BERNOULLI RUNS USING "BOOK CRICKET" TO EVALUATE CRICKETERS

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ABSTRACT. This paper proposes a simple method to evaluate batsmen and bowlers in cricket. The idea in this paper refines "book cricket" and evaluates a batsman by answering the question: How many runs a team consisting of same player replicated eleven times will score?

Keywords. Probability, Combinatorics, Coin Toss, Bernoulli Runs, Book Cricket, Monte Carlo Simulation.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the late 1980s and early 1990s to beat afternoon drowsiness in school one resorted to playing "book cricket". The book cricket rules was quite simple. Pick a text book and open it randomly and note the last digit of the even numbered page. The special case is when you see a page ending with 0 then you have lost a wicket. If you see 8, most of my friends would score it as a 1 run. The other digits 2,4,6 would be scored as the same, that is if you see a page ending with 4 then you have scored 4 runs. We would play two national teams without any overs limit since it was a too much of a hassle to count the number of deliveries¹.

A book cricketer would construct his own team and match it up against his friend. One of the teams would be the Indian team and the other team would be the side the Indian team was playing at that time. The book cricketer would play till he lost 10 wickets². Thus it was like test cricket but with just one innings for each team. The one who scores the most number of runs would be declared the winner.

In probabilistic terms, we were simulating a batsman with the following probability mass function:

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{5}$$
 $x \in \{\text{out}, 1, 2, 4, 6\}$ (1)

With this simple model, we used to get weird results like a well-known batting bunny like Narendra Hirwani scoring the most number of runs. So we had to change rules for each player based on his batting ability. For example, a player like Praveen Amre would be dismissed only if we got consecutive page numbers that ended with a 0. Intuitively without understanding a whole lot of probability, we had reduced the probability of Amre being dismissed from $\frac{1}{5}$ to $\frac{1}{25}$. In the same spirit, for Hirwani we modified the original model and made 8 a dismissal. Thus the probability of

¹The number of deliveries equals the number of times we opened the book.

 $^{^{2}}$ Remember losing a wicket is when on opening the book, you see a page number that ends with a 0. Thus the inning ends when he sees ten page numbers that end with a 0.

Hirwani being dismissed went up from $\frac{1}{5}$ to $\frac{2}{5}$ thus reducing the chances of Hirwani getting the highest score which did not please many people in the class³.

In the next section, we develop a probabilistic model of cricket by refining the book cricket model. The refinement is in probabilities which is updated to approximate the real world cricketing statistics.

2. A Probabilistic Model for Cricket

The book cricket model described above can be thought of as a five-sided die game. The biggest drawback of the book cricket model described in Eq. (1) is the fact all the five outcomes,

$$\Omega = \{ \text{out}, 1, 2, 4, 6 \}$$

are equally likely.

Instead of assigning uniform probabilities to all the five outcomes, a realistic model will take probabilities from the career record. For example, VVS Laxman has hit 4 sixes in 3282 balls he faced in his ODI career. Thus one can model the probability of Laxman hitting a six as $\frac{4}{3282}$ instead of our naive book cricket probability of $\frac{1}{5}$.

To further refine this model, we have to add two more outcomes to the model namely: the dot ball (resulting in 0 runs) and the scoring shot which results in 3 runs being scored. This results in a seven-sided die model whose sample space is:

$$\Omega = \{ \text{out}, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 \}$$
(2)

2.1. A Simplified Model. We need to simplify our model since it is hard to obtain detailed statistics for the seven-sided die model. For example, it is pretty hard to find out how many twos and threes Inzamam-ul-Haq scored in his career. But it is easy to obtain his career average and strike rate.

Definition 2.1. The **average** (avg) for a *batsman* is defined as the average number of runs scored per dismissal.

$$avg = \frac{\text{number of runs scored}}{\text{number of dismissals}}$$
(3)

In case of a *bowler* the numerator becomes number of runs *conceded*.

Definition 2.2. The strike rate (sr) for a batsman is defined as the runs scored per 100 balls. Thus when you divide the strike rate by 100 you get the average runs (r) scored per ball.

$$\mathbf{r} = \frac{\mathbf{sr}}{100} = \frac{\text{number of runs scored}}{\text{number of balls faced}} \tag{4}$$

Definition 2.3. The economy rate (econ) for a bowler is defined as the runs conceded per 6 balls⁴. Thus the average runs (r) conceded per ball is:

$$r = \frac{\text{econ}}{6} = \frac{\text{number of runs conceded}}{\text{number of balls bowled}}$$
(5)

 $^{^{3}}$ The another reason for the lack of popularity was that it involved more book keeping.

