

# Creating a Profitable Betting Strategy for Football by Using Statistical Modelling

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## **Abstract**

Our goal was to investigate the possibility of creating a profitable betting strategy for league football. We built the Poisson model for this purpose and examined its usefulness in the betting market. We also compared the Poisson model against other most commonly used prediction methods, such as Elo ratings and multinomial ordered probit model. In the thesis, we characterized most of the betting types but were mainly focused on fixed odds betting. The efficiency of using the model in more exotic forms of betting, such as Asian handicap and spread betting, was also briefly discussed.

According to market research studies, sports betting will have an increasing entertainment value in the future with the penetration of new technology. When majority of government-licensed bookmakers are making their transition from online terminals into the Internet, the competition will increase and bring more emphasis on risk management. In this thesis, we investigated the benefits of using a statistically acceptable model as a support of one's decisions both from bookmaker's and punter's point of views and concluded that it would have potential to improve their performance.

The model proposed here was proven to be useful for football betting purposes. The validation indicated that it quite effectively captured many aspects of the game and finally enabled us to finish the season with positive return.

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# Chapter 1

## 1 Introduction

Independent forecasters predict an explosive growth in global online betting. Ernst & Young (2000) claim in their market research paper that the driving force of Internet and digital technology will open up mass-market sports betting by delivering live entertainment, news and information to Internet linked PC's, mobile phones and interactive television. More and more people have access to the Internet, which has evolved the sports betting business among other e-commerce businesses. It is inevitable that this change will bring new forms of betting into the picture. For example, so far the only live action betting has been spread betting. The spread betting firms accept the bets made "in running", which means that the bets can also be placed while the event is going on. If the player notices that one has few bets going against him/her, those bets can be sold in order to minimize the losses. The only reason why spread betting has not fully taken off is its complexity. In order to attract casual punters, the game format needs to be quite simple. Balancing between simplicity and people's interest requires a lot of creativity. Recently introduced person-to-person betting has effectively captured both these criteria. Punters can take each other on in several different topics and the gaming operator monitors and settles all the bets. Whether it is fixed odds, tote, spread or person-to-person betting, wagering will be much faster in the future and the requirements for the system operating this increase accordingly.

Security, speed and pricing are the most crucial issues that will distinguish the profitable Internet sports books from the failing ones. Technology providers are responsible for the first two, but odds compilers mostly cover the pricing issues.

Currently, the odds compilers work in teams of three or four experts, with one head odds compiler making the final decision about what prices to release to punters. The alternative is to buy the odds from a consultant. Usually, odds compilers use several ad hoc techniques and their expert opinion in compiling final prices. In order to manage risks while competing with better prices in the market, a proper statistical tool should be developed for gaming operators. The purpose of this thesis is to create a model that is capable of predicting results of football matches with reasonable accuracy and to compare it to other forecasting techniques and the odds collected from a bookmaker. We investigate whether it is possible to create a profitable betting strategy by using statistical modelling. The pricing issues are thus examined both from the punter's and the bookmaker's point of views.

In order to create a profitable betting strategy, one must be capable of estimating the probability of each outcome accurately enough. How accurately, depends on the level of the opposition. The opposition could be either a bookmaker or other punters. The goal of our study has been to establish a proper method for this estimation. The focus is in the football betting market. In this chapter, we first take a brief look at the structure of league football and the betting market.

## **1.1 Structure of League Football**

The reason for our focus on league football is because of its simplicity and data availability. Cup matches and international tournaments create problems due to the variability of participants and lack of consistent data. The most common format in the league football is a double round robin tournament, where each team plays against each other twice, once at home and once away. This way it is possible to eliminate the bias of a home advantage. Most of the major leagues in Europe are played in this format. Different variations are used in some countries, such as round robin and playoff combination or single/triple round robin, but we

restrict our attention solely to double round robin tournament because of its simplicity and popularity. A match outcome, in a round robin tournament, is converted to points that reflect the value attached to each outcome (3 points for a win, 1 for a draw and 0 for a loss). These points accumulate during a season and the team with the highest number of points wins the league.

The teams' ability changes over the course of a season due to things such as injuries, transfers, suspensions, motivation, etc. Therefore, determining the probabilities for each outcome in a particular match is not that straightforward. Lots of things need to be taken into consideration before the final conclusions can be made. Many of these things are hard to quantify and difficult to use in a numerical analysis.

## **1.2 Betting on Football**

Football is the most popular sport in the world, and also the most popular sport in betting. The most traditional bet is to place money on the outcome of a match. Whether the match will end to a home win, a draw, or an away win. Also, correct score, halftime/fulltime, handicap, total goals and future outright bets (f. ex. betting on the winner of the championship) are popular. In addition, there are nowadays numerous exotic variations of football betting, especially in spread betting where punters can bet on bookings, shirt numbers, corner kicks, etc. during a match. We take a look at the different types of betting in the following sections.

### **1.2.1 Pari-mutuel Betting**

In pari-mutuel betting the bookmakers take their money off the top, and the rest is distributed equally among the winners. A punter is competing against other punters in this type of betting. The more familiar name for this betting type is the

Tote. The odds are purely a function of betting volume's reaction, so the bookmaker is playing safe in pari-mutuel betting. This is very common in horse racing, but also football pools work in this way. Out of certain number of matches the punter is required to pick one or more choices for each match. Very often, the home win is denoted as 1, the draw as X, and the away win as 2, and hence football pool is synonymous to 1X2-betting. On the coupon of twelve matches, the punter usually needs to predict ten or more outcomes correctly in order to receive any payoff. This is probably the most traditional football betting type. For a professional punter, though, it is not as exciting as other types listed below, because of the low return percentage. Some of the correct score and future outright bets are also based on pari-mutuel structure.

### 1.2.2 Fixed Odds Betting

Fixed odds betting has increased its popularity very rapidly. There are more chances for profitable betting because the return percentage is greater than in football pools (sometimes even as high as 95 %). The bookmaker offers odds for each possible outcome in a match and the punter will determine which ones are worth betting on. For example, in a match Liverpool against Chelsea the bookmaker offers the following odds:

Home team	Away team	Odds home	Odds draw	Odds away
Liverpool	Chelsea	2.00	2.60	3.00

If the punter has chosen to back Liverpool with £10 and Liverpool wins the match, the punter will get his/her stake multiplied by the odds for Liverpool's victory. In this case the punter's gross win would be £20 and the net win £10. If on the other hand the match had ended to a draw or Chelsea's victory, the punter would have lost his/her stake.



In Great Britain and Ireland, the odds are the form  $x/y$  (say  $1/2$ , where you need to bet 2 units to win 1 unit). On mainland Europe, the more common way to present odds is the inverse of a probability, called a dividend as in the example above. The traditional odds are converted to dividend odds by dividing  $x$  by  $y$  and adding one. Thus,  $1/2$  means 1.50 in European scale. The table of conversions is presented in Appendix A.

Some bookmakers do not accept bets on a single match. Instead a punter needs to pick two, three or more matches on the same coupon. The matches are independent events, so this way the bookmaker decreases the return percentage to the punters. For example, if the bookmaker returns 80 % of the total money wagered and requires punters to pick at least three matches, the theoretical return percentage diminishes to  $0.8^3 = 51.2$  %. Fortunately from the punter's point of view, increasing competition in the betting market forces bookmakers to offer better odds and ability to bet on single events or they go out of business. We take a closer look at the return percentage later on in this chapter.

In fixed odds betting, the odds are generally published a few days before the event. Internet bookmakers can change their odds many times before the match takes place responding to the betting volume's reactions. Their job is to keep the money flow in balance and thus guarantee the "fixed" revenue for the gaming operator. For the traditional High Street bookmaker altering odds on a coupon requires enormous reprinting efforts, whereas for the Internet bookmaker it happens just by clicking a mouse. Other popular fixed odds bets are correct score, first goal scorer, halftime/fulltime and future outright bets.

### **1.2.3 Asian Handicap (Hang Cheng)**

In Far East, handicap betting is more popular than traditional fixed odds betting. The approach, derived from the Las Vegas sports books, has expanded its

popularity to Europe as well. In Asian handicap, the bookmaker determines a predicted superiority (a difference between home goals and away goals). One team gets, let's say, 1/2 goal ahead before the start of a match. Thus the draw is normally eliminated in Asian handicap and the odds are set for two outcomes. The fundamental idea is to create even odds in a match by means of a handicap. With Asian Handicap, there is a much better chance of profit, due to the fact that a punter may get his/her stake back (or at least parts of it, depending on the handicap). In fixed odds betting, one would lose money if wagered on something else than the correct outcome. You can bet on teams which you really do not believe will win the match, but due to the handicap, your team may still provide you a value opportunity. Asian Handicap betting also provides much more excitement, as one single goal in a match counts much more than in fixed odds betting. The worst thing in Asian Handicap, in our opinion, is a rather complex way of figuring out the return. You will also need an account with companies offering Asian Handicap, as not all bookmakers offer it.

Below, we offer few examples of Asian handicap bets.

Example 1:

Milan-Juventus

The handicap is:

Home team	Away team	Odds home	Handicap	Odds away
Milan	Juventus	2.00	0 : ½	1.85

Bet on Milan:

- If Milan wins the match you will win stake x 2.00, otherwise you will lose

Bet on Juventus:

- If the match ends in a draw or Juventus wins you will win stake x 1.85

Example 2:

Arsenal-Leeds

The handicap is:

Home team	Away team	Odds home	Handicap	Odds away
Arsenal	Leeds	1.925	0 : ½	1.975

Bet on Arsenal:

- If Arsenal wins the match by two goals or more you will win stake x 1.925
- If Arsenal wins the match by one goal you will win: 1.925 x 0.5 x stake + stake

Bet on Leeds:

- If the match ends in a draw or Leeds wins you will win stake x 1.975
- If Arsenal wins the match by one goal you will win stake x 0.5

Example 3:

Barcelona-Real Madrid

The handicap is:

Home team	Away team	Odds home	Handicap	Odds away
Barcelona	Real Madrid	1.925	0 : 1	1.975

Bet on Barcelona:

- If Barcelona wins the match by two goals or more you will win stake x 1.925
- If Barcelona wins the match by one goal you will get your stake back

Bet on Real Madrid:

- If the match ends in a draw or Real Madrid wins you will win stake x 1.975
- If Barcelona wins the match by one goal you will get your stake back

### **1.2.4 Asian Handicap vs. Fixed Odds**

The advantages of two different ways to bet on a football match:

#### Asian Handicap

- Normally eliminates the possibility of a draw
- If a quarter handicap match ends in a draw, you only lose 50% of your stake
- Entertaining when following a match live - one single goal is likely to change everything
- When playing multiple matches, the number of outcomes compared to 1X2-betting is reduced from 27 (3x3x3) to only 8 (2x2x2)

#### Fixed Odds

- A very wide range of bookmakers to choose from
- It is possible to bet on "secure" matches, which might be suitable for accumulator bets
- Much easier to find value bets. You only need home-draw-away estimations, in Asian Handicap it is required that you are able to predict goals scored

### 1.2.5 Spread Betting

Harvey (1998) and Burke (1998) both conclude in their books that in spread betting there is a great volatility, which provides excitement but exposes the punter to risks of substantial losses, as well as rewards. It is one of the fastest growing areas of gaming. It all started in early 1980's when two founder members of City Index began betting on the winning race card numbers at the Arch de Triumph race meeting when they could not make a bet because the queues were too long at the French Tote betting windows. The fundamental idea is that the more you are right the more you win, and vice versa.

You can bet money on a variety of events such as the number of corner kicks, bookings, total goals, etc. The way the spread betting works is that the spread betting company determines the spread for a certain event. For example, in Arsenal-Manchester United match at Highbury the spread betting agency has determined the spread for total goals as 2.1-2.4. The punter can either buy this commodity from them at 2.4 or sell to them at 2.1. Let the final score be 1-1. If a punter had sold the commodity at 2.1 with the stake of £10 per tenth of a goal, he would have made a £10 profit. If on the other hand, he had bought that at 2.4 with the same stake, he would have lost £40. It is important to grasp the concept that you always buy at the top of the spread and sell at the bottom of the spread. There are many similarities between stock market and spread betting. Most of the spread betting companies primary interest is actually the financial spread betting. The punter's aim is to predict the movement, for example, in the FTSE<sup>TM</sup>100 index in a similar way. Financial spread betting is a tax-free alternative to traditional trading in stock market. It covers variety of currency, commodity and bond futures markets. An interesting aspect in spread betting is that you can place a bet "in running", which means that while the event is going on, you can get rid off your losing bets or buy more profitable ones. One major setback in spread betting is rather big deposit and the complex registration procedure, which are

required by spread betting companies due to the fact that they are governed by the Financial Services Act (FSA). Therefore it is not meant for casual punters. It can be very risky as losses are potentially unlimited. It needs a thorough understanding of the system, before one should start betting. The biggest companies offering spread betting are City Index, IG Index, and Sporting Index.

### **1.2.6 Person-to-person Betting**

It is surprising, how new thing person-to-person betting is considering its simplicity. For the operator, it is completely risk free. Therefore, we believe that it will become popular among sports books as a subsidiary form of betting. The idea of person-to-person betting is characterized below:

- Punters set their own odds and others can decide whether or not to take them on. The website acts like a clearing house, monitoring and settling all the bets
- Two punters are thus involved in one bet
- Not betting against faceless corporation but other punters
- More realistic and adventurous odds than offered by the bookmaker
- Concept incorporates some of the elements of spread betting in that punters can be very specific with their bets
- The companies make money by taking 5% from each bet, 2.5% from each punter compared to regular betting offices who normally charge 6.75% tax plus commission
- Aim is to attract casual punters, not hardcore gamblers. Normally bets are around £5-£15
- Expected to be popular among sports fans and members of financial institutions as a good speculation forum
- It is estimated that more than £55 billion changed hands in the unofficial person-to-person betting market worldwide in 1999

### 1.3 Betting Issues

Sports betting is an area of gaming in which the player is not in direct competition with the house. In most of casino games (such as craps, keno, slot machines, baccarat, black jack and roulette), the house has a statistical advantage. In sports betting, however, players can gain an advantage on the house when they can identify the events where the offered odds do not accurately reflect the true odds for the events' outcome. The punter needs to realize that the offered odds are not an odds compiler's prediction of event's outcome. Rather, the odds are designed so that equal money would be bet among all outcomes.

Bookmakers make their money at the expense of the people who bet impulsively. For most punters, the main thing about betting is to add little extra excitement to the sporting event. Therefore, it is vital for a bookmaker to create odds such that the distribution of betting volume is in balance. Probably the most famous among the current handicappers in Las Vegas, Michael "Roxy" Roxborough, has been quoted: "I am not in the business to predict the outcomes, I am in the business to divide the public opinion about these outcomes" (1999). If the betting volume is evenly distributed, the bookmakers will always get their in-built percentage. Thus, the odds are not always the appropriate measures of the teams' relative strengths. If a punter is capable of predicting the outcome correctly, there are chances for profitable betting. The main rule for the punter is to be selective. Only bet if the odds are on your side. If Brazil is expected to beat Poland 19 times out of 20, then the odds 1/9 (which says that Brazil wins 18 times out of 20) are a good value. This strategy is called value betting. The punter needs to look for the best values from the coupon and decide how much he/she is willing to invest in them. We will take a closer look at value betting in Chapter 4.

## 1.4 Return Percentage

The website best-bets.com has a concept called QI. Standing for “Quoten Intelligenz” in German, translated “odds intelligence”. The similarity to the IQ – the intelligence quotient- is deliberate. The QI tells the punter how smart one has to be in order to beat the bookmaker.

$$QI = \frac{1}{Odds(Homewin)} + \frac{1}{Odds(Draw)} + \frac{1}{Odds(Awaywin)} \quad \text{Eq. 1.1}$$

In words, QI is the sum of the reciprocal values of all odds attributable to the outcomes of an event. The QI for the match Liverpool against Chelsea with odds 2.00/2.60/3.00 is

$$QI = \frac{1}{2.00} + \frac{1}{2.60} + \frac{1}{3.00} = 1.21796$$

The bookmaker’s take is 22 %, thus any client of this particular bookmaker has to know at least 22% more about the possible outcomes of this match than the bookmaker himself, otherwise the punter will not be able to break even in the long run.

$$RETURNPERCENTAGE = \frac{1}{QI} \quad \text{Eq. 1.2}$$

The theoretical return percentage of our soccer match is 0.82, meaning you can expect to get 82 pence on every pound you bet on a match with this odds structure if the bookmaker is able to receive the bets in the right proportions. The same result is achieved when betting on each possible outcome in the match.



The best-bets.com concludes that QI is the most important key figure in betting business, the lower it is, the fairer the bet. As a single bookmaker calculates the odds in order to make a profit, the QI for the bets will be always be above 1.

On the Internet there are a number of sites (oddscomparison.com, zazewe.com, crastinum.com and betbrain.com), which collect odds from several bookmakers. The punter can pick the best offers among them. The competition among bookmakers is severe, so there are often opportunities for profitable bets. Sometimes there are even so called arbitrage opportunities, where the punter will get a guaranteed profit by betting on all possible outcomes. The punter needs to select the right bookmakers and to determine the stakes in an appropriate way in order to maximize the profit when these sorts of situations occur.

