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Competitive intensity, fans' expectations and match day tickets sold in the Italian football Serie A, 2012-2015

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4 **Competitive intensity, fans' expectations and match day tickets sold in the Italian**
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6 **football Serie A, 2012-2015**
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10 **Abstract**
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14 *Italian soccer in three Serie A seasons (2012-13 to 2014-15). The central element of novelty*
15 *concerning the existing literature is that fans expectations are also included among the*
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Competitive intensity, fans' expectations and match day tickets sold in the Italian football Serie A, 2012-2015

Introduction

Since Rottenberg's (1956) conceptualisation of the uncertainty-of-outcome (UoO) hypothesis driving demand for sporting events, competitive balance (CB) and the UoO hypothesis are the most widely debated topics within the economics of sport (Schreyer & Torgler, 2018; Fort, 2018). However, this interest has led to inconsistencies – such as the interchangeable use of playing talent, playing quality and financial capabilities – when defining CB, which Kringstad's (2008) thesis explored at length. Accordingly, we define competitive balance as the equilibrium of playing talent quality and financial strength between teams in any given league (Owen 2012; Ramchandani & Wilson, 2014). This equilibrium in the quality of playing talent and financial resource leads to increased UoO, where perfect uncertainty occurs when each team has an equal chance of winning, that is, a 50% chance of winning (Sloane 2006).

Therefore, the general school of thought within the sport economic literature suggests that competitive balance drives the UoO for the sporting event, increasing demand, thus revenue (Fort & Quirk, 1992; Vrooman, 2000; Depken, 2002; Bourgeois & Downward, 2003; Borooh & Mangan, 2012; Pawlowski & Budzinski, 2013; Nalbantis, Pawlowski & Coates, 2017; Lenten, 2015; Kringstad, 2018). However, conceptually, UoO becomes more complex as the UoO hypothesis is a multifaceted concept (Kringstad & Gerrard, 2007). Generally, these facets can be deducted to match, seasonal and long-run uncertainty, representing micro, meso and macro levels of uncertainty. While all important, our focus is the seasonal-uncertainty level, which, according to Cairns (1987, p.260);

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3 “refers to the outcome of the championship. It is suggested that demand will be higher
4 the closer is the contest: the more teams that might win, and the longer such close
5 competition lasts”.

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11 However, Cairns only accounts for the championship (title) race, omitting the relegation
12 battle posed as another dimension by Szymanski and Kuypers (1999). Even then, Kringstad
13 and Gerrard (2004, 2005, 2007) point to a more comprehensive notion of seasonal uncertainty,
14 accounting for both title race and relegation battle, as well as, the supranational competition
15 prevalent within European leagues, through their notion of competitive intensity (CI).
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23 The impact of CI on fan demand lacked empirical evidence until Scelles, Durand, Bonnal,
24 Goyeau and Andreff (2013a, 2013b) analysed the impact of competitive balance and intensity
25 on fan attendance in the French football Ligue 1. However, the current issue is that the CI
26 research does not account for the pre-season expectations of fans. For example, consider two
27 teams competing for the UEFA Europa League (the lower tier to UEFA’s Champions League)
28 entry: team A won the title in the previous season whereas team B narrowly beat relegation.
29 Even though they are competing for the same prize, demand for team A would logically fall
30 and demand for team B would increase, as the former is underachieving and the latter
31 overachieving pre-season expectations. Essentially, we conceptualise this in terms of Coates et
32 al. (2014) reference-dependent preferences, referring to a demand increase as a consequence
33 of a team’s overachievement. Research on the reference-dependent preferences has gone
34 relatively unexplored (Humphreys & Zhou, 2015; Gasparetto & Barajas, 2018; Pawlowski et
35 al., 2018), therefore we aim to fill this gap inspired by Scelles, Durand, Bonnal, Goyeau and
36 Andreff (2016).
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56 Consequently, we follow Scelles et al. (2013a, 2013b, 2016) work by analysing CI within
57 the Italian Serie A, but also adapting the regression model to account for the difference between
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3 the expected and actual seasonal performance of a team – accounting for the **reference-**
4 **dependent preferences**, for the first time. Furthermore, following Sloane's advice (2006) we
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6 only use ticket sales for individual fixtures, rather than an aggregate attendance variable
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8 including season-ticket holders, principally because CI relates to seasonal uncertainty and its
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10 evolution over the season is something that, theoretically, would not influence season-ticket
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12 holders.
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18 **This** paper firstly reviews the relevant literature on demand for sport, specifically
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20 competitive balance, league standing effect, competitive intensity and **reference-dependent**
21 **preferences**. The structure and main issues of Serie A football are then discussed, followed by
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23 the data description and model specification. The empirical results are finally presented and
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25 discussed in relation to previous research, demonstrating where this research fits in the broader
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27 context, followed by our conclusions.
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32 **Literature Review**

