

Tennis Match as Random Walk with Memory: Application to Grand Slam Matches Modelling

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The contribution introduces a Bernoulli-like random walk with transition probabilities depending of its recent steps, thus implicitly depending on the entire walk history. The main objective is its application to modelling and then to prediction of tennis matches. The model is applied and tested on men Grand Slam tennis tournaments since 2009. The flexibility of the model is tested thoroughly on several datasets and the results are presented. It is shown that the model correctly describes the majority of all matches. Finally, the model is also used for the in-play real life betting with rather encouraging results.

Keywords:

Random walk, history dependent transition probability, tennis modelling, prediction, live betting

1. Introduction

Tennis is one of the oldest and most traditional sports, which is pursued worldwide and on all possible levels. It is an industry that operates with billions of dollars every year. It is therefore no wonder that even in such a traditional sport as tennis new methods and technologies are constantly being introduced. Computer imaging is used in the hawk-eye technology helping to determine whether a ball was out, material science allows to manufacture better and better rackets and other equipment, medicine science develops new methods of effective training etc. Mathematics is becoming a very important part of tennis as well as it can produce models simulating game situations and predicting their probabilities. This can be useful for the trainers who can use such models to better prepare their players for their matches, to detect and prevent frauds, but most of all it is used for sports betting. The market of sports betting is despite strict regulations continuously growing both in revenues as in profits. It is therefore no wonder that the demand for accurate sports models is tremendous.

There are several different approaches in modelling and simulating tennis games. The most common ones use Markov chains as the baseline model, creating Markov-like chains usually from one particular part of the game - set by set, game by game, point by point or even rally by rally [1, 4, 12, 14]. Other approaches use some sort of regression (logistic, probit) [2], [3, 5]. The methods can be also divided into those focusing on the match result itself [3, 5], those focusing on the modelling the match development

(the mentioned Markov-like models), and also concentrated to partial results during a match - *in-play* probabilities [4], this paper (focusing on the prediction of *in-play* set results). Comparison of some of the existing methods can be found in Kovalchik [11].

The final quality of a prediction does not depend on the model used, but very strongly also on the input information. Such information can contain data about players (tournament ranking, current form, past head-to-head results), about the venue (surface, prize money, ranking points available) and very often also bookmaker's odds, which is actually sort of an aggregation of all relevant information [8]. Bookmaker's odds also serve as an universal benchmark for any prediction method and models outperforming bookmakers are thus especially interesting.

The present contribution considers the tennis match as a random process, not insisting on its Markov property. The match in fact consists of several such processes. A series of sets within a match, games within a set, points within a game or even strokes within a point can be all considered a random process and modelled using a random walk. These walks are well described by the tennis rules and there exist lots of data describing these random processes (i.e. various tennis result databases provided by the tennis federation as well as many private subjects). An analysis of non-Markov development in tennis matches has been provided already in [7]. In the present paper, the random walk consisting of a sequence of sets within a match is studied. Matches played as a *best-of-five*, i.e. the men Grand Slam tournaments, are considered. In these matches, up to 5 steps of the random walk can be observed. The contribution presents a new version of random walk model with varying transition probabilities implicitly depending on the history of the walk. The transition probabilities are altered according to the last step of the walk using a memory parameter to either reward or punish success by increasing or decreasing its probability in the next step. It seems more than suitable for modelling tennis matches as the data suggest that a success in tennis yields another success, or in other words, that winning one particular part of the match increases the chances of winning the next part as well.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: First, the model of Bernoulli-like random walk with transition probabilities dependent on preceding steps is introduced in Section 2. Data are described in Section 3, in Section 4 the model is evaluated and its flexibility is tested on a historical dataset. The quality of the model is assessed also via its use in real life betting and the results are described in Section 5. Finally, Section 6 concludes this paper.

