an exemplar that was derived from empirical data, which may be prohibitively expensive in commercial games.

6.5 Application and Deployment

Minigame-based time balancing can be employed in any game in which there are obvious breaks in pacing where a minigame can be inserted. This is often done in current mainstream games in a non-adaptive way with quick-time events (activities that should be performed in a given time or as quick as possible), where the primary gameplay mechanic is suspended and replaced with a rhythm/pattern-matching mechanic such as pressing a set of buttons on gamepad as quick as possible or recreate a previously shown pattern as quick as possible. While a more fulsome examination of the applicability of this approach is the subject of future work, an initial discussion is provided here of the applicability of the minigame time balancing mechanic to two general types of game interactions: races, and action timing.

In race games, time is the final mediator. Whoever completes the challenge fastest – whether it is solving a puzzle, building a structure or navigating a maze – is the winner. Significant attention has been paid to providing balanced outcomes in racing games, from subtly increasing the top speed of the weaker player, to providing context sensitive power-ups based on position. Minigames could be used to help provide timing balance if the primary game mechanic provides for a break in the race. This could be a pit stop in a car-racing game, a locked door in a maze racing game, or the scheduled discipline switches in a triathlon. This type of timing intervention is analogous to the Stealth Hacker mixed reality game. In this case, designers could use games like Spinning Puzzle to
maximize potential control over the timing, or Electris to provide an additional time penalty for player with too many mistakes in the minigame.

While racing games are based on time-to-completion, many other games, such as First Person Shooters, Real Time Strategy and Role-Playing Games are based to a large extent on relative rates, such as Damage-Per-Second (DPS) or power-to-build-time tradeoffs. Minigames could be spawned during changeover events, such as reloading a weapon or casting a spell to replace the fixed cool-down timers that are explicitly (for a spell in a MMORPG) or implicitly (through a reloading animation) rendered in existing games. This could be integrated into the game as an additional exercise in skill: players that can cast spells or reload their weapons faster would have a DPS advantage. Because of the tight timelines imposed by these small cool-down timers, designers would likely want to opt for low mean, low variation minigames such as Click-and-Hack to add small amounts of balance to regularly repeated actions, rather than large mean and variation games suitable for infrequent actions. It is easy to imagine a direct variant of Click-and-Hack in a Massive Multiplayer Online game context where minigames would appear and players would have to click them in order to complete the spell. Mystic ruins locations, ancient location on the planet of the game, in Sonic 2 are a good example of this type of minigames where player enters and collects points and coins for recurring damages.

6.6 Limitations and Future Work

The limitations of this work relate to the relative youth of multiplayer balancing algorithms in general, and time-balancing algorithms in particular. In the following list, four primary shortcomings and the future work required to address them are highlighted.
1. **Scope:** Only a fraction of the proposed balance methodologies described in this work have been tested, which are in turn only a subset of all the possible minigame balancing mechanics. While this research demonstrates the feasibility of the approach, fertile ground remains for examining the breadth of applicability and generalizability of the concept. In particular, many game mechanics are based on psychometric principles (e.g., movement, memory-based recall) that have well-studied models, and could be used to provide a better understanding of how particular kinds of game elements can predict completion time.

2. **Breadth:** The analysis focused on the adaptation mechanics, and on examining the impact of integrating the minigames within a larger gaming context. Given that the viability of the integrated approach has been established in Stealth Hacker, this was a reasonable experimental methodology. Future work in this area involves consideration of how minigames can be designed to fit into the overall narrative of the main game, and how timing requirements can be identified within the main game and used as the initial conditions of the minigame.