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36 Ever since seminal work by Rottenberg (1956) and Neale (1964) as well as subsequent
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38 work by El Hodiri and Quirk (1971), and Scully (1974), analysing the demand for professional
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40 team sports has boomed dominating the sport economic literature for over half a century
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42 (Santos & Garcia, 2011). Szymanski (2009) points to a vast array of research topics just within
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44 professional team sports, yet most of the research tends to focus on factors influencing or
45
46 affecting demand, often termed determinants-of-demand (Borland & McDonald, 2003; Lera-
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48 López, Ollo-López & Rapún-Gárate, 2012). Generally, this body of work focuses on
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50 neoclassical conceptualisations following a utility-opportunity cost trade-off (Downward,
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52 2007; Downward, Dawson & Dejonghe, 2009; Scheerder, Vos & Taks, 2011; Thibaut Vos &
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54 Schreeder, 2013) – meaning influences on demand can be vast. These influences have been
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56 categorised – to different degrees – by multiple researchers (Thomas & Jolsen, 1979;
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3 Greenstein & Marcum, 1981; Baimbridge, Cameron, & Dawson, 1996; Garcia & Rodriguez,
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5 2002; Leeds & Sakata, 2011), but the most comprehensive overview and categorisation of
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7 determinants-of-demand have been provided by Borland and McDonald (2003).
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11 Caruso, Addesa and Di Domizio (2017) summarise Borland and McDonald's (2003)
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13 review, **stressing five key elements**; *i*) competitive balance: increasing match, seasonal and
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15 long-run uncertainty increases demand; *ii*) contest quality: the higher the quality **level** of the
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17 fixture, the higher the attendance; *iii*) viewing quality: new stadia and facilities draw higher
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19 demand, and demand is sensitive to weather conditions and match timing; *iv*) price: the level
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21 of demand sensitivity to price is variable among teams, and *v*) TV: individual fixture demand
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23 can be negatively affected by broadcasting. One common aspect of all demand-based research
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25 is the appreciation of the importance of competitive balance within professional team sports.
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27 Within the sport economic literature, competitive balance is considered the essence of
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29 professional team sports (Garcia & Rodriguez 2002; Humphreys 2002; Forrest & Simmons,
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31 2002, 2006; Forrest, Simmons & Buraimo, 2005; O'Reilly Nadeau, Kaplan & Rahinel, 2008;
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33 Corral, 2009; Iho & Heikkila, 2009; Curran, Jennings & Sedgwick, 2009)
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40 Rottenberg (1956, p. 246) identified the idea of competitive balance in his seminal
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42 article, suggesting "the tighter the competition, the larger the attendance", so the more equal
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44 **distribution** of win percentages, the higher demand will be. However, Rottenberg also
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46 postulated that *ceteris paribus*, higher revenue teams attract better quality playing talent than
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48 lower revenue generating teams, meaning fixtures become "certain, and attendance will
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50 decline" (Rottenberg, 1956, p. 247). Similarly, Neale (1964, p. 1) termed the *Louis-Schmeling*
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52 *paradox*, using the heavyweight title fight between Joe Louis and Max Schmeling to identify
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54 "doubt about the competition is what arouses interest", referring to the lack of monopoly
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56 between the two fighters. Neale (1964) also identified that *ceteris paribus*, as teams in a league
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3 nearer to a resource (financial and playing talent) equilibrium, competition becomes balanced,
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5 increasing the unpredictability of outcomes, which in turn increases fan interest. This concept
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7 would become the centre of the economic analysis of professional team sports for decades. The
8
9 extent of literature on competitive balance led Fort and Maxcy (2003) to dichotomise bodies
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11 of work: analysis of competitive balance (ACB) and the UoO hypothesis. ACB focusses on
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13 trends over time often concerning structural or regulatory changes, and the UoO hypothesis
14
15 focusses on seasonal competitive balance, and demand – the latter is of interest here.
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21 The body of literature analysing the UoO hypothesis provides inconsistent empirical
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23 results, and whilst some research supports the hypothesis (Peel & Thomas, 1997; Carmichael,
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25 Millington & Simmons, 1999; Wekli & Zlatoper, 1999; Falter & Perignon, 2000; Levin &
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27 McDonald, 2009; Schreyer & Torgler, 2018), the vast majority rejects it (Whitney, 1988;
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29 Knowles, Sherony & Hauptert, 1992; Rascher, 1999; McDonald & Rascher, 2000; King, Owen
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31 & Audas, 2012; Coates & Humphreys, 2012; Coates, Humphreys & Zhou, 2014; Pérez, Puente
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33 & Rodríguez, 2017; Artero & Bandrés, 2018). Indeed, while these articles focus on a range of
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35 sports and therefore may yield differing outcomes, hitherto also within European association
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37 football the evidence is not conclusive (Peel & Thomas, 1992, 1996; Forrest & Simmons, 2002;
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39 Goossens, 2006; Buraimo & Simmons, 2008, 2009; de Groot, 2008; Michie & Oughton, 2004;
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41 Szymanski, 2001; Pawlowski & Anders, 2012; Scelles et al., 2013a, 2013b; Montes, Sala-
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43 Garrido & Usai, 2014; Andreff & Scelles 2015; Caruso et al., 2017). Pawlowski (2013)
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45 suggests that empirical proof of the UoO hypothesis is absent because the proxies used to
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47 measure it are inadequate. The problem of effectively measuring competitive balance has been
48
49 the focus of sport economic literature (Dobson & Goddard, 2011), meaning there is a multitude
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51 of available measures, which have been thoroughly reviewed by Goossens (2006), Owen
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53 (2012) and Evans (2014). Generally, apart from recent behavioural economic work by
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55 Budzinski and Pawlowski (2017), Nalbantis et al. (2017) and Pawlowski, Nalbantis & Coates
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3 (2018), measures of seasonal uncertainty utilise *ex-post* analysis or “the...distribution of actual
4 sporting outcomes” (Kringstad & Gerrard, 2007, p. 152), which is often captured through
5 standard-deviation measures, such as the universally applied yet **misleading** Noll-Scully
6 **measure** (Noll, 1988; Scully, 1989; see Owen, 2012 for a full review; and Lee, Kim & Kim,
7 2018, for recent developments).