2. Models of random walk with memory

A basic type of a discrete time random walk is the Bernoulli walk, with random steps (denote them X_i at stage i) $X_i = \pm 1$, with constant transition probability $P(X_i = 1) = p_0$. It is a representation of a Markov chain, i.e. a memory-less random process. It may fit perfectly to many real processes, however, many others, including the tennis match development, are more complex, and a memory element has to be introduced in order to correctly describe them. Then p_0 can be regarded as an input parameter based on initial match conditions, and then the transition probabilities evolve depending on the match progress.

Naturally, the idea of process transitions depending on the history of process itself is not new. An inspiration can be found for instance in the statistical modelling of recurrent events in lifetime (reliability) analysis. For the case analysed in the present paper, with discrete time and only several steps in a walk, the regression model is not considered (though the use of logistic regression is a natural generalization here) and the transition probabilities are changed just by multiplying them by a convenient parameter. An inspiration to such a modification of Bernoulli random walk can be found in several papers where the length of step was changed in a similar way. Loic Turban presented a model of a one-dimensional random walk with memory introduced through varying step size in [15]. In the paper, it is assumed that

the step size in the direction of the last step will be lowered by a coefficient λ and the step in the opposite direction will be prolonged so that the sum of absolute values of the steps remains constant and equal to 2. The goal is to stabilize the process. Another interesting variant of model is presented in Schaltz and Trimper [13] introducing a special type of a random walk with the random increment at time step t depending on the full history of the process (compared to an elephant's memory in the paper). The walk tends to repeat 'good decisions' (i.e. steps from history). The present application keeps constant steps length but instead changes the transition probabilities in a similar manner.

2.1 Transition probabilities dependent on process history

The concept of the model has been introduced in [9]. It is based on the standard random walk with steps $X_i = \pm 1, i = 1, 2, \dots$. The distribution of the first random variable X_1 is given by a starting parameter $p_0 \in [0, 1]$, so that $P(X_1 = 1) = p_0$ and $P(X_1 = -1) = 1 - p_0$. After the i -th step (for $i \geq 1$), the probability distribution of the next step X_{i+1} is given by the (random) probability p_i , which depends on a coefficient $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ and the last random variable $X_i, i = 1, 2, \dots$:

$$\begin{aligned} p_i &= \lambda p_{i-1} \text{ for } X_i = 1, \\ p_i &= 1 - \lambda(1 - p_{i-1}) \text{ for } X_i = -1, \end{aligned}$$

which yields that

$$p_i = \lambda p_{i-1} + \frac{1}{2}(1 - \lambda)(1 - X_i). \quad (1)$$

The case with $\lambda = 1$ corresponds to the standard Markov random walk with constant transition probability, with $\lambda = 0$ the walk would be a series of alternating steps to the left and right with only the first step direction being chosen randomly. Therefore only $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ is further considered. As after each 'success' ($X_i = 1$) the probability of its repetition in the next step decreases, we can call this scheme a 'success punished' model. Naturally, the opposite, a 'success rewarded' variant, is possible, which leads to a similar expression for $\bar{p}_i = 1 - p_i$:

$$\bar{p}_i = \lambda \bar{p}_{i-1} + \frac{1}{2}(1 - \lambda)(1 - X_i) \quad (2)$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots$

Another alternative is a random walk with each event influencing the further development of the walk differently, which can be expressed as

$$p_i = \frac{1}{2}[(1 + X_i)\lambda_0 p_{i-1} + (1 - X_i)(1 - \lambda_1(1 - p_{i-1}))], \quad (3)$$

with $\lambda_0, \lambda_1 \in (0, 1)$, or a similar model for parameters $\bar{p}_i = 1 - p_i$. Other alternatives of the model can be considered as well. For example, parameter λ can depend on available covariates in a logistic manner, the transition probabilities can depend explicitly not only on the last step, but on longer history or also on the number of steps, the walk can be defined in a multidimensional space or on a graph, and other generalizations.

The behaviour of the proposed random walk types was analysed in [9], focusing on the development after a large number of steps (i.e. asymptotic properties). In the present application the walk consists of just a small number of steps, the long-run properties overview is thus omitted here. The main task of this paper is therefore assessing the initial probability p_0 and reliable estimation of parameters λ . Another

task is to recognize which type of model is the most convenient. In the following real data analysis the ‘success rewarded’ model variant was selected, after a thorough data analysis proved that tennis match develops according to this model type [6].

