

# Bernoulli Runs Using ‘Book Cricket’ to Evaluate Cricketers

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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?

## 1. Introduction

In the late 1980s and early 1990s to beat afternoon drowsiness in school we resorted to playing ‘book cricket’. The book cricket rules were 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 one sees a page ending with 0 – then one has lost a wicket. If one sees 8, one would score it as 1 run. The other digits 2, 4, 6 would be scored as the same; that is, if one sees a page ending with 4 then one would have scored 4 runs. My friends and I would play two national teams without any limit on the number of overs since it was too much of a hassle to count the number of deliveries<sup>1</sup>.

A book cricketer would construct his own team and match it up against his friend’s. One of the teams would be the Indian team and the other team would be the team that the Indians were playing against at that time. The book cricketer would play till he lost 10 wickets<sup>2</sup>. 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:

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



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<sup>1</sup> The number of deliveries equals the number of times we opened the book.

<sup>2</sup> Remember that losing a wicket is when on opening the book, one sees a page number that ends with a 0. Thus the inning ends when he sees ten page numbers that end with a 0.

### Keywords

Probability, combinatorics, coin toss, Bernoulli runs, book cricket, Monte Carlo simulation.



With this simple model, we used to get weird results like a well-known batting bunny such as Narendra Hirwani scoring the most number of runs.

<sup>3</sup>The reason for the lack of popularity was that it involved more book keeping.

Instead of assigning uniform probabilities to all the five outcomes, a realistic model will take probabilities from the career record.

With this simple model, we used to get weird results like a well-known batting bunny such as 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 too a dismissal. Thus the probability of Hirwani being dismissed went up from  $\frac{1}{5}$  to  $\frac{2}{5}$  thus reducing the chances of Hirwani getting the highest score. However, this did not please many students in the class<sup>3</sup>.

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 (1) is the fact that 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, V V S 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 may 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:

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

### 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.

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

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.

$$r = \frac{\text{sr}}{100} = \frac{\text{number of runs scored}}{\text{number of balls faced}} . \quad (4)$$

**Definition 2.3.** The economy rate (econ) for a bowler is defined as the runs conceded per 6 balls<sup>4</sup>.

Thus the average runs ( $r$ ) conceded per ball is:

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

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To further refine the book cricket model, we may 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.

<sup>4</sup> In the case of bowlers, strike rate (**sr**) means number of deliveries required on an 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 every delivery in cricket as a simple coin-tossing experiment.

<sup>5</sup> The probability of getting a tail.

<sup>6</sup> The formula (7) also applies to a bowler with the  $r$  being calculated using equation (5).

<sup>7</sup> Arguably, the Bernoulli's were the greatest mathematical family that ever lived [3,4].

above statistics: average, strike rate and economy rate. This simplification leads to modeling of every delivery in cricket as a 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 dismissed<sup>5</sup>. From the definitions of strike rate and average, one can calculate the average number of deliveries a batsman faces before he is dismissed (bpw).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{bpw} &= \frac{\text{number of balls faced}}{\text{number of dismissals}} \\ &= \frac{\text{number of runs scored}}{\text{number of dismissals}} \times \frac{\text{number of balls faced}}{\text{number of runs scored}} \\ &= \text{avg} \times \frac{1}{\frac{\text{sr}}{100}} \\ &= 100 \times \left( \frac{\text{avg}}{\text{sr}} \right). \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

Assuming that the batsman can be dismissed during any delivery, the probability of being dismissed ( $1 - p$ ) is given by<sup>6</sup>:

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

In probability parlance, coin tossing is called a Bernoulli trial [1]. 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 [2], Bernoulli<sup>7</sup>



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 score<sup>8</sup>. For example, to evaluate Sachin Tendulkar we want to find out how many runs will be scored by a team consisting of eleven Tendulkars.

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 do not lose a wicket, where  $r$  is defined in (4). They score  $299r$  runs if they lose only one wicket. On the other end of the scale, this imaginary team might be dismissed without scoring a run if it so happens that all the first 10 tosses turn out to be tails<sup>9</sup>. Thus this imaginary team can score total runs anywhere between  $[0, 300r]$  and each total is associated with a probability.

But it is difficult to interpret a 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’ just like Markov runs in baseball [2].

#### ***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 a One Day International (ODI) match<sup>10</sup>.

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:

<sup>8</sup> It is straightforward to apply this method to evaluate a bowler too.

<sup>9</sup> The probability of being all out without a run being scored will be astronomically low for an imaginary team of eleven Tendulkars!

<sup>10</sup> The ODI has a maximum of 300 deliveries per team. The formulas can be derived for Twenty20 and Test matches with appropriate deliveries limit.