⁴ In the case of bowlers, strike rate (sr) means number of deliveries required on a average for a dismissal. So strike rate (sr) is interpreted differently for a batsman and bowler. An example of context sensitive information or in Object Oriented jargon overloading!

We need to simplify the seven-sided die probabilistic model to take advantage of the easy availability of the above statistics: average, strike rate and economy rate. This simplification leads to modeling of every delivery in cricket as simple coin tossing experiment.

Thus the simplified model will have only two outcomes, either a *scoring shot* (heads) or a *dismissal* (tails) during every delivery. We also assign a value to the scoring shot (heads) namely the average runs scored per ball.

Now to complete our probabilistic model all we need is to estimate the probability of getting dismissed⁵. From the definitions of strike rate and average, one can calculate the average number of deliveries a batsman faces before he is dismissed (bpw).

$$bpw = \frac{number \text{ of balls faced}}{number \text{ of dismissals}}$$

$$= \frac{number \text{ of runs scored}}{number \text{ of dismissals}} \times \frac{number \text{ of balls faced}}{number \text{ of runs scored}}$$

$$= avg \times \frac{1}{\frac{sr}{100}}$$

$$= 100 \times \left(\frac{avg}{sr}\right)$$
(6)

Assuming that the batsman can be dismissed during any delivery, the probability of being dismissed (1 - p) is given by⁶:

$$\mathbb{P}\{\text{Dismissal}\} = 1 - p = \frac{1}{\text{bpw}} = \frac{\text{sr}}{100 \times \text{avg}} = \frac{r}{\text{avg}}$$
(7)

In probability parlance, coin tossing is called a Bernoulli trial [5]. From the perspective of a batsman, if you get a head you score r runs and if you get a tail you are dismissed. Thus the most basic event in cricket, the ball delivered by a bowler to a batsman is modeled by a coin toss.

Just as Markov chains form the theoretical underpinning for modeling baseball run scoring [1], Bernoulli⁷ trials form the basis for cricket. Now that we have modeled each delivery as a Bernoulli trial, we now have the mathematical tools to evaluate a batsman or bowler.

3. Evaluating a Batsman

To evaluate a batsman we imagine a "team" consisting of eleven replicas of the same batsman and find how many *runs on average* this imaginary team will score⁸. For example, to evaluate Sachin Tendulkar we want to find out how many runs will be scored by a team consisting of eleven Tendulkar's.

Since we model each delivery as a Bernoulli trial, the total runs scored by this imaginary team will be a probability distribution. To further elaborate this point, if a team of Tendulkar's faces 300 balls, they score 300r runs if they don't lose a wicket where r is defined in Eq. (4). They score 299r runs if they lose only one wicket. On the other end of the scale, this imaginary team might be dismissed

⁵The probability of getting a tail.

⁶ The formula $\mathbb{P}\{\text{Dismissal}\} = 1 - p = \frac{r}{\text{avg}}$ also applies to a bowler with the r being calculated using Eq. (5).

⁷ Arguably, the Bernoulli's were the greatest mathematical family that ever lived [2, 3]

⁸ It is straightforward to apply this method to evaluate a bowler too.

without scoring a run if it so happens that all the first 10 tosses turn out to be tails⁹. Thus this imaginary team can score total runs anywhere between [0, 300r] and each total is associated with probability.

But it is difficult to interpret probability distribution and it is much easier to comprehend basic statistical summaries such as *mean* and *standard deviation*. We call the *mean* as **Bernoulli runs** in this paper since the idea was inspired by Markov runs in Baseball [1].

3.1. Bernoulli Runs. We now derive the formula for the *mean* of runs scored by a team consisting of eleven replicas of the same batsman in an One day international (ODI) match¹⁰.

Let Y denote the number of runs scored in a ODI by this imaginary team. It is easier to derive the formula for mean of the total runs $(\mathbb{E}(Y))$ scored by partitioning the various scenarios into two cases:

- (1) The team loses all the wickets $(\mathbb{E}_{\text{all-out}}(Y))$;
- (2) The team uses up all the allotted deliveries which implies that the team has lost less than 10 wickets in the allotted deliveries $(\mathbb{E}_{\overline{\text{all-out}}}(Y))$.