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16 The number of measures, especially for seasonal uncertainty, is a testament to the
17 multifaceted nature of the **UoO** hypothesis. Yet, as Coates et al. (2014) point out, Neale’s
18 (1964) natural extension to the **UoO** hypothesis, the league standing effect, has been relatively
19 neglected for years. **Neale (1964) notes that gate receipts will be larger the closer the league**
20 **standings, and the frequency in which they change**, implying that with increased league-wide
21 competitive balance more teams will beat one another, **thus** continuously changing the league
22 standings. However, this conceptualisation lacked empirical support until Coates et al. (2014)
23 developed a reference-dependence model, which Humphreys and Zhou (2015, p. 16) applied
24 to the league standing effect, concluding that “*There is no evidence that greater turnover in*
25 *league standings, measured at the daily or cumulated levels, is associated with increases in*
26 *attendance at MLB games*”.

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42 While there has been somewhat limited interest in the league standing effect, this
43 concept forms the basis of what Kringstad and Gerrard (2004, 2005, 2007) term competitive
44 intensity (CI). This notion implies that the demand for professional team sport is more
45 contingent on intra-competitions or multi-prizes within the season. For example, within a
46 European context association football (soccer) has not only the title race and
47 relegation/promotion battle prizes identified by Cairns (1987) but also the qualification into
48 inter-European competitions, i.e. UEFA’s Champions League and Europa League
49 competitions. The idea is that the more teams in contention for these multi-prizes, the higher
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3 the demand will be. Thus, much like Neale's (1964) league standing effect, demand (and
4 excitement) is derived from the changes or possibilities of changes within league standings for
5 prizes. The competitive intensity notion lacked any empirical attention until Scelles et al.
6 (2013a, 2013b) and Andreff and Scelles (2015) investigated the notion within French football
7 Ligue 1, with Scelles et al. (2016) explicitly highlighting the importance to distinguish between
8 different sporting prizes when creating the variables aimed to capture competitive intensity.
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18 However, while we account for the different prize structure of the league, we must also
19 account for the pre-season expectations to determine the actual impact of CI, which is
20 something the current literature has neglected. For example – as previously mentioned – within
21 European football, the multi-prizes (not including domestic cup competitions) available to
22 teams are the title, UEFA's Champions League qualification, UEFA's Europa League
23 qualification, and the relegation battle. However, the influence of being in contention for these
24 prizes also depends on the pre-season expectations, or what Coates et al. (2014) termed
25 reference-dependent preferences. This theory suggests a consumer receives not only a
26 "consumption" utility - corresponding to the utility from standard consumer theory - from
27 attending a sporting event, but also a "gain-loss" utility, depending on differences between
28 expected and actual game outcome.
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44 Although Humphreys and Zhou (2015) also considered utility from league standing
45 changes and utility from the quality of the game, very little research has focused on reference-
46 dependent preferences and demand for professional team sports (Humphreys & Zhou, 2015;
47 Gasparetto & Barajas, 2018; Pawlowski et al., 2018). As shown by Budzinski and Pawlowski
48 (2017), several studies have tried to find an explanation for the inconsistent empirical results
49 regarding the UoO hypothesis by focusing on the motivations of the behavioural anomalies
50 leading to the divergence between the UoO hypothesis and consumer choices. However, no
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3 study has taken into account the gained (or lost) utility deriving from a better (or worse) team's
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5 seasonal performance compared to the fans' pre-season expectations.
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9 Consequently, we conceptualise Coates et al. (2014) **reference-dependent preferences**
10 as a situation where demand increases with a team's over-performance and decreases with
11 under-performance based on pre-season expectations. To provide further clarity, consider, for
12
13 example, four teams: A, B, C and D. Team A was expected to compete for the title, but
14 competes for the UEFA Champions League entry. Team B was expected to compete for UEFA
15 Europa League entry but competes for the title. Team C was expected to compete in the
16 relegation battle but competes for a UEFA Europa League qualification position. Team D was
17 expected to finish mid-table but competes in the relegation battle. Team B and Team C would
18 see an increase in demand due to the over-performance based on pre-season expectations,
19 whereas Team A and Team D would see a decrease due to the under-performance based on
20 pre-season expectations.
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35 Accordingly, this paper extends the body of CI research by integrating the pre-season
36 expectations within our stadium demand model, allowing us to explore the existence of
37 **reference-dependent preferences** in the Italian Serie A. **Furthering the novelty, we address**
38 **recent calls for sport demand researchers to use gate receipts and not aggregate attendances**
39 **(Sloane, 2006). Using gate receipts is important because fans who purchase season-tickets do**
40 **so before the start of the season regardless of their club's performance or a league's**
41 **competitiveness, and are generally the most committed consumers, thus not particularly**
42 **affected by match-day related determinants (Caruso et al., 2017). Therefore, doing so allows a**
43 **real test of whether the UoO hypothesis, CI or the reference-dependence theories hold for**
44 **match-day determinants (Coates & Humphreys, 2010, 2012; Fort & Quirk, 2010, 2011; Mills**
45 **& Fort, 2014; Pawlowski & Nalbantis, 2015).**
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Structure and issues of the Italian football Serie A

The Italian Serie A, organised by the Italian professional football league (Lega Nazionale Professionisti Serie A, also known as Lega Serie A), was considered the most important professional football league up to the first half of the 2000s (Boeri & Severgnini, 2014). Even though historically dominated by three clubs (Juventus, AC Milan and Inter Milan), the league experienced almost three decades of high competitive balance. Teams such as Hellas Verona, Napoli, Sampdoria, Roma and Lazio all won the Scudetto, and teams such as Parma and Fiorentina consistently fought for the title and actively contributed to the remarkable performance of the Italian clubs in the UEFA competitions (26 titles between 1979-80 and 2005-06).

