

Research article

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Opening up the court: analyzing player performance across tennis Grand Slams

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Abstract: In tennis, the Australian Open, French Open, Wimbledon, and US Open are the four most prestigious events (Grand Slams). These four Grand Slams differ in the composition of the court surfaces, when they are played in the year, and which city hosts the players. Individual Grand Slams come with different expectations, and it is often thought that some players achieve better results at some Grand Slams than others. It is also thought that differences in results may be attributed, at least partially, to surface type of the courts. For example, Rafael Nadal, Roger Federer, and Serena Williams have achieved their best results on clay, grass, and hard courts, respectively. This paper explores differences among Grand Slams, while adjusting for confounders such as tour, competitor strength, and player attributes. More specifically, we examine the effect of the Grand Slam on player performance for matches from 2013 to 2019. We take two approaches to modeling these data: (1) a mixed-effects model accounting for both player and tournament features and (2) models that emphasize individual performance. We identify differences across the Grand Slams at both the tournament and individual player level.

Keywords: hierarchical modeling; mixed-effects model; open-source; reproducible research; tennis.

1 Introduction

The four tennis Grand Slams (Australian Open (AO), French Open (FO), Wimbledon (Wim.), US Open (USO)) are played in different cities (Melbourne, Paris, London, New York

City) at different times of the year (January, May, June/July, August/September). They are played over the course of two weeks with seven total rounds and 128 players in both the men's (ATP) and women's (WTA) tours. All four slams are played on different surfaces (Plexicushion hard court, clay, grass, DecoTurf hard court), and it is commonly thought that top players perform better at certain slams. For instance, Spanish players, led by Rafael Nadal, seem to have dominated the French Open in recent years (Lewit 2018). In addition, "home court advantage" is believed to play a role, in which players from the country of the Grand Slam tournament are thought to perform better at home than at other Grand Slams.

In this paper, we use 2013–2019 tennis data to analyze differences in player performance at Grand Slams. We highlight three players to motivate our interest in performance across different slams. Nadal is known as the "King of Clay" in tennis, having won 13 out of his current 20 Grand Slam titles at the French Open (Jurejko 2018). In contrast, Nadal's rival Roger Federer has won most of his Grand Slam titles (8 out of 20) at Wimbledon. On the women's side, Serena Williams, winner of 23 Grand Slam titles, has been dominant both on hard court (7 titles at the Australian Open and 6 at US Open) and grass (7 at Wimbledon). This is not to imply that other successful players such as Djokovic, V. Williams, and Sharapova are irrelevant in the study of Grand Slam effects, but in this paper we use Nadal, Federer, and S. Williams as the prime examples of slam-specific dominance.

Existing literature provides methods for forecasting the outcome of tennis matches (Klaassen and Magnus 2003; Kovalchik 2016; McHale and Morton 2011; Newton and Keller 2005) and for assessing whether points within a match are independent and identically distributed (Klaassen and Magnus 2001). Barnett and Pollard (2007), Paxinos (2007), Knottenbelt, Spanias, and Madurska (2012), and Sipko (2015) look into building models that take the court surface/tournament into account. Results from studies performed in other sports show that surface type does have an effect on the game, either directly or indirectly (Andersson, Ekblom, and Krustup 2008; Gains et al. 2010). There also have been a number of papers

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about specific players including Federer, S. Williams, and Nadal with regards to performance prediction and other modeling (Leitner, Zeileis, and Hornik 2009; Morris 2015; Newton and Aslam 2009; Wei et al. 2013).

We examine the impact of tournament on performance across all participants in Grand Slams, and also investigate the impact on individual players, with a focus on Nadal, Federer, and S. Williams. To analyze the differences, we

1. Perform exploratory data analysis to visualize and understand the data at a high level and assess commonly held beliefs about player performance at the four Grand Slams.
2. Develop general mixed-effects models to estimate effects of some variables, such as rank and opponent rank, that are constant across all players, while capturing individual effects across each player for each slam.
3. Model players individually to assess specific strengths and weaknesses across the Grand Slams.

Our first approach is to explore how specific attributes of our data change across slams using visualizations. We examine the distribution of total points, wins, aces (a serve an opponent is unable to return), and unforced errors (UE) (when a player makes a simple mistake resulting in a loss of the point) across tournaments. In this exploratory analysis, we do not find evidence in favor of a home-court advantage and only find little evidence suggesting that Spanish players perform better on clay (i.e., at the French Open). We confirm the well-known claim that taller players are better servers (regardless of slam).

Our second approach is to develop a general mixed-effects regression model (also called a hierarchical model), which takes into account player and tournament attributes. We use data that includes all Grand Slam matches from 2013 to 2019. A mixed-effects modeling approach leverages tournament information from all players, allowing us to model players with few matches played. This approach, furthermore, accounts for the same players appearing multiple times in the data, since players may participate in multiple Grand Slams each year, resulting in non-independent observations. We are thus able to simultaneously analyze player and slam effects.

Our third approach is to model performance for specific players individually, with subsets of the data set that provide detailed point-by-point information for top players. We look at the top 10 WTA and ATP players, based on the total number of Grand Slam matches played between 2013 and 2019.

To validate our conclusions, we use common model fit measures such as AIC. We also examine whether our models pass “common sense” tests (e.g., how the models in Thomas et al. (2013) show that commonly well known hockey players also have high status in the model). Further, we examine whether specific tennis players perform better at different slams. All of our data used in this analysis is open source and described in detail in Section 2. Moreover, all methods and models are reproducible and available online (details in Section 2.1).

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we describe the Grand Slam tennis data and examine it at a high level (Approach 1). In Section 3.1, we describe our general mixed-effects models and results (Approach 2). In Section 3.2, we describe our approach to creating individual models for each player and provide a summary of results (Approach 3). Finally, Section 4 provides a summary of all results and discusses future work.

2 Data and exploratory data analysis

2.1 Data

All data in our analysis is obtained via the R package *deuce* (Kovalchik 2017), which accesses repositories of Sackmann (2021) containing data from the four Grand Slam websites. The complete Grand Slams data set consists of 7112 matches split evenly over the seven rounds of each of the four Grand Slams (2013–2019) for the two tours: ATP (men’s) and WTA (women’s). Each match has 80 attributes, many of which are redundant. We focus on the following attributes for both the winner and loser of the match: *games won*, *points won*, *retirement*, *break points faced*, *break points saved*, *aces*, *country of origin*, and player attributes such as *age*, *height*, and *weight*. Additionally, we take into account the *number of sets* in a match, and the *round* of the tournament. Note that in Grand Slams, men play a best of five set match, and the women a best of three. An example of the data is shown in Table 1.

The secondary data set originated as partial point-by-point data for Grand Slam matches. In this data set, each row is a point in a match with details on *who won the point*, *service speed*, and whether a player had a *forced* or *unforced error*, *winner*, *ace*, or *net point win*. There is also tournament information such as *court surface*, *year*, and *time start*. Additional attributes include *rally length*, *winner and final score of the match*, *retirement*, and *minutes played*. However, these additional attributes are only

Table 1: Example of the official, complete Grand Slam data.

Winner	Tournament	Year	W IOC	W Pts	W rank	L Pts	L rank
Serena Williams	Australian Open	2013	USA	54	3	26	15
Roger Federer	Australian Open	2013	SUI	95	2	63	46
Rafael Nadal	French Open	2013	ESP	140	4	115	59
Caroline Garcia	Wimbledon	2013	FRA	66	100	55	47

It includes winner and loser attributes, match attributes, and tournament attributes. Not all attributes are shown here. We abbreviate winner with “W,” loser with “L,” points with “Pts,” and International Olympic Committee Country Code with “IOC.”

Table 2: Example of a row in the secondary, partial data set.

Winner	Tournament	Year	Aces	Winners	UE	Break points won
Serena Williams	Australian Open	2013	28	10	20	5
Novak Djokovic	French Open	2013	5	26	31	3

available for a subset of the matches recorded in the primary data set. After aggregating the point-by-point data over the match, this partial data set consists of 3858 observations (compared to the 7112 matches in the primary data set). An example of the data is shown in Table 2.