## **1.5 Internet Betting**

Internet betting has gained a lot of popularity. The main companies such as Ladbrokes, William Hill and Coral-Eurobet, have web sites, as do new entrants to the market like Blue Square, Sports Internet Group and Sporting bet. The sites usually offer links to offshore tax-free betting and provide the opportunity to bet on most major sporting events, as well as horses and dogs. However, they do not really provide anything more than an online alternative to telephone betting and High Street bookmaker. Most of them have limited entertainment value and are primarily information driven, but as customer expectations grow this will probably change.

Despite its current popularity, Internet betting still has a huge future ahead. With the development of new distribution channels, like digital television and mobile phones, it will become even easier and more exciting.

Only thing holding back Internet betting are the legal issues. The US has recently rejected the Kyl Bill that would have largely prohibited online gaming throughout United States, making it a federal crime for US citizens. Many individual states, including Nevada and New York have already chosen to take a hard line on online gaming. This approach has led to the development of online gaming offshore, mainly in the Caribbean, which has now become a major center directing operations at North America. Even so, offshore relocation has not stopped some US authorities challenging the new operations.

Until recently the Australian government tried to regulate online gaming by allowing individual states to grant licenses to operators. However, they have now announced a moratorium on the granting of licenses and the eventual outcome of their review is far from clear.

In the UK it is legal to place and receive bets over the telephone or via the Internet. However, advertising offshore gaming – telephone or Internet – is illegal. According to Ernst & Young survey, several UK bookmakers circumvent this contradiction by including a link (not an advert) in their websites to offshore operations – a .co.uk site links through to a .com site. The sites look similar but they are registered in different locations.

On mainland Europe there is very little legislation and few restrictions on gaming or betting over the Internet. Certain countries in Asia (Singapore for example) ban online gaming, but most legislation is aimed at prohibiting any direct advertising and restricting the supply of gaming licenses.

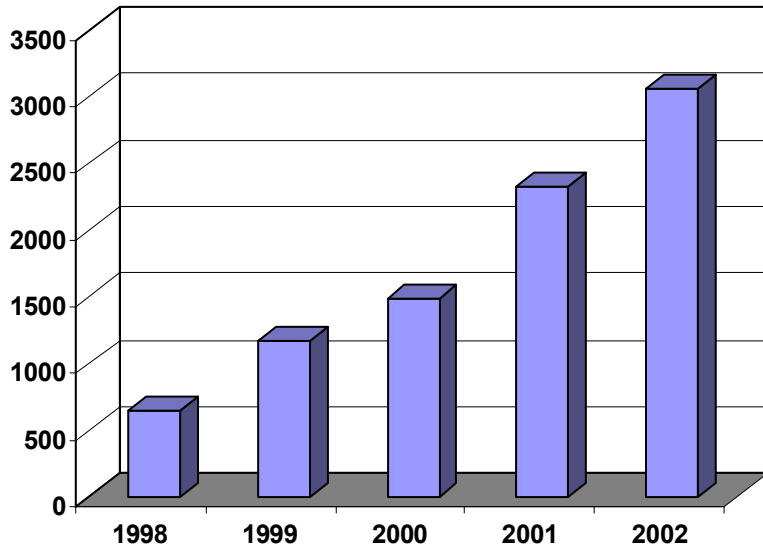
Another concern with Internet betting at the moment is the security. The punter needs to do the research in order to find out which bookmakers run the creditable business and who is trustworthy. Otherwise the punter might face the problem not getting his/her money back. Ernst & Young research shows that the main inhibitor for potential customers spending on the Internet is the fear of credit or

debit card fraud. There are already over 650 Internet betting and gaming sites, and the number is still growing. So while the barriers to entry for Internet betting and gaming businesses are low, simply setting up a site is no guarantee of success. Businesses must put customer trust high on their agenda, because purely electronic transactions completely redefine the relationship between punters and bookmakers.

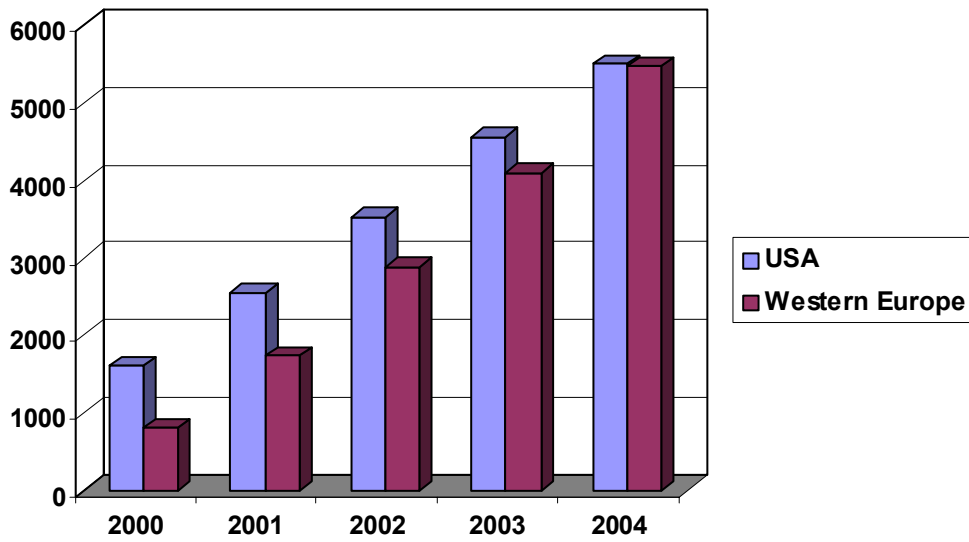
This is especially important for online betting where the average stake is higher than in High Street bookmakers and where the bookmaker holds a customer's credit card details or customer has to pay up-front into an account. On William Hill's site for example, they refer to themselves as "The most respected name in British bookmaking". Fair odds and timely payout will influence repeat business and customer loyalty to a favored site.

The Figure 1.1 characterizes the rapid growth of the market. In the year 2002, according to the survey made by the River City Group (2000), estimated Internet gaming expenditure will exceed 3 billion USD. The other survey made by Datamonitor (1999) forecasts similar results.

**Estimated Worldwide Internet Gaming Expenditure (M\$)**



**Figure 1.1** Estimated worldwide Internet gaming expenditure (Milj\$). Source: River City Group



**Figure 1.2** The online gaming market divided into regions (Milj. \$). Source: Datamonitor

From Figure 1.2 it is predicted that Europe will reach America by the year 2004 in the popularity of online gaming. Datamonitor emphasizes in their research report that “by 2004, online games and gaming revenues will reach \$16bn.”

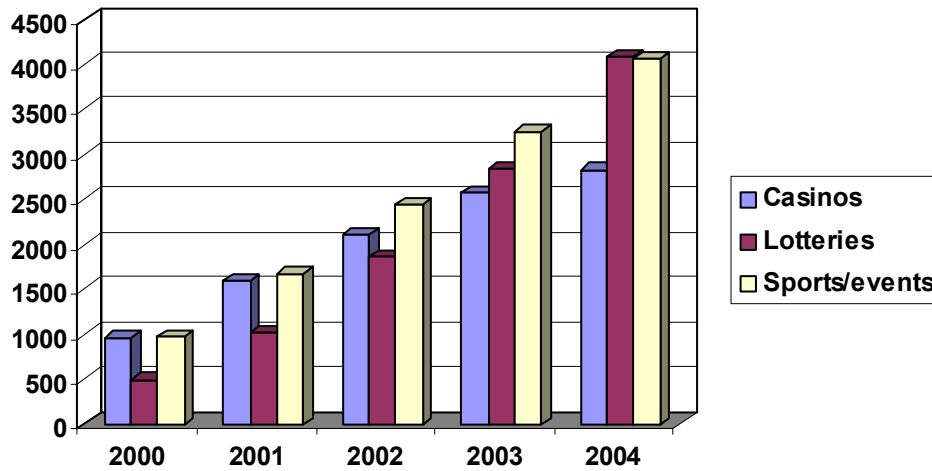


Figure 1.3 The online gaming market divided into products (Milj. \$). Source: Datamonitor

Figure 1.3 presents the product comparison among casinos, lotteries and sports/event betting. It is predicted that lotteries and sports books are gaining customers at faster rate compared to casinos.

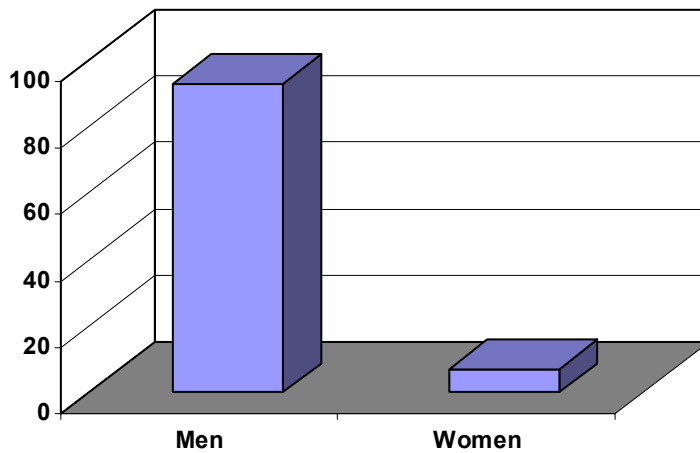
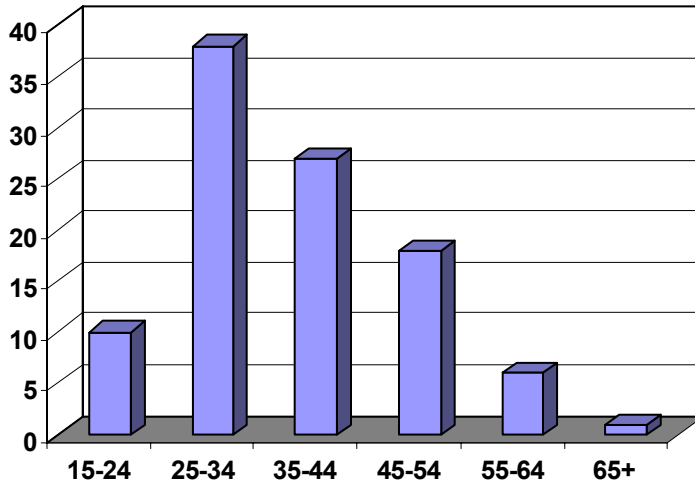


Figure 1.4 Number of customers by sex. Source: Svenska Spel

Traditionally men are more eager to gaming than women are. Figure 1.4 describes that it follows the same pattern in online gaming as well. Especially, sports betting has been male dominant, but event betting has gained a lot of female attention according to Paddy Power, the Irish bookmaker.



**Figure 1.5** The number of customers by age. Source: Svenska Spel

Age distribution in Figure 1.5 does not provide any surprising results of the market. The target group is the people between 25-54 years of age.

## 1.6 Taxation

For existing bookmakers or new entrants going online, ongoing legal situation raises the question of where to locate their business as mentioned in Section 1.5. Sites currently operating under British jurisdiction, for example in Gibraltar, are held in high regard internationally because they operate to UK regulatory standards. Good regulation and the careful granting of licenses breeds confidence for both operators and their customers.

The best onshore gaming and bookmaking businesses already welcome regulation. They recognize that it benefits their business, it reassures customers and it provides the necessary controls to run a clean operation.

Onshore betting in the UK attracts a 9% tax whilst offshore there is 3% administration cost. Duty in Ireland was reduced from 10% to 5% in 1998 making it a more attractive location for bookmakers. Inevitably, mainstream bookmakers have followed Victor Chandler and set up offshore operations. All of which favours the punter and offshore bookmaker but not the government.

The most governments are faced with a decision. If they want a slice of the global gaming market, they will have to reduce onshore tax levels. It might even increase their total tax-take by having a lower tax rate for a much larger market. If they do not reduce tax, bookmakers will set up their international online businesses in a more favourable tax climate. Even the Tote, which still is government owned, has set up an offshore branch of its Total-bet.com site in Malta.

## **1.7 Scope of the Thesis**

Our goal is to study the possibility of creating a profitable betting strategy for league football. Our main focus is in the English Premier League. In order to do this, we need to predict the outcomes with reasonable accuracy. We build the appropriate model for this purpose and examine its usage in the betting market. We also compare the model against other most commonly used prediction methods. We mainly consider the benefits of using the model in fixed odds betting. Also, its efficiency in more exotic handicap and spread betting is discussed in Chapter 6. Chapter 2 covers the literature relating to the subject so far. Chapter 3 explains the model and makes comparisons against other most common prediction methods. The betting strategy and the model validation is the

basis of Chapter 4. Chapter 5 covers the implementation of the system and discusses the benefits of using it from both punter's and bookmaker's point of views. In Chapter 6 we summarize the research and make a few suggestions for future work.



## Chapter 2

### 2 Literature Review

An individual football match is a random process, where all the outcomes are possible. Reep and Benjamin (1968) came to the conclusion that “chance does dominate the game”. Even stronger opinion came from Hennessy (1969) who stated that only chance was involved. Hill (1973) argued that anyone who had ever watched a football match could reach the conclusion that the game was either all skill or all chance. He justified his opinion by calculating the correlation between the expert opinions and the final league tables, finding that even though chance was involved, there was also a significant amount of talent affecting to the final outcome of the match.

Modelling football results has not gained too much attention in a scientific community. Most of the models punters and operators tend to use are very ad hoc. They are not statistically justified, even though these might be useful in betting. Most of the literature, up to date, is divided into two different schools, either modelling the results/scores directly or observing the estimated strength differences between teams.

#### 2.1 Maher-Poisson Approach

Statistically, a football match can be seen as a random event, where three outcomes are possible: a home win, a draw, and an away win. Each of them has their own probability and the probabilities sum up to 1. Our task is to determine these probabilities as accurately as possible. The focus is in modelling the scores, because we believe that the scores contain more information of the teams’

abilities than do pure outcomes (win, draw or loss). This sort of approach is called the Maher-Poisson approach, due to the first paper published by Maher (1982), where he assumed that the number of goals scored by team A and team B in a particular match had independent Poisson distributions with means,  $\lambda_A$  and  $\lambda_B$ . His article has been the basis of few others. Lee (1997) studied whether Manchester United deserved to win the league title in 1995/1996 season. He used Maher's simplified model to derive the probabilities for each match and simulated the season 1,000 times. Then he calculated the points awarded for each team and determined the proportions of times each team topped the table. Another important article written by Dixon and Coles (1997) investigated the inefficiencies in the UK betting market. They used Maher's model with few adjustments in order to get the better fit. Dixon and Coles emphasized in their article that in order to create a profitable betting strategy, one must consider several aspects of the game. For example:

- The model should take into account different abilities of both teams in a match
- History has proved that the team which plays at home has a home advantage that needs to be included to our model
- The estimate of the team's current form is most likely to be related to its performance in the most recent matches
- In all simplicity, football as a game is about scoring goals and conceding goals. Therefore, we use the separate measures of teams' abilities to attack and to defend
- In summarizing a team's performance by recent results, account should be taken of the ability of the teams they have played against

It is not practical to estimate these aspects separately. Instead, we need to find the statistical way to incorporate these features. In Maher's model, he suggested that the team  $i$ , playing at home against team  $j$ , in which the score is  $(x_{ij}, y_{ij})$ , and  $X_{ij}$

and  $Y_{ij}$  are independent Poisson random variables with means  $\alpha\beta$  and  $\delta\gamma$  respectively. The parameters represent the strength of the home team's attack ( $\alpha$ ), the weakness of the away team's defence ( $\beta$ ), the strength of the away team's attack ( $\delta$ ), and the weakness of the home team's defence ( $\gamma$ ). He finds that a reduced model with  $\delta_i = k\alpha_i$ ,  $\gamma_i = k\beta_i$  for all  $i$  is the most appropriate of several models he investigates. Thus, the quality of a team's attack and a team's defence depends on whether it is playing at home or away. Home ground advantage ( $1/k$ ) applies with equal effect to all teams.

English Premier league consists of 20 teams. The three lowest placed teams will be relegated to Division 1 and three top teams will be promoted to the league from Division 1 after each season. Dixon and Coles applied Maher's model in their article where they used all four divisions in the model. They also included cup matches in the analysis and thus obtained a measurement for the difference in relative strengths between divisions. We ignore cup matches in our study. Dixon and Coles had 185 identifiable parameters, because of the number of divisions they dealt with. In our basic model, we use only 41 parameters. Attack and defence parameter for each team, and a common home advantage parameter. We set Arsenal's attack parameter to zero as our base parameter.