This leads to:

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = \mathbb{E}_{\text{all-out}}(Y) + \mathbb{E}_{\overline{\text{all-out}}}(Y)$$
(8)

In the first case of team losing all the wickets, we can once again partition on the delivery the tenth wicket was lost. Let b be the delivery the tenth wicket fell. The tenth wicket can fall on any delivery between [10, 300]. The first nine wickets could have fallen in any one of the previous b - 1 deliveries. The number of possible ways the nine wickets could have fallen in b - 1 deliveries is given by $\binom{b-1}{9}$. The number of scoring shots (heads in coin tosses) is b - 10. The mean number of runs scored while losing all wickets is given by:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\text{all-out}}(Y) = r \sum_{b=10}^{300} (b-10) \left(\binom{b-1}{9} p^{(b-1)-9} (1-p)^9 \right) (1-p) \tag{9}$$

The second case can be partitioned on basis of the number of wickets (w) lost. Applying the same logic, one can derive the following result for the mean number of runs scored:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\overline{\text{all-out}}}(Y) = r \sum_{w=0}^{9} (300 - w) \binom{300}{w} p^{300 - w} (1 - p)^w \tag{10}$$

Substituting Eq. (9) and Eq. (10) in Eq. (8) we get the following equation for the mean of the runs scored:

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = r \sum_{b=10}^{300} (b-10) {\binom{b-1}{9}} p^{b-10} (1-p)^{10} + r \sum_{w=0}^{9} (300-w) {\binom{300}{w}} p^{300-w} (1-p)^w \quad (11)$$

 $^{^{9}}$ The probability of being all out without a run being scored will be astronomically low for an imaginary team of eleven Tendulkar's!

 $^{^{10}}$ The ODI has a maximum of 300 deliveries per team. The formulas can be derived for Twenty20 and Test matches with appropriate deliveries limit.

One can generalize the above Eq. (11) to generate any moment. The *k*th moment is given by:

$$\mathbb{E}(Y^k) = r^k \sum_{b=10}^{300} (b-10)^k {\binom{b-1}{9}} p^{b-10} (1-p)^{10} + r^k \sum_{w=0}^{9} (300-w)^k {\binom{300}{w}} p^{300-w} (1-p)^w \quad (12)$$

The standard deviation can be obtained by

$$\sigma_{Y} = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}(Y^{2}) - (\mathbb{E}(Y))^{2}}$$
(13)

To make things concrete, we illustrate the calculation of Bernoulli runs for a batsman and a bowler using the statistical programming language R [4]. The R code which implements this is listed in Appendix A.

Example 3.1 (Batsman). Sir Viv Richards. Richards has an avg = 47.00 and sr = 90.20 in ODI matches. From Eq. (4) we get $r = \frac{\text{sr}}{100} = 0.9020$ and from Eq. (7), we get $1 - p = \frac{0.9020}{47.00} = 0.01919$

Substituting the values of 1 - p and r in Eq. (11) and Eq. (13) we get mean = 262.84 and sd = 13.75. One can interpret the result as, a team consisting of eleven Richards' will score on average 262.84 runs per ODI inning with a standard deviation of 13.75 runs per inning. The code listed in Appendix A is at R/analytical.R and can be executed as follows:

> source(file = "R/analytical.R")
> bernoulli(avg = 47, sr = 90.2)
\$mean
[1] 262.8434

\$sd [1] 13.75331

Example 3.2 (Bowler). Curtly Ambrose. Ambrose has an avg = 24.12 and econ = 3.48 in ODI matches. From Eq. (5), we get $r = \frac{\text{econ}}{6} = 0.58$ and from Eq. (7), we get $1 - p = \frac{r}{\text{avg}} = \frac{0.58}{24.12} = 0.024$

Substituting the values of 1 - p and r in Eq. (11) and Eq. (13) we get mean = 164.39 and sd = 15.84. One can interpret the result as, a team consisting of eleven Ambrose's will concede on average 164.39 runs per ODI inning with a standard deviation of 15.84 runs per inning.

```
> bernoulli(avg = 24.12, sr = 3.48 * 100/6)
$mean
[1] 164.3869
```