However, the image of the league was tarnished in 2006 by the “Calciopoli” scandal that revealed a consolidated network of suspicious relationships between the referee organisations and the management of the league champion, Juventus; and other Serie A teams, such as; AC Milan, Fiorentina, Lazio and Reggina. Serie A’s reputation was further harmed in 2007 by the murder of a Police Officer before the match between Catania and Palermo, which represented a rise of violence and hooliganism leading to the introduction of the so-called “Supporter’s ID Card”. This identity card identifies fans of specific teams and is compulsory to buy season tickets and away game tickets; moreover, the possession of the Supporter’s ID Card is necessary to attend matches that are considered potentially dangerous because of the rivalry between the two teams’ supporters (Boeri & Severgnini, 2014).

The decline of Italian football has been exacerbated by short-sighted and ineffective managerial policies. Amid an increase in cash flow from the sale of the broadcasting rights, all Italian football clubs have substantial liabilities due to spending the entire increased cash flow

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3 on transfer fees and player wages rather than in profitable investments such as the renovation
4 of the obsolete stadiums or the building of new ones. This led to the bankruptcy of historic
5 clubs such as Napoli, Fiorentina and Parma and the massive increase in the liabilities of almost
6 all the Italian clubs (Boeri & Severgnini, 2014).
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13 Moreover, since 2001, only three clubs (Juventus, AC Milan and Inter Milan) have
14 managed to win the title, and all the three seasons under investigation in this study have been
15 dominated by one team – Juventus – who has won the title in 2011-12 and continuously from
16 2015-16 to 2018-19. Over the 2001-02 to 2014-15 seasons, the Serie A is the second least
17 competitive among the top 5 European leagues, based on the Herfindahl-Hirschman Index
18 (HHI), with figures of; 5.46 (German Bundesliga), 5.31 (Italian Serie A), 5.15 (Spanish Liga),
19 4.38 (English Premier League), and 3.77 (French Ligue 1). This measure is generally used to
20 measure long-run competitive balance, where the higher the value of the HHI, the lower the
21 level of long-run competitive balance in a league (Eckard, 1998; Leeds & von Allmen, 2016).
22 Also, considering that all the Serie A matches are broadcast on TV (or other digital platforms)
23 and the league has not adopted any blackout policy, it is not surprising the average stadium
24 capacity utilisation after the Calciopoli scandal has remained low at 61%
25 (stadiapostcards.com). Considerably less than other leagues such as the English Premier
26 League and the German Bundesliga are consistently over 90% (UEFA 2018).
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47 The competition involves 20 teams playing each other in 38 game weeks. At the end of
48 the season, the first team in the standings wins the so-called “Scudetto”, whereas the three last
49 teams are relegated to Serie B. The qualification of a team into UEFA competitions
50 (Champions League and Europa League) depends on its final position in the standings and, in
51 the three seasons considered, is was determined as follows:
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- the first two qualify directly for the next Champions League

- the third qualifies for the Champions League play-off
- the fourth qualifies for the Europa League
- the fifth and sixth can also qualify for the Europa League play-offs dependent on the results of the “Coppa Italia”, a knock-out competition involving both professional and amateur clubs. The “Coppa Italia” winner qualifies for the Europa League if not already qualified for UEFA competitions as a consequence of its final position in the league: in this case, the fifth in the standings qualify for the Europa League play-offs. However, if the winner had already qualified for UEFA competitions as a consequence of its position in the standings, the fifth qualifies for the Europa League and the sixth qualifies for the Europa League play-offs.

The empirical specification

The empirical investigation covers three seasons of the Italian Serie A, from 2012-13 to 2014-15. Taking inspiration from Scelles et al. (2016), we have estimated different specifications of the following demand model:

$$\ln(\text{gameday_tickets}_{ijt}) = \alpha X_{ijt} + \beta D + \gamma S + e_{ijt} \quad (1)$$

where the dependent variable is represented by the number of match-day tickets sold excluding the season tickets, X_{ijt} is a vector of independent variables, D is a vector of dummy variables, S is a vector of season fixed effects, α , β , and γ are the associated coefficients, and e_{ijt} is the disturbance term. As previously mentioned, season-ticket holders were excluded from analysis because they generally represent committed fans, whose attendance is part of their identity and self-image (Szymanski, 2001; Robinson & Trail, 2005). Additionally, the number of season ticket-holders will remain constant regardless of the peculiarities of the individual game, which would be detrimental to a match-level analysis. Match-day tickets data have been obtained

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3 from www.stadiapostcards.com and are not available for Chievo Verona (for all the three
4 seasons considered), Cagliari (for the first two seasons), **eight Udinese's home games in 2012-**
5 **13, Parma-Palermo (2012-13) and Napoli-Verona (2013-14): consequently, these** games have
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10 been excluded from the dataset. Moreover, to obtain higher reliability of the analysis, we have
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12 taken into account games from the third fixture, as, also considering how the variables
13 capturing CI have been created, it is incredibly complicated to differentiate among the different
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15 sporting prizes after only one or two fixtures.
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21 Among the explanatory variables, we have included the annual unemployment rate of the
22 city where the game is played (*unemployment*) as a macroeconomic factor potentially
23 impacting on attendance (Borland & MacDonald, 2003); *home_fans* and *away_fans*, are simply
24 the total number of supporters of the two teams across the whole Italian territory; and, a set of
25 proxies for the expected quality of the game, with *home_rank* and *away_rank* indicating the
26 position in the standings of the two teams before the game; whereas *home_wages* and
27 *away_wages* are the teams' relative wages, where a team's relative wage is given by the team
28 payroll divided by the average seasonal payroll.
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40 Then, we have considered a set of variables capturing the incentives for attending, where
41 *home_promotion* is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the home team played in Serie B in the
42 previous season, and *away_promotion* is the equivalent for the away teams; *goal_average* is
43 the average number of goals scored by the home team before the game; *distance*, used
44 previously by Buraimo, Forrest & Simmons (2006) and, Tainsky and McEvoy (2012),
45 measures the distance, in km, between the town centres of the two cities of teams involved in
46 the game.
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56 Other explanatory variables are; *fixture*, also used by Di Domizio (2013) and Caruso et
57 al. (2017), that is the count of matches in each season also included in quadratic form to verify
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3 the existence of a non-linear relationship with the attendance as suggested in Pawlowski and
4 Anders (2012), Pawlowski and Nalbantis (2015), and Wallrafen, Pawlowski & Deutscher
5 (2018); *working_day*, a dummy variable, suggested in Buraimo and Simmons (2015) and used
6 by Caruso et al. (2017), defining the time allocation of matches and indicating whether a match
7 is scheduled on a weekday or not; a set of dummy variables indicating the kick-off time of the
8 games played in weekends: *sat_eve* relates to games played at 6 pm on Saturdays, *sat_nig* at
9 8.45 pm on Saturdays, *sun_eve* at 3 pm on Sundays, *sun_nig* at 8.45 pm on Sundays and *noon*
10 at 12.30 pm on Sundays; and a set of variables capturing weather conditions associated with a
11 game. Feddersen and Rott (2011), for example, used temperature, rainfall and wind conditions
12 as covariates in the regression analysis of the determinants of demand for televised live soccer
13 in Germany. We have used two integer variables, *temperature* and *humidity*: the first measures
14 the average daily temperature, and the second the average daily humidity during the day when
15 matches have been played. Also, four dummy variables are included: *rain*, *storm*, *fog* and *snow*.