Across both the ATP and WTA, the median rank of the winners for the primary data is 29, and the median rank for the winners of the secondary data is 22. The median rank among losers in the secondary dataset is also higher than the primary. This indicates that better-ranked (lower) players are more likely to have point by point data recorded, which indicates that the missing data in the secondary, partial data is not random. Additionally, we find that no WTA point-by-point data are available for 2015. Finally, there are no point-by-point data for 2018–2019 at both the French Open and the Australian Open.

In Table 3, we display the number of matches Nadal, Federer, and S. Williams played from 2013 to 2019 at the four Grand Slams. Over that time span, Nadal won eight Grand Slams, Federer won three, and S. Williams won eight. Of these three, Federer has played the most matches at Wimbledon (41), Nadal at the French Open (43), and Williams

the most on hardcourts (75 between the US Open and Australian Open). Notably, these three players missed at least three slams each due to external factors such as injury.

2.2 Distribution of points scored

We first examine whether the distribution of number of points per match differs by slam in Figure 1 (left), while accounting for the tour (ATP vs. WTA). This distribution is similar across tournaments, with Wimbledon differing slightly from the other Grand Slams. As expected, there are more points scored in the ATP than the WTA (Figure 1 (right)) due to the differing number of sets played. Also unsurprisingly, the winners of the match tend to score more points than the losers. However, about 5% of players who won the match actually scored fewer points than their opponent, and not all of these can be attributed to player retirement.

2.3 Home court advantage

It is commonly thought that there is a home court advantage in Grand Slam matches (Morris 2013). For example, we may expect French players to achieve better results at the French Open compared to the other slams. However, the host city is given preference for wild card bids (USTA 2018) so potentially citizens of a given country play in their “home” tournament more often than they play in other tournaments. The data confirms this notion, e.g., the proportion of French players in the French Open is greater than the proportion of French players in other slams.

We explore how the proportion of wins for the home country changes across the different tournaments. If there really is a home court advantage, after adjusting for the

Table 3: Number of matches played for Nadal, Federer, and Williams from 2013 to 2019 at each of the Grand Slams.

Tournament	Nadal	Federer	S. Williams
Australian Open	32	39	35
French Open	43	20	30
US Open	34	31	40
Wimbledon	23	41	35
Total	132	131	140

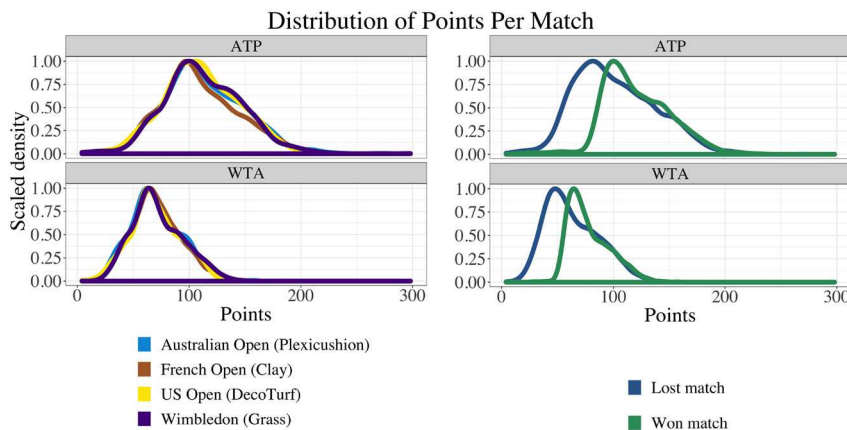


Figure 1: Distribution of number of points for the different Grand Slams (left) and distribution of points per match faceted by winner and loser for the two tours (right).

ranking of players, the proportion of French wins each round would be higher at the FO than the AO, the USO, and Wim. The same would be true for Australia, the US, and the UK. However, in Figure 2, this is not the case. We plot the percent of matches won for the first four rounds for players of the four countries across the four different Grand Slams. After accounting for the number of players from each country, we do not find a statistically significant home court advantage in the Grand Slams as the lines and their confidence intervals (not shown) overlap. In fact, we note in the first round (R128) that the “home” players are typically losing more than at other slams, which may indicate that adding more home players with the wild card bid does not guarantee that those players will make it to later rounds. In the subtitles of Figure 2 we note the number of players from each country (n), which varies across the four countries. The varying sizes impact the variability

of our results and are potentially why we see more pronounced differences in the British players graph (which has the fewest players).

While we include worse-ranked (i.e., higher rank) players who are able to play courtesy of the wild-card bid, we can also exclude those and examine the home-court advantage for players who typically play all four slams. We again find that the results are not significant, but we do not display the results as they do not differ from those in Figure 2. Regardless of whether we include wild-card bid players from the home country or not, we do not find evidence of a home-court advantage.

2.4 Spanish players at the French Open

Another common notion in tennis is that Spanish players perform better at the French Open compared to the other slams. Most would agree this is true for Nadal, but other players such as Muguruza, Ferrer, and Verdasco have also

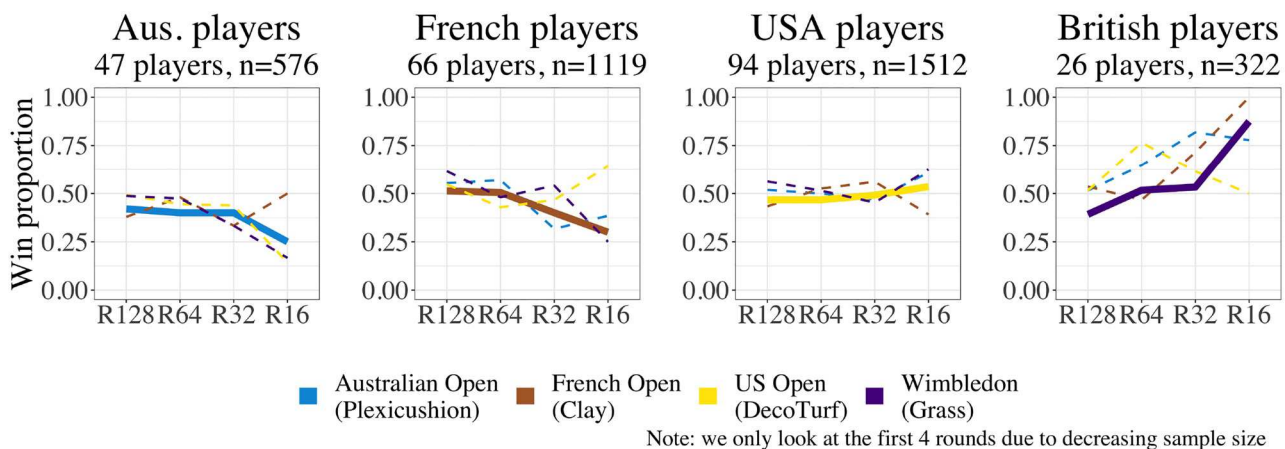


Figure 2: The percent of matches won for the first four rounds for players of the Grand Slam home countries. A significant home court advantage does not appear to exist in any of the Grand Slams after we account for the number of players from a given country (the confidence intervals for each line, which are not shown, overlap). Please note the varying number of players and matches (n) across the individual graphs, which contribute to result variability.

demonstrated recent success on clay. This phenomenon may be explained by the fact that many Spanish players grow up practicing on clay courts, which is typically less common for players from other countries. We explore this phenomenon in Figure 3. It appears that Spanish players win more often at the French Open in the first and second rounds (R128 and R64, respectively), shown by the height of the brown line. However, this result is not significantly higher ($p\text{-value} = 0.219, 0.474$ respectively) using Chi-squared tests. We must also account for the ranking of the players at each round, as having a median higher numerical rank (higher rank \rightarrow worse player) in later rounds indicates that the player is doing better than expected (we expect to see better players in later rounds). When we explore the right graph of Figure 3, the median ranking of Spanish players in the French Open is higher than other tournaments within the first two rounds. In conclusion, we find that within the initial two rounds, players from Spain in the French Open are worse in ranking yet winning more often. Therefore, it is hard to tell from this data whether there is a real effect and further analysis is needed to determine if Spanish players perform better at the French Open.