3. Data description

Two datasets were acquired for the purpose of this paper, one for model development and the other for model testing. The development dataset contains the results from all Grand Slam tournaments from 2009 to 2018 and corresponding Pinnacle Sports bookmaker’s odds (Pinnacle Sports bookmaker was chosen as it is considered leading in the sports betting industry). It was created using data publicly available from website www.oddsportal.com. Every year 4 Grand Slam tournaments (i.e. Australian Open, French Open, The Wimbledon and US Open) are played, making it 40 tournaments during the selected period. Each Grand Slam has 128 participants in the men singles category played in a single-elimination system (i.e. 127 games per tournament). Thus, there were 5080 matches available altogether. Some matches were not finished due to one of the players forfeiting and such matches were omitted from the dataset. Matches without bookmaker’s odds were omitted as well. The final dataset contains 4255 matches with complete data available, played by 432 players in total. The most active player was Novak Djokovic, who participated in 188 matches. On average, each player played 19.7 matches, with the median value of 8 matches played. The most common result was 3:0, occurring 2138 times, on the other hand, 5 sets were played only 808 times.

The order in which the players are listed is rather random. The players listed first won 2201 in total, just slightly over the half. The player listed first would be normally considered as ‘home’, however, as there are (usually) no home players on the international tournaments, the order is based on the www.oddsportal.com data and/or the respective tournament committees. On the other hand, if the bookmaker’s favourite (i.e. the player with better odds or the first listed player in case the odds are even) is considered, the situation changes significantly. The favourites won 3307 matches in total, mostly 3:0, and lost 311 times 0:3, 347 times 1:3 and 290 times 2:3. It suggests that bookmaker’s odds can be used as a winning probability estimate, which is in accordance with previous results, for example [8].

Evaluation dataset was created in order to further validate the quality of the presented model. It consists of the 2019 men singles US Open matches, with the results and set winning odds provided by Tipsport (the biggest Czech bookmaker). The major difference between the two datasets is the fact that the evaluation dataset contains not only *pre-match* odds, but *in-play* odds as well, and can be thus used to evaluate the model quality in real life setting. There were 127 matches and 448 sets played in total during 2019 men tennis US Open, the created dataset contains 423 set odds (25 set odds missing due to website malfunction, not being provided by the bookmaker or some other problems).

4. Application of random walk

Original inspiration of the random walk described in Section 2 is based on intensive study of historical sport results and their development. The data suggest that the probability of success (i.e. scoring, winning a set or a point etc.) evolves according to the random walk with varying probabilities. Moreover, it follows from the data that sports can be very roughly divided into two categories. Sports played for a certain amount of time, such as soccer or ice-hockey, evolve according to the walk defined by expression (1). On the other hand, sports where there is necessary to achieve certain number of points, such as tennis or volleyball, appear to follow the pattern defined in equation (2). Therefore the later approach is used to model a tennis game.

The model is used to predict the winning probabilities of sets 2 through 5 and is constructed in a following manner. For each match, the first set winning probability of Player A (the player which is listed first in the database), p_0 , is given by an initial probability and a coefficient λ is fixed for the entire dataset. In order to compute the second set winning probability, the result of the first set is observed and second set winning probability is computed using equation (2). This procedure is repeated for all remaining sets played (there can be either 3, 4 or 5 sets played in total in a *best-of-five* tennis game).