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34 Finally, we have included *outcome_uncertainty*, that is the UoO-related variable obtained
35 from the betting market (more precisely from *BET365*, that provide the most comprehensive
36 dataset) and calculated as the differences (in absolute value) between the home and the away
37 team win probabilities (Buraimo & Simmons, 2009). Using absolute value differences rather
38 than draw probabilities are more sensitive to the actual gap between teams; a set of dummies
39 capturing league standing effect and competitive intensity, where *ncs* and *pcs* stand for any
40 negative and any positive change in standing during the home team's last two games, *scudetto*
41 indicates whether the home team is fighting for the title, *champions_league* for a direct entry
42 to the Champions League (second position), *champions_league_playoff* for an entry to the
43 Champions League qualifying round (third position), *europa* for a direct entry to the Europa
44 League (fourth and fifth position), *europa_playoff* for an entry to the Europa League qualifying
45 round (sixth position, as in the three seasons considered both the winner and the finalist of the
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3 “Coppa Italia” were in the first five positions), *top_bottom* for two different sporting prizes
4 (relegation and one of the above-mentioned) and *relegation* to avoid one of the last three
5 positions; as well as a variable measuring fans’ expectations against the home team
6 performance, aiming to fill a gap in the literature inspired from Scelles et al. (2016, p.22), as
7 “the attractiveness of sporting prizes for fans does not only depend on their absolute importance
8 but also the anticipated position of the home team”. This variable (*fan_expectations*) is
9 calculated as the difference between the home team’s predicted final position according to
10 Eurobet “ante-post” odds and the position in the standings before the game. Thus, a positive
11 value corresponds to a better seasonal performance than expected.
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25 The set of dummies capturing the competitive intensity has been created following
26 Scelles et al. (2016). They are functions of the point difference for the home team relating to
27 the league prizes. The temporal horizons chosen to calculate our dummies, determining the
28 maximum point difference/number of matches is relevant to consider competitive intensity, are
29 the next match and the next two matches, as they are considered the most appropriate temporal
30 horizons also by Scelles et al. (2013a). If the home team is in contention for more than one
31 sporting prize among the first five, only the highest prize is taken into account (1 for this prize,
32 0 for the other prizes), whereas the following rule is applied to the two-match temporal horizon
33 in order to limit the number of *top_bottom* observations: if one match is sufficient for a higher
34 prize whereas two matches are required for a lower prize, the prize is considered as the higher
35 prize (for example, if a team is 3 points behind the third place and 5 points ahead of the sixth,
36 it is considered in contention for the Champions League play-off).
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53 The data consist of 980 games and are mostly drawn from the data set AUDIBALL
54 (Caruso & Di Domizio, 2015). Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics of all the variables.
55 Some variables were not available in AUDIBALL and obtained from other sources: ISTAT
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(www.istat.it) for *unemployment*, www.tifosobilanciato.it for *home_fans* and *away_fans*, www.ilmeteo.it for variables capturing weather conditions and Lega Calcio (www.legaseriea.it) for dummies capturing league standing effect and competitive intensity.

[Table 1 about here](#)

Empirical results

Our results are shown in Table 2. All the explanatory variables (except for *fixture*, *home_rank* and *away_rank*, that are ordinal variables) are expressed in natural logs to interpret the estimated coefficients as elasticities. The coefficients of the dummy variables are then transformed into percentage points of 100 ($\exp(\beta)-1$) for interpretation (Vittinghoff, Glidden, Shiboski & McCulloch, 2012; Nalbantis et al. 2015). We have also verified the absence of strong collinearity by calculating the variance inflation factors (VIF) of our independent variables, that are all lower than 10 (Appendix A).

A Tobit model (Tobin, 1958) with individual cut-off points has been implemented in order to account for the truncation of attendance at the upper boundary. As our independent variable is represented by the number of match-day tickets sold excluding the season tickets, the individual cut-off points are not represented by the stadium capacity but by the “available” tickets, measured as the difference between the stadium capacity and the season tickets. Consequently, nine observations within the Tobit model are right censored.