\$sd

[1] 15.84270

3.1.1. Poisson process. An aside. One can also use Poisson process to model a batsman's career. This is because the probability of getting dismissed is pretty small $(q \rightarrow 0)$, and the number of deliveries a player faces is pretty high over his entire career (n). Poisson distribution can used to model the rare events (dismissal)

counting with parameter $\lambda = nq$ [5]. The λ can be interpreted as the average number of wickets that a team will lose in *n* balls. For example, a team of eleven Richards will lose $300 \times 0.01919 = 5.78$ wickets on an average which explains the reason why his standard deviation is very low.

3.1.2. Monte Carlo Simulation. Another aside. The Monte Carlo simulation code for the probability model proposed in this paper is listed in Appendix B in R. Monte Carlo simulation can be used to verify the formula for Bernoulli runs we have derived. In other words, it provides another way find the Bernoulli runs.

Also as one refines the model it becomes difficult to obtain a closed form solution to the Bernoulli runs and Monte Carlo simulation comes in handy during such situations. For example, it is straightforward to modify the code to generate Bernoulli runs using the seven-sided die model presented in Eq. (2). Thus any model can be simulated using Monte Carlo.

4. Reward to Risk Ratio

Virender Sehwag has an avg = 34.64 and sr = 103.27 in ODI matches¹¹ this leads to Bernoulli runs (mean) = 275.96 and standard deviation = 42.99. Thus on an average, Sehwag scores more runs than Richards but he is also risky compared to Richards. To quantify this, we borrow the concept of Sharpe Ratio from the world of Financial Mathematics and we call it Reward to Risk Ratio (RRR).

Definition 4.1. The Reward to Risk Ratio (RRR) for a *batsman* is defined as:

$$RRR = \frac{\mathbb{E}(Y) - c_{\text{batsman}}}{\sigma_Y}$$
(14)

and for a *bowler* it is defined as:

$$RRR = \frac{c_{\text{bowler}} - \mathbb{E}(Y)}{\sigma_Y}$$
(15)

where $\mathbb{E}(Y)$ is defined in Eq. (11) and σ_Y is defined in Eq. (13). The constants c_{batsman} and c_{bowler} are discussed below.

4.1. **Constants.** The Duckworth-Lewis (D/L) method predicts an average score¹² of 235 runs will be scored by a team in an ODI match. Though D/L average score seems to be a good candidate for usage as the constant in RRR, we use scale it before using it. The reason for scaling is due to a concept named Value over Replacement player (VORP) which comes from Baseball [6]. Replacement player is a player who plays at the next rung below international cricket¹³. A team full of replacement players will have no risk and hence no upside. The baseball statisticians have set the scale factor for replacement players to be 20% worse than the international players. Thus for batsman

$$c_{\rm batsman} = 0.8 \times 235 = 188$$
 (16)

and for a bowler it is

$$c_{\text{bowler}} = 1.2 \times 235 = 282$$
 (17)

¹¹ The statistics for current players are up to date as of December 31, 2010.

 $^{^{12}}$ The pertinent question is No.13 in the hyperlinked D/L FAQ.

¹³ In India, the replacement players play in Ranji Trophy.

Thus a team of replacement batsman will end up scoring 188 runs while a team of replacement bowlers will concede 282 runs. We end this paper by listing Bernoulli runs, standard deviation and reward to risk ratio for some of the Indian ODI cricketers of 2010.

Name	avg	sr	mean	sd	RRR
Virender Sehwag	34.64	103.27	275.96	42.99	2.05
Sachin Tendulkar	45.12	86.26	251.43	13.01	4.88
Gautam Gambhir	40.43	86.52	249.52	17.75	3.47
Yuvraj Singh	37.06	87.94	249.84	23.29	2.66
Mahendra Singh Dhoni	50.28	88.34	258.87	10.42	6.80
Suresh Raina	36.11	90.15	253.62	26.79	2.45
Yusuf Pathan	29.33	110.00	261.15	59.59	1.23