4.1 Initial probability derivation

The model (1) or (2) of a random walk with varying probabilities described in Section 2 contains two parameters, initial set winning probability p_0 and the memory coefficient λ . Finding the optimal value of λ is described further. Estimating the initial set winning probability is a major task by itself and represents one of the elementary problems in tennis modelling (and sports predictions in general). For the purpose of this article an estimation based on bookmaker's odds will be used. Specifically, the closing odds (closing odds means the last odds available before the match started) by Pinnacle Sports bookmaker for the first set result are used to estimate the probabilities of each player winning the first set. Such odds represent a good estimation of the underlying winning probability and are considered as a baseline in the sports betting industry. The odds, however, have to be transformed into probabilities. A method described in [7] is used to obtain probabilities, which in case of only two possible outcomes (such as in tennis match) can be expressed as

$$p_i = \frac{1}{a_i} - (G - 1) \left[1 - \frac{1}{a_i G} + 2\omega \left(\frac{1}{a_i G} - 0.5 \right) \right], \quad i \in \{1, 2\},$$

where p_i are the unknown first set winning probabilities, a_i the corresponding odds provided by bookmaker and $G = \sum_{i=1}^2 \frac{1}{a_i}$. A parameter $\omega \in [0, 1]$ is used to spread bookmaker's margin among the two outcomes and for the purpose of this paper it is set to the value $\omega = 0.5$. Obtained first set winning probabilities are then used as a given starting probability p_0 in the random walk.

4.2 Model evaluation

In order to verify the model accuracy, several tests were performed. First, the dataset was divided into training and testing sets. The division can be done naturally by the order of games played. Given a specific time, past matches constitute to a training set, future matches to a testing set. For the purpose of this paper, the split was done on a yearly basis, the data from one previous tennis season were used as a training set to predict winning probabilities in the following season, considered the testing set (i.e. 2010 was the first season used as testing data, 2017 was the last season used as training data), making it 9 training/testing splits together. Another approach to dataset splitting is to consider data from all previous years as testing data and from one future year as training data, however, previous study shows that the difference between these two approaches is negligible [8].

Next step in model evaluation is the estimation of parameter λ . Training sets and maximal-likelihood estimates (MLE) were used for this task. The likelihood function is defined as

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^{N_{train}} (x_i p_i + (1 - x_i)(1 - p_i)),$$

where N_{train} is the number of sets 2 through 5 played in the training dataset, p_i is Player A's winning probability in the i -th set obtained using the method described above for each match, and x_i is the

Year	Optimal lambda
2010	0.8074
2011	0.8497
2012	0.8142
2013	0.9162
2014	0.8523
2015	0.8429
2016	0.8920
2017	0.8674
2018	0.8333

Table 1. Optimal values of the coefficient λ for respective years.

result of the i -th set, $x_i = 1$ if Player A won the i -th set, $x_i = 0$ otherwise. For computational reasons the *log-likelihood* $L_l = \log(L)$ was used, i.e. the function

$$L_l = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{train}} \log(x_i p_i + (1 - x_i)(1 - p_i))$$

was maximized. Numerical methods implemented in Python library SciPy were used to obtain specific values of λ . The optimal values of the coefficient λ can be seen in Table 1.

Finally, the model was used to predict set winning probabilities of the unseen data from the training set using initial bookmaker derived odds, equation (2) and memory parameter λ obtained from the corresponding training set. In order to verify the quality of the model, the average theoretical set winning probability of Player A $\hat{p} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{test}} p_i$ and its variance $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{test}} p_i(1 - p_i)$ were computed and so was the observed Player A winning ratio $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{test}} x_i$. Using the Lyapunov variant of Central Limit Theorem (CLT), the resulting random variable y follows the standard normal distribution

$$y = \frac{\sqrt{N_{test}}(\bar{x} - \hat{p})}{\hat{\sigma}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1). \quad (4)$$

Then in order to verify the model accuracy, the null hypothesis that the true average Player A set winning probability \bar{p} equals \hat{p} against the alternative hypothesis $\bar{p} \neq \hat{p}$ was tested. Formally, $H_0 : \bar{p} = \hat{p}$, $H_1 : \bar{p} \neq \hat{p}$.

One of the assumptions of the CLT is that the observed random variables are independent. This is obviously not true in the case when N_{test} contains all sets from the testing data. Quite the opposite, the model assumes that the winning probability of a set directly depends on the winning probability of the previous set. This can be easily solved by splitting the testing dataset into 4 subsets containing only results from single set of each match, i.e. sets 2, 3, 4 and 5 (if they were played). The matches can be considered independent from each other and so can be the i -th sets of respective matches.