For clarity, we use slightly different notation than in Maher's paper. We assume that the number of goals scored by the home team has a Poisson distribution with mean  $\lambda_{\text{HOME}}$  and the number of goals scored by the away team has a Poisson distribution  $\lambda_{\text{AWAY}}$ . One match is seen as a bivariate Poisson random variable where the goals are events, which occur during this 90-minute time interval. The mean  $\lambda_{\text{HOME}}$  reflects to the quality of the home attack, the quality of the away defence, and the home advantage. The mean  $\lambda_{\text{AWAY}}$  reflects the quality of the away attack, and the quality of the home defence. These are specific to each team's past performance. The mean of the Poisson distribution has to be positive, so we say that the logarithm of the mean is a linear combination of its factors.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Log}(\lambda_{\text{HOME}}) &= \beta_{\text{HOME}} * z_1 + \beta_{\text{HOMEATTACK}} * z_2 + \beta_{\text{AWAYDEFENCE}} * z_3 \\ \text{Log}(\lambda_{\text{AWAY}}) &= \beta_{\text{AWAYATTACK}} * z_4 + \beta_{\text{HOMEDEFENCE}} * z_5\end{aligned}\tag{Eq. 2.1}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Log}(E(Y)) &= \beta_{\text{HOME}} * z_1 + \beta_{\text{HOMEATTACK}} * z_2 + \beta_{\text{AWAYDEFENCE}} * z_3 + \beta_{\text{AWAYATTACK}} * z_4 \\ &+ \beta_{\text{HOMEDEFENCE}} * z_5\end{aligned}\tag{Eq. 2.2}$$

where

$z_1 = 1$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team;  
 $z_2 = 1$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team;  
 $z_3 = 1$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team;  
 $z_4 = 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 1$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team;  
 $z_5 = 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 1$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team.

This is a simplified equation because in reality there would be team specific attack and defence parameters, so in the English Premier League where 20 teams are competing the amount of  $z_i$ 's would be 41. This is an example of a log-linear model, which is the special case of the generalized linear models. The theory of generalized linear models was obtained from the books by McCullach and Nelder (1983), and by Dobson (1990). We can estimate the values of the parameters above by the method of maximum likelihood assuming independent Poisson distribution for Y. For now on, we refer to this whole process as Poisson regression.

Eq. 2.2 gives us the expected number of goals scored for both teams in a particular match. Using these values in our bivariate Poisson distribution, we can obtain the probabilities for home win, draw and away win in the following way:

$$P(h,a) = \frac{e^{-\lambda_{HOME}} \lambda_{HOME}^h}{h!} * \frac{e^{-\lambda_{AWAY}} \lambda_{AWAY}^a}{a!} \quad \text{Eq. 2.3}$$

h = home score

a = away score

$h,a \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda_{HOME}, \lambda_{AWAY})$

P(Home win) = total the combination of score probabilities where  $h > a$

P(Draw) = total the combination of score probabilities where  $h = a$

P(Away win) = total the combination of score probabilities where  $h < a$

Table 2.1 shows how these probabilities are derived in a match Arsenal against Liverpool at Highbury.

Probabilities for Liverpool with $\lambda = 0.95$											
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
		0.387	0.367	0.175	0.055	0.013	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	
Probabilities for Arsenal with $\lambda = 1.5$	0	0.223	0.086	0.082	0.039	0.012	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000
	1	0.335	0.129	0.123	0.058	0.018	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000
	2	0.251	0.097	0.092	0.044	0.014	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000
	3	0.126	0.049	0.046	0.022	0.007	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	4	0.047	0.018	0.017	0.008	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	5	0.014	0.005	0.005	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	6	0.004	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	7	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

**Table 2.1** Joint and marginal Poisson probabilities for all score combinations in a match Arsenal versus Liverpool at Highbury with  $\lambda_{ARSENAL} = 1.5$  and  $\lambda_{LIVERPOOL} = 0.95$ .

P(Arsenal win) = 0.497

P(Draw) = 0.261

P(Liverpool) = 0.236

Dixon and Coles reported that the model they were using enabled them to establish a profitable betting strategy. In the other article “A birth process model for association football matches” (1998), Dixon together with Robinson focused on the spread betting market where the bets made “in running” were possible. They observed that the rate of scoring goals varies over the course of a match and concluded that inaccuracies exist in the spread betting market as well. Rue and Salvesen (1997) continued Dixon’s footsteps by introducing the Poisson approach in the Bayesian content. They applied Markov Chain Monte Carlo in order to estimate the skills of all teams simultaneously. Application of the Poisson distribution is also mentioned in Jackson’s (1994) article where he investigates the similarities between the stock market and spread betting.

## **2.2 Alternative Prediction Schemes**

Several team ratings have been proposed for different sports. In tennis, we are familiar with ATP rankings, which measure the level of each player based on their performances in the past. The betting line in American football is derived by handicappers, who use power ratings as their basic tool. The basis of most of these rating schemes is the least squares-Gaussian approach. Harville (1980) and Stefani (1980) have published several articles on this subject. The main idea is to predict the win margin in a match between two teams based on these previously defined ratings. In Stefani’s article in *Statistics in Sport* journal (1998), he proposes a least squares-Gaussian prediction system. He points out three steps in his approach:

- A rating is found for each team using win margin (score difference) corrected for home advantage
- The win margin is predicted for the next match using rating difference

- The predicted win margin is used to estimate the probability of a home win, draw and away win using the Gaussian distribution

The model has the following form:

$$z_i = r_i - r_j + h + e_i \quad \text{Eq. 2.4}$$

where  $z_i$  represents the win margin for home team  $i$  in a match,  $h$  is an estimate of the home advantage (one value for all teams),  $r_i$  is the estimated rating for team  $i$ ,  $r_j$  is the estimated rating for team  $j$ , and  $e_i$  is a zero-mean random error due to errors in estimating the ratings and home advantage plus random variation.

In order to estimate the probabilities of a home win, draw and away win, thresholds  $t_1$  and  $-t_2$  are used where

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{Homewin}) &= P(z_i > t_1) \\ P(\text{Draw}) &= P(-t_2 < z_i < t_1) \\ P(\text{Awaywin}) &= P(z_i < -t_2) \end{aligned} \quad \text{Eq. 2.5}$$

The major difference between Maher-Poisson and least squares-Gaussian approaches is that MP uses a discrete random variable, whereas LSG uses continuous random variable.

### 2.2.1 Elo Ratings and Bradley-Terry Model

In chess, the most popular rating method is called Elo rating, named after the inventor Arpad Elo (1978). The Elo rating system calculates a numerical rating for every player based on performances in competitive chess. A rating is a number normally between 0 and 3000 that changes over time depending on the outcomes of tournament matches. When two players compete, the rating system

predicts the one with the higher rating to win more often. The more marked the difference in ratings, the greater the probability that the higher rated player will win according to Glickman and Jones (1999).

These Elo ratings can be applied to football as well. The probabilities for home win, draw and away win are derived based on the difference in ratings. These rating differences need to be stored over several years in order to examine how often the match ends to a home win, a draw and an away win with various rating differences. The ratings are updated by the following formula:

$$r_n = r_o + K * (w - w_e) \quad \text{Eq. 2.6}$$

where  $r_n$  is the new rating,  $r_o$  is the old (pre-match rating),  $K$  is the weight constant depending on the league, normally 30.  $w$  is the result of the match (1 for a win, 0.5 for a draw and 0 for a loss).  $w_e$  is the expected result of the match (win expectancy), either from the chart or from the following formula.

$$w_e = \frac{1}{10^{\frac{dr}{400} + 1}} \quad \text{Eq. 2.7}$$

$dr$  equals the difference in ratings plus 100 points for a team playing at home.

Initial ratings in Elo system are obtained by using a different set of formulas. The resulting estimates are called “provisional ratings”. They do not carry a great amount of confidence because they are based on a very small number of match outcomes.

When a player has competed in fewer than 20 tournaments games, the post-tournament rating is calculated based on all previous games, not just the ones in a current tournament. The formula is



$$r_n = r_o + \frac{400 * (W - L)}{N} \quad \text{Eq. 2.8}$$

where  $r_n$  is the player's post-tournament rating,  $r_o$  is the average opponents' ratings,  $W$  is the number of wins,  $L$  is the number of losses, and  $N$  is the total number of games.

Glickman and Jones studied whether the winning expectancy formula could be used to predict game outcomes between pairs of established players. Their main conclusion was that there is a fair amount of variability in rating estimates. They also discuss similar topics that arise in football including the time variation and the problem of grouping.

In the US college soccer, the team rankings are created by Bradley-Terry model (1952). Albyn Jones (1996) has an article about these on Internet. It follows closely the Elo rating procedure. The Bradley-Terry model can be applied when the response variable is binomial. The formula relating ratings to winning probabilities is

$$P = \frac{\exp(\alpha + \beta(R_h - R_a))}{1 + \exp(\alpha + \beta(R_h - R_a))} \quad \text{Eq. 2.9}$$

where  $P$  is the probability that the home team wins,  $\alpha$  is a parameter representing the home field advantage (specifically, it is the log odds for a home team victory when the two teams are evenly matched), and  $\beta$  is a scale parameter chosen so that a rating difference of 100 points corresponds to a probability of 2/3 of victory for the higher rated team at a neutral site, ie.

$$\beta = \frac{\ln 2}{100} \approx 0.00693$$

$R_h$  and  $R_a$  are the home team rating and the away team rating, respectively.

For the 1995 NCAA men's and women's Division I teams, the home team wins about 60% of the time, which corresponds to  $\alpha = 0.405$ .

### 2.2.2 Multinomial Ordered Probit Model

Another LSG related method and more statistically acceptable than Elo ratings is multinomial ordered logit/probit analysis. An article about ordered logit model by Forrest and Simmons (2000) was used as a reference in our model comparison in Chapter 3. Also, more theoretical articles by McCullach (1980) and Anderson (1984) were applied.

Probit regression is an alternative log-linear approach in handling categorical dependent variables. The outcome of a match, Win (2), Draw (1) or Loss (0) is considered as a categorization of a continuous variable  $Z$ .

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{Homewin}) &= P(Z > t_2) \\ P(\text{Draw}) &= P(t_1 < Z < t_2) \\ P(\text{Awaywin}) &= P(Z < t_1) \end{aligned} \tag{Eq. 2.10}$$

Our probit model has the Normal Distribution with mean  $\beta$  and variance 1.  $Z$  is a normal random variable (ordered probit). The likelihood of the data is calculated from  $P(\text{Away win}) = P(t_2 - \beta)$ , where  $\beta$  = home team rating – away team rating, and similarly for a draw and a home win. The cutpoints  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are estimated by maximizing the likelihood. The home effect is absorbed into the estimates of  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ . If we had two equal strength teams  $r_i = r_j$  and the home effect = 0, then we would have  $t_1 = -t_2$ . The estimate for the home effect would be  $\frac{1}{2}*(t_1+t_2)$ . The probit version is thus very similar to the ratings, but parameters and cutpoints are chosen in a statistical manner by the method of maximum likelihood.

## 2.3 Betting Strategies

The best and the most successful punters are money managers looking for ideal situations, which are defined as matches with only high percentage of return. In individual situations luck will play into the outcome of an event, which no amount of odds compiling can overcome, but in the long run a disciplined punter will win more of those lucky games than lose.

To achieve the level of profitable betting, one must develop a correct money management procedure. The aim for a punter is to maximize the winnings and minimize the losses. If the punter is capable of predicting accurate probabilities for each match, the Kelly criterion has proven to work effectively in betting. It was named after an American economist John L. Kelly (1956) and originally designed for information transmission. The Kelly criterion is described below:

$$S = \frac{(p * o - 1)}{(o - 1)} \quad \text{Eq. 2.11}$$

where  $S$  = the stake expressed as a fraction of one's total bankroll,  $p$  = probability of an event to take place,  $o$  = odds for an event offered by the bookmaker. Three important properties, mentioned by Hausch, Lo, and Ziemba (1994), arise when using this criterion to determine a proper stake for each bet:

- It maximizes the asymptotic growth rate of capital
- Asymptotically, it minimizes the expected time to reach a specified goal
- It outperforms in the long run any other essentially different strategy almost surely

The criterion is known to economists and financial theorists by names such as the geometric mean maximizing portfolio strategy, the growth-optimal strategy, the capital growth criterion, etc. We will now show that Kelly betting will maximize the expected log utility for a game, which uses biased coins.

### 2.3.1 Unconstrained Optimal Betting for Single Biased Coin

This section was derived based Thorp's (1997) in-depth analysis about applying the Kelly criterion in blackjack, sports betting and the stock market and Steve Jacobs' (1999) article about optimal betting. Consider an even money bet that is placed on a biased coin which has a probability ( $p$ ) of coming up heads and a probability ( $1 - p$ ) of coming up tails. If ( $p$ ) is greater than 0.5, then a bet on heads will be favorable for the player, and the player edge will be  $\text{edge} = P(\text{winning}) - P(\text{losing}) = p - (1 - p) = 2p - 1$ .

If a fraction ( $f$ ) of the current bankroll is wagered that the next flip of this coin will come up heads, then the bankroll will increase by a factor of  $(1 + f)$  if the bet is won, and the bankroll will shrink by a factor of  $(1 - f)$  if the bet is lost. If the bankroll before the bet is  $B$  and  $\log(B)$  is used as a utility function, then the expected utility at the conclusion of this bet will be:

$$EU(f) = p * \log(B * (1 + f)) + (1 - p) * \log(B * (1 - f)) \quad \text{Eq. 2.12}$$

To find the optimal bet size for this coin toss, we must find the bet fraction, which gives the maximum value for  $EU(f)$ . We can find this value by solving:

$$\frac{dU(f)}{df} = 0 \quad \text{Eq. 2.13}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{p * B}{B * (1 + f)} - \frac{(1 - p) * B}{B * (1 - f)} = 0$$

Note that the absolute bankroll size B divides out and completely disappears from the equation to give:

$$\Rightarrow \frac{p}{(1 + f)} - \frac{(1 - p)}{(1 - f)} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{p}{(1 + f)} = \frac{(1 - p)}{(1 - f)}$$

$$\Rightarrow p(1 - f) = (1 - p)(1 + f)$$

$$\Rightarrow p - pf = 1 - p + f - pf$$

$$\Rightarrow p = 1 - p + f$$

$$\Rightarrow f = 2p - 1$$

Assuming ( $p > 0.5$ ) so that betting on heads is a favorable bet, then ( $2p - 1$ ) is equal to the player edge for this coin flip. So, for a biased coin, one should bet a fraction of bankroll that is equal to the advantage in order to maximize this utility function. Notice that absolute bankroll size is unimportant.

One feature of sports betting which is of interest to Kelly users is the prospect of betting on several games at once.

### 2.3.2 Unconstrained Optimal Betting for Multiple Biased Coins

Now suppose one is playing a game where there are 4 different coins (A, B, C, D). The probabilities of these coins being played are ( $p_A, p_B, p_C, p_D$ ), and the probability of these coins coming up heads are ( $h_A, h_B, h_C, h_D$ ). Before any game is played, the player is shown which coin is to be flipped so that he/she can choose a different bet size for different coins. Again, one wants to find a betting strategy ( $f_A, f_B, f_C, f_D$ ) which will maximize the expected utility, using  $\log(\text{bankroll})$  as a utility function.

The overall utility (OU) function for this game is simply a weighted sum of the utility functions for each of the individual coins. Each coin contributes an amount to the overall utility, which is proportional to the probability of that coin being played. So,

$$OU(f_A, f_B, f_C, f_D) = p_A * EU(f_A) + p_B * EU(f_B) + p_C * EU(f_C) + p_D * EU(f_D) \quad \text{Eq. 2.14}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow & p_A * (h_A * \log(1 + f_A) + (1 - h_A) * \log(1 - f_A)) \\ & + p_B * (h_B * \log(1 + f_B) + (1 - h_B) * \log(1 - f_B)) \\ & + p_C * (h_C * \log(1 + f_C) + (1 - h_C) * \log(1 - f_C)) \\ & + p_D * (h_D * \log(1 + f_D) + (1 - h_D) * \log(1 - f_D)) \end{aligned}$$

Maximizing the OU for one of the bet sizes  $f_A$  gives

$$\frac{d(OU(f_A))}{df_A} = 0 \quad \text{Eq. 2.15}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{p_A * d(EU(f_A))}{df_A} = 0$$

which holds when

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d(EU(fA))}{dfA} = 0$$

This is the same equation used to optimize a single coin toss. The important thing to notice here is that the optimum bet size for  $fA$  does not depend on  $pA$ , so it does not matter how often coin A is played. So, when playing coin A, one simply should play as if that was the only coin in the game, and one should choose the correct bet size for that coin.

### 2.3.3 More on Kelly Criterion

The problem of using this Kelly criterion is that generally only estimates of the true probabilities are available, whereas Kelly criterion assumes that the true probabilities are known. Instead of maximizing the capital growth, strategies can be developed based on maximum security. For instance, probability of ruin can be minimized subject to making a positive return, or confidence levels can be computed of increasing initial fortune to a given final wealth goal. To combine the goals of capital growth and security, an alternative is a fractional Kelly criterion, i.e. compute the optimal Kelly investment but invest only a fixed fraction of that amount. Thus security can be gained at the price of growth by reducing the investment fraction.

How does Kelly criterion compare with other strategies over a time period? Hausch, Lo and Ziemba conducted a study of 1000 trials, or horse racing seasons, each of 700 races, assuming the initial wealth of \$1000. The Kelly criterion is compared to the fractional Kelly criterion with the fraction  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Also, in consideration are 1) “fixed” bet strategies that establish a fixed bet regardless of

the probability of winning, the bet's expected return, or current wealth; and 2) "proportional" bet strategies that establish a proportion of current wealth to bet regardless of the circumstances of the wager. The results are presented in Appendix C.

The simulation provides support for Kelly system, even over a horizon as short as one racing season. Some punters may find the distributions of final wealth from other systems may be more appealing for this period, e.g. a fractional Kelly system for a more conservative punter. In this thesis, we compare fixed stake, full Kelly,  $\frac{1}{2}$  Kelly and  $\frac{1}{4}$  Kelly.