2.5 Patterns in aces and unforced errors

In tennis, players strive to increase their number of aces and decrease their number of unforced errors. We examine how this relationship differs by slam, given that the serve is often considered to be the most important shot in tennis. In Figure 4 we plot the percentage of unforced errors and aces in a match and color each point by the slam. Matches in Wimbledon seem to follow different ace/unforced error patterns than the other tournaments. These matches tend to cluster in the left (and slightly upper) part of the graph, meaning that Wimbledon matches tend to have fewer unforced errors and more aces. It is thought that the ball moves faster on grass courts and so the larger number of aces is expected but making fewer errors is surprising,

especially because players seldom practice on grass. However, the classification of “forced” versus “unforced” errors is subjective, and Wimbledon scoring officials have a reputation for generous score keeping (Bialik 2014; Perrotta and Bialik 2013). A second possible explanation for this is that the rally length of Wimbledon points is shorter than the other slams, but we do not currently have data to test this hypothesis.

Another common notion about tennis is that taller players are better servers. In Figure 5 we explore this notion, where each point represents one player. We see a strong positive correlation between the median percent of aces per match and height, confirming prior beliefs. This trend also follows if we were to use the mean ace percentage or if we plotted all of the tournaments separately. Very tall players such as Karlovic and Isner consistently have a large percent of aces. Federer consistently has more aces than expected for his height whereas, generally, Nadal has fewer aces than expected for his height and Murray has about the expected number. For the women’s game, the trend also holds true. We see S. Williams with an extremely large number of aces for her height, whereas V. Williams serves slightly fewer than expected, on average, for her height during this time period.

3 Statistical models to analyze differences

In addition to exploring the differences among the slams descriptively, we also take a model-based approach to analyze the differences. We explore whether player performance varies across tennis Grand Slams and ask questions ranging from a high-level (e.g., are some Grand Slams associated with more unforced errors than others) to a player level (e.g., does Federer hit more aces at Wimbledon than other Grand Slams). As previously mentioned, we use two data sets: the primary data with fewer tennis attributes

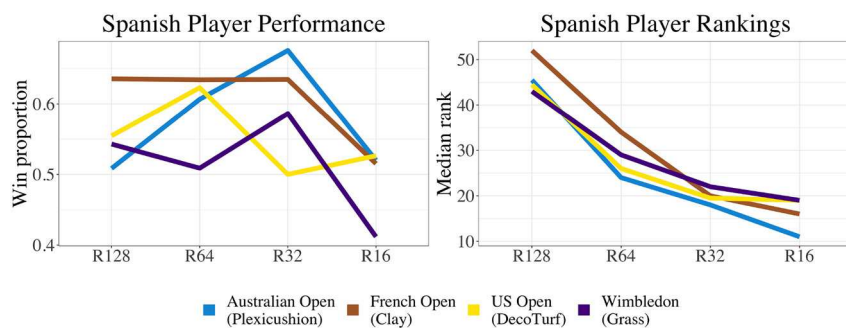


Figure 3: Performance and ranking among Spanish players at the Grand Slam tournaments. Within the first two rounds (R128, R64), players from Spain win more often at the French Open than other slams, but this difference is not significant. Exploring rank, we see that the median rank of Spanish players is higher (worse), within these two rounds, potentially providing evidence in favor of a relationship between performance and the French Open.

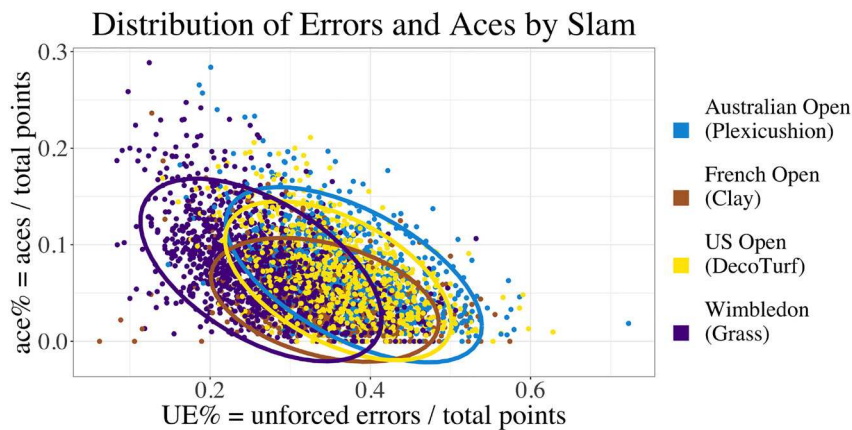


Figure 4: We see Wimbledon matches tend to have more aces and fewer unforced errors than the other tournaments. Ellipses shown follow a multivariate t-distribution. Each point on the figure represents one match. UE% is calculated by summing the unforced errors of the two opponents and dividing that by the total number of points played. The ace% is calculated similarly but with the numerator representing the sum of both players' aces.

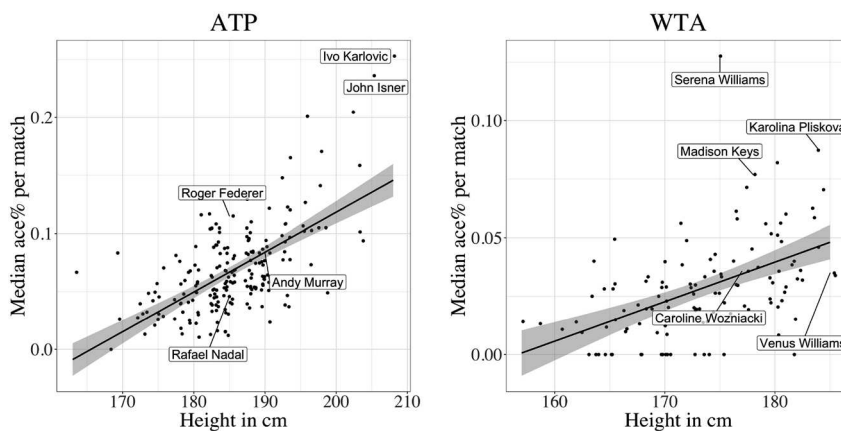


Figure 5: Player height vs. median percent-age of aces per match (total aces divided by total serves) across both the ATP and WTA Grand Slams. We confirm the common notion that being taller is associated with being a strong server (having a larger percent of aces). Each dot represents one player and we compute their median ace% across all matches and all tournaments.

(see Table 1) and the secondary data which has point-by-point data and player specific attributes (see Table 2).

Because of these differences in scope, we do not build one model to answer all questions. Instead, we take two general modeling approaches: (1) mixed-effects models, using all available data, with both effects that are fixed across all players and effects that are ‘random’ and allowed to vary for each player, and (2) models trained on subsets of the partial (but rich) data for specific individual players that have ample data. Section 3.1 details the mixed-effects modeling approach, while Section 3.2 details the individual modeling approach.

3.1 Mixed-effect models

The mixed-effects model approach allows for the sharing of information across different players when estimating the effects of common covariates, while still allowing for individual player variation in the random effects. Because players participate in different slams across different years, players appear multiple times in the data and the observations (matches) are not independent. Including a player-level effect allows us to account for this dependence. It

also provides a way to assess individual player tendencies, while estimating some effects that are assumed to be similar across all players.