The first two specifications (1 and 2) of the Tobit model, correspond to the two different temporal horizons (next match and next two matches), and are based on Andreff and Scelles (2015) and Scelles et al. (2016), among the explanatory variables are all the dummies capturing league standing effect and competitive intensity without accounting for fans’ expectations. From this, it is clear that *ncs* and *pcs* are not significant, indicating neither a negative nor a

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3 positive change in league standing during the home team's last games have an impact on the
4 attendance. If we consider the seven dummy variables measuring the competitive intensity,
5 only; *champions_league*, *champions_league_playoff* and *relegation* are significant at the 5%
6 level for both temporal horizons. Whereas, *scudetto* is significant only for the second temporal
7 horizon as well as *top_bottom* (at the 10% level). The two variables for the Europa League
8 entry are not significant.
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18 Table 2 about here
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21 These results differ from Scelles et al. (2016), where all the dummies for the Ligue 1
22 prizes were significant. This might suggest that Serie A fans do not take into account only
23 whether their team is in contention for a prize, but also the relevance and attractiveness of that
24 prize. For example, and consistent with Scelles (2017) finding within the English Premier
25 League TV audience, entry into the Europa League is not considered an attractive prize. This
26 is not surprising considering the narrative competing in the Europa League is perceived as
27 potentially detrimental to league performance by Italian clubs' managers due to the games being
28 scheduled on Thursdays - reducing the rest time for the next league game. Consequently, the
29 negative effect that the Europa League qualification has on fans expecting their team to perform
30 above this prize is not compensated by the positive effect that achieving this prize has on fans
31 expecting their team to avoid the relegation. On the other hand, the significance of the
32 *relegation* coefficients (with attendance between 31% and 41% higher) indicates that avoiding
33 the relegation is perceived as a more appealing prize. This is probably because escaping the
34 relegation is the most crucial objective of the season for the teams at the low end of the table.
35 Therefore, being in contention for this prize may represent a greater motivation for fans of the
36 small or poor-performing clubs to attend and support their own team.
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3 In the second type of specifications (3 and 4) we have added the variable used to measure
4 the home team performance against fans' expectations – home team's predicted final position
5 according to Eurobet "ante-post" odds and the position in the standings before the game. We
6 have removed the variable *home_rank* to prevent collinearity. The results concerning the league
7 standing effect and competitive intensity variables do not change, whereas *fan_expectations* is
8 significant for both temporal horizons. For the first time, this provides empirical evidence for
9 the existence of **reference-dependent preferences** in the Serie A fans' behaviour (Coates et al.,
10 **2014**). Therefore, demand is higher when teams are performing better than pre-season
11 expectations, which supports the general narrative that team performance is crucial in fan's
12 decision-making process. This also goes some way to corroborate the postulation that team
13 success impacts fan's self-esteem when following their favourite team as it is heavily linked to
14 their personal identity (Robinson & Trail, 2005)

31 32 **Conclusions**

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35 Even though league standing effect and competitive intensity are concepts already
36 contained in Neale's (1964) seminal work, there are many studies within the literature
37 aiming to verify the impact of these potential factors affecting the demand for sport. This
38 research has focused on three seasons of the Italian Serie A and investigated league standing
39 effect and competitive intensity as potential determinants of the demand for football in Italy,
40 taking inspiration from the analysis conducted by Andreff and Scelles (2015) and Scelles et al.
41 (2016) for the French Ligue 1.

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44 Our results differ from the above-mentioned works, showing that not all the sporting
45 prizes are appealing to Serie A fans. More specifically, being in contention for direct entry into
46 the Europa League or a Europa League playoff position does not have any impact on the
47 stadium attendance measured by the number of match-day tickets sold – excluding the season
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3 tickets in the Italian Serie A. This may suggest the existence of cultural differences between
4 fan's behaviours across Europe, which requires further research.
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9 Moreover, we have also investigated the impact of fans' expectations on attendance,
10 finding evidence in favour of reference-dependent preferences in the Italian fans' behaviour
11 (Coates et al., 2014). This indicates that, regardless of the policies implemented by the league
12 management, the on-field performance of a team, more specifically the capacity to over-
13 perform their expectations, remains a key factor in fans' decision-making process.
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21 These results, alongside the value of the coefficients of the different sporting prizes, show
22 that being in contention for the Champions League direct entry or for escaping the relegation
23 is more appealing than fighting for the title. This finding may depend on the fact that, as above
24 mentioned, in the three seasons considered the league has been dominated by Juventus; but
25 also, hints towards the possibility that sporting prizes have a different attractiveness according
26 to the characteristics of a club and its fans' expectations. For example, the fight for the
27 Champions League often involves not only big clubs but also clubs with lower budgets
28 (Udinese, Fiorentina, Lazio and Sampdoria in the seasons under investigation). Consequently,
29 the coefficients for the Champions League entry may benefit from this sporting prize being
30 almost as appealing as the title race to the big clubs' fans. Similarly, it is incredibly appealing
31 to the fans of smaller clubs that hardly compete for the title but may have chances to compete
32 for the qualification to the main UEFA club competitions.
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50 Alternatively, the Europa League entry may not have any impact as it is often perceived
51 as a consolation prize by big clubs' fans and, on top of that, the narrative of this competition
52 being potentially detrimental to the league performance may make it not particularly appealing
53 to the fans of smaller clubs either. Therefore, further investigation of the attractiveness of the
54 sporting prizes in relation to the fans' expectations is needed, which emphasises Scelles et al.
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(2016) suggestion. More specifically, further research would need to use a larger dataset than the current study and investigate the results by distinguishing between different groups of clubs based on their budgets.