Using this approach, there are 36 testing data subsets together (up to 4 sets considered in each match, 9 yearly testing datasets). On a 95% confidence level, only on 2 out of the 36 available subsets provide strong enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis. On the other hand, the null hypothesis is relatively weak. It only says that the prediction is correct on average. In order to verify the quality of the predictions, more detailed tests have to be created. This can be done primarily by testing the null hypothesis on many subsets created according to some real life based criteria. The natural way how

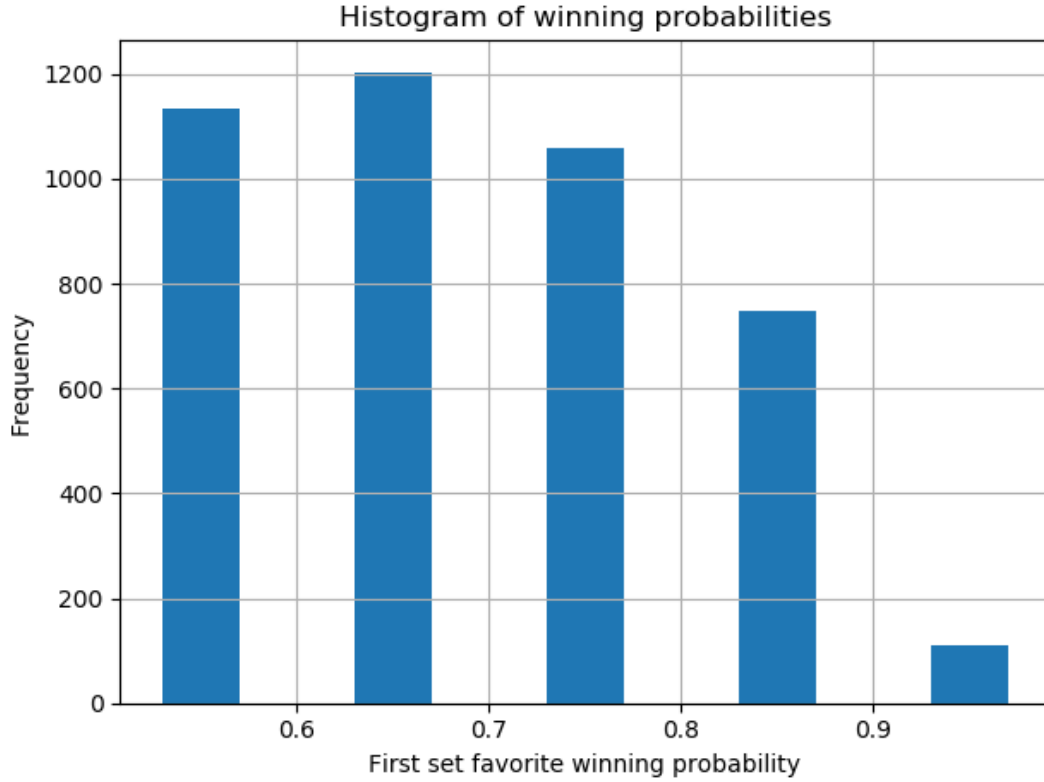


Figure 1. First set winning probability p_0 histogram.

to create such subsets is dividing the matches to the 4 different tournaments. This refining yields 180 subsets: 4 sets in each match evaluated, $4 + 1$ tournaments every year, 9 years for testing. Using 95 confidence level, only 6 of the 180 subsets have data strong enough to reject the null hypothesis. It is worth mentioning that the size of some of the datasets regarding fifth sets is only slightly above 20 observations, which can interfere with the assumptions justifying the use of Central Limit Theorem.

To further analyse the robustness of the model it is important to realize the structure of the data. So far, the player, whose winning probability was estimated, was chosen arbitrarily based on some external (more or less random) order. As such, the observed winning probability in every subset equals approximately to $\frac{1}{2}$. In such a dataset it is not very difficult to estimate the average winning probability. The situation changes if the bookmaker's favourite is considered for predictions. Performing the same tests as described in the previous paragraph the data allows to reject the null hypothesis (on a 95% confidence level) on 5 subsets containing all tournaments and 8 single tournament subsets (out of 180 subsets total).