## Chapter 3

### 3 Data Description and Model Formulation

#### 3.1 Data Description

Data has been collected over the last four seasons in the English Premier League. These include 1997-1998, 1998-1999, 1999-2000 and 2000-2001 seasons. We have also collected the season 2000-2001 data from the main European football betting leagues, such as English Division 1, Division 2 Division 3, Italian Serie A, German Bundesliga and Spanish Primera Liga. The data source was the website [sunsite.tut.fi/rec/riku/soccer2.html](http://sunsite.tut.fi/rec/riku/soccer2.html). This website records only dates, matches and results. A large amount of extra information of league football like goal scorers, times when the goals were scored, line-ups, attendances is available in other portals, but we are not using these in our study. In practice, it would be difficult to use more general information in a numerical format. Therefore, in the basic model our input is each team's history of match scores (following Maher and Dixon). We also include dates in our analysis to examine the hypotheses that more recent results are better indicator of teams' current form. Later, we also make an extension to apply the odds data in our analysis. Bookmaker's odds were obtained from the website [oddscomparison.com](http://oddscomparison.com).

Due to the relegations and promotions, teams change from season to season. Each year, there are three new teams in the league replacing the last year's bottom three. We used the data from the seasons 1997-2000 to test the validity of Poisson and independence assumptions. Three seasons of data means 1140 full-time match scores. In building the betting strategy and testing the model's efficiency, we focus on the most recent season, which is 2000-2001. We use

bookmakers' odds from the 2000-2001 season as our validation sample, to investigate the possibility of a profitable betting strategy.

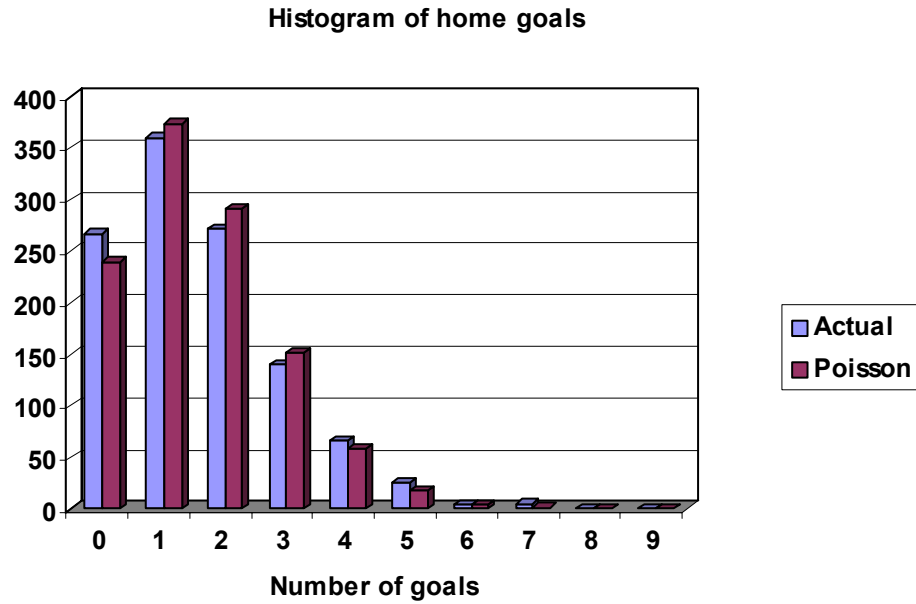
## 3.2 Poisson Regression Formulation

### 3.2.1 Assumptions

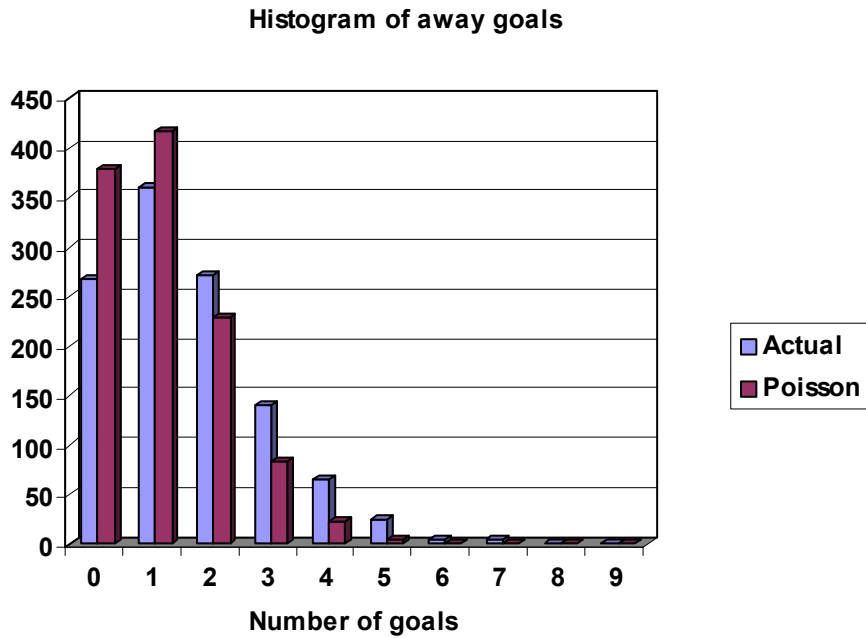
As the lambdas vary from match to match, there is no direct way to test the validity of the Poisson assumption (no replicates). However, we can assess whether the assumption holds in an average sense. Below, we have summary statistics and histograms to demonstrate the distribution of home and away goals in the Premier League 1997-2000.

```
*** Summary Statistics ***
                Home.goals  Away.goals
Min:                0         0
Mean:               1.56     1.10
Median:              1         1
Max:                 8         8
Total N:             1140     1140
Std Dev:            1.35     1.16
```

**Table 3.1** Summary statistics of home and away goals in 1140 matches in the English Premier League 1997-2000.



**Figure 3.1** Histogram of the number of home goals in 1140 matches in the English Premier League 1997-2000 vs. Poisson approximations with  $\lambda_{\text{HOME}} = 1.56$  and  $\lambda_{\text{AWAY}} = 1.10$ .



**Figure 3.2** Histogram of the number of away goals in 1140 matches in the English Premier League 1997-2000 vs. Poisson approximations with  $\lambda_{\text{HOME}} = 1.56$  and  $\lambda_{\text{AWAY}} = 1.10$ .

Dixon and Coles concluded from their dataset, which included the seasons 1993-1995 that Poisson assumption had a nearly perfect fit except for the scores 0-0, 1-0, 0-1 and 1-1. They made an adjustment in their likelihood function, where they included a coefficient allow for the departure from the independence assumption. It interferes the traditional likelihood function procedure, and thus they are forced to use a so-called “pseudo-likelihood”. We are not considering this slight departure from the independence any further in a proper statistical manner due to its complexity in calculations. Instead we suggest an ad hoc approach later in this chapter.

Test statistic for the standard chi-squared test is calculated in the following way:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}} \quad \text{Eq. 3.1}$$

		Away goals							
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	8
Home goals	0	7.38	0.06	1.40	0.61	3.51	0.80	0	0
	1	0.17	0.45	3.09	0.09	0.76	1.06	0	0
	2	0.84	0.02	1.29	0.95	0.14	0.37	0	0
	3	1.77	1.62	0.07	3.01	4.99	0	0	0
	4	4.41	0.08	1.28	0.03	0.53	0	0	0
	5	7.66	0.23	0.79	0.09	0	0	0	0
	6	0.10	0.32	0	0	0	0	0	0
	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

**Table 3.2** Chi-square table where the cells whose expected count is less than 1 are deleted.

If we sum up all the cells our test statistic will be 50.08. We have here 34 valid cells (>1), so our degrees of freedom will be 34-2 = 32. Corresponding p-value is

2.2%, which denotes that it is significant. Therefore, we reject our null hypothesis and conclude that scores are not Poisson. Despite this, we adopt to use the Poisson assumption in our model. The big chi-square values for certain combination of scores (0-0, 4-0, 5-0) affect the test statistic quite heavily. These departures probably arise from non-independence. In a low-scoring match (0-0) both teams normally will focus on defence in the latter stages of the match, and thus the probability of a 0-0 result increases. Runaway victories (4-0, 0-5) take place when the losing team gives up (or the winning team has a psychological advantage). Hence the probability of heavy defeats is higher than would be expected under the Poisson model. The closer comparison of empirical and model probabilities over three seasons of English Premier League is presented in Tables 3.9 and 3.10.

### 3.2.2 Basic Model

With the basic model we want to establish the validity of the model. The reason for using Poisson regression is because we are modelling goals scored, which is discrete data. The S-Plus output of the regression is provided below. The data for this particular regression covers the whole season 1999-2000.

```

*** Generalized Linear Model ***

Coefficients:
Arsenal.att=0

                Value Std. Error    t value
      home  0.401535082 0.06263281  6.410938645
aston.villa.att -0.470757637 0.18837348 -2.499065305
bradford.att -0.629751325 0.20015584 -3.146305011
chelsea.att -0.329852673 0.18063382 -1.826084764
coventry.att -0.430567731 0.18714373 -2.300732931
derby.att -0.493712494 0.19094065 -2.585685575
everton.att -0.207546257 0.17526624 -1.184177037
leeds.att -0.230658918 0.17608878 -1.309901296
leicester.att -0.271955423 0.17876504 -1.521300938
liverpool.att -0.372273136 0.18262428 -2.038464623
manchester.u.att 0.287397732 0.15522209  1.851525926
middlesbrough.att -0.454107452 0.18842902 -2.409965634
newcastle.att -0.136720214 0.17220709 -0.793929084
sheffield.w.att -0.627736511 0.19987443 -3.140654422

```

southampton.att	-0.466210345	0.18975938	-2.456850029
sunderland.att	-0.235122947	0.17699582	-1.328409612
tottenham.att	-0.242130272	0.17698025	-1.368120318
watford.att	-0.703210028	0.20582698	-3.416510423
west.ham.att	-0.330203468	0.18165843	-1.817716171
wimbledon.att	-0.432099261	0.18851518	-2.292119171
arsenal.def	0.234691351	0.19847950	1.182446307
aston.villa.def	0.001673309	0.20664415	0.008097541
bradford.def	0.659300496	0.16991936	3.880078724
chelsea.def	-0.020542641	0.20854554	-0.098504341
coventry.def	0.437138168	0.18076508	2.418266687
derby.def	0.488365345	0.17801844	2.743341402
everton.def	0.351658946	0.18584990	1.892166421
leeds.def	0.219696626	0.19334585	1.136288304
leicester.def	0.463510484	0.17981968	2.577640421
liverpool.def	-0.147852987	0.21783909	-0.678725683
manchester.u.def	0.304878683	0.19053565	1.600113608
middlesbrough.def	0.398317734	0.18268388	2.180366065
newcastle.def	0.453146988	0.18068667	2.507916054
sheffield.w.def	0.688363506	0.16868874	4.080672640
southampton.def	0.573662574	0.17401039	3.296714565
sunderland.def	0.483591947	0.17889362	2.703237456
tottenham.def	0.349661870	0.18588592	1.881056234
watford.def	0.780925968	0.16480591	4.738458411
west.ham.def	0.423367627	0.18166460	2.330490561
wimbledon.def	0.752147908	0.16636701	4.521015975

(Dispersion Parameter for Poisson family taken to be 1)

Null Deviance: 1088.126 on 760 degrees of freedom

Residual Deviance: 820.8908 on 720 degrees of freedom

**Table 3.3** S-Plus output of the Poisson regression.

Team	M	W	D	L	GF	GA	Pts	.att	.def
1. Manchester_U	38	28	7	3	97	45	91	0.29	0.30
2. Arsenal	38	22	7	9	73	43	73	0.00	0.23
3. Leeds	38	21	6	11	58	43	69	-0.23	0.22
4. Liverpool	38	19	10	9	51	30	67	-0.37	-0.15
5. Chelsea	38	18	11	9	53	34	65	-0.33	-0.02
6. Aston_Villa	38	15	13	10	46	35	58	-0.47	0.00
7. Sunderland	38	16	10	12	57	56	58	-0.24	0.48
8. Leicester	38	16	7	15	55	55	55	-0.27	0.46
9. West_Ham	38	15	10	13	52	53	55	-0.33	0.42
10. Tottenham	38	15	8	15	57	49	53	-0.24	0.35
11. Newcastle	38	14	10	14	63	54	52	-0.14	0.45
12. Middlesbrough	38	14	10	14	46	52	52	-0.45	0.40
13. Everton	38	12	14	12	59	49	50	-0.21	0.35
14. Coventry	38	12	8	18	47	54	44	-0.43	0.44
15. Southampton	38	12	8	18	45	62	44	-0.47	0.57
16. Derby	38	9	11	18	44	57	38	-0.49	0.49
17. Bradford	38	9	9	20	38	68	36	-0.63	0.66
18. Wimbledon	38	7	12	19	46	74	33	-0.43	0.75
19. Sheffield_W	38	8	7	23	38	70	31	-0.63	0.69
20. Watford	38	6	6	26	35	77	24	-0.70	0.78

**Table 3.4** Final league table of 1999-2000 season together with attack and defence parameters.

In a regular regression procedure variables with small t-values would be deleted. In our study it would not make sense, since we need to have an estimate for each team's attack and defence qualities. When we observe the final league table and the attack and defence parameters, we notice that they are closely related. Arsenal's attack parameter is set to zero as our base parameter. Among attack parameters, the larger value represents more effective attack. From Table 3.4 we see that Manchester United is the only team, which has stronger attack parameter than Arsenal. This statement is also supported by the amount of goals scored. Manchester United scored 97 goals (GF column), which is the best in the league. Among defensive parameters the smaller value means better defence. Liverpool has the best defence parameter value (-0.15), while Watford has the worst (0.78). This agrees with the league table when we observe the goals allowed (GA) column. The correlation matrix in Table 3.5 describes that there is a strong correlation between model parameters and goals scored and allowed.

\*\*\* Correlations \*\*\*

	Goals.for	Goals.allowed	Points	.att	.def
Goals.for	1.0000000	-0.4751649	0.8517034	0.9872455	-0.3705375
Goals.allowed	-0.4751649	1.0000000	-0.8056237	-0.5107841	0.9844414
Points	0.8517034	-0.8056237	1.0000000	0.8545026	-0.7387740
.att	0.9872455	-0.5107841	0.8545026	1.0000000	-0.3991579
.def	-0.3705375	0.9844414	-0.7387740	-0.3991579	1.0000000

Table 3.5 Correlation matrix of the data in Table 3.4.

### League points vs. Attack/Defence

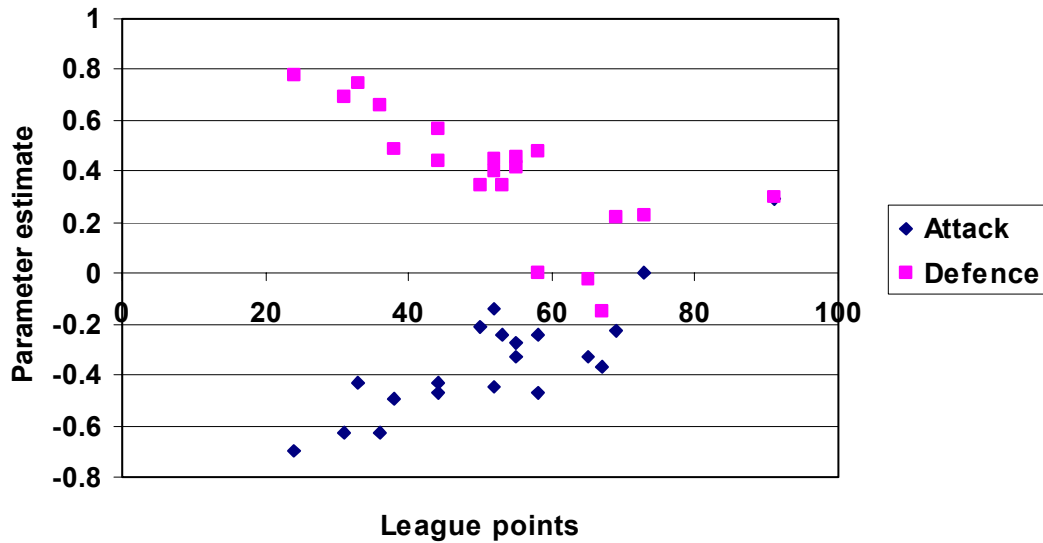


Figure 3.3 Scatter plot of attack and defence parameters vs. league points.