Due to the unique scoring of tennis matches, the total number of points won is not a robust measure of player performance. For instance, players may score few points in a match due to a poor performance (e.g., losing many games 40–15 or 40–0), but they may also score (relatively) few points if they win a short match (e.g., winning straight sets 6–0, 6–0). Matches may also be more competitive than the final score indicates due to the use of “deuce” scoring. Modeling the number of points won is further complicated by the difference in match length for men (best of 5 sets) and women (best of 3 sets). Furthermore, modeling wins with a mixed-effects model did not result in noticeable differences among top players after accounting for rank and opponent rank (see Appendix A.1 for further details). Instead of using “win” as the outcome variable, we model match statistics that may be more sensitive to slam differences – aces, net points won, and unforced errors – to see if individual differences among players at different Grand Slams are detectable.

3.1.1 Modeling tennis-specific outcomes

We use a binomial likelihood for each of the three outcome variables, where

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &\sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i) \\ p_i &= \text{logit}^{-1}(\beta \mathbf{X}_i + \alpha_{j[i]}) \\ \alpha_j &= \gamma_j T. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Y_i represents the number of aces, unforced errors, or net point won in each match (depending on the model), n_i is the total number of points played in that match, T consists of indicator variables for the four Grand Slam tournaments, and \mathbf{X}_i includes an intercept, *rank* of player (log transformed), *age* of player (scaled), rank of *opposing* player (log transformed), indicator variable for the *ATP* tour, and an indicator variable for whether it was a *late-round* match. The feature “round of 16 or later” was used as a natural split because slams are structured such that the first three rounds of matches occur during the first week and the next four during the second week.

Figure 6 shows the fixed effects coefficient estimates for each of the three binomial models (aces, net points (Net), unforced errors (UE)) on the odds ratio scale. The regression coefficient tables are also displayed in Tables 4–6. The fixed-effects coefficients can be interpreted as the expected change in the log-odds of the outcome variable (ace, net point, or unforced error) for a one-unit increase in the explanatory variable (ATP, late round, opponent rank, rank, age) across all players and Grand Slams.

Figure 6 demonstrates that rank and opponent rank are not as impactful in determining the tennis-specific outcomes compared to variables like whether the match was played in a late round or in the ATP tour. We do see a small positive effect for opponent rank in the model for aces, suggesting that playing a worse player in ranking is

associated with increased aces, but is not associated with a change in net points. Late round matches (round of 16 or later) are associated with an increased probability of net points and a decreased probability of aces, suggesting that later matches are more evenly matched. Two explanations include that strong servers are better countered by strong returners and players are possibly approaching the net more often. In our model, matches in the ATP have a higher probability of aces and net points won, and a lower probability of unforced errors.

If we look at the random effects for individual players (see Figure 7), differences are noticeable across players and across tournaments. For instance, S. Williams is expected to have more aces at the US Open, Australian Open, and Wimbledon than at the French Open, but is far more likely than most players across the WTA and ATP to have aces at any of the Grand Slams. Federer’s performance at Wimbledon is better than other tournaments in terms of unforced errors. Interestingly, none of the models detect a stronger performance by Nadal at the French Open, suggesting that his dominance on clay is not captured in aces, net points won, or unforced errors. With the exception of Nadal, these results are compatible with our common sense knowledge of these three players which helps lend credibility to the models.

Figure 8 shows the correlation matrices for the random player effects in each of the three models. The random player effects are highly correlated in the model for aces: players that have many aces at one Grand Slam are likely to have many aces at the other Grand Slams as well, and players with few aces at one Grand Slam are likely to have few aces at the other Grand Slams. When modeling Net Points Won, only mild correlations are observed across the four Grand Slams, suggesting that increased (or decreased) net points won at one slam is not indicative of more (or less) net points won at the other Grand Slams. Finally, when modeling unforced errors, the correlations are very small

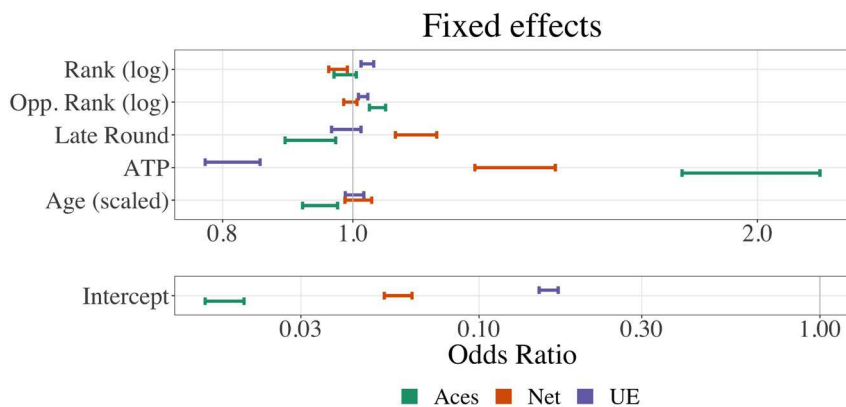


Figure 6: Estimated fixed effects when modeling aces, net winners, and unforced errors.

Table 4: Regression coefficients table for the fixed effects in the mixed effects model for net points.

Term	Estimate	Std error	Statistic	P value
(Intercept)	−2.849	0.047	−60.821	<0.001
late_roundTRUE	0.108	0.018	6.121	<0.001
log(rank)	−0.025	0.008	−3.178	0.001
log(opponent_rank)	−0.004	0.006	−0.741	0.459
scale(age)	0.009	0.011	0.821	0.411
Atp	0.278	0.034	8.066	<0.001

(Outcome variable: net_points_won).

Table 5: Regression coefficients table for the fixed effects in the mixed effects model for aces.

Term	Estimate	Std error	Statistic	P value
(Intercept)	−4.022	0.066	−61.254	<0.001
late_roundTRUE	−0.073	0.022	−3.353	0.001
log(rank)	−0.013	0.010	−1.374	0.169
log(opponent_rank)	0.042	0.007	6.087	<0.001
scale(age)	−0.056	0.015	−3.737	<0.001
atp	0.682	0.059	11.550	<0.001

(Outcome variable: aces).

Table 6: Regression coefficients table for the fixed effects in the mixed effects model for unforced errors.

Term	Estimate	Std error	Statistic	P value
(Intercept)	−1.833	0.032	−56.873	<0.001
late_roundTRUE	−0.011	0.013	−0.892	0.372
log(rank)	0.025	0.005	4.590	<0.001
log(opponent_rank)	0.018	0.004	4.404	<0.001
scale(age)	0.003	0.008	0.367	0.713
atp	−0.206	0.024	−8.754	<0.001

(Outcome variable: unforced_errors).

between Wimbledon and the other slams, and are in fact the only negative correlations among all three models. This suggests that unforced errors at Wimbledon are unrelated to unforced errors at the other Grand Slams. This is consistent with the common perception that scorekeepers at Wimbledon are more generous than at other slams.

Figure 7 shows the random effects for the top 10 WTA and ATP players, based on the total number of Grand Slam matches played between 2013 and 2019. The random effects for aces is interesting, as some players (e.g., S. Williams, Raonic) were identified by the model to have large, positive random effects at all slams. Since the mixed-effects model takes some fixed effects (such as rank and opponent rank) into account, these players were in some sense “over-performing” compared to what we would expect during the time period that the data was collected. We also see that all selected players except for Wawrinka, Kvitova,

Keys, Muguruza, and Ferrer are expected to make fewer unforced errors at Wimbledon.

A mixed-effects regression approach is a useful way to measure fixed effects of variables across all players, as well as player-level random effects for different slams. This approach further accounts for the non-independence present in the observations (since players may appear multiple times in each tournament). As more data becomes available, careful model selection and validation should be undertaken for each of the outcome variables separately. Additional variables could be incorporated as either fixed or random effects.