Finally, the testing data can be divided into groups using the initial probability p_0 . Such a division is based on an assumption that the matches with similar bookmaker odds should have similar development. The matches are divided into 5 groups, each containing 10 percentage points in first set winning

probability. Except for the biggest favourites (with first set winning probability over 90%), this division seems reasonable. The data histogram can be seen on Figure 1. Out of the 180 newly created odds-based subgroups, only 9 have data strong enough to reject H_0 on a 95% confidence level. The entire results of the hypothesis testing (the p -values of respective tests) can be seen on Figure 2. More detailed division, i.e. by tournament and odds, was not performed as the resulting datasets would not contain enough data.

Overall, the model was tested on 360 different subsets and only 22 of them (6.1%) provided enough evidence to reject H_0 on 95% confidence level. These subsets are distributed randomly and there is no pattern among them, indicating there is no systematic bias in the model. The random walk with varying probabilities thus seems to be a robust model which can be used to precisely predict set winning probabilities in men tennis Grand Slam matches.

5. Model testing

The model was implemented and tested in real life setup where it actively bet in-play against Tipsport, the biggest bookmaker in the Czech Republic. The test was set up in the following manner.

An automated betting and odds scraping tool developed using the Python programming language and Selenium framework running on a remote server (Digital Ocean) was developed and deployed for the purpose of this paper. The tool operates with Tipsport's website and scrapes it for both *pre-match* as well as *in-play* odds. It was set up to continuously observe Tipsport's odds offerings for 2019 men tennis US Open, especially the set winning odds, and store the odds together with some general information about the match, such as the respective players, starting time etc., into a database (Postgresql database). To test the model, Tipsport's starting odds were used to obtain parameter p_0 (as described above) and (according to the results from Section 4) optimized λ trained on the 2018 tennis season was chosen as the second necessary model parameter. Every match was observed individually and after each finished set next set winning probabilities were computed using the presented model. Whenever the actual set winning odds offered by Tipsport for one of the players a_i were higher than the probability implied set winning odds for that player computed by the model, i.e. $a_i > \frac{1}{p_i}$, a bet was made. The amount bet was computed as $p_i U$, where U is a base bankroll dependent betting unit. This amount was further rounded with precision CZK 1 (due to betting limitations of Tipsport). Overall, 128 bets were made (and 3 additional bets that were cancelled due to one of the players forfeiting the match because of injury) with the total amount 59.85 U bet. The expected number of wins among these bets was 59.85 whereas the actual number of wins was 57. Using the same hypotheses testing as in Section 4.2, the data showed no evidence to reject H_0 (p -value ~ 0.59). The minimal account balance over the entire US Open was $-0.52U$ and the final balance 2.24 U , creating a theoretical return on investment (ROI) of 430% within only 2 weeks, which is an outstanding performance.

5.1 Alternative betting strategies

Choosing the correct betting strategy is one of the key elements of successful betting. It depends on the underlying model, available bookmaker's odds, bankroll, internal bookmaker's policies and many other parameters. There exists a large number of possible approaches and the detailed description of them is beyond the scope of this paper. Besides the implemented strategy, where an amount proportional to p was bet on each selected opportunity, two other basic betting strategies were applied to test the model. A strategy where always $\frac{1}{a}$, i.e. the inverse value of odds, was bet, and a naive strategy with simply 1 unit put on every bet. The strategies differ in the expected wins and their variance. The theoretical properties