3. **Sample Bias:** As with any experiment involving human subjects, there is the possibility for sample bias. Obviously, the findings of this research will not hold for all players equally; in fact it is reasonable to hypothesize that competitive gamers would be more sophisticated at spotting small adjustments in game mechanics than the dedicated but not elite gamers studied here. Broader studies with different games and demographics could extend the results.
4. **Baseline:** In this research, only two simple variants of the exemplar model were examined. In the first experiment, and in the real world experiment, the case where the timing profile was entirely defined by the designer as the minimum required completion time was examined. In the second experiment, the advanced versions of the adaptation algorithms, the entirely empirical case where desired average time was based on play-tester performance was tested. In general, the focus in this research was on real-time mixed-reality multi-player games, although ATMs can be employed on other types of games and game genres. In the future, more sophisticated exemplar variants based on the synthesis of designer intuition and empirical metrics garnered during playtesting and by mining play logs after game deployment are expected.

5. **More evaluation with real games in the real world:** The dynamic time adaptation algorithm presented in the real world experiment was somewhat crude, but accepted by players. The more elegant way would be testing the Stealth Hacker game in all situations and with all adaptation algorithms (Continuous and State). It is possible to record partial completion times of the players and use it as an exemplar in adaptation algorithms in a bigger game. Although an experiment was carried out to evaluate this effect with a simple version of the adaptation, the Discrete balancing algorithm, it is still not clear whether the performance of the players will be affected within a bigger game with other adaptation algorithms.
CHAPTER SEVEN
SUMMARY

In this work a novel approach was described for balancing timing in multiplayer games using adaptive time-variant minigames. There are three primary contributions to this research, already published at International Conference of Entertainment Computing (ICEC) 2011 [42] (nominated for the best paper) and the Entertainment Computing Journal 2013 [43]. The key contributions of this research was categorized in the following categories:

- The concept of time balancing through ATMs. By instantiating ATMs outside the flow of the regular game it is possible to adapt the timing with strictly controlled mechanics without interrupting the depth of play or narrative of the main game.

The first phase of the study (testing minigames in situ when the Discrete balancing algorithm was employed) showed that the minimum and expected completion times of the minigames were predictable. The results of this experiment (Figure 20) revealed three important properties:

1. Minigames have linearly increasing mean time of completion with difficulty.

2. There is a game-dependent decrease in completion times with adaption.
3. The means and variations of completion time of each of the games are significantly different indicating the presence of different players’ skill and experience.

- Evidence for the efficiency of the ATMs. It was demonstrated that ATMs can provide a compelling experience for balancing a mixed-reality game, a particularly difficult time-balancing problem since computer players must be balanced against those in the real world. The second study with a real mixed-reality game, Stealth Hacker, showed that the minigames were enjoyable, and provided the balancing effects for which they were designed. This phase of the experiment also revealed the followings:

  1. Players had positive experiences playing the game as the Hacker
  2. The game remained balanced in opportunity if not outcome
  3. The minigame timing reflected the game state at the time of instantiation

- Evidence for the interaction between adaptive algorithm, game mechanic, and game difficulty. As one of the results of this research, significant effects and interactions for all three factors were found, confirming the intuition that these processes are important and linked. It was also found that finer temporal granularity leads to less-perceptible adaptation and smaller deviations in game completion times. A continuous time-based update strategy, coupled with design techniques meant to integrate or mask the adaptability led to average completion times tending toward the desired value, while minimizing player disruption. In particular, the following result were found based on the third phase of the experiment:
1. All of the adaptive algorithms were more effective than the non-adaptive condition in manipulating minigame completion time.

2. The Continuous algorithm was significantly more accurate than all other algorithms, and State-based balancing was more accurate than Discrete.

3. The Continuous algorithm had the lowest standard deviation of all algorithms.

4. Participants noticed some changes to game parameters, but people did not notice the connection between the changes and their performance.

5. The more frequent adaptation algorithms (Continuous and State) appeared to be less noticeable overall.

6. The adaptive methods did not reduce participants’ subjective level of fun.

7.1 Conclusion

In this thesis, two major types of game balancing have been discussed: outcome balancing and player balancing, in which the main focus was on player balancing. Different techniques for balancing players were discussed such as manipulating game resources of players during game play or modifying starting times to deal with different skill levels of players. As the next step, the concept of time and time balancing in different computer game was discussed in detail and time balancing using ATMs was introduced as a possible opportunity to balance timing of different activities in games.