Our interest was to model goals and therefore we need to see how well we were able to do that. If we sum up the lambdas derived using the model and compare that to actual number of goals both home and away, we get the estimates below:

	Home goals	Away goals
Model	633	433
Actual	635	425

This table was constructed for the full 1999-2000 season dataset. It demonstrates that the Poisson model reasonably reflects some basic features of the data. That is



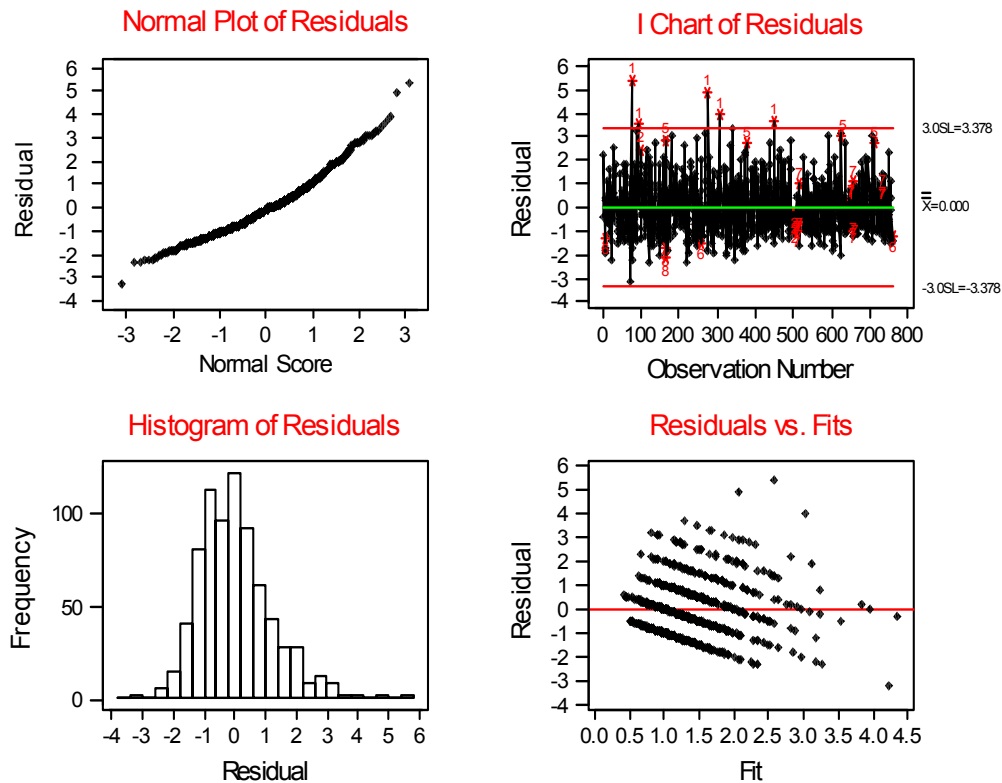
encouraging especially for correct score and spread betting purposes. In the fixed odds surroundings, we need to see how the outcome probabilities reflect the actual ones. If we calculate the average of these model probabilities over three seasons we get the following numbers:

	Model			Actual		
	1	X	2	1	X	2
99-00	.49	.23	.28	.49	.24	.27
98-99	.46	.25	.29	.45	.30	.25
97-98	.47	.24	.29	.48	.25	.27

When we compare the model to the actual values we get quite satisfactory results. In reality we do not have the whole season data available when placing the bet. We examine that problem in later sections. With the basic model we just want to prove the usefulness of the model.

The model validation in regression is normally done by observing the fitted values and the residuals from the model. For the basic model, the residual analysis done by Minitab gives the following results:

## Residual Model Diagnostics



**Figure 3.4** Minitab output of the residual analysis.

The graphs indicate that response residuals are reasonable normally distributed with few outliers. There is a risk that these few outliers may overestimate certain teams' attacking power and underestimate the opponents' defensive ability. This happens in a match where unusually many goals are scored. For instance, Sunderland achieved few heavy away victories on the first half of the season. They beat Derby 0-5 and Bradford 0-4. Those victories weighted quite heavily also later in the season. They are not significant outliers though. If the team gets beaten, let's say 10-0, we need to consider some modifications to the analysis. We now consider alternative models in order to choose the best available model for our prediction process.

### 3.2.3 Separate Home Parameter Model

The existence of a home advantage is well documented in many sports. The more comprehensive analysis on subject is found in the article by Clarke and Norman (1995). A common method to estimate home advantage is to divide the number of points accomplished at home by the total number of points received over the whole season. The result of that is given in Table 3.6 over three seasons 1996-1999. Earlier in the English league, the teams who played on the artificial ground earned a significant home advantage. These teams were QPR, Luton and Preston in the 1980's. Nowadays, artificial fields are prohibited. In our study, we want to see whether the home advantage varies significantly from team to team. Is there a need to include a separate home parameter for each team into our model?

98-99		97-98		96-97				
1	Manchester_U	0.582	1	Arsenal	0.602	1	Manchester_U	0.546
2	Arsenal	0.602	2	Manchester_U	0.558	2	Newcastle	0.617
3	Chelsea	0.560	3	Liverpool	0.630	3	Arsenal	0.514
4	Leeds	0.611	4	Chelsea	0.650	4	Liverpool	0.529
5	West_Ham	0.631	5	Leeds	0.542	5	Aston_Villa	0.622
6	Aston_Villa	0.600	6	Blackburn	0.637	6	Chelsea	0.593
7	Liverpool	0.648	7	Aston_Villa	0.526	7	Sheffield_W	0.596
8	Derby	0.596	8	West_Ham	0.767	8	Wimbledon	0.589
9	Middlesbrough	0.588	9	Derby	0.709	9	Leicester	0.553
10	Leicester	0.551	10	Leicester	0.528	10	Tottenham	0.608
11	Tottenham	0.595	11	Coventry	0.634	11	Leeds	0.608
12	Sheffield_W	0.565	12	Southampton	0.645	12	Derby	0.652
13	Newcastle	0.586	13	Newcastle	0.659	13	Blackburn	0.666
14	Everton	0.604	14	Tottenham	0.659	14	West_Ham	0.642
15	Coventry	0.714	15	Wimbledon	0.477	15	Everton	0.595
16	Wimbledon	0.666	16	Sheffield_W	0.727	16	Southampton	0.609
17	Southampton	0.756	17	Everton	0.650	17	Coventry	0.487
18	Charlton	0.527	18	Bolton	0.725	18	Sunderland	0.675
19	Blackburn	0.657	19	Barnsley	0.714	19	Middlesbrough	0.743
20	Nottingham	0.533	20	Crystal_P	0.333	20	Nottingham	0.529
	Mean	0.608		Mean	0.619		Mean	0.599
	Standard			Standard			Standard	
	Error	0.012		Error	0.022		Error	0.013
	Median	0.598		Median	0.641		Median	0.602
	Mode	#N/A		Mode	0.659		Mode	0.529
	Standard			Standard			Standard	
	Deviation	0.057		Deviation	0.101		Deviation	0.061
	Range	0.228		Range	0.434		Range	0.255
	Minimum	0.527		Minimum	0.333		Minimum	0.487
	Maximum	0.756		Maximum	0.767		Maximum	0.743

Sum	12.17	Sum	12.38	Sum	11.98
Count	20	Count	20	Count	20

**Table 3.6** The ratio of the number points accomplished at home per the total number of points over three seasons including summary statistics.

We observe that relatively high variability existed during the season 1997-1998. That is explained by Crystal Palace's performance. They received only 33% of the total points at home. This must be one of the worst records in the history of English football. Other than that, the home effect seems to be relatively constant. A Poisson regression with different home parameters was fitted with following home parameter values. The full regression output is in Table D.1 in Appendix D.

	Team	Coefficient	Ratio
1	manchester.u.home	0.1362689	0.53846
2	arsenal.home	0.3036824	0.61644
3	Leeds.home	-0.303683	0.55072
4	liverpool.home	-0.106972	0.55224
5	chelsea.home	0.361294	0.63077
6	aston.villa.home	-0.303683	0.55172
7	sunderland.home	-0.338774	0.62069
8	leicester.home	-0.047749	0.6
9	West.ham.home	0.1663202	0.69091
10	tottenham.home	0.5519839	0.62264
11	newcastle.home	0.3894649	0.67308
12	middlesbrough.home	-0.303682	0.55769
13	everton.home	0.1443425	0.6
14	coventry.home	1.1366615	0.84091
15	southampton.home	0.0099749	0.63636
16	derby.home	-0.30368	0.55263
17	bradford.home	0.4694657	0.72222
18	wimbledon.home	0.3249246	0.75758
19	sheffield.w.home	-0.092371	0.67742
20	watford.home	0.4764658	0.79167

**Table 3.7** Comparison of the model parameters and the ratio estimate of points at home and total points for season 1999-2000.

```

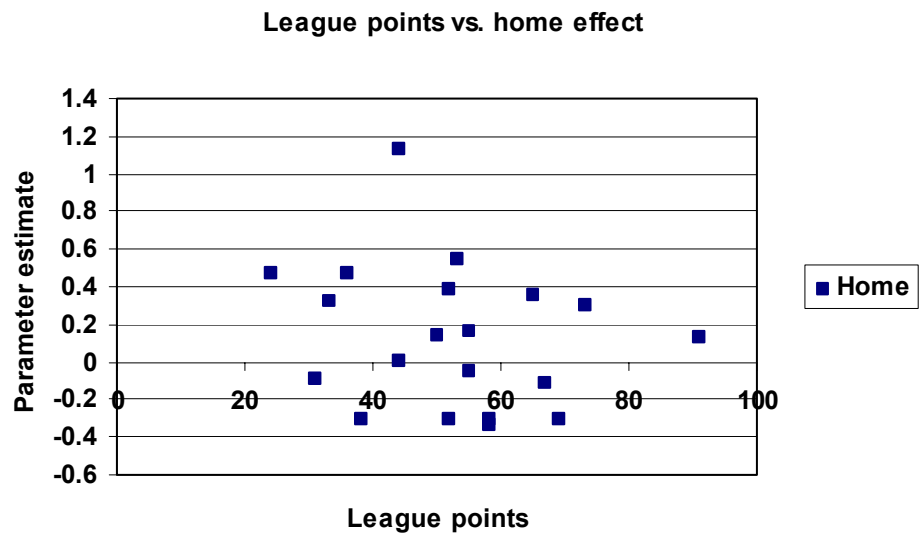
*** Correlations ***

      .home      ratio
home  1.000000  0.7717654
ratio 0.7717654 1.0000000

```

**Table 3.8** Correlation matrix of data given in Table 3.7.

We notice that the values from the model somewhat correspond to the ratio estimates. It indicates that Coventry received most of their points at home. Either they had a particularly good home advantage or they underperformed in away matches. We can observe this further by scatter plot.



**Figure 3.5** Scatter plot of league points vs. home effect.

The outlier represents Coventry’s home record. We leave the conclusion of including different home parameters to our model in Section 3.2.6.

### 3.2.4 Split Season Model

Another possibility is that the parameters change over the season. We tested this by considering a split season model. The interest is to find out whether the first half of the season is different from the second half.

From the reports in Appendix D we see how certain teams' performance varied greatly during the separate halves of the season. Sunderland, for example, did noticeably worse on the second half than on the first half. Their attack parameter decreased from  $-0.013$  to  $-0.522$  and defence parameter increased from  $0.261$  to  $0.747$ . This explains their change in position dropped heavily after Christmas. These values depend on the assumption that Arsenal's attack parameter remained constant in both halves of the season. Home effect does not seem to change that much. Complete S-Plus reports are documented in Table D.2 and D.3 in Appendix D.

### 3.2.5 Comparison among Poisson Models with Full Season Data

The comparison between two Poisson models is done by observing their residual deviances. We can also apply the log-likelihood ratio statistic as described by Bishop, Frienberg and Holland (1975):

$$D = 2[l(b_{\max}; y) - (b; y)] = 2 \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \log \frac{y_i}{e_i} \quad \text{Eq. 3.2}$$

If the model fits the data well, then for large samples  $D$  has the central chi-squared distribution with degrees of freedom given by the number of cells with non-zero observed frequencies minus the number of independent, non-zero parameters in the model. Below we have the residual deviances and the corresponding degrees of freedom between different Poisson regression models.

Model	Residual Deviance	df
Basic	820.89	720
Different home parameters	791.88	701
Separate halves	786.53	680
1 <sup>st</sup> half	392.87	340
2 <sup>nd</sup> half	393.66	340

Test of hypothesis to observe whether any significant difference exists between models was constructed. The results are below:

Model	Diff. Deviance	df	p-value
Basic vs. Different home parameters	29.01	19	0.06
Basic vs. Separate halves	34.36	40	0.72

We can conclude that the Basic model produces an adequate fit and none of the modifications above are necessary.

### 3.2.6 Odds Data and E(Score) Model

We can incorporate the odds data into our model by converting the odds to the expected scores according to the Poisson distribution. The data source for odds is [oddscomparison.com](http://oddscomparison.com) and the odds are converted to expected scores by using Excel Solver add-in. We make an assumption that the bookmaker's forecast should have the same accuracy for home and away teams. Again, following the Section 2.1 this is a simplified notation of the model.

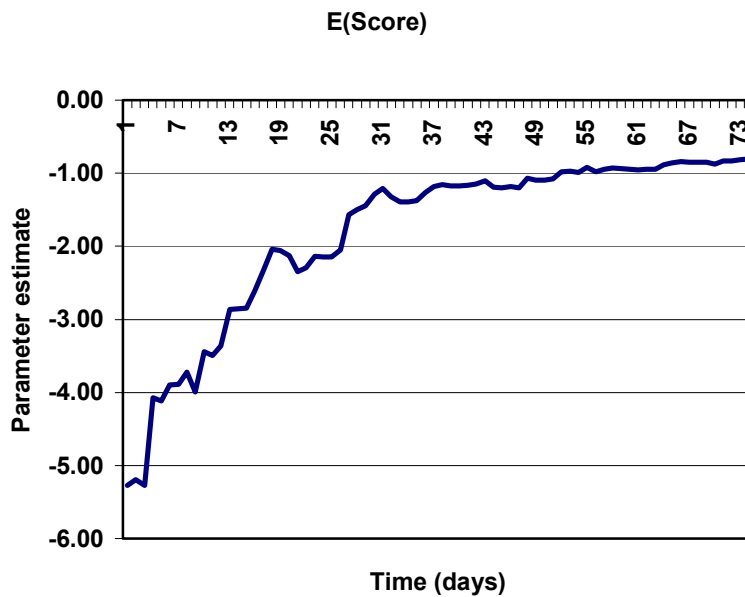
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log}(\lambda_{\text{HOME}}) &= \beta_{\text{HOME}} * z_1 + \beta_{\text{E(Score)}} * z_2 + \beta_{\text{HOMEATTACK}} * z_3 + \beta_{\text{AWAYDEFENCE}} * z_4 \\ \text{Log}(\lambda_{\text{AWAY}}) &= \beta_{\text{E(Score)}} * z_5 + \beta_{\text{AWAYATTACK}} * z_6 + \beta_{\text{HOMEDEFENCE}} * z_7 \end{aligned} \quad \text{Eq. 3.3}$$

$$\text{Log}(E(Y)) = \beta_{\text{HOME}} * z_1 + \beta_{\text{E(Score)}} * z_2 + \beta_{\text{HOMEATTACK}} * z_3 + \beta_{\text{AWAYDEFENCE}} * z_4 + \beta_{\text{E(Score)}} * z_5 + \beta_{\text{AWAYATTACK}} * z_6 + \beta_{\text{HOMEDEFENCE}} * z_7 \quad \text{Eq. 3.4}$$

where

$z_1 = 1$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team;  
 $z_2 = \text{Log}(E(\text{home score}))$  derived from the bookmaker odds if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team;  
 $z_3 = 1$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team;  
 $z_4 = 1$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team;  
 $z_5 = \text{Log}(E(\text{away score}))$  derived from the bookmaker odds if Y refers to goals scored by away team  
 $= 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team;  
 $z_6 = 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 1$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team;  
 $z_7 = 0$  if Y refers to goals scored by home team  
 $= 1$  if Y refers to goals scored by away team.

If we fit the model for the season 2000-2001 and observe how the  $\beta_{E(\text{Score})}$  parameter behaves.



**Figure 3.6** Time series for  $\beta_{E(\text{Score})}$  parameter.

$\beta_{E(\text{Score})}$  parameter seems to converge towards the value  $-0.8$ . We include this model in our comparison to find the best available Poisson model.



### 3.2.7 Poisson Correction Model

Empirical probabilities of all combinations of goals scored by home and away teams over three seasons appear in Table 3.9.

		Away goals								
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	8	
<b>Home goals</b>		36.05	35.00	17.89	7.63	2.37	0.53	0.44	0.09	
	0	25.09	10.79	7.37	4.39	1.75	0.61	0.09	0.09	0.00
	1	32.46	11.23	11.67	5.35	2.81	0.88	0.26	0.18	0.09
	2	22.81	7.19	8.95	5.00	0.88	0.44	0.18	0.18	0.00
	3	11.58	3.60	4.30	1.84	1.40	0.44	0.00	0.00	0.00
	4	5.18	1.93	1.67	0.96	0.61	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	5	1.84	1.05	0.61	0.09	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	6	0.61	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	7	0.44	0.09	0.26	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

**Table 3.9** Empirical marginal and joint probabilities for each combination of scores.

Away goals										
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	8	
				33.29	36.62	20.14	7.38	2.03	0.45	0.08
Home goals	0	21.01	6.99	7.70	4.23	1.55	0.43	0.09	0.02	0.00
	1	32.78	10.91	12.00	6.60	2.42	0.67	0.15	0.03	0.00
	2	25.57	8.51	9.36	5.15	1.88	0.52	0.11	0.02	0.00
	3	13.30	4.42	4.87	2.68	0.98	0.27	0.06	0.01	0.00
	4	5.19	1.73	1.90	1.04	0.38	0.11	0.02	0.00	0.00
	5	1.62	0.54	0.59	0.33	0.12	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00
	6	0.42	0.14	0.15	0.08	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	7	0.09	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

**Table 3.10** Estimated ratios of the joint probability and the marginal probability functions under the assumption of independence with  $\lambda_{\text{HOME}} = 1.56$  and  $\lambda_{\text{AWAY}} = 1.10$ .

