

Quantifying Hitter Plate Discipline in Major League Baseball

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Abstract

We use Statcast data from the 2017-2021 Major League Baseball seasons to quantify the ability of players to make correct decisions about whether or not to swing at each pitch. Using player hitting ability and pitch characteristics, we use an xgboost model to predict the likelihood of each possible outcome from a swing, and from not swinging. From each outcome, we calculate the expected runs scored in the inning. Combining these, we get the expected runs if the player swings, and the expected runs if the player takes the pitch. We quantify a hitter's plate discipline by averaging the total increase in expected runs from each pitch thrown to the hitter. We show that this metric is stable over time, explains current year hitting performance, and can improve predictions of future hitting performance.

Keywords: Plate Discipline; Performance measurement; Baseball statistics

1 Introduction

Plate discipline, the ability of a hitter to select the correct pitches to swing, at is widely acknowledged as an important part of batter performance and evaluation. Players have earned reputations for being particularly bad or good at choosing which pitches to swing at. For example, Vlad Guerrero is widely recognized as being particularly free-swinging, and having a poor eye [1, 2]. However, the statistics used to measure plate discipline are relatively unsophisticated, the percent of pitches outside the zone (O-Swing %) and in the zone (Z-Swing %) that are swung at, being the most commonly used measurements. Other measurements include strikeout rate, walk rate, or strikeout to walk ratio. All of these measurements are flawed for a variety of reasons: they ignore game situation, quality of pitches seen, pitch type, and/or hitter ability. Further, they are

season aggregates, and do not directly measure the decision of the hitter, whether or not to swing at each pitch.

Plate discipline, as measured by walk rate and strikeout rate, has been shown to be an important determinant of hitting performance, as measured by slugging percentage, on base percentage, walk, and strikeout rate [3]. Improving plate discipline, as measured by O% and Z% could add 68 points (0.068) to the average hitter's On-base Plus Slugging (OPS) [4]. "We find that 33/50 metrics demonstrate signal. However, these metrics are highly correlated with one another and related to traditional notions of performance (e.g., plate discipline, power, and ability to make contact)." - plate discipline is predictive, but "plate discipline" is O% and Z% and walks and strikeouts.

Further, measuring literal eye-quality, Laby et al. found that hitters with better visual function are more likely to be successful when batting, and were more productive hitters [5]. This is because having better visual function helped hitters determine which pitches to swing at, but was not correlated with contact rates [6]. In other words, having better vision abilities helped hitters choose which pitches to swing at, but didn't impact how well they actually hit them: the biological eye, and the baseball "eye" are related. Over the season, eye-quality declines, probably due to fatigue, an effect that was pronounced after stimulants were banned in 2005 [7].

As a whole, batters' eyesight has been shown to impact plate discipline, and plate discipline is an important predictor of hitter performance. However the metrics used to assess plate discipline are crude and unsophisticated; the goal of a hitter is not to simply swing at strikes and take balls, but rather to maximize the (expected) number of runs his team will score. In this paper, we develop a plate discipline statistic that accounts for pitch location further than simply in/out of zone, game situation, and batter ability. We estimate the expected runs the team will score if the batter were to swing, and if the batter were to take the pitch, and measure the average increase in expected runs due to batter decision-making. We show that this metric is a better measure of plate discipline than the current measurements in terms of stability, explanation of performance, and prediction of future performance.

2 Methods

The goal of this paper is to predict the change in run expectancy for each decision that a hitter makes. This means measuring the predicted runs added or lost by each swinging or taking decision. Inspired by the expected points added metric in football [8], this metric would account for situation and measure the predicted change in the scoring total, in this case, runs. In order to do this, we construct a decision tree for the decision faced by Major League hitters.