There are limitations to this approach. Since information is shared across all players to estimate the fixed effects, players with larger amounts of data may have a disproportional impact on these estimates. Additionally, we used aces, net points, and unforced errors as outcomes (rather than predictors) in order to capture

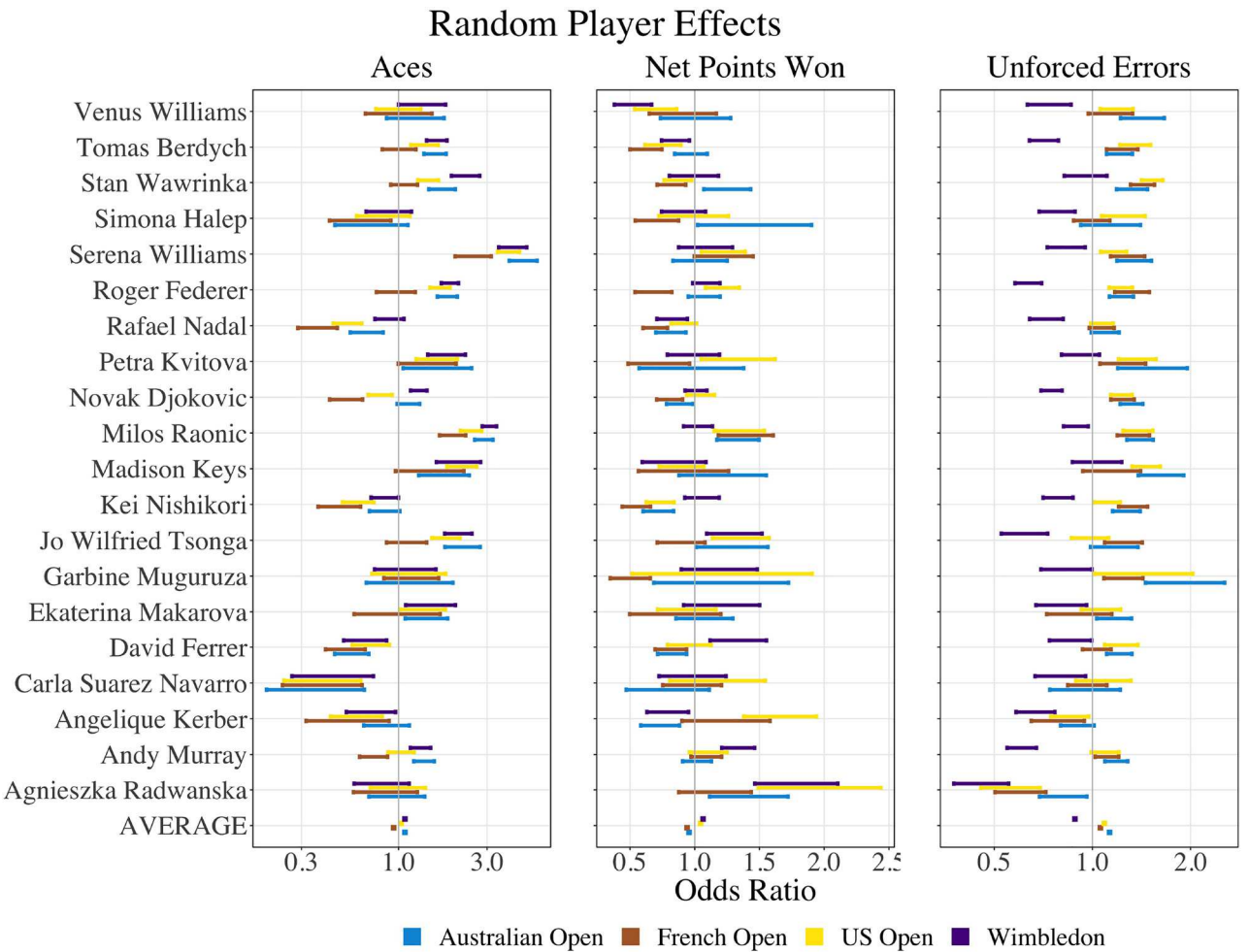


Figure 7: Random effects with 95% confidence intervals for 20 players in each of the three mixed-effects models. The average random effect for each outcome and Grand Slam across all players is shown at the bottom of each panel.

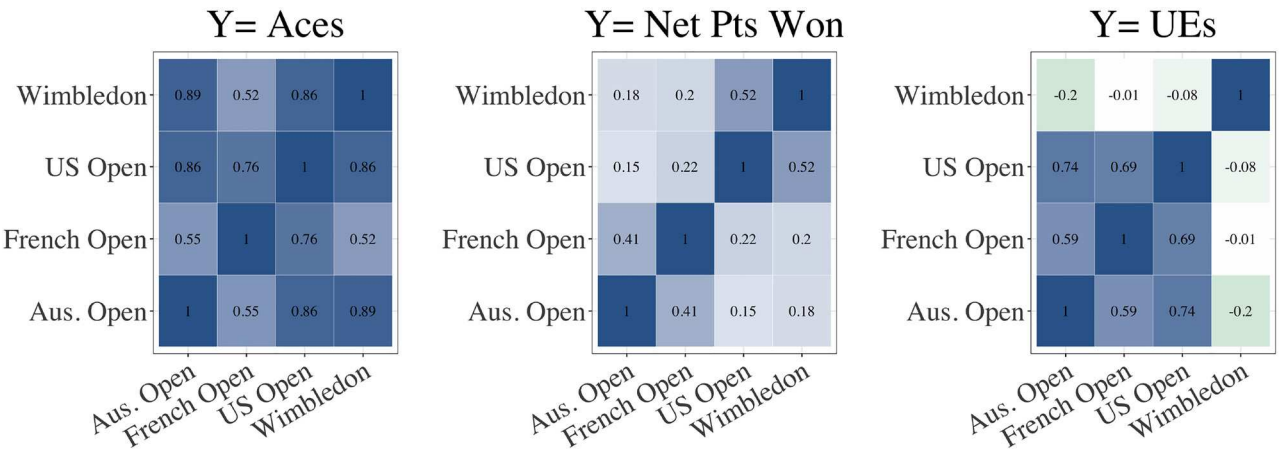


Figure 8: Correlation matrices for random effects in the mixed effects model for aces (left), points won at net (middle), and unforced errors (right).

random effects for players. Overall performance is a complex combination of each of these aspects, and modeling them individually may obscure their interactions and their impact on win probability. In the next section, we instead restrict ourselves to building a model for wins for a single individual, using these tennis-specific attributes as predictors.

3.2 Individualized player models

In the previous section we examined the “big picture” effect of Grand Slams across many players, but we may also be interested in examining the success of a single individual at the different slams. In order to do so, we subset the matches by each of the relevant players. This allows us to better account for individual play styles at different Grand Slams, and understand the relationship between aces, net points, unforced errors, and wins. Here, we introduce the concept of an individual model using Nadal as an example. Additionally, we analyze the important covariates chosen by the individual models for 20 top players, examine expected percent of points won given performance level for top players. For model selection, we use AIC to compare models to one another along with dispersion parameters and VIF values when appropriate (Wasserman 2004).

3.2.1 Example model for Nadal

Imagine, for example, we are interested in understanding how Nadal’s performance differs at each Grand Slam, and specifically, how aces, net points, and unforced errors are related to whether or not he wins the match. To answer this question, we would not use a model that includes data from non-Nadal matches, as those would have little relevance to Nadal’s expected performance. We, instead, look at the matches in which Nadal competed. This approach assumes that matches are conditionally independent from one another.

We model the probability of winning a point ($Y_i = 1$) as a generalized linear model by using a logit link function and by weighting each match by the total number of points played. This is regressed on the covariates from Nadal’s matches,

$$P(Y_i = 1|X_i) = \text{logit}^{-1}(\beta X_i) \quad (2)$$

where $Y_i = 1$ is winning a point in match i , β is a vector of coefficients, and X_i are the covariates corresponding to matches Nadal has played.

For a given player, we model the probability of winning a point using covariates selected through step-wise regression (X_i). The details of this process are described

more in Appendix A.2. We demonstrate this process using Nadal as an example. Because Nadal has achieved the most success at the French Open, we use the French Open as the reference court.