Year	Set number	Australian Open	French Open	Wimbledon	US Open	0,6	0,7	0,8	0,9	1	All groups
2010	2	0,377	0,551	0,278	0,847	0,064	0,764	0,877	0,264	1,000	0,439
	3	0,981	0,629	0,302	0,703	0,738	0,091	0,927	0,644	1,000	0,561
	4	0,105	0,200	0,040	0,837	0,000	0,893	0,636	0,228	1,000	0,013
	5	0,808	0,270	0,156	0,509	0,567	0,060	0,076	0,930	1,000	0,084
2011	2	0,159	0,649	0,409	0,494	0,155	0,900	0,854	0,229	1,000	0,222
	3	0,893	0,696	0,622	0,553	0,195	0,108	0,875	0,697	1,000	0,689
	4	0,823	0,525	0,625	0,474	0,996	0,772	0,930	0,870	1,000	0,868
	5	0,496	0,329	0,014	0,427	0,144	0,130	0,622	0,206	1,000	0,127
2012	2	0,677	0,540	0,237	0,348	0,482	0,167	0,704	0,235	0,081	0,113
	3	0,752	0,304	0,264	0,621	0,245	0,852	0,440	0,313	0,928	0,138
	4	0,104	0,267	0,810	0,161	0,450	0,135	0,105	0,019	0,304	0,031
	5	0,223	0,184	0,412	0,359	0,279	0,452	0,358	0,019	0,137	0,192
2013	2	0,664	0,944	0,954	0,218	0,867	0,119	0,854	0,090	0,486	0,696
	3	0,306	0,629	0,320	0,476	0,359	0,476	0,001	0,197	0,175	0,373
	4	0,647	0,585	0,949	0,879	0,285	0,096	0,302	0,082	0,912	0,578
	5	0,488	0,501	0,510	0,385	0,357	0,907	0,377	0,161	1,000	0,579
2014	2	0,277	0,410	0,448	0,450	0,894	0,501	0,957	0,092	0,229	0,341
	3	0,244	0,612	0,511	0,987	0,908	0,181	0,404	0,894	0,885	0,253
	4	0,221	0,048	0,025	0,337	0,082	0,010	0,867	0,036	0,616	0,001
	5	0,191	0,142	0,495	0,792	0,117	0,852	0,240	0,170	1,000	0,636
2015	2	0,883	0,593	0,669	0,075	0,257	0,765	0,095	0,766	0,251	0,757
	3	0,084	0,223	0,565	0,272	0,227	0,798	0,447	0,237	0,294	0,081
	4	0,150	0,101	0,738	0,778	0,440	0,828	0,148	0,095	1,000	0,113
	5	0,025	0,316	0,428	0,454	0,063	0,694	0,520	0,907	1,000	0,089
2016	2	0,602	0,936	0,268	0,194	0,956	0,596	0,959	0,955	0,072	0,644
	3	0,563	0,021	0,697	0,341	0,411	0,929	0,867	0,169	0,986	0,442
	4	0,101	0,560	0,607	0,191	0,125	0,102	0,828	0,619	0,971	0,039
	5	0,240	0,311	0,352	0,035	0,197	0,067	0,074	0,562	0,593	0,008
2017	2	0,062	0,023	0,586	0,965	0,531	0,076	0,391	0,008	0,469	0,069
	3	0,677	0,901	0,154	0,146	0,852	0,053	0,636	0,654	0,504	0,110
	4	0,228	0,972	0,498	0,390	0,723	0,382	0,908	0,886	0,658	0,446
	5	0,526	0,381	0,542	0,465	0,783	0,613	0,729	0,466	1,000	0,915
2018	2	0,911	0,491	0,354	0,530	0,043	0,393	0,265	0,635	0,398	0,239
	3	0,765	0,233	0,404	0,165	0,481	0,730	0,473	0,965	0,444	0,320
	4	0,793	0,176	0,456	0,650	0,704	0,577	0,046	0,965	1,000	0,157
	5	0,258	0,216	0,171	0,060	0,841	0,052	0,399	0,806	1,000	0,190

Figure 2. *p-values* of hypothesis tests for different testing sets. Red are marked those allowing to reject H_0 on 99% confidence level, orange on 95% and yellow on 90% confidence level.