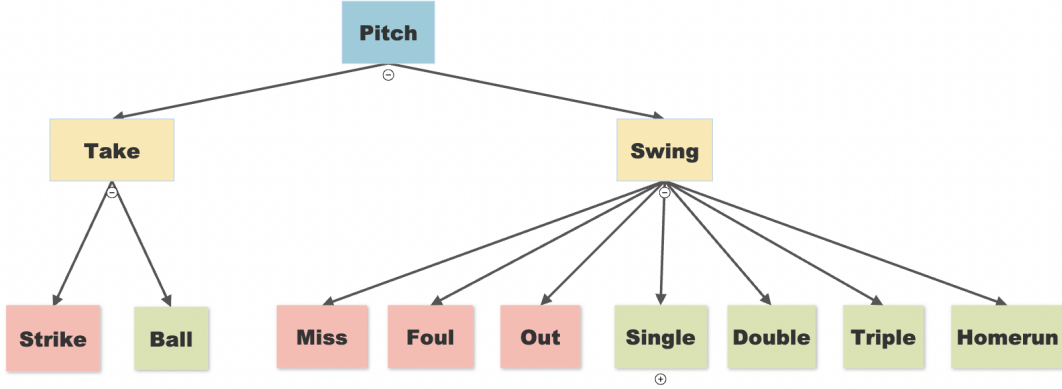


Figure 1: The decision analysis tree for the optimal swing/take decision.

The analysis is modeled by the tree shown in Figure 1. The decision of take or swing is made by the hitter. When taking a pitch, there are only two outcomes: ball or strike. When swinging, however, there are many different outcomes which we distilled to seven fundamental results: miss, foul, out, single, double, triple, and home run. To determine the value that a player contributes with each decision, we used change in run expectancy. For each pitch, we take the specific combination of count, number of outs, and runners on base and estimate the expected runs scored in the rest of the inning from that pitch on. These estimates are drawn from the baseballR package [9] and stored as the original run expectancy. In order to measure the effect that the hitter had in that situation based on their decision, we compute the change in run expectancy from before the pitch to after the swing/take decision has been made.

In our approach to combining the decision tree with this change in run expectancy variable, we must understand the effect on run expectancy for of the nine outcomes we specified. We calculate the change in run expectancy for each pitch if each of the nine outcomes occur. To calculate the run expectancy for each decision, we need the probability each outcome will occur, and the

expected runs if it does. We predict the probability a pitch will be called a strike or a ball if the hitter does not swing, and calculate the expected runs for each of those outcomes. Combining those gives us the expected runs in the inning if the hitter takes the pitch. We also need to estimate the probability of each of the seven outcomes if a hitter were to swing at each pitch. We combine those estimates with the expected runs for each outcome to calculate the expected runs if the hitter were to swing. Below, we discuss how the probabilities are estimated.

We use the `baseballr` R package to scrape Statcast pitch location and outcome data from the 2019-2020 seasons. We scraped all of the hitter and pitcher data, and merged them together so that pitcher information and hitter information were in the same dataset. We also scraped basic player season stats for both the pitcher and the hitter and merged them to each pitch in order to have descriptive features representing hitter ability.

For the model to predict strike probability, the best model simply used the x and z coordinates of the baseball when it crossed the plate and the top and bottom of the strikezone for the particular batter. The classification model for swing outcomes was much more complex, due to the number of outcomes and the randomness of the outcome. To predict the outcome of a swing, we used variables containing information on the pitch, the game situation, pitcher ability, and hitter ability. Pitch information included the x and z coordinates when crossing the plate, horizontal and vertical movement, the pitch type, velocity, effective velocity, and spin rate. Situational variables included count, outs, and the pitcher and batter handedness. We used basic statistics from the 2019-2020 seasons including Plate Appearances, Batting Average, On-Base Percentage, and Slugging Percentage to measure batter ability, and Innings Pitched, Earned Run Average, Groundball to Flyball ratio, Walks plus Hits per Innings Pitched, Strikeout percentage, and Walk Percentage for Pitchers. To place an additional level of depth on the batter skill level, we grouped several statistics by the Statcast zone in which the ball was thrown including Barrel Percentage, Exit Velocity, Launch Angle, Expected Batting Average, Expected Weighted On-Base Average, Weighted On-Base Average, and Isolated Power for batters and Overall Velocity, and Overall Spin Rate for Pitchers.

In order to predict the probability of a strike, we created a logistic model that uses the x and z coordinates of the baseball as it crosses the plate. However, since the strikezone is not purely linear, we engineered other variables from the x and z coordinates for the model to be able to

understand the shape of the strikezone better. In the end, the independent variables for the model were x , z , x^2 , z^2 , $x * z$, and variables for the top and bottom of the strikezone. The model has an AUC of 0.976, and the estimates of the strike zone for a league-average height hitter are shown in Figure 2.