Nadal played 81 Grand Slam matches between 2013 and 2019. The data set used is the Grand Slam partial point-by-point data, which is the primary Grand Slam data joined to the secondary, point-by-point data. The data set is further subset to include only Nadal’s matches. Nadal’s best fit individual model contains the covariates and values shown in Table 7.

The covariates presented in Table 7 that are significant at a 5% α -level are playing at any of the three other Grand Slams compared to the French Open, the log opponent rank, the percent of break points won $\times 10$ and the percent of net points won $\times 10$. In context, for a fixed rank of the opponent, percent of break points and percent of net points won, we would expect the odds of Nadal winning more points at the other slams to be 0.72–0.96 times less compared to the French Open. Unlike the model from the previous section, when using Nadal’s individual level data we can more clearly see what is thought to be obvious—Nadal outperforms at the French Open.

3.2.2 Expected percent of points won given performance

In addition to examining Nadal’s individual results, we examine the expected percent of points won for top players by analyzing predictions from their individual models. A range of performances are possible for each player, and so we predict the percent of points won for each player using covariates that correspond to below average, average, and above average performances, resulting in three predictions per player. For each player, Figure 9 shows the expected percent of points won across these varying levels of performance, where opponent rank is arbitrarily set to 10. The 18 players here are those with the most Grand Slam matches played in both tours between 2013 and 2019, given we have enough partial point-by-point data. Notably, Muguruza and Suarez Navarro do not have enough matches in the partial data set to fit individual models despite being in the top 10 of most Grand Slam matches played in the WTA during that time period.

To produce the results shown in Nadal’s square of Figure 9, we first need to determine the new covariates x_{new} for each of a below average, average, and above average performance level. For example, we say Nadal is having

Table 7: Modeling coefficients for Nadal's best fit individual model using the French Open as a reference court.

Coef.	Odds ratio	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	p-value
(Intercept)	1.0984	0.7844	1.5380	0.5849
I(court)Australian Open	0.8296	0.7276	0.9459	0.0053
I(court)US Open	0.8514	0.7545	0.9607	0.0090
I(court)Wimbledon	0.8228	0.7174	0.9437	0.0053
log(opponent_rank)	1.0545	1.0164	1.0940	0.0047
pct_bp $\times 10$	1.0367	1.0129	1.0610	0.0024
pct_netpt $\times 10$	0.9827	0.9572	1.0090	0.1959

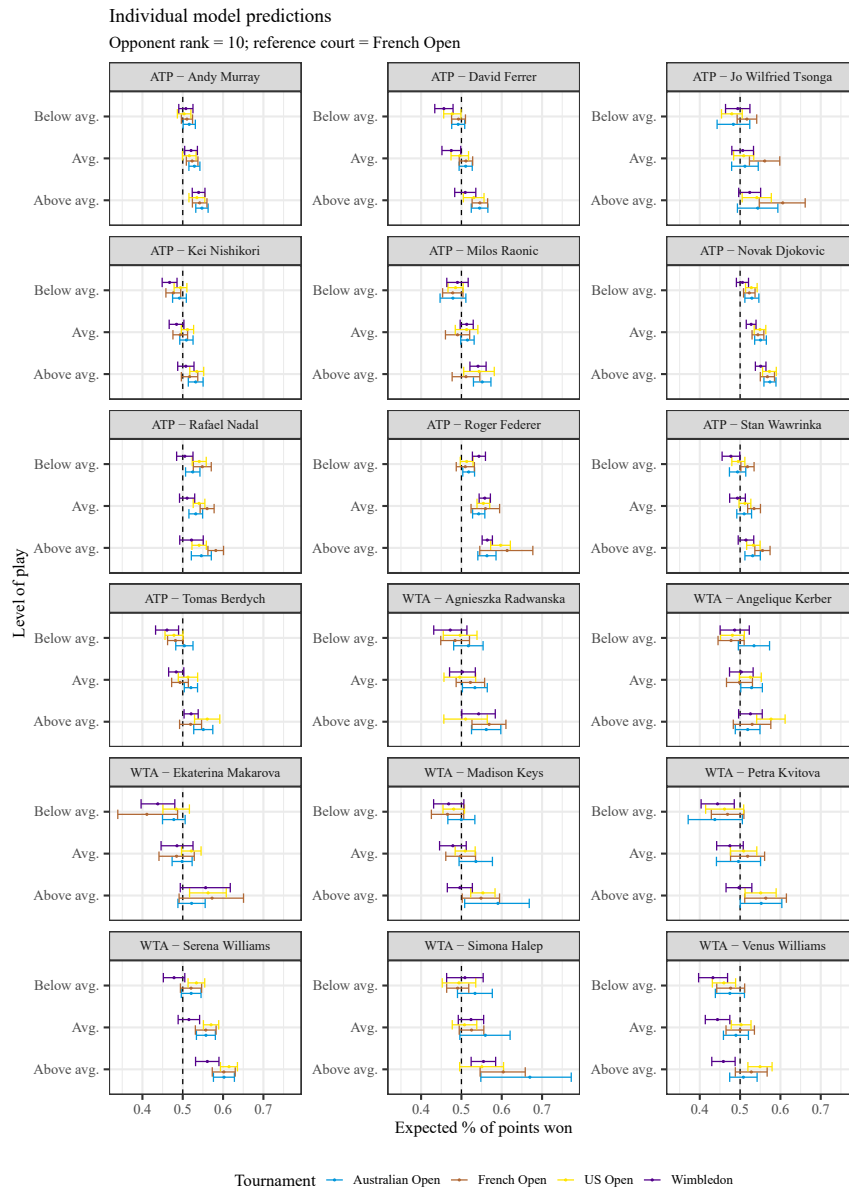
**Figure 9:** Expected value and 95% CIs of percent of points won from the individual models for different players across differing sets of covariates. Each prediction (below average, average, and above average) represents a different performance level for a player at a given match.

Table 8: Data used to predicted expected percent of points won for individual models using different quartiles of predictors.

Player	Performance level	% Break points won	% Aces	W/UE	% Net points won
Rafael Nadal	Below average: Q1	37.5	2.48	1.07	58.67
Rafael Nadal	Average: Q2	45.8	4.40	1.35	68.48
Rafael Nadal	Above average: Q3	60.0	6.35	1.90	80.00

an ‘average’ performance when his covariates x_{new} correspond to the median level service speed, ace%, W/UE, and %net points won. Similarly, we use the first quartile for a ‘below average’ performance and the third quartile for an ‘above average’ performance. Nadals covariates for below average, average, and above average performances can be seen in Table 8. We then input x_{new} values into Nadal’s individual model (from Eq. (2)) and output his expected percent of points won for these varying performance levels. Finally, we graph the confidence intervals for the expected points per slam in Figure 9. We repeat this process for the other top players.

Figure 9 shows that there is little difference in Federer’s expected points won at Wimbledon when having a below average, average, or above average performance. In contrast, Makarova’s expected points won when she is performing below average is much lower than when she is performing above average. Within the ATP, the expected value of point percentage for Murray seems to be almost unaffected by slam, which speaks to his consistency as a player.

While we do not show the chosen covariates for all players, these individual models can provide insight into which factors are most important for individual player performance at different Grand Slams. Additionally, these individual models allow us to predict a player’s expected percent of points won given differing levels of performance from a player.