As a part of time balancing using ATMs, four minigames were introduced – Click-And-Hack, Spinning Puzzle, Electris and Brickout – and three different balancing
algorithms were discussed – State balancing, Continuous balancing and Discrete balancing. Eventually, the different possibilities of integration of introduced balancing techniques into a number of gaming genres, including the popular Racing, RPG, RTS and MMORPG genres, were discussed.

In the first evaluation phase of this research, minigames were examined in situ to show that it is possible to manipulate the timing of different activities in game using ATMs and deliver specific total completion time. In the second phase, ATMs were embedded within a larger game and results showed that the larger game was still fun to play. Eventually, the final phase of the evaluation examined the effect of intensity and frequency of the balancing algorithms crossed with different genres of game.

As a result of the different experiments, it was demonstrated that these minigames can deliver different time constraints and can provide a compelling experience for balancing a mixed-reality game, a particularly difficult time-balancing problem since computer players must be balanced against those in the real world. Finally, it was indicated that different adaptation algorithms are effective in the results of the balancing and different balancing algorithms have different prerequisites and accuracies. Also, it showed that the employed dynamic balancing algorithms were not noticeable from player’s perspective, which is suitable for game designers.

In the future, exploring the potential for balancing other game genres using this mechanism is expected. Additional minigame mechanics, more sophisticated adaptation algorithms and the integration within larger gaming contexts will be investigated. This work represents a strong foundation for the continued research, development and deployment of time-adaptive minigames.
CHAPTER EIGHT
REFERENCES


[31] Weibel, D., Wissmath, B., Habegger, S., Steiner, Y., Groner, R., Playing online games against computer- vs. human-controlled opponents: Effects on presence, flow,


Participant ID:

How interested are you in video games?

Extremely interested

Very much interested

Moderately interested

Slightly interested

Not interested

How do you evaluate your expertise in video games?

Very high

Above average

Average

Below average

Very low

Please state the types of games that you play (you may choose more than one)

Action

Adventure

Role Playing Game

Simulation

Strategy

Puzzle

Other
How frequently do you spend playing video games?

- Once a week
- 3-6 times a week
- Everyday
- Other

How much time do you spend normally per game session playing the game without taking any breaks?

- Less than one hour
- Between 1 to 5 hours
- More than 5 hours
Participant ID:
Electris

How fun was the game?
Very funny
Slightly funny
Slightly boring
Boring

Can you comment on why or why not you thought the game was fun?

How fun was the game? Please rate out of 5 (1=less fun, 5=more fun).

How challenging was the game?
Easy
Normal
Hard
Nightmare
Can you comment on why or why not you thought the game was difficult?

How long you think took for you to finish the game?

Much shorter than what I expected
Slightly less than what I expected
As I expected
Longer than what I expected
Much longer than what I expected

How long you think took for you to finish the game? (out of %100)
Participant ID:
BrickOut

How fun was the game?
Very funny
Slightly funny
Slightly boring
Boring

Can you comment on why or why not you thought the game was fun?

How fun was the game? Please rate out of 5 (1=less fun, 5=more fun).

How challenging was the game?
Easy
Normal
Hard
Nightmare
Can you comment on why or why not you thought the game was difficult?

How long you think took for you to finish the game?

Much shorter than what I expected
Slightly less than what I expected
As I expected
Longer than what I expected
Much longer than what I expected

How long you think took for you to finish the game? (out of %100)
Participant ID:
Puzzle

How fun was the game?
Very funny
Slightly funny
Slightly boring
Boring

Can you comment on why or why not you thought the game was fun?

How fun was the game? Please rate out of 5 (1=less fun, 5=more fun).

How challenging was the game?
Easy
Normal
Hard
Nightmare
Can you comment on why or why not you thought the game was difficult?

How long you think took for you to finish the game?

Much shorter than what I expected
Slightly less than what I expected
As I expected
Longer than what I expected
Much longer than what I expected

How long you think took for you to finish the game? (out of %100)
Participant ID:
Click-and-Hack

How fun was the game?
Very funny
Slightly funny
Slightly boring
Boring

Can you comment on why or why not you thought the game was fun?