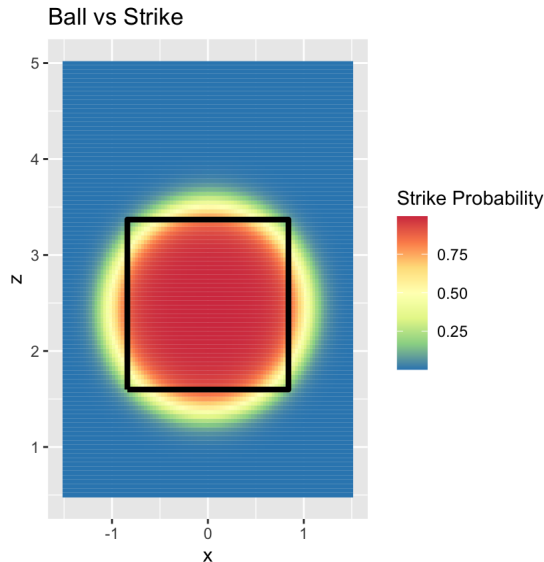


Figure 2: Estimated strike zone for a hitter with league average top and bottom of strike zone.

To predict outcome probabilities we trained an xgboost classification model. It was tuned using cross validation to determine the optimal meta-parameters for the model. In this way we were able to reduce the mean squared error and end up with the resulting confusion matrix shown in Table 1 of probabilities, the true outcomes being the columns and the average predicted probabilities given in the rows. For example, for each pitch which was actually hit for a double, we predicted a 16.0% chance of a swing and miss, a 41.2% chance of a foul ball, and a 4.2% chance of a double (among others). For missed pitches, we estimated a 40.98% chance of a miss, a 32.8% chance of a foul, and only a 1.06% chance of a home run.

To combine the outputs into a single comprehensive metric, we multiply each outcome probability by the change in run expectancy for that outcome. We add the results together and do this for both the take outcomes and the swing outcomes. We then end up with a run expectancy for each decision, for swing and for take. We judge the correct decision as the change in run

Table 1: Outcome Probabilities

Outcome	Miss	Foul	Out	Single	Double	Triple	Homerun
Miss	0.4097761	0.3283625	0.1814942	0.05319165	0.01491320	0.001579695	0.01068269
Foul	0.2170178	0.4213399	0.2429398	0.07507962	0.02340903	0.002355106	0.01785872
Out	0.2269750	0.3890573	0.2651662	0.07840765	0.02280722	0.002229124	0.01535743
Single	0.1726865	0.3956535	0.2718372	0.11046822	0.02891459	0.002696567	0.01774349
Double	0.1602147	0.4066227	0.2662421	0.09320279	0.04228762	0.003741214	0.02768888
Triple	0.1524018	0.4120729	0.2667650	0.09066951	0.03970592	0.007907397	0.03047746
Homerun	0.1638953	0.4198078	0.2471371	0.07638592	0.03659626	0.003848514	0.05232918

expectancy that is the larger of the two and the player’s EAGLE for that pitch is the difference between the decision taken and the other choice. As an example, for a given pitch if the estimated expected runs gained from swinging is 0.2 and the estimate of expected runs gained from taking is -0.05, the EAGLE for swing would be 0.25, and the EAGLE for a take would be -0.25. We then average these values over each hitter over all pitches seen for the season. The resulting average is the player’s EAGLE or Expected Additional runs Gained by Looking/swinging Estimate. This gives the average expected runs gained (or lost) by the swing/take decisions for each player. Importantly, EAGLE does not measure the *actual* outcomes of the swing - EAGLE does not measure hitting ability, simply the ability to swing at the best pitches.

3 Results

As a measure of plate discipline, EAGLE tells us how good a player is at deciding which pitches to swing at and which pitches to take. We expect it should correlate with commonly used statistics of plate discipline and hitting performance. Figure 3 shows the relationship of hitters’ EAGLE statistic with their walk rate, with a correlation coefficient of 0.563. EAGLE also incorporates how good a players chase rate is (measured as percent of pitches out of the strike zone swung at, called O%), shown in Figure 4. EAGLE and O% have a correlation of 0.683. The hitters who have the best EAGLE and the worst EAGLE for the years 2016-2019 are also listed in Tables 2 and 3.