4 Discussion

We examine the differences in the results of both men and women tennis players at the four tennis Grand Slams: the Australian Open, French Open, Wimbledon, and US Open. We use open-source data provided by the ATP, WTA, and the Tennis Abstract Project (Sackmann 2021) and access them with the R package *deuce* (Kovalchik 2017). In particular, we take the following approaches to analyze this data: (1) visualize how player performances differ across slams, (2) develop mixed-effects models to analyze both player and slam effects, and (3) model players separately to assess individual strengths and weaknesses. All steps

of our analysis from collection to dissemination are freely available online.¹

Through visualizing the data, we are able to investigate common beliefs, such as that taller players are better servers or that there is a “home court advantage”. However, there are many different variables at play and visualizing results in high dimensions quickly becomes unwieldy. Using mixed-effects models allows us to build a model for all players and estimate fixed covariates as well as random effects for each player at each tournament. We find differences in performance at different Grand Slams for these players when modeling tennis-specific outcomes (aces, net points, and unforced errors). Since the random effects measure individual differences after accounting for fixed covariates, they may be able to identify “up and coming” players who over-perform after accounting for other covariates. Finally, we develop an automated model selection process to individually model players to assess their strengths and weaknesses. Compared to the mixed-effects models, this approach provides a deeper understanding of how factors such as aces and the W/UE ratio impact win probability at different tournaments for each player.

Our results are useful to the tennis community because (1) they are reproducible and can vary by player, year, slam, and other covariates; (2) we visualize results in a clear manner such as expected percent of points won with an “above average” performance as in Figure 9; (3) we show how some tennis features may be more important at some Grand Slams than others; and (4) we can compare specific player performances across the four slams.

However, our analyses are restricted by using only Grand Slam data. For example, we are able to fit individual models for the top 18 players but these models suffer from a lack of power due to few observations. Data on the top 18 players provided substantially more information about their performance at different slams than the more general models which included all players. Point-by-point data from matches among lower-profile players are more likely to be missing or contain errors. Moreover, lower-profile players compete in fewer Grand Slam

¹ <https://github.com/skgallagher/courtsports>.

matches and naturally have fewer observations. Ideally, individual assessments would be possible for all players, not just those with many Grand Slam appearances. Furthermore, due to the structure of mixed-effects models, and the small amount of data available for individual players, we did not use a training and testing set for this analysis.

The Tennis Abstract Match Charting Project (Sackmann2020) provides crowd-sourced, detailed match statistics for ATP and WTA matches at most tournaments (not only Grand Slams). Building similar models on this expanded data is a natural next step for this work.

Looking forward, we would like to better explore the point-by-point data, especially for the attributes which were excluded in this analysis: rally length, minutes played, and distance covered. We would also like to include data from Masters level tournaments, which would give us a clearer view if the differences found in this paper are due to court surface or the slam itself. Another way we could adjust for Grand Slam confounders is by incorporating weather conditions and matches played in the last few months. Furthermore, we would like to include Elo as opposed to ATP and WTA rankings as the rankings are long-term performance indicators and may not accurately reflect the performance of the player at a given time. Finally, we would like to adjust for performance over time as new competitors arise and older players decline.

Understanding player performance at different Grand Slams is a complex task that requires multiple approaches due to differences in both players and the tournaments. The visualizations and models developed in this work provide insight into some of these differences as well as identify further directions of inquiry.

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A Appendix

A.1 Mixed-effects model for wins

We outline building a model for whether a player won each match or not using mixed-effects logistic regression. This modeling approach does not enforce symmetry between opponents for a given match and should not be used for prediction or forecasting.

Covariates include country of origin (*IOC*), *tournament* that the match was played at (i.e., Grand Slam tournament), *rank* of player, *age* of player, and rank of *opposing* player were considered for inclusion in the model and are summarized in Table 9.

We are primarily interested in the effect that *tournament* has on win probability, and whether effects vary across players. We also include reference player attributes (*IOC*, *rank*, and *age*) and opponent attributes (*opponent rank*) to control for some possible sources of variation. Since each match appears twice in the data (once for the winning player and once for the losing player), we do not consider covariates that describe the match as fixed-effects and focus solely on covariates that describe the player(s).

We considered a variety of models that incorporate the above variables as either fixed or random effects. Based on AIC, we found the model that best fit the data included a player-level term for each tournament but excluded fixed terms for country. Details of model formulation and selection are shown in Appendix A.1.1.

Table 9: Covariates used in each of the four hierarchical models.

Name	Description	Type
late_round	Indicates round of 16 or later	Binary
log(rank)	Rank of player, log-scale (lower = better)	Continuous
log(opponent_rank)	Rank of opponent, log-scale	Continuous
year	Year of match (2013–2019)	Factor
ATP	Indicates ATP match	Binary
tournament	AO, FO, USO, or Wimbledon	Factor
IOC	Country of origin	Factor

(Outcome variables: win, aces, net_points_won, unforced_errors).

The resulting model is:

$$P(Y_i = 1 | \mathbf{X}_i, \alpha_j) = \text{logit}^{-1}(\alpha_{j[i]} + \beta \mathbf{X}_i) \quad (3)$$

$$\alpha_j = \gamma_j \mathbf{T}$$

where i indexes matches, j indexes players, and

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if match won} \\ 0 & \text{if match lost} \end{cases}$$

$\mathbf{X} = \log(\text{rank}), \log(\text{opponent_rank}), \text{age}(\text{scaled})$

$\mathbf{T} = \text{indicators for tournament.}$

If we examine the fixed effects (β) (see Figure 10 (left), and Table 10), we see that rank and opponent rank are significantly different than zero and appear to best explain the probability of winning the match. If we look at the random effects (γ) (see Figure 10 (right)) for S. Williams and Nadal, we find that S. Williams is more likely to win matches at the US Open and the Australian open, and Nadal is more likely to win matches at the French Open. However, few players outside of S. Williams and Nadal have significant individual effects for any of the Grand Slams (see Figure 11).

More broadly, the individual (i.e., player) effects for the Australian Open, US Open, and Wimbledon are all quite correlated (see Figure 12). This suggests that after accounting for variables such as rank and opponent rank, differences in win probability may be detectable between the French Open and the other Grand Slams, but it is harder to detect differences among the hard courts (Australian Open, US Open) and Wimbledon. These correlations, combined with few nonzero random effects among top players (Figure 11), suggests that modeling “win” does not adequately capture changes in player performance at different Grand Slams.

A.1.1 Model selection

Each of the models tested were of the form:

$$P(Y_i = 1 | \mathbf{X}_i, \alpha_j) = \text{logit}^{-1}(\alpha_{j[i]} + \beta \mathbf{X})$$

$$\alpha_j = \gamma \mathbf{Z}$$

where

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if match won} \\ 0 & \text{if match lost} \end{cases}$$

$\mathbf{X} = \text{IOC, Tournament, log(Rank),}$

$\log(\text{Opponent Rank}), \text{age}$

$\mathbf{Z} = \text{Intercept, Indicator variables for tournament, year}$

and different combinations of \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Z} were tested. Based on AIC, the best model excluded IOC and tournament from \mathbf{X} , and included the tournament indicators as the only random covariates in \mathbf{Z} (no random intercept). The models are summarized in Table 11. The regression table for the fixed effects (β) is shown in Table 10.

A.2 Modeling results of individuals

Each of the individual models for player p are of the form

$$P(Y_p = 1 | \mathbf{X}_p, n_p) = \text{logit}^{-1}(\beta_p \mathbf{X}_p)$$

where

Y_p is a 1/0 variable where 1 indicates winning a point.

β_p is the vector of coefficients for player p

\mathbf{X}_p is the matrix of data/covariates for player p

n_p is the number of points in the match.

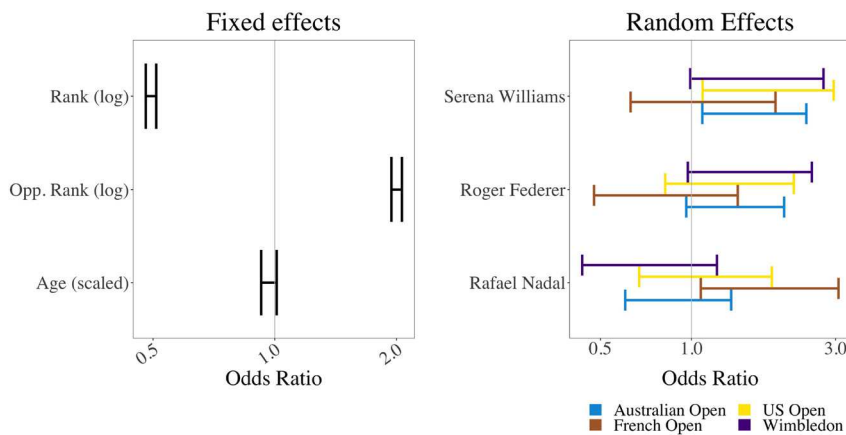


Figure 10: Estimated fixed effects (left) and player-level effects for Williams, Federer and Nadal (right) under the logistic model with 95% confidence intervals.