We can incorporate the Poisson and dependence correction to our model in an ad hoc way by multiplying each cell by the ratio of the empirical and average model values from the above tables in the following way.

$$PoissonCorrection(i, j) = \frac{Empirical(i, j)}{AvgModel(i, j)} * Model(i, j) \quad \text{Eq.3.5}$$

where

Empirical(i,j) = value from Table 3.9

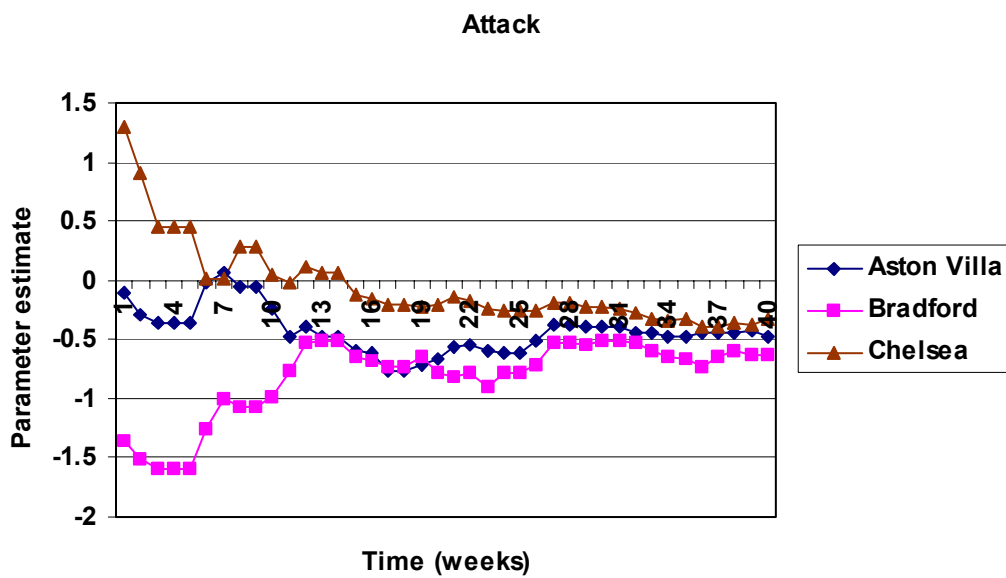
AvgModel(i,j) = value from Table 3.10

Model(i,j) = value from the model

PoissonCorrection(i,j) = corrected value

### 3.2.8 Weighted Model

To place more emphasis on more recent matches we consider weighted model. That could be useful in order to give better information about the teams' current forms. The week-by-week fitted time series charts show how the betas for particular teams vary over the season. It also shows how the home effect remains nearly constant.



**Figure 3.7** Time series of the maximum likelihood estimates of attack parameters for Aston Villa, Bradford and Chelsea.

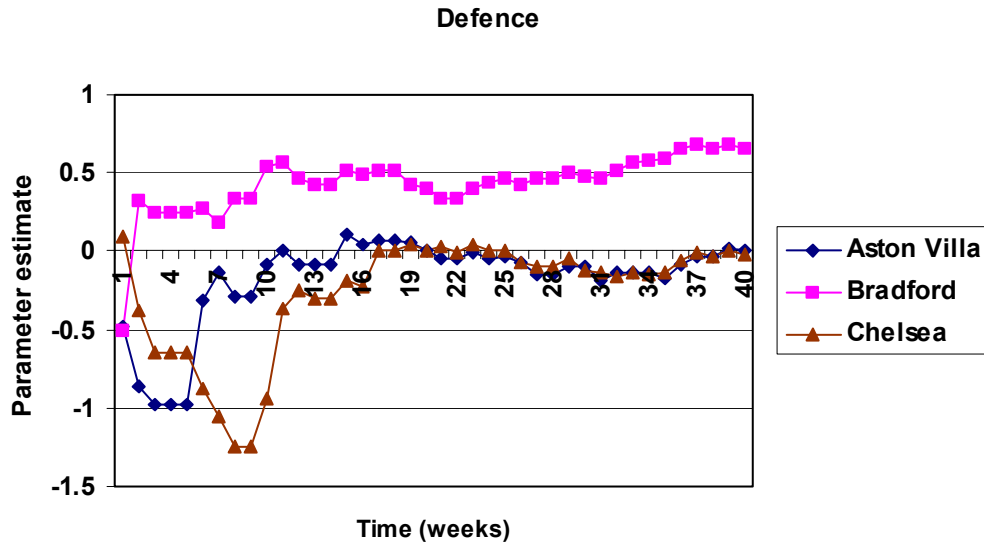


Figure 3.8 Time series of the maximum likelihood estimates of defence parameters for Aston Villa, Bradford and Chelsea.

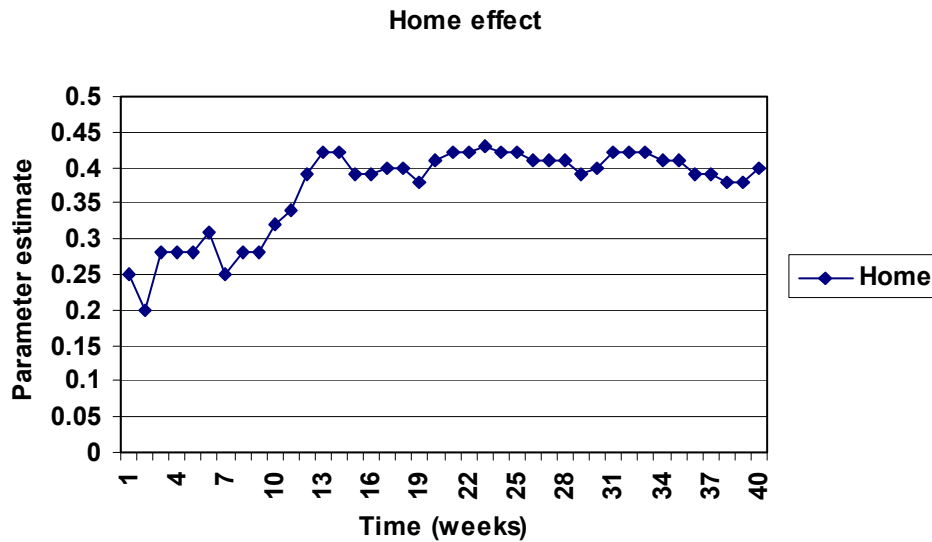


Figure 3.9 Time series of the maximum likelihood estimate of home parameter.

These charts were constructed on a week-by-week updating scheme. Attack and defence charts were done for three teams in the Premiership season 1999-2000: Aston Villa, Bradford and Chelsea. It indicates that in the first few weeks of the

season the parameters are highly variable. After approximately 10 weeks of the season, parameters start to stabilize, because more data is available. The home effect behaves in a similar manner, but with less variation than attack and defence parameters. We conclude that the basic model in this format is useful after the 10<sup>th</sup> week of the season. In order to estimate the early weeks of the season, we could apply expert opinions, which are derived from odds data. That aspect is described later in this chapter.

The definition of a weight function is discussed in the article published by Dixon and Coles, where they suggested the exponential weight function. We suggest that half normal distribution could be better to emphasize the most recent results even more heavily.

$$\textit{WeightFunction} = \exp(a * (t - t_0)^2) \quad \text{Eq. 3.6}$$

where a = half normal distribution parameter, t = particular day of the season and t<sub>0</sub> = starting day of the season. The weighted regression output run for the full season dataset is documented in Table D.4 in Appendix D.

The parameter estimation for our half normal distribution is not straightforward. From Table 3.11 we selected a value -0.000007 for our weight function parameter after trial and error.

**Weight parameter Deviance**

-0.0005	900.89
-0.00005	833.83
-0.00003	826.17
-0.00002	822.06
-0.00001	819.43
-0.000009	819.32
<b>-0.000007</b>	<b>819.27</b>
-0.000006	819.33
-0.000005	819.43

**Table 3.11** The trial and error results for the weight parameter.

In the next section, we make a comparison between the weighted regression and unweighted regression to see whether we get any improvement with weighting.

### 3.3 Comparison among Poisson Models Week-by-week

Because the dataset is constantly changing, due to the new matches, we do not have the whole season dataset when placing a bet. Therefore, the basic model for the full season data gives the better results than in reality it would be possible. We can only include the matches played up to the present date. If we calculate the average of these model probabilities over three seasons by updating the data on a week-by-week basis, we get the following numbers:

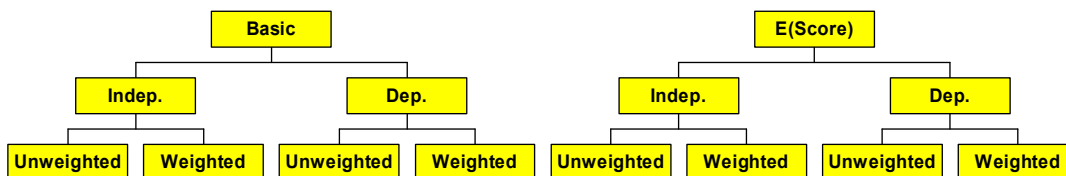
	1	X	2
99-00	.49	.23	.28
98-99	.45	.26	.29
97-98	.47	.24	.29

This compared to the actual average probabilities of these seasons, which are:

	1	X	2
99-00	.49	.24	.27
98-99	.45	.30	.25
97-98	.48	.25	.27

Here we see that the fit of the model looks at least adequate in an average sense. One weakness is that the probability of a draw is a little bit underestimated and the away win overestimated. This is mainly due to the Poisson assumption. In order to adjust that, it is possible to use methods of Dixon and Coles or the Poisson Correction method described in Section 3.2.7. By running the regression on a week-by-week basis, we get approximately 40 different regression outputs. Thus, comparison of residual deviances to alternative models is not straightforward. The graph below describes the Poisson models we chose for closer look.

### Poisson Models



**Figure 3.10** Description of alternative Poisson models.

To assess the prediction quality in an average sense, we use sum up the predicted probabilities of actual outcomes  $\Sigma P(\text{actual})$  as our point estimate. We also want to include the probabilities derived and scaled from Centrebet's odds in our comparison. The probabilities were calculated based on English Premier League 2000-2001 season (November-February).

Model	$\Sigma P(\text{actual})$
Basic&Indep&Unweight	64.64214
Basic&Indep&Weighted	64.66348
Basic&Dep&Unweighted	64.71488
Basic&Dep&Weighted	64.74472
E(Score)&Indep&Unweighted	64.76817
E(Score)&Indep&Weighted	64.78284
E(Score)&Dep&Unweighted	64.82108
E(Score)&Dep&Weighted	64.84416
Centrebet	61.86474

This shows that all the models are essentially equally good. An encouraging thing is that all Poisson point estimates are better than the ones estimated based on Centrebet's odds.

### 3.4 Elo Ratings

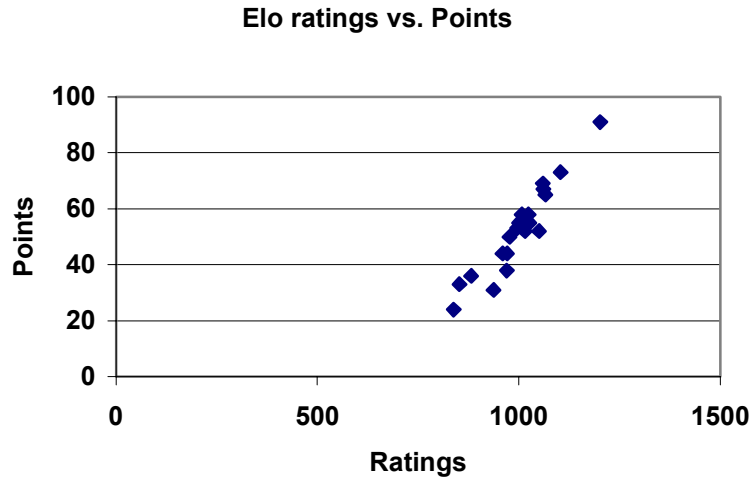
Final Elo rating parameters are provided below with initial value 1000 at the start of the season. Parameters are updated as described in Section 2.2.1.

Team	Rating
Manchester_U	1202.093
Arsenal	1103.296
Chelsea	1066.261
Liverpool	1060.915
Leeds	1059.743
Newcastle	1050.163
Leicester	1026.44
Aston_Villa	1024.33
Middlesbrough	1015.735
Sunderland	1007.609
West_Ham	1000.251
Tottenham	995.1722
Everton	976.8362
Coventry	971.1789
Derby	969.7282
Southampton	959.9623
Sheffield_W	937.5447
Bradford	881.6131
Wimbledon	852.7619



**Table 3.12** Elo rating parameters after the season 1999-2000.

The parameters in Table 3.12 fairly well describe the final league table. Sheffield Wednesday seemed to be a better team than their position in the league table indicates according to the Elo ratings.

**Figure 3.11** Scatter plot of Elo ratings vs. league points.

The Figure 3.11 shows that there exist a correlation between Elo ratings and the league points. We make a comparison between Elo and other approaches in Section 3.5.

### 3.5 Multinomial Ordered Probit Model

The estimates from the probit model for the whole 1999-2000 season data are provided below:

Team	Rating
Manchester U	0.526
Leeds	-0.10804
Liverpool	-0.12414
Chelsea	-0.17516
Aston Villa	-0.32989
Sunderland	-0.35387
West Ham	-0.42588
Leicester	-0.46225
Everton	-0.50042
Newcastle	-0.50277
Middlesbrough	-0.52043
Tottenham	-0.52741
Southampton	-0.71523
Coventry	-0.73669
Derby	-0.84377
Wimbledon	-0.92459
Bradford	-0.95624
Sheffield W	-1.10025
Watford	-1.34273
_cut1	-0.72516
_cut2	0.029611

**Table 3.13** Ordered probit rating parameters after the season 1999-2000.

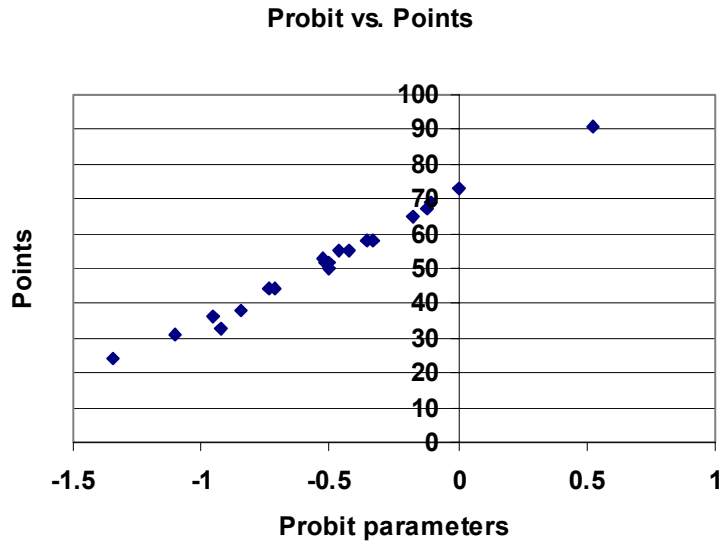


Figure 3.12 Scatter plot of probit parameters vs. league points.

For the whole season data the probit parameters are very consistent with the league points as seen in the Figure 3.12.

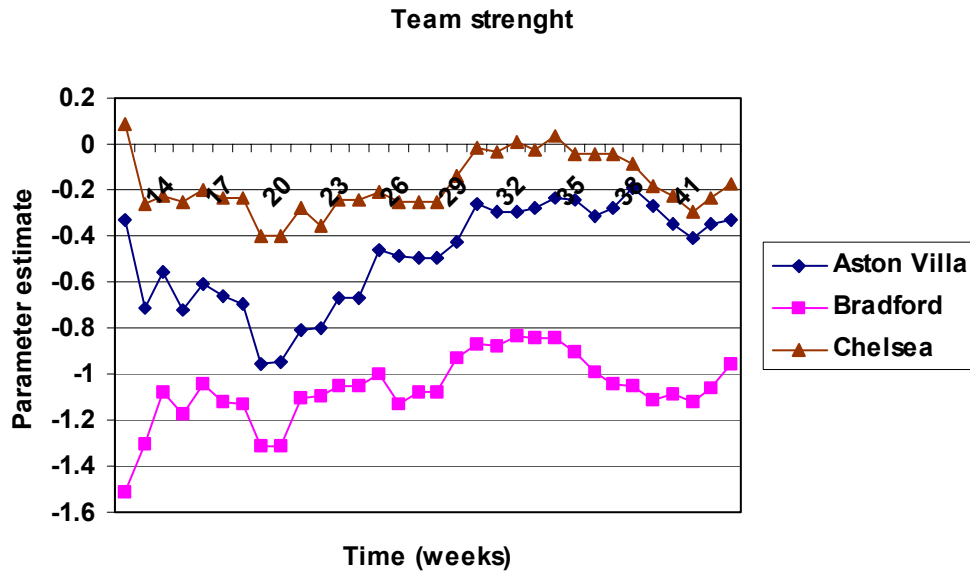


Figure 3.13 Time series of the maximum likelihood estimates of team strength for Aston Villa, Bradford and Chelsea.