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:

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

In the first case of the team losing all the wickets, we can once again partition on the delivery when the tenth wicket was lost. Let  $b$  be this delivery. The tenth wicket can fall on any delivery between  $[10, 300]$ . The first nine wickets would have fallen in any 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:

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

The second case can be partitioned on the 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:

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

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

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



One can generalize (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

$$\sigma_Y = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}(Y^2) - (\mathbb{E}(Y))^2}. \quad (13)$$

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

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

Substituting the values of  $1-p$  and  $r$  in (11) and (12) we get  $\text{mean} = 262.84$  and  $\text{sd} = 13.75$ . 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. Assuming the code listed in Appendix A is stored at 'R/analytical.R', it 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 has an  $\text{avg} = 24.12$  and  $\text{econ} = 3.48$  in ODI matches. From (5), we

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.



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.

get  $r = \frac{\text{econ}}{6} = 0.58$  and from (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 (11) and (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
```

**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 be used to model the rare events (dismissal) counting with parameter  $\lambda = nq$  [1].  $\lambda$  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.

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**Monte Carlo Simulation:** Another aside. The Monte Carlo simulation code for the probability model proposed in this article is listed in Appendix B in R. Monte Carlo simulation can be used to verify the formula for Bernoulli runs that we have derived. In other words, it provides another way to 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 (2). Thus any model can be simulated using Monte Carlo.

#### 4. Reward to Risk Ratio

Virender Sehwag has an  $\text{avg} = 34.64$  and  $\text{sr} = 103.27$  in ODI matches<sup>11</sup>; 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:

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

and for a *bowler* it is defined as:

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

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

#### Constants

The Duckworth–Lewis (D/L) method predicts an average score<sup>12</sup> 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 scale it before using it. The reason for scaling is due to a concept named Value Over Replacement Player (VORP) which comes from baseball [5]. A replacement player is a player who plays at the next rung below international cricket<sup>13</sup>. A team full of replacement players will have no risk and hence no upside. The baseball statisticians

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

Thus on an average, Sehwag scores more runs than Richards but he is also risky compared to Richards.

<sup>12</sup> The pertinent question is No.13 in the hyperlinked D/L FAQ.

<sup>13</sup> In India, the replacement players play in Ranji Trophy.



have set the scale factor for replacement players to be 20% worse than the international players. Thus for a batsman

$$c_{\text{batsman}} = 0.8 \times 235 = 188, \quad (16)$$

and for a bowler it is

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

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 article by listing Bernoulli runs, standard deviation and reward to risk ratio for some of the Indian ODI cricketers of 2010. See *Tables 1 and 2*.

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.

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

**Table 2.** Bernoulli runs for bowlers.



It is clear from *Table 2* that 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.

### Acknowledgments

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### Suggested Reading

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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) {
# 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;
  k <- 1; Eallout <- moments.allout(p, r, b, k, wickets);
  k <- 2; Eallout2 <- moments.allout(p, r, b, k, wickets);

# calculate the runs scored if less than 10 wickets fall in
# the allotted number of balls
  w <- 0:wickets-1;
  k <- 1; Enot.allout <- moments.not.allout(p, r, w, k, balls);
  k <- 2; Enot.allout2 <- moments.not.allout(p, r, w, k, balls);

# mean (bernoulli runs)
  ebr <- Eallout + Enot.allout;
# standard deviation
  ebr2 <- Eallout2 + Enot.allout2; sdbr <- sqrt(ebr2 - (ebr)^2);

  result <- list(mean=ebr, sd=sdbr);
  return(result);
}

moments.allout <- function(p, r, b, k, w = 10) {
  y <- ((b-w)^k)*choose(b-1,w-1)*p^(b-w)*(1-p)^w;
  eyk <- (r^k)*(sum(y));
  return(eyk);
}

moments.not.allout <- function(p, r, w, k, n = 300) {
  y <- ((n-w)^k)*choose(n,w)*p^(n-w)*(1-p)^w;
  eyk <- (r^k)*(sum(y));
  return(eyk);
}
#-----

```



## APPENDIX B. Monte Carlo Simulation

```

#-----
# Bernoulli runs using Monte-Carlo simulation
#-----
bernoulli.monte.carlo <- function(avg, sr, simulations = 1000) {
# 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));

  result <- list(mean=mean(runs), sd=sd(runs));
  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) {
# toss the coin 'n' times
# tail - out; head - scoring shot
  result <- rbinom(balls, 1, p);

# find the deliveries in which a wicket fell
  fall.of.wicket <- which(!result);

# find the number of heads (scoring shots)
# till the fall of the last wicket
  nheads <- 0;
  if (length(fall.of.wicket) < wickets) {
# team has not been bowled out
    nheads <- sum(result);
  } else {
# team has been bowled out
    last.wicket.index = fall.of.wicket[wickets];
    nheads <- sum(result[1:last.wicket.index]);
  }

  return(nheads);
}
#-----

```