Table 10: Regression coefficients table for the fixed effects in the logistic model for wins (outcome variable: win).

Term	Estimate	Std error	Statistic	P value
log(rank)	−0.705	0.015	−47.454	<0.001
log(opponent_rank)	0.694	0.015	46.317	<0.001
scale(age)	−0.033	0.022	−1.503	0.133

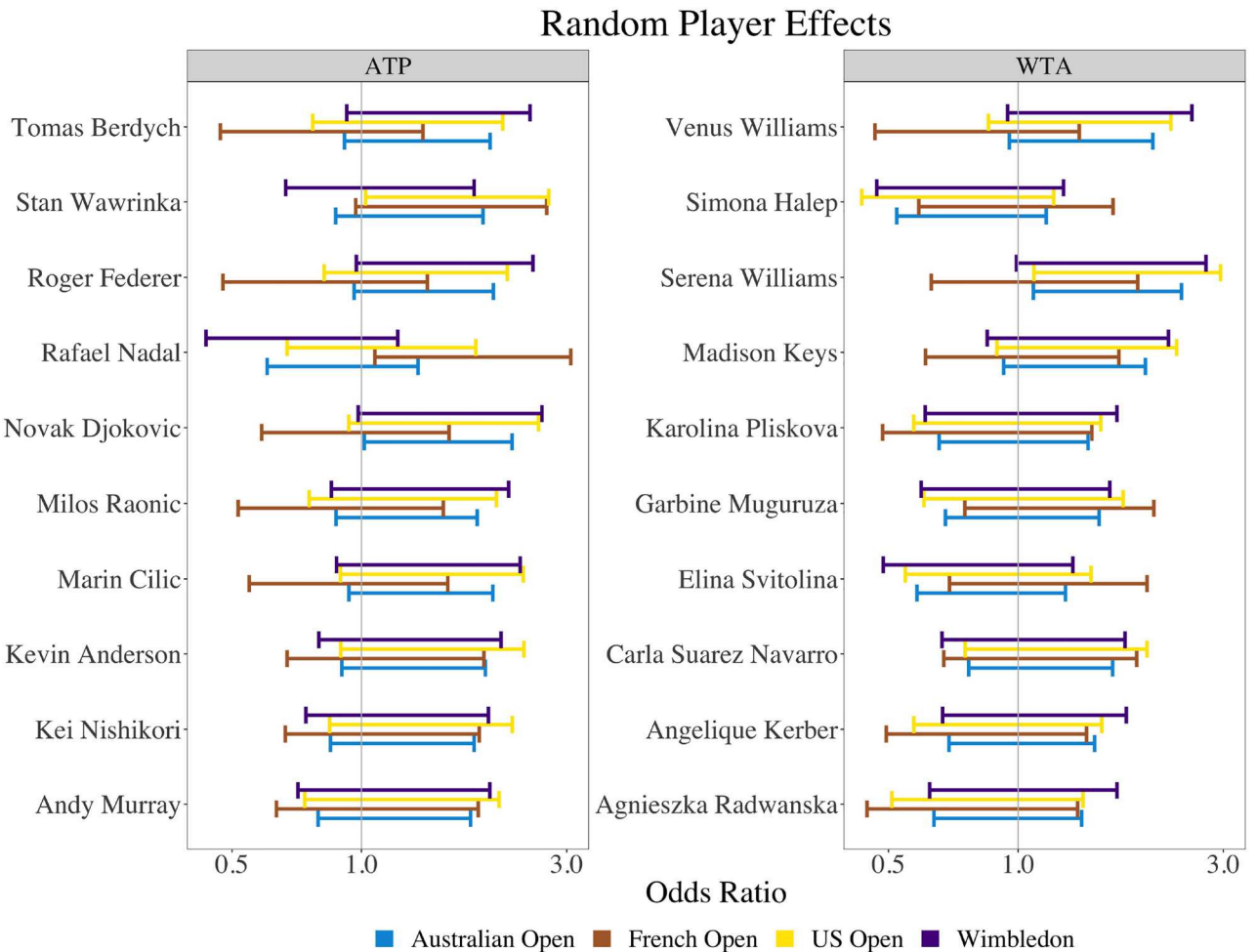


Figure 11: Estimated player-level effects for top performers under the logistic model with 95% confidence intervals.

We estimate $\hat{\beta}_p$ by first selecting which covariates are important and then by estimating the value of the coefficients for those selected covariates. Ideally, the covariate/model selection would be performed and the coefficient value estimation on an independent testing set. Since there were not many observations for each player (with respect to the number of potential covariates), our model is fit on the entire set of data.

Model selection is done by using forward-backwards stepwise generalized linear regression with a logit link function and by weighting the samples by the number of

total points. A minimal and maximal set of covariates is predetermined. The minimal set of covariates include opponent rank while the maximal set of covariates includes opponent rank, average serve speed, % of net points won, % of aces, % of break points won, W/UE, and their interactions with each slam. The model with the lowest AIC is chosen, where we initialize the algorithm using the maximal set of covariates.

Similarly, our function `model_individual()` performs forward-backwards stepwise generalized linear regression to select the best model to predict the expected

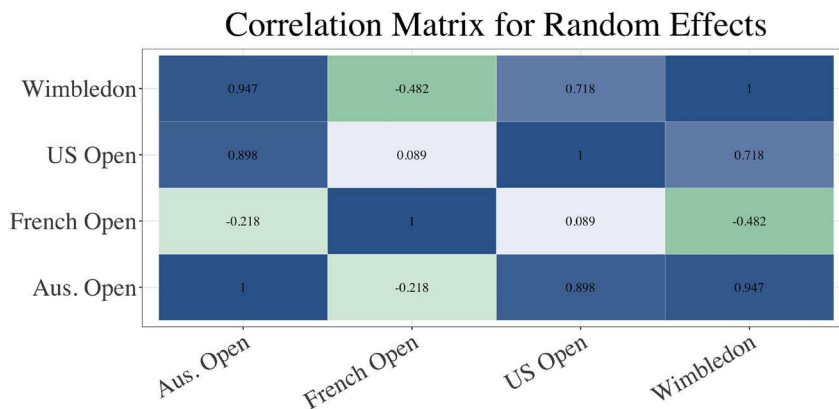


Figure 12: Correlation matrix for random effects for the model in Eq. (3).

Table 11: AIC summary of the seven logistic regression models fitted. Including individual effects for each Grand Slam, without including any country effects, leads to the best model fit according to AIC.

Model	Fixed effects (X)	Random effects (Z)	AIC	EDF
1	No tournament	None	16103.73	68
2	All	None	16109.67	71
3	No country, no tournament	Tournament (by country)	16069.39	13
4	No tournament	Tournament (by individual)	16084.74	78
5	No country, no tournament	tournament (by individual)	16038.20	13
6	No country, no tournament	Intercept (by individual)	16049.69	4
7	No country, no year	Year (by individual)	16076.13	35

percent of points won. It first subsets the data provided to the proper individual name and time range. Then, depending on the testing set proportion, randomly partitions the subsetted data into a training and test set. Forwards-backwards stepwise regression is performed on the training set and the final model and covariates are chosen to minimize the AIC Wasserman (2004). Then the final model is then fit to the testing set in order to obtain estimates for the coefficients. If the testing set proportion is set to 0, the coefficient values are also estimated from the training set and users are cautioned to be wary of using inference from these models as model selection and model estimates are dependent on one another.

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