In Figure 3.13, the week-by-week time series chart shows how parameters for particular teams vary over the season. In the next section, we make a comparison between probit and other approaches.

### 3.6 Comparison of Approaches

Next step is to compare the alternative prediction approaches to the best Poisson regression model (E(Score)&Dep&Weighted in Section 3.3). Elo ratings are updated week-by-week. Thus, we want to use the week-by-week Poisson and probit model in comparison. Our point estimate for the comparison is the same as before, i.e. the sum of the probabilities of the correct outcomes. Now, our comparison is based on English Premier League 1999-2000 season (November-May). The table below presents the results obtained by using three different approaches in prediction:

Model	$\sum P(\text{correct})$
Poisson	102.4316
Probit	105.4185
Elo	96.3732

We notice that probit gives the best estimates and Elo the worst. However, we use Poisson as it is much more versatile than probit. Probit fits well to fixed odds betting whereas Poisson can be applied to almost all kinds of betting. That is the main reason why we establish a betting strategy based on Poisson. Also, the software for fitting the multinomial ordered probit model was not generally available.

## Chapter 4

### 4 Betting Strategy and Model Validation

#### 4.1 Value Betting

A person who wants make money in sports betting needs to look for odds that contradict with his/her own probability estimates for a sporting event. This is strictly mathematical approach to betting. You do not necessarily need to believe in the team you put your money on. As long as the odds presented are better than the purely mathematical chance of winning the match, it is a value bet. If you think that the team has got a 50% chance of winning the match, odds above 2.0 represent the value. If you think the team has only 40% chance, it is no longer a value bet. Objects with good value are objects, which will give you a positive payoff over time. The formula for finding an object value is:

$$\frac{\text{Odds} * \text{Percentage}}{100} = r \quad \text{Eq. 4.1}$$

where  $r \geq 1.0$

If the result of the above calculation is a number greater than 1.0, then in theory it is a value bet. Odds are an inverse of the bookmaker's estimated probability of an event to occur. For example, if the odds for a single match are 1.80/3.40/3.50, then the corresponding probabilities are 0.56, 0.29, 0.29, respectively. These sum up to 1.14. This is explained by the in-built take that the bookmaker has in order to run the profitable business as described earlier.

The Eq. 4.1 raises the question what threshold should be chosen for  $r$ . There is no direct way to find an optimal value but we investigate that closer in Section 4.4.

## **4.2 Betting Strategy**

The bookmaker can afford to make slight mistakes and still set odds, which are in the range that ensure some return. Due to the huge number of matches and events the bookmakers are dealing with and the volatility of the betting market, it is impossible for them to avoid mistakes. Some of the mistakes are intentional and some of them are unintentional.

The intentional mistakes are the ones where the bookmaker is fully aware that the odds do not reflect to the outcome of the match, but they reflect to the betting volume. Bookmakers thus take an advantage of punters' illogical behaviour. These types of mistakes occur most often in international matches where patriotism plays a critical role. The effect of mass psychology is also emphasized in pari-mutuel betting, where the odds are derived based on the bets placed.

The unintentional mistakes are the ones that arise from human errors. The bookmaker has not taken into account a single factor that has a significant effect on the outcome of the event, for example motivation, an injury of the key player. The punters constantly need to look for either one of these mistakes, and when they find one, they need to place such a stake that will maximize their profit taken into account the risk attached.

## **4.3 Money Management**

The central problem for a punter is to find a positive expectation bets. But the punter must also know how much to invest for each betting opportunity. In the stock market the problem is similar but more complex. The punter, who is now

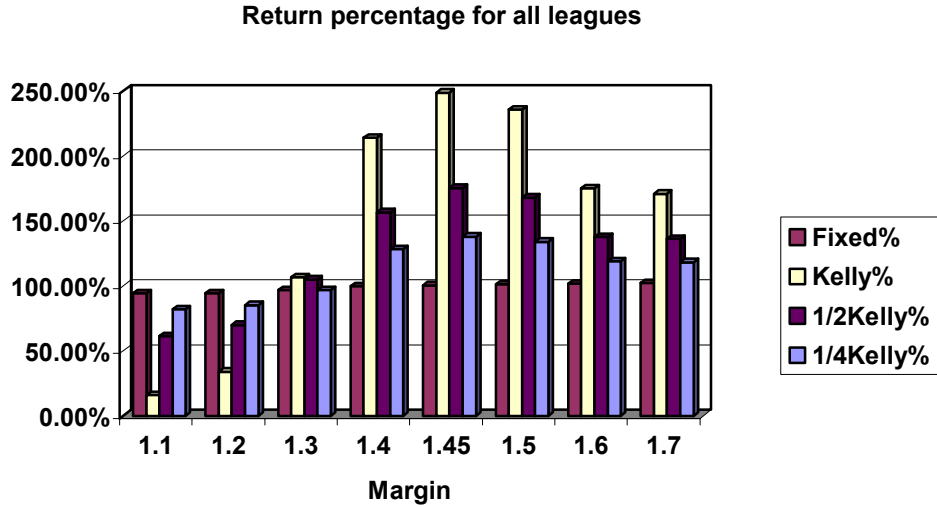
an investor, looks for excess risk adjusted return. In both these settings, the use of Kelly criterion is worth closer look. It maximizes the expected value of the logarithm of growth. In Chapter 2, we stated that Kelly criterion was the best betting strategy to use. We now want to examine how it works in practice.

#### 4.4 Validation on Existing Data

Bookmakers' odds for the season 2000-2001 were obtained from the web site oddscomparison.com. After the tenth week of the season, we picked the matches where  $r$  in Eq. 4.1 is greater than 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, 1.45, 1.5, 1.6 and 1.7. We also excluded the last month of the season, because it was found that the model predictions were poor, possibly due to the end of season effects (motivational). We want to emphasize that this validation is done week-by-week, and is thus comparable to the real-life situation. We consider fixed stake, Kelly criterion,  $\frac{1}{2}$  Kelly and  $\frac{1}{4}$  Kelly as our money management strategy and see whether our bankroll ends up with the positive return. The bookmaker we consider is Centrebet. The company operates in Australia and accepts single bets. The theoretical return percentage is around 90 %. We focus on the main leagues in Europe: English Premier League, Division 1, Division 2, Division 3, Italian Serie A, Spanish Primera Liga and German Bundesliga. Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 show how the return percentage varies with different margins and staking strategies.

Margin	Fixed%	Kelly%	1/2Kelly%	1/4Kelly%	# of bets
1.1	94.23%	15.95%	61.49%	81.93%	712
1.2	94.44%	34.03%	70.05%	85.26%	346
1.3	96.84%	106.74%	105.02%	96.75%	174
1.4	99.63%	213.85%	156.68%	128.27%	87
<b>1.45</b>	<b>100.53%</b>	<b>248.74%</b>	<b>175.36%</b>	<b>137.88%</b>	<b>72</b>
1.5	101.09%	235.71%	167.97%	134.01%	51
1.6	101.67%	175.13%	137.65%	118.85%	28
1.7	102.07%	170.87%	136.05%	118.15%	23

**Table 4.1** Betting statistics with different margins for all leagues in the study.



**Figure 4.1** Graphical interpretation of the results for all leagues.

Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 were constructed for all leagues mentioned earlier. The optimal margin is at 1.45, and the full Kelly criterion is the most profitable money management strategy. The last column, the number of bets placed, shows that in a profitable betting strategy, the value betting opportunities occur quite rarely. Table 3.2 gives the details of return percentages among different leagues.

	Margin	Fixed%	Kelly%	1/2Kelly%	1/4Kelly%	# of bets
<b>Premier</b>	1.45	116.35%	517.51%	308.76%	204.38%	10
<b>Division1</b>	1.45	115.10%	994.51%	547.26%	323.63%	9
<b>Division2</b>	1.45	96.35%	28.05%	64.03%	82.01%	11
<b>Division3</b>	1.45	100.50%	58.70%	79.35%	89.67%	6
<b>BundesLiga</b>	1.45	99.75%	132.87%	116.44%	108.22%	5
<b>SerieA</b>	1.45	88.75%	4.84%	52.42%	76.21%	18
<b>PrimeraLiga</b>	1.45	86.90%	4.69%	59.29%	81.03%	13

**Table 4.2** Betting statistics among different leagues.

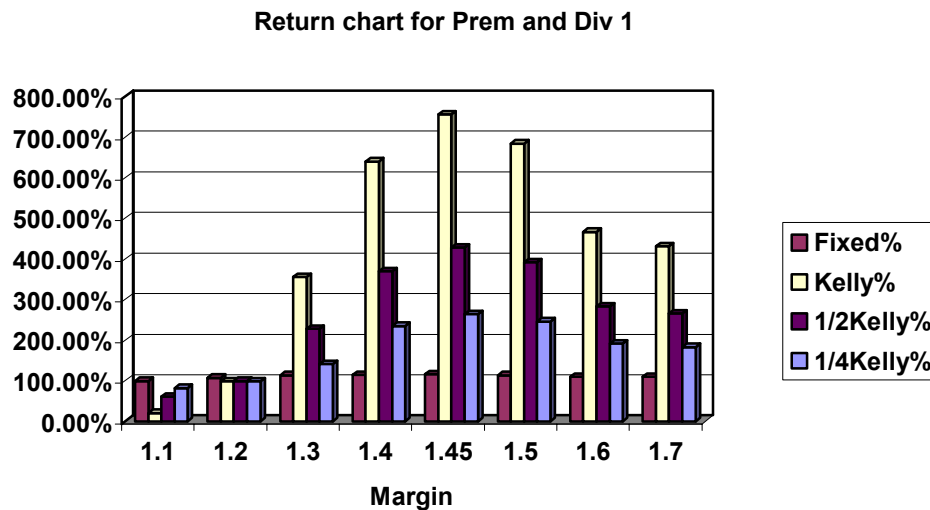
We notice that English Premier League and Division One would have given the best returns, whereas betting on Italian Serie A and Spanish Primera Liga we would have lost money. The number of bets seems relatively large in Italian Serie



A compared to other leagues. Italian football has a very defence oriented tradition, and the Poisson approach might not be as suitable for Serie A's low scoring matches. Because English Premier League and Division One gave us significantly highest returns, we want to investigate these two leagues more closely in Table 4.3 and Figure 4.2.

Margin	Fixed%	Kelly%	1/2Kelly%	1/4Kelly%	# of bets
1.1	99.21%	20.81%	60.40%	82.32%	217
1.2	107.15%	98.38%	99.19%	98.28%	95
1.3	113.38%	355.15%	227.58%	141.41%	49
1.4	114.48%	639.70%	369.85%	234.92%	24
<b>1.45</b>	<b>115.73%</b>	<b>756.01%</b>	<b>428.01%</b>	<b>264.00%</b>	<b>19</b>
1.5	113.68%	684.19%	392.09%	246.05%	15
1.6	109.58%	466.35%	283.18%	191.59%	9
1.7	109.50%	431.47%	265.74%	182.87%	7

**Table 4.3** Betting statistics with different margins for English Premier League and Division 1.



**Figure 4.2** Graphical interpretation of the results for English Premier League and Division 1.

These above charts agree that the best margin is found at the value 1.45. We could investigate the optimal time varying value of the margin in a more sophisticated manner than trial and error, but we leave it for further work.

The results of this betting simulation are fairly encouraging considering the fact that the return percentages at their best climbed as high as 750 %. Variation in the return percentages among different leagues is noticeable and needs further analysis. However, the idea of earning significant profits based on this betting strategy is very interesting.

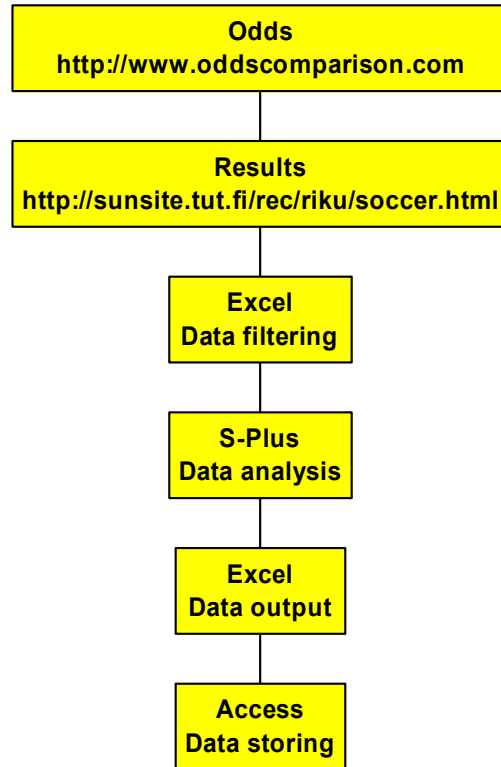
## **Chapter 5**

### **5 Discussion**

#### **5.1 Implementation of the System**

During the research, we were forced to automate the whole process in order to minimize the time spent in results/odds updating. Initially the data was just copied and pasted between Excel and S-Plus, but as I got more into writing Visual Basic macros, it enabled us to leave out all the unnecessary tasks and improved the efficiency tremendously. Of course, we could have done everything in S-Plus, but because the data manipulation is currently user-friendlier in Excel, we decided to apply both of these programs. Also, retrieving external data by web queries was very handy in Excel. However, by learning to manipulate data effectively in a matrix form makes S-Plus probably superior to Excel. Figure 5.1 describes the final automation process. Personally, I want to emphasize that the customization was non-trivial and it was an integral part of the success of the project. Learning how to make custom solutions with MS Office components and interacting with various applications was one of the most rewarding experiences of this project. The Visual Basic code is not included in the Appendix because of the potential market value it may contain.

## Data Flow



**Figure 5.1** Implementation data flow of the components involved.

Data storing component is optional and we only used Excel for that. For professional punting, though, it would be very important to keep track on one's progress and without proper data storing it is not possible. It is also necessary in further development of the system.

## 5.2 Applications of the System

The system has several applications both from bookmaker's and punter's point of views. We take a closer look at both of these in the following.

### **5.2.1 Bookmaker's Point of View**

The risk management will play more and more crucial role, as the sports betting becomes more interactive and the competition accelerates. Better tools need to be developed in order to avoid setbacks in the market. Even though, the sports betting industry has tremendously increased in recent years, still quite a few bookmakers are applying rather non-scientific methods in determining the odds for various sporting events.

In order to set the betting distribution evenly, it is not all about predicting the outcome. For example, a common habit among the punters is to play the superior team. Teams, such as Manchester United, receive very low odds because punters want to win as often as possible. It is vital to take these factors into account when determining the final price.

A statistically proper system that predicts probabilities with reasonable accuracy and also monitors the betting distribution is a vital tool for them as more and more matches need to be covered and more attractive prices need to be compiled. The system would immediately notice if the distribution is unbalanced, and the odds do not reflect the punters' opinion. It would also warn the operator of possible risky situation involving professional punters.

As a result of this, the bookmaker can offer more accurate odds, which allows them to increase the theoretical return percentage to the punters and thus be more competitive in the market.

### **5.2.2 Punter's Point of View**

Some people consider betting systems as a well-organized way to lose money. Others believe there is a system that will ultimately make their dreams come true. The basic principle in profitable betting is that you can only win in the long run

by consistently trading when the odds are on your side. There are several things that need to be considered, though. Doing the research does not need to make sports betting boring. In fact, when the result goes your way, it makes it even more satisfying. Conversely, the result that defies logic and goes against all your reasoning may be infuriating, but it may also teach you where you are doing something wrong and sharpen your technique.

The vast majority of punters has always, and will always lose money. What is needed the most is the confidence to back one's own judgment ahead of everyone else's. The punters can take an advantage of bookmakers' inadequate risk management. In this study, we have validated that opportunities for profitable betting exist and created a system, which monitors and notifies the user if the odds for an event determined by the bookmaker do not reflect the true odds for that particular event. With this system we demonstrated that the return could lead up to 650 % profit.

## **Chapter 6**

### **6 Summary and Future Work**

#### **6.1 Summary**

The models we have proposed here have proven to be useful in the gaming market. We investigated the benefits of using the Poisson model from bookmaker's and punter's point of views and concluded that it would have potential to improve both of their performance. During the upcoming years when majority of government licensed sports books make their transition from online terminals into the Internet, the competition will increase. Also, the dilemma of government licensed sports books vs. offshore sports books will bring more emphasis on risk management in the gaming business. According to market research studies, the sports betting will have an increasing entertainment value among people with the penetration of new technology. Punters are interested in the system that would increase their return on investment and operators on the other hand need to pay closer attention on risk management. Thus, a tool that is capable of doing that must have a market value.

#### **6.2 Future Work**

Many things could be considered in the search of getting more accurate probability estimates for sporting events. The main thing is to determine which ones are really worth closer numerical analysis. Injuries, suspensions and weather conditions certainly have an effect on the outcome of the match. We consider few possible improvements of the model in the following.