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the main variables

	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
<i>gameday_tickets</i>	980	8939.7	9019.5	65	59669
<i>unemployment</i>	980	10.688	4.880	5	25
<i>home_fans</i>	980	1266130	1902139	20442	7086915
<i>away_fans</i>	980	1180700	1846660	20442	7086915
<i>home_rank</i>	980	9.852	5.825	1	20
<i>away_rank</i>	980	10.028	5.731	1	21
<i>home_wages</i>	980	46.42	33.24	11	120
<i>away_wages</i>	980	43.75	32.81	11	120
<i>home_promotion</i>	980	0.165	0.372	0	1
<i>away_promotion</i>	980	0.148	0.355	0	1
<i>goal_average</i>	980	1.372	0.482	0	4
<i>distance</i>	980	438.4	298.3	0	1228
<i>fixture</i>	980	20.44	10.40	3	38
<i>working_day</i>	980	0.167	0.373	0	1
<i>sat_eve</i>	980	0.099	0.299	0	1
<i>sat_nig</i>	980	0.094	0.292	0	1
<i>sun_eve</i>	980	0.395	0.489	0	1
<i>sun_nig</i>	980	0.133	0.339	0	1
<i>noon</i>	980	0.073	0.261	0	1
<i>temperature</i>	980	12.603	5.744	-2	28
<i>humidity</i>	980	75.217	13.423	20	100
<i>rain</i>	980	0.383	0.486	0	1
<i>storm</i>	980	0.085	0.279	0	1
<i>fog</i>	980	0.143	0.350	0	1
<i>snow</i>	980	0.014	0.119	0	1
<i>fan_expectations</i>	980	0.124	4.889	-13	14
<i>outcome_uncertainty</i>	980	0.295	0.198	0	1
<i>ncs</i>	980	0.335	0.472	0	1
<i>pcs</i>	980	0.285	0.451	0	1
<i>scudetto</i>	980	0.058	0.234	0	1
<i>champions_league</i>	980	0.047	0.212	0	1
<i>champions_league_playoff</i>	980	0.073	0.261	0	1
<i>europa</i>	980	0.138	0.345	0	1
<i>europa_playoff</i>	980	0.048	0.214	0	1
<i>top_bottom</i>	980	0.040	0.196	0	1
<i>relegation</i>	980	0.187	0.390	0	1
<i>scudetto1</i>	980	0.112	0.316	0	1
<i>champions1</i>	980	0.063	0.244	0	1
<i>champions_playoff1</i>	980	0.085	0.279	0	1
<i>europa1</i>	980	0.155	0.362	0	1
<i>europa_playoff1</i>	980	0.042	0.200	0	1
<i>top_bottom1</i>	980	0.061	0.240	0	1
<i>relegation1</i>	980	0.288	0.453	0	1

Table 2. Stadium attendance, competitive intensity and fans' expectations

Dependent variable	<i>Gameday_tickets</i>			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<i>unemployment</i>	0.573***	0.551***	0.552***	0.531***
	(0.069)	(0.067)	(0.069)	(0.067)
<i>home_fans</i>	0.104***	0.114***	0.126***	0.138**
	(0.031)	(0.032)	(0.031)	(0.032)
<i>away_fans</i>	0.092***	0.100***	0.092***	0.100***
	(0.031)	(0.030)	(0.030)	(0.030)
<i>home_rank</i>	-0.004	-0.005		
	(0.007)	(0.007)		
<i>away_rank</i>	-0.015***	-0.014**	-0.015***	-0.014***
	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)
<i>home_wages</i>	0.391***	0.369***	0.402***	0.386***
	(0.080)	(0.080)	(0.077)	(0.079)
<i>away_wages</i>	0.235***	0.231***	0.232***	0.228***
	(0.071)	(0.069)	(0.070)	(0.069)
<i>home_promotion</i>	0.184***	0.186***	0.125**	0.121*
	(0.061)	(0.061)	(0.063)	(0.063)
<i>away_promotion</i>	0.158**	0.163***	0.155**	0.160**
	(0.063)	(0.062)	(0.062)	(0.062)
<i>goal_average</i>	0.472***	0.453***	0.366**	0.364**
	(0.152)	(0.150)	(0.148)	(0.146)
<i>distance</i>	-0.068***	-0.067***	-0.067***	-0.067***
	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.010)
<i>fixture</i>	-0.012	-0.015	-0.009	-0.011
	(0.015)	(0.014)	(0.015)	(0.014)
<i>fixture2</i>	0.001	0.001*	0.000	0.001*

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3					
4		(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
5					
6	<i>working_day</i>	-0.247**	-0.226**	-0.259**	-0.234**
7					
8		(0.103)	(0.098)	(0.152)	(0.098)
9					
10	<i>sat_eve</i>	-0.006	0.015	-0.021	0.006
11					
12		(0.104)	(0.100)	(0.103)	(0.100)
13					
14	<i>sat_nig</i>	0.032	0.056	0.025	0.052
15					
16		(0.106)	(0.103)	(0.106)	(0.103)
17					
18	<i>sun_eve</i>	-0.124	-0.102	-0.139	-0.112
19					
20		(0.095)	(0.092)	(0.094)	(0.091)
21					
22	<i>sun_nig</i>	-0.094	-0.105	-0.103	-0.107
23					
24		(0.106)	(0.102)	(0.105)	(0.101)
25					
26	<i>noon</i>	0.019	0.046	0.001	0.030
27					
28		(0.123)	(0.119)	(0.122)	(0.118)
29					
30	<i>temperature</i>	0.137*	0.163**	0.155*	0.185**
31					
32		(0.081)	(0.080)	(0.080)	(0.080)
33					
34	<i>humidity</i>	0.231*	0.241*	0.240*	0.251**
35					
36		(0.127)	(0.154)	(0.125)	(0.122)
37					
38	<i>rain</i>	-0.159***	-0.154***	-0.160***	-0.156***
39					
40		(0.047)	(0.046)	(0.047)	(0.046)
41					
42	<i>storm</i>	-0.015	-0.015	-0.020	-0.019
43					
44		(0.085)	(0.083)	(0.085)	(0.084)
45					
46	<i>fog</i>	0.127**	0.122**	0.118**	0.111*
47					
48		(0.059)	(0.059)	(0.059)	(0.059)
49					
50	<i>snow</i>	0.100	0.078	0.112	0.092
51					
52		(0.172)	(0.159)	(0.175)	(0.161)
53					
54	<i>outcome_uncertainty</i>	0.806***	0.832***	0.808***	0.839***
55					
56		(0.157)	(0.154)	(0.156)	(0.152)
57					
58	<i>ncs</i>	0.022	0.037	0.015	0.027
59					
60					