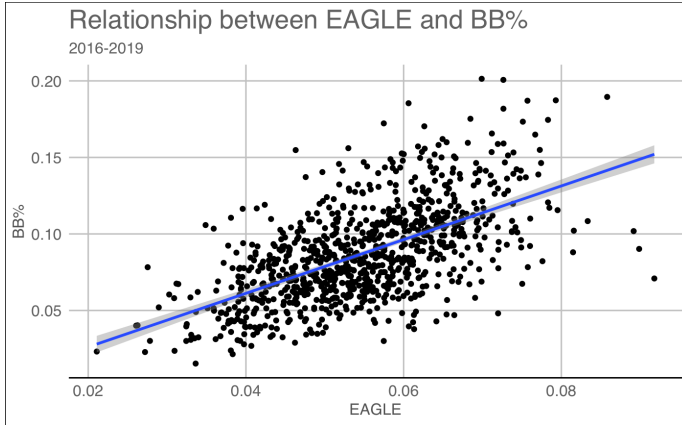


Figure 3: EAGLE vs. Walk rate.

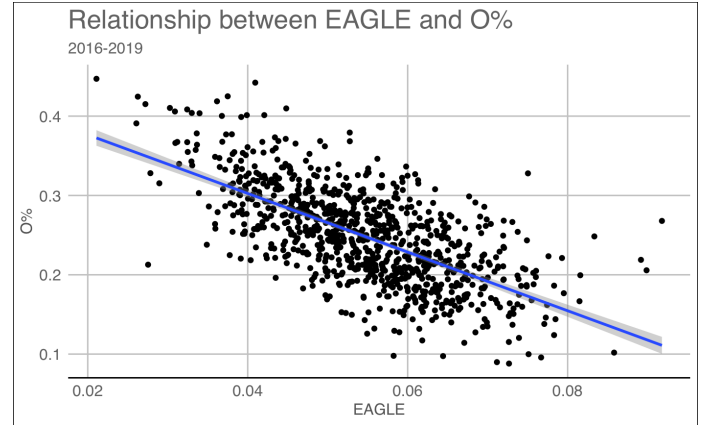


Figure 4: EAGLE vs. O%.

Table 2: Best Players

Name	Year	EAGLE	BB%	O%
Khris Davis	2018	0.090	0.090	0.235
Juan Soto	2019	0.089	0.164	0.177
Anthony Rendon	2019	0.087	0.124	0.201
Joey Votto	2017	0.086	0.190	0.126
J.D. Martinez	2017	0.083	0.108	0.276

Table 3: Worst Players

Name	Year	EAGLE	BB%	O%
Freddy Galvis	2016	0.026	0.040	0.405
Salvador Perez	2016	0.026	0.040	0.445
Billy Hamilton	2016	0.028	0.078	0.239
Billy Burns	2016	0.028	0.030	0.345
Dee Strange-Gordon	2016	0.029	0.052	0.336

An important feature of a player-level evaluation metric is its stability - if a new statistic is measuring an ability inherent to a player, it should be relatively stable from year to year, whereas if the metric is driven by chance or other factors outside of the player's control, the statistic will vary from year to year [10]. We show in Figure 5 that EAGLE is stable from year to year, as a player's plate decision making is a skill developed over time and rarely changes drastically.

One of the most important parts of the EAGLE metric is its ability to predict OPS in the current year, and in the future. We feel this is a strong contribution of our metric - we don't just measure strikeouts and walks, but quantify the ability to pick pitches which can be hit for power. To our knowledge, there is no other work that account for plate discipline in relation to OPS. Figure 6 shows the relationship between EAGLE and a hitter's OPS, showing they are strongly correlated. We would expect a hitter in the 10th percentile of EAGLE to have an OPS of .705 while we would expect a hitter in the 90th percentile of EAGLE to have an OPS of .808. These