How fun was the game? Please rate out of 5 (1=less fun, 5=more fun).

How challenging was the game?
Easy
Normal
Hard
Nightmare
Can you comment on why or why not you thought the game was difficult?

How long you think took for you to finish the game?

Much shorter than what I expected
Slightly less than what I expected
As I expected
Longer than what I expected
Much longer than what I expected

How long you think took for you to finish the game? (out of %100)
APPENDIX B-1

How successful were you in these games? *
(Completing the games as fast as possible, with the fewest possible errors)

1 2 3 4 5
Unsuccessful ● ● ● ● Successful

Why you were successful or unsuccessful?
(Optional. One or two sentences only.)

How much fun were these games to play? *

1 2 3 4 5
Not Fun ● ● ● ● Very Fun

Why were the games fun, or not fun?
(Optional. One or two sentences only.)

Which parts of the game visuals and mechanics did you like, and why? Which parts didn’t you like and why? (The 4 games were: Puzzle, Click-and-Hack, Electris, and BrickOut) *
(Please be as specific and detailed as possible)
APPENDIX B-2

Section 1 of 3: Demographics

Participant ID:

Gender: *
- Male
- Female

What is your occupation? (If you are a student, what is your major?) *

What input devices do you usually use? *
(E.g. Keyboard, mouse, trackpad, joystick, touchscreen, etc.)

How many hours a week, on average, do you spend playing computer/video games? *

Which games, or types of games do you usually play? *
(E.g. First-person shooter, role-playing, real-time strategy, etc.)

When playing computer/video games, how much time do you normally spend per session? *
(Playing the game without taking a break)
- Less than 1 hour
- 1 to 2 hours
- More than 2 hours
1: Did you notice a difference in the game mechanics between the 4 versions of Puzzle? *
   - Yes
   - No

If yes, could you please describe the differences you noticed: (between the 4 versions of Puzzle)
   Please be as specific and detailed as possible.

2: Did you notice a difference in the game mechanics between the 4 versions of Click-and-Hack? *
   - Yes
   - No

If yes, could you please describe the differences you noticed: (between the 4 versions of Click-and-Hack)
   Please be as specific and detailed as possible.

3: Did you notice a difference in the game mechanics between the 4 versions of Electris? *
   - Yes
   - No

If yes, could you please describe the differences you noticed: (between the 4 versions of Electris)
   Please be as specific and detailed as possible.

4: Did you notice a difference in the game mechanics between the 4 versions of BrickOut? *
   - Yes
   - No

If yes, could you please describe the differences you noticed: (between the 4 versions of BrickOut)
   Please be as specific and detailed as possible.
5: Did you notice that the game mechanics in Puzzle would change based on your performance in the game?  
* Did you notice the game was changing based on how successfully you were playing?  
  ○ Yes  
  ○ No  

If yes, please tell us which of the 4 versions of Puzzle you noticed this in, as well as how and when you noticed.  
Please be as specific and detailed as possible!

6: Did you notice that the game mechanics in Click-and-Hack would change based on your performance?  
* Did you notice the game was changing based on how successfully you were playing?  
  ○ Yes  
  ○ No  

If yes, please tell us which of the 4 versions of Click-and-Hack you noticed this in, as well as how and when you noticed.  
Please be as specific and detailed as possible!

7: Did you notice that the game mechanics in Electris would change based on your performance?  
* Did you notice the game was changing based on how successfully you were playing?  
  ○ Yes  
  ○ No  

If yes, please tell us which of the 4 versions of Electris you noticed this in, as well as how and when you noticed.  
Please be as specific and detailed as possible!

8: Did you notice that the game mechanics in BrickOut would change based on your performance?  
* Did you notice the game was changing based on how successfully you were playing?  
  ○ Yes  
  ○ No  

If yes, please tell us which of the 4 versions of BrickOut you noticed this in, as well as how and when you noticed.  
Please be as specific and detailed as possible!