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2					
3					
4		(0.052)	(0.052)	(0.051)	(0.051)
5					
6	<i>pcs</i>	0.059	(0.066)	0.041	0.046
7					
8		(0.051)	0.052	(0.051)	(0.052)
9					
10	<i>scudetto</i>	0.067		0.035	
11					
12		(0.112)		(0.109)	
13					
14	<i>champions_league</i>	0.391***		0.349***	
15					
16		(0.099)		(0.095)	
17					
18	<i>champions_league_playoff</i>	0.182***		0.140	
19					
20		(0.088)		(0.085)	
21					
22	<i>europa</i>	-0.051		0.021	
23					
24		(0.066)		(0.063)	
25					
26	<i>europa_playoff</i>	0.004		-0.015	
27					
28		(0.106)		(0.107)	
29					
30	<i>top_bottom</i>	0.002		-0.010	
31					
32		(0.150)		(0.145)	
33					
34	<i>relegation</i>	0.267***		0.281***	
35					
36		(0.067)		(0.066)	
37					
38	<i>scudetto1</i>		0.260***		0.199**
39					
40			(0.100)		(0.096)
41					
42	<i>champions1</i>		0.452***		0.402***
43					
44			(0.100)		(0.095)
45					
46	<i>champions_playoff1</i>		0.292***		0.242***
47					
48			(0.088)		(0.085)
49					
50	<i>europa_1</i>		0.107		0.073
51					
52			(0.074)		(0.073)
53					
54	<i>europa_playoff1</i>		0.120		0.096
55					
56			(0.099)		(0.098)
57					
58	<i>top_bottom1</i>		0.218*		0.205*
59					
60					

			(0.118)	(0.118)
	<i>relegation1</i>	0.341***		0.363***
			(0.078)	(0.075)
	<i>fan_expectations</i>		0.170***	0.190***
			(0.056)	(0.057)
	2012	-0.005	-0.002	-0.002
		(0.052)	(0.052)	(0.052)
	2013	0.008	0.008	0.009
		(0.048)	(0.048)	(0.048)
	Constant	3.515***	3.049***	2.830***
		(0.879)	(0.860)	(0.886)
	Sigma	0.368	0.366	0.365
		(0.20)	(0.020)	(0.020)
	Observations	980	980	980

Robust standard errors in parentheses obtained using the robust or sandwich estimator of variance; $p^* < 0.10$, $p^{**} < 0.05$, $p^{***} < 0.01$.

Appendix A. VIF statistics

Variable	VIF			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<i>unemployment</i>	1.60	1.59	1.60	1.60
<i>home_fans</i>	6.86	6.89	7.16	7.22
<i>away_fans</i>	4.46	4.47	4.45	4.46
<i>home_rank</i>	4.30	5.09		
<i>away_rank</i>	2.17	2.17	2.17	2.17
<i>home_wages</i>	7.62	7.64	7.27	7.41
<i>away_wages</i>	5.21	5.20	5.22	5.20
<i>home_promotion</i>	1.36	1.35	1.44	1.43
<i>away_promotion</i>	1.24	1.24	1.24	1.25
<i>goal_average</i>	2.96	2.95	2.81	2.85
<i>distance</i>	1.11	1.11	1.11	1.11
<i>fixture</i>	1.74	1.95	1.75	1.95
<i>working_day</i>	4.37	4.38	4.37	4.38
<i>sat_eve</i>	3.20	3.18	3.20	3.18
<i>sat_nig</i>	3.21	3.22	3.21	3.21
<i>sun_eve</i>	6.66	6.67	6.66	6.66
<i>sun_nig</i>	4.06	4.11	4.05	4.09
<i>noon</i>	2.61	2.60	2.61	2.60
<i>temperature</i>	1.41	1.41	1.41	1.42
<i>humidity</i>	1.53	1.53	1.53	1.53
<i>rain</i>	1.39	1.38	1.39	1.38
<i>storm</i>	1.21	1.20	1.21	1.20
<i>fog</i>	1.34	1.33	1.34	1.33
<i>snow</i>	1.14	1.13	1.14	1.13
<i>fan_expectations</i>			1.44	1.51
<i>outcome_uncertainty</i>	1.61	1.60	1.61	1.60
<i>ncs</i>	1.49	1.50	1.50	1.51
<i>pcs</i>	1.43	1.48	1.41	1.46
<i>scudetto</i>	1.78		1.70	
<i>champions_league</i>	1.32		1.24	
<i>champions_league_playoff</i>	1.42		1.30	
<i>europa</i>	1.50		1.37	
<i>europa_playoff</i>	1.15		1.12	
<i>top_bottom</i>	1.46		1.45	
<i>relegation</i>	1.85		1.72	
<i>scudetto1</i>		2.99		2.68
<i>champions1</i>		1.79		1.58
<i>champions_playoff1</i>		1.77		1.63
<i>europa1</i>		1.95		1.79
<i>europa_playoff1</i>		1.27		1.27
<i>top_bottom1</i>		1.85		1.84
<i>relegation1</i>		3.00		2.77
<i>Mean</i>	2.58	2.74	2.48	2.60

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