TABLE 1. Bernoulli Runs for batsmen

TABLE 2. Bernoulli Runs for bowlers

Name	avg	econ	mean	sd	RRR
Zaheer Khan	29.85	4.91	224.89	29.44	1.94
Praveen Kumar	33.57	5.07	237.30	25.56	1.75
Ashish Nehra	31.03	5.15	235.25	31.40	1.49
Harbhajan Singh	32.84	4.30	206.19	15.46	4.90
Yusuf Pathan	34.06	5.66	258.45	34.59	0.68
Yuvraj Singh	39.76	5.04	242.61	16.66	2.36

It is clear from Table 2 it is quite unfair to compare Zaheer Khan with Harbhajan Singh. Zaheer operates usually in the manic periods of power plays and slog overs while Harbhajan bowls mainly in the middle overs. But until we get detailed statistics the adjustments that go with it have to wait.

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APPENDIX A. COMBINATORIAL FORMULA

```
#-----
# Generate Bernoulli runs using Combinatorial formula
# (*) Example - Batsman - Sir Viv Richards
# > bernoulli(avg=47, sr=90.2);
# (*) Example - Bowler - Curtly Ambrose
# > bernoulli(avg=24.12, sr=3.48*100/6);
bernoulli <- function(avg, sr, wickets = 10, balls = 300) {</pre>
# probability of scoring `r' runs in a given ball
 r <- sr/100;
# probability of dismissal
  q <- r/avg; p <- 1-q;
# runs scored while losing all the wickets
# you can lose 10 wickets in 10 balls or .... or in 300 balls
# all these events are independent hence you can add them
 b <- wickets:balls;</pre>
 k <- 1; Eallout <- moments.allout(p, r, b, k, wickets);</pre>
 k <- 2; Eallout2 <- moments.allout(p, r, b, k, wickets);</pre>
# calculate the runs scored if less than 10 wickets fall in
# the alloted number of balls
 w <- 0:wickets-1;
 k <- 1; Enot.allout <- moments.not.allout(p, r, w, k, balls);</pre>
 k <- 2; Enot.allout2 <- moments.not.allout(p, r, w, k, balls);</pre>
# mean (bernoulli runs)
  ebr <- Eallout + Enot.allout;</pre>
# standard deviation
  ebr2 <- Eallout2 + Enot.allout2; sdbr <- sqrt(ebr2 - (ebr)^2);</pre>
 result <- list(mean=ebr, sd=sdbr);</pre>
  return(result);
}
moments.allout <- function(p, r, b, k, w = 10) {</pre>
 y <- ((b-w)^k)*choose(b-1,w-1)*p^(b-w)*(1-p)^w;</pre>
 eyk <- (r^k)*(sum(y));</pre>
 return(eyk);
}
moments.not.allout <- function(p, r, w, k, n = 300) {</pre>
  y <- ((n-w)^k)*choose(n,w)*p^(n-w)*(1-p)^w;</pre>
  eyk <- (r^k)*(sum(y));</pre>
 return(eyk);
}
```

APPENDIX B. MONTE CARLO SIMULATION

```
#-----
# Bernoulli runs using Monte-Carlo simulation
#-----
bernoulli.monte.carlo <- function(avg, sr, simulations = 1000) {</pre>
# probability of scoring a run `r' in a given ball
 r <- sr/100;
# probability of dismissal
 q <- r/avg; p <- 1-q;
# runs scored = (avg runs per ball)*(number of scoring shots)
 runs <- r*sapply(1:simulations, function(x) simulate.inning(p));</pre>
 result <- list(mean=mean(runs), sd=sd(runs));</pre>
 return(result);
}
# Simulate an inning as if the same batsman plays
# every delivery till he faces max deliveries (300 in ODI)
# or till he gets out 10 times whichever is earlier.
simulate.inning <- function(p, balls = 300, wickets = 10) {</pre>
# toss the coin `n' times
# tail - out; head - scoring shot
 result <- rbinom(balls, 1, p);</pre>
# find the deliveries in which a wicket fell
 fall.of.wicket <- which(!result);</pre>
# find the number of heads (scoring shots)
# till the fall of the last wicket
 nheads <-0;
 if (length(fall.of.wicket) < wickets) {</pre>
# team has not been bowled out
   nheads <- sum(result);</pre>
 } else {
# team has been bowled out
   last.wicket.index = fall.of.wicket[wickets];
   nheads <- sum(result[1:last.wicket.index]);</pre>
 }
 return(nheads);
}
#-
          _____
```

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