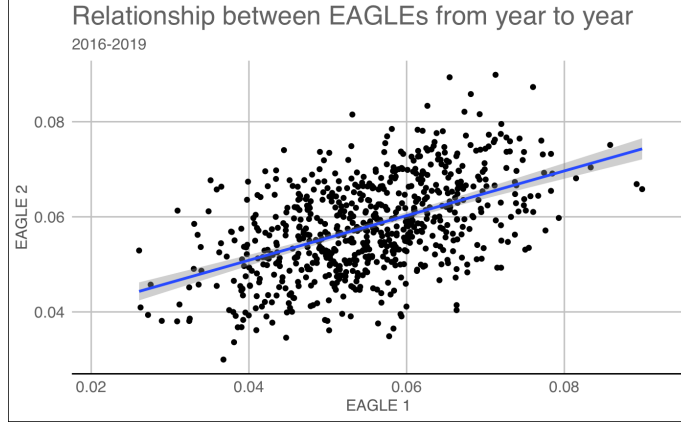


Figure 5: EAGLE from 2019 vs. EAGLE in 2020 for the each player

numbers for predicting next year's OPS are for the 10th percentile .739 and for the 90th percentile .795. Other current statistics don't perform nearly as well. The relationship between EAGLE and OPS has a correlation coefficient of .461 while that of O% and OPS is only -.104. No other stats can match the power of EAGLE for predicting both discipline statistics and slugging statistics.

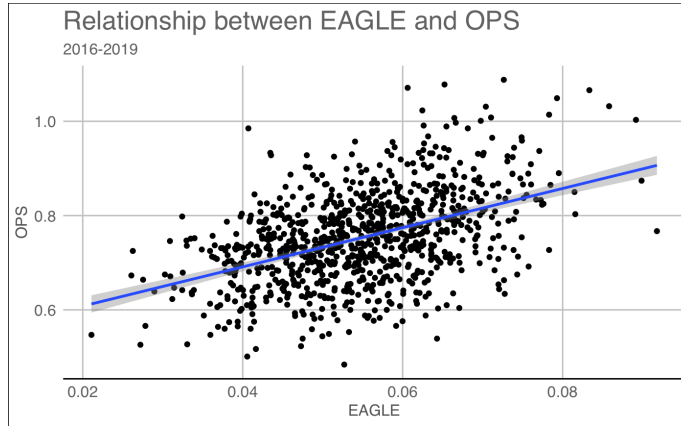


Figure 6: EAGLE vs. On-Base Percentage plus Slugging (OPS)

4 Conclusions and Applications

In this work, we introduce EAGLE, an estimate of MLB hitter decision-making at the pitch-level. Using publicly available data, we measure the impact of each decision to swing or take a pitch on the expected number of runs scored in the remainder of the inning. This metric is stable

from year to year, and predicts hitting outcomes, particularly OPS, significantly better than other measures of plate discipline. By taking into account not just a binary “in zone” vs. “out of zone” measurement of pitch location, but rather the full set of pitch location, speed, and type characteristics, we are able to identify which hitters best select pitches that can be hit for power and help create runs. The point of hitting is not simply not to strike out, but to hit the ball hard. Measures of hitters’ eye quality should account for this, rather than just their ability to walk or not strike out.

The potential uses for EAGLE are vast - first as a player-evaluation tool for identifying which players have good eyes at the plate. Second, the tool can be used for player development, instead of season-aggregates, EAGLE gives pitch-level estimates, so that each decision can be analyzed, and trends can be found. Identifying which pitches a hitter swings at that he shouldn’t, or vice versa, can help inform the approach taken at the plate. Similarly, EAGLE estimates can be used for scouting planning how to pitch to each hitter, what types of pitches they swing at, and which they don’t. Lastly, EAGLE could be calculated for pitchers to identify which pitches they have success getting hitters to chase, and which they do not.

This work also has a few limitations, namely the run expectancy metric doesn’t account for current hitter ability, thus underestimating the current run expectancy for good hitters, and overestimating it for bad hitters. Also, our prediction models use full-seasons hitting and pitching statistics, which is fine for an explanatory model, but if we would like to use EAGLE as a predictive tool, we would need to convert those to averages over the trailing 100 games of plate appearances, or some similar measure of recent past performance.

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