Strategy	Bet	$E(w)$	$E(w p = \frac{1}{a})$	$Var(w)$	$Var(w p = \frac{1}{a})$
Naive	1	$pa - 1$	0	$pa^2(1 - p)$	$a(1 - \frac{1}{a})$
Odds	$\frac{1}{a}$	$p - \frac{1}{a}$	0	$p(1 - p)$	$\frac{1 - \frac{1}{k}}{k}$
Prob.	p	$p(pa - 1)$	0	$p^3a^2(1 - p)$	$\frac{1 - \frac{1}{k}}{k}$
General	u	$u(pa - 1)$	0	$u^2pa^2(1 - p)$	$u^2a(1 - \frac{1}{a})$

Table 2. Theoretical values of wins and variances for different betting strategies.

Strategy	Expected profit	Profit std. dev.	Minimal balance	Profit	ROI
Naive	11.1	15.17	-3.62	2.99	83%
Odds	4.07	5.29	-0.72	1.23	171%
Prob.	4.91	5.79	-0.52	2.24	430%

Table 3. The results of different betting strategies applied to US Open betting using the presented model.

of the betting strategies can be observed in Table 2 with the special case where $p = \frac{1}{a}$, i.e. in case of fair odds [7]. The results of the different betting strategies applied together with the presented model to bet on 2019 men US Open (actual for probability based strategy and theoretical for other strategies) are shown in Table 3. The development of the account balance for different betting strategies is displayed on Figure 3. The figure shows that the general shape of balance development is very similar for all three strategies. This is caused by the fact that all strategies bet on the same opportunities, i.e. only when the expected win from the bookmaker's odds is positive according to the presented model ($a_i > \frac{1}{p_i}$ holds for some offered betting opportunity), and only differ in the amount bet. The naive strategy then reaches the most extreme values, which is caused by its variance, the biggest among selected variants (as shown in Table 2).

6. Concluding remarks

In the present paper, a model of Bernoulli-like random walk with transitions dependent on the walk history was introduced. A number of variations of this model was described by the authors in a recent study [10]. This paper shows that even the rather simple version presented here shows sufficient flexibility and can be applied to tennis matches modelling. The model was first tested statistically on historical data and the optimal model parameters were computed using numerical methods. The results were then tested in real *in-play* betting against a commercial bookmaker with rather encouraging results. This shows a huge potential of the model being able to describe even the most complicated real life discrete random processes with memory. The application of the model on different real life problems will be subject of further research.

The source code containing all functionality mentioned in this article including the automated betting engine is freely available as open source at GitHub (<https://github.com/tomaskourim/mathsport2019>) together with a database containing all data that was used in this paper. Some more results can be also obtained from the same repository.

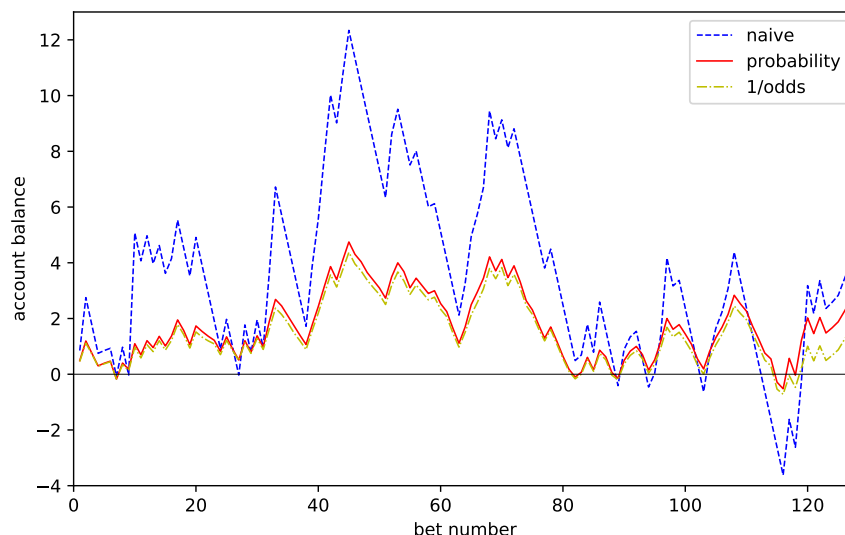


Figure 3. Account balance development for different betting strategies.

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