## 6.2.1 Residual Correction

One thing that we have not discussed in the thesis is residual correction. In Jay Bennett's book *Statistics in Sport* (1998), Pjotr Janmaat implemented exponential smoothing factor into Maher's original model

$$z_i^{k+1} = ha_i^k * ad_j^k - aa_j^k * ad_i^k \quad \text{Eq. 6.1}$$

To update  $ha$ , for example,

$$ha_i^k = ha_i^{k-1} * (1 + (factor/2) * correction^k) \quad \text{Eq. 6.2}$$

The correction in Eq. 6.2 equals predicted minus actual home goals divided by predicted home goals. A similar equation updates the other parameters. The home team's home parameters and away team's away parameters are adjusted using an average factor 0.16. The home team's away parameters and the away team's home parameters are adjusted with an average factor 0.055, selected empirically. This correction method sounds a little ad hoc and we leave it for further work.

## 6.2.2 Other Types of Betting

So far we have mostly focused on fixed odds betting. Poisson model is also very interesting in Asian handicap and spread betting, because it predicts the expected number of goals scored by both teams. In Table 5.1 we see the output of the Excel worksheet, which can be applied to Asian Handicap betting.



Date	Home	Away	H	A	Asian Hcap	OddsH	OddsA
14/4/2001	West Ham	Derby	3	1	-1 ¼	2.064	1.939
14/4/2001	Sunderland	Tottenham	2	3	- ½	2.058	1.945
14/4/2001	Manchester U	Coventry	4	2	-1 ¾	1.389	3.570
14/4/2001	Leicester	Manchester C	1	2	-1	2.071	1.933
14/4/2001	Ipswich	Newcastle	1	0	- ¾	2.058	1.944
14/4/2001	Chelsea	Southampton	1	0	-1 ¼	2.012	1.988
14/4/2001	Aston Villa	Everton	2	1	- ¾	1.905	2.104
14/4/2001	Arsenal	Middlesbrough	0	3	-1	2.081	1.924
13/4/2001	Liverpool	Leeds	1	2	-1 ¼	2.080	1.925
13/4/2001	Bradford	Charlton	2	0	¼	1.798	2.251
11/4/2001	Manchester C	Arsenal	0	4	¾	1.564	2.771
10/4/2001	Tottenham	Bradford	2	1	-1 ¼	1.949	2.053
10/4/2001	Manchester U	Charlton	2	1	-1 ¾	1.487	3.052
10/4/2001	Ipswich	Liverpool	1	1	¼	1.980	2.01
9/4/2001	Middlesbrough	Sunderland	0	0	- ¼	2.011	1.988
8/4/2001	Everton	Manchester C	3	1	- ¾	1.974	2.025
7/4/2001	Aston Villa	West Ham	2	2	- ¾	2.113	1.898
7/4/2001	Leicester	Coventry	1	3	-1 ¼	2.092	1.914
7/4/2001	Leeds	Southampton	2	0	-1	1.968	2.032
7/4/2001	Derby	Chelsea	0	4	¾	1.568	2.758
4/4/2001	Aston Villa	Leicester	2	1	- ½	1.940	2.063
2/4/2001	Southampton	Ipswich	0	3	- ¼	2.065	1.938
1/4/2001	Charlton	Leicester	2	0	- ¼	2.126	1.887

**Table 5.1** The Excel output of the Asian Handicap probabilities based on the model.

Here H = home goals and A = away goals. The Asian Handicap (Asian Hcap), and the odds with the handicap (OddsH, OddsA) were obtained based on the model with implemented program described in Section 5.1. We were not able to collect Asian Handicap odds in order to compare those to our model estimates. With the above we just want to demonstrate the versatility of Poisson model in different types of betting. In Table 5.2 we see the similar output of the Excel worksheet, which can be applied to spread betting.

Date	Home	Away	H	A	E(H)	E(A)	E(BH)	E(BA)
14/4/2001	West Ham	Derby	3	1	1.907	0.737	1.363	0.852
14/4/2001	Sunderland	Tottenham	2	3	1.370	0.932	1.405	0.787
14/4/2001	Manchester U	Coventry	4	2	3.706	0.503	1.961	0.489
14/4/2001	Leicester	Manchester C	1	2	1.774	0.859	1.455	0.827
14/4/2001	Ipswich	Newcastle	1	0	1.644	0.962	1.525	0.785
14/4/2001	Chelsea	Southampton	1	0	2.119	0.885	1.666	0.558
14/4/2001	Aston Villa	Everton	2	1	1.620	0.755	1.424	0.858
14/4/2001	Arsenal	Middlesbrough	0	3	1.563	0.655	1.867	0.640
13/4/2001	Liverpool	Leeds	1	2	1.965	0.816	1.349	1.032
13/4/2001	Bradford	Charlton	2	0	0.991	1.312	1.171	1.262
11/4/2001	Manchester C	Arsenal	0	4	0.884	1.714	0.858	1.424
10/4/2001	Tottenham	Bradford	2	1	1.998	0.681	1.679	0.637
10/4/2001	Manchester U	Charlton	2	1	3.248	0.433	1.966	0.663
10/4/2001	Ipswich	Liverpool	1	1	1.357	1.336	1.107	1.066
9/4/2001	Middlesbrough	Sunderland	0	0	1.002	0.763	1.206	1.177
8/4/2001	Everton	Manchester C	3	1	1.755	0.974	1.392	0.821
7/4/2001	Aston Villa	West Ham	2	2	1.419	0.790	1.397	0.769
7/4/2001	Leicester	Coventry	1	3	1.688	0.546	1.528	0.914
7/4/2001	Leeds	Southampton	2	0	2.019	0.978	1.507	0.569
7/4/2001	Derby	Chelsea	0	4	0.976	1.772	1.148	1.162
4/4/2001	Aston Villa	Leicester	2	1	1.254	0.690	1.322	0.852
2/4/2001	Southampton	Ipswich	0	3	1.199	1.015	1.272	1.058
1/4/2001	Charlton	Leicester	2	0	1.160	1.034	1.320	0.997

**Table 5.2** The Excel output of the model E(Score) vs. bookmaker E(Score).

Here H = home goals and A = away goals. E(H) and E(A) are predicted goals from the model. E(BH) and E(BA) are Centrebet's expected number of home and away goals derived based on the Poisson assumption. The above output could be applied to the Total Goals and the Supremacy bets in the spread betting market.

For example, in Total Goals betting our point estimate in the match West Ham-Derby is  $E(\text{West Ham})+E(\text{Derby}) = 1.907 + 0.737 = 2.644$ . If the spread betting company would offer the spread 1.9 - 2.1 we would definitely consider this as a value bet opportunity.

This is another example of the versatility of the Poisson model. We leave the analysis of profitable betting in Asian Handicap and spread betting for further work.

### **6.2.3 Bayesian Framework**

Due to the fluctuation in the leagues, sometimes there is not enough data for the classical frequentist approach. Similar setting arises in cup matches and international tournaments. Therefore, the use of various simulation methods could be beneficial in these types of occasions. The prior information for simulation could be obtained from the expert opinions.

At least two articles are written where Bayesian approach is incorporated into the model to predict result in sporting events. One was done by Håvard Rue and Öyvind Salvesen where they applied a Bayesian dynamic generalized linear model in order to predict next weekend's football matches. They applied Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) technique to generate dependent samples from the posterior density. They also applied Brownian motion to take into account the time varying properties of attack and defence parameters. A similar study was conducted for American football by Glickman and Stern (1998). We do not consider Bayesian approach in terms of this thesis any further, but foresee it as an interesting topic for future work.

## Appendices

### Appendix A

Odds	Dividend	%	Odds	Dividend	%	Odds	Dividend	%
1/10	1.10	91	16/10	2.60	38	12/1	13.00	8
1/8	1.13	89	18/10	2.80	36	14/1	15.00	7
1/7	1.14	88	2/1	3.00	33	15/1	16.00	6
1/6	1.17	86	22/10	3.20	31	16/1	17.00	6
1/5	1.20	83	25/10	3.50	29	20/1	21.00	5
1/4	1.25	80	28/10	3.80	26	25/1	26.00	4
2/7	1.29	78	3/1	4.00	25	30/1	31.00	3
1/3	1.33	75	32/10	4.20	24	33/1	34.00	3
4/10	1.40	71	35/10	4.50	22	40/1	41.00	2
4/9	1.45	69	4/1	5.00	20	50/1	51.00	2
1/2	1.50	67	45/10	5.50	18	60/1	61.00	2
6/10	1.60	63	5/1	6.00	17	80/1	81.00	1
7/10	1.70	59	55/10	6.50	15	100/1	101.00	1
8/10	1.80	56	6/1	7.00	14	150/1	151.00	1
9/10	1.90	53	65/10	7.50	13	200/1	201.00	-
EVEN	2.00	50	7/1	8.00	12	250/1	251.00	-
11/10	2.10	48	8/1	9.00	11	300/1	301.00	-
12/10	2.20	46	9/1	10.00	10	400/1	401.00	-
14/10	2.40	42	10/1	11.00	9	500/1	501.00	-
15/10	2.50	40	11/1	12.00	8	-	-	-

## Appendix B

### Result calculation:

The table shows the winning/losing percentages. "No bet" means that the stake will be refunded.

-	Home	Away	Home	Away	Home	Away	Home	Away	Home	Away
<b>Handicaps</b>	0	0	0	¼	0	½	0	¾	0	1
<b>Result</b>	-		-		-		-		-	
0 : 0	no bets		-50%	+50%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%
1 : 0	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+50%	-50%	no bets	
0 : 1	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%
2 : 0	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%
3 : 0	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%

-	Home	Away	Home	Away	Home	Away	Home	Away	Home	Away
<b>Handicaps</b>	0	1¼	0	1½	0	1¾	0	2	0	2¼
<b>Result</b>	-		-		-		-		-	
0 : 0	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%
1 : 0	-50%	+50%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%
0 : 1	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%
2 : 0	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+50%	-50%	no bets		-50%	+50%
3 : 0	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%	+100%	-100%

## Appendix C

System	Final bankroll				Number of seasons final bankroll was: (starting with \$1000)								
	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Bankrupt	>\$2	>\$250	>\$500	>\$1000	>\$5000	>\$10000	>\$50000	>\$100000
<b>Kelly</b>	18	453883	48135	17269	0	1000	957	916	870	692	598	302	166
½Kelly	145	111770	13069	8043	0	1000	999	990	954	654	430	430	1
<b>Fixed:</b>													
<b>\$10</b>	307	3067	1861	1857	0	1000	1000	999	980	0	0	0	0
<b>\$20</b>	0	5377	2824	2822	9	991	990	988	978	9	0	0	0
<b>\$30</b>	0	7682	3739	3770	36	964	963	962	957	191	0	0	0
<b>\$40</b>	0	9986	4495	4685	94	906	906	906	904	432	0	0	0
<b>\$50</b>	0	12282	5213	5526	134	866	866	866	864	584	33	0	0
<b>\$100</b>	0	23747	7637	8722	349	651	651	651	651	613	425	0	0
<b>Proportional:</b>													
<b>1%</b>	435	8469	2535	2270	0	1000	1000	999	965	43	0	0	0
<b>2%</b>	173	57087	6628	4360	0	1000	999	991	940	443	180	7	0
<b>3%</b>	65	243281	15343	6799	0	1000	994	973	919	592	396	65	18
<b>4%</b>	49	483355	26202	8669	0	1000	979	935	882	627	459	146	61
<b>5%</b>	38	548382	32415	8970	0	1000	941	899	841	609	475	179	90
<b>10%</b>	18	364587	13662	602	0	1000	575	515	455	304	221	78	36

## Appendix D

\*\*\* Generalized Linear Model \*\*\*

Coefficients:

Arsenal.att=0 to avoid overparametrisation

	Value	Std. Error	t value
arsenal.home	0.303682385	0.2367505	1.28271046
aston.villa.home	-0.303683460	0.3780379	-0.80331481
bradford.home	0.469465669	0.4207814	1.11569964
chelsea.home	0.361293961	0.3743586	0.96510126
coventry.home	1.136661472	0.4390941	2.58865142
derby.home	-0.303680108	0.3830637	-0.79276659
everton.home	0.144342465	0.3567045	0.40465553
leeds.home	-0.303683211	0.3534958	-0.85908584
leicester.home	-0.047749061	0.3604239	-0.13248028
liverpool.home	-0.106971918	0.3676345	-0.29097355
manchester.u.home	0.136268883	0.3151321	0.43241830
middlesbrough.home	-0.303681944	0.3780597	-0.80326449
newcastle.home	0.389464858	0.3569886	1.09097290
sheffield.w.home	-0.092370516	0.4022720	-0.22962204
southampton.home	0.009974913	0.3835162	0.02600911
sunderland.home	-0.338773846	0.3552650	-0.95358079
tottenham.home	0.551983856	0.3739691	1.47601443
watford.home	0.476465849	0.4338279	1.09828297
west.ham.home	0.166320249	0.3703943	0.44903562
wimbledon.home	0.324924580	0.3895620	0.83407661
aston.villa.att	-0.307432011	0.2751960	-1.11713857
bradford.att	-0.925918991	0.3390112	-2.73123456
chelsea.att	-0.553300637	0.2964089	-1.86668030
coventry.att	-1.227002906	0.3778787	-3.24708171
derby.att	-0.330389324	0.2787667	-1.18518222
everton.att	-0.293117357	0.2752777	-1.06480601
leeds.att	-0.067333337	0.2583983	-0.26057961
leicester.att	-0.244762537	0.2719770	-0.89993829
liverpool.att	-0.312132419	0.2752296	-1.13408009
manchester.u.att	0.206745180	0.2421754	0.85370023
middlesbrough.att	-0.290782718	0.2753015	-1.05623350
newcastle.att	-0.378860369	0.2827372	-1.33997348
sheffield.w.att	-0.575640089	0.3013701	-1.91007727
southampton.att	-0.471961467	0.2914442	-1.61938857
sunderland.att	-0.054406128	0.2584713	-0.21049191
tottenham.att	-0.595496064	0.3019179	-1.97237779
watford.att	-1.004180511	0.3505182	-2.86484523
west.ham.att	-0.429241927	0.2868111	-1.49660175
wimbledon.att	-0.631678163	0.3078130	-2.05214902
arsenal.def	0.292153466	0.2377898	1.22862063
aston.villa.def	0.059135710	0.2446323	0.24173307
bradford.def	0.716762700	0.2145240	3.34117754
chelsea.def	0.036921825	0.2462058	0.14996327
coventry.def	0.494600377	0.2232096	2.21585596
derby.def	0.545827013	0.2210070	2.46972673
everton.def	0.409121810	0.2273277	1.79970067
leeds.def	0.277158663	0.2335210	1.18686819
leicester.def	0.520972855	0.2224359	2.34212543
liverpool.def	-0.090390870	0.2541715	-0.35562951
manchester.u.def	0.362341831	0.2311703	1.56742413
middlesbrough.def	0.455779801	0.2247700	2.02776098

newcastle.def	0.510609088	0.2231491	2.28819703
sheffield.w.def	0.745825778	0.2135447	3.49259868
southampton.def	0.631124530	0.2177828	2.89795335
sunderland.def	0.541054222	0.2216942	2.44054291
tottenham.def	0.407124183	0.2273721	1.79056342
watford.def	0.838388265	0.2104918	3.98299648
west.ham.def	0.480830355	0.2239260	2.14727349
wimbledon.def	0.809610232	0.2117130	3.82409300

(Dispersion Parameter for Poisson family taken to be 1 )

Null Deviance: 1088.126 on 760 degrees of freedom

Residual Deviance: 791.8831 on 701 degrees of freedom

**Table D.1** S-Plus output of the Poisson regression with separate home parameters for season 1999-2000.

\*\*\* Generalized Linear Model \*\*\*

Coefficients:

Arsenal.att=0 to avoid overparametrisation

	Value	Std. Error	t value
home	0.41150035	0.08998748	4.57286224
aston.villa.att	-0.65778773	0.29045847	-2.26465325
bradford.att	-0.79387805	0.30871345	-2.57156938
chelsea.att	-0.22153164	0.26881944	-0.82409084
coventry.att	-0.27469639	0.25879297	-1.06145228
derby.att	-0.69117432	0.30250397	-2.28484376
everton.att	-0.01129526	0.24368842	-0.04635125
leeds.att	-0.07030137	0.24070688	-0.29206215
leicester.att	-0.24039328	0.25439950	-0.94494398
liverpool.att	-0.18878526	0.24731103	-0.76335156
manchester.u.att	0.36718582	0.22259721	1.64955268
middlesbrough.att	-0.39130379	0.26880272	-1.45572854
newcastle.att	-0.06278067	0.24508225	-0.25616165
sheffield.w.att	-0.64285630	0.30053369	-2.13904906
southampton.att	-0.37133632	0.27714141	-1.33988031
sunderland.att	-0.01324357	0.24372629	-0.05433788
tottenham.att	-0.09083232	0.24936785	-0.36425033
watford.att	-0.83996814	0.31708890	-2.64899888
west.ham.att	-0.36066921	0.27758533	-1.2993093
wimbledon.att	-0.12965245	0.24688175	-0.52516012
arsenal.def	0.04836594	0.28964110	0.16698575
aston.villa.def	0.01452591	0.28439652	0.05107626
bradford.def	0.40401393	0.25396720	1.59081144
chelsea.def	0.04657717	0.29425112	0.15829056
coventry.def	0.16913505	0.27674268	0.61116360
derby.def	0.44892437	0.24260982	1.85039654
everton.def	0.33024934	0.25667292	1.28665439
leeds.def	0.10687328	0.27557032	0.38782582
leicester.def	0.34976641	0.25058493	1.39579988
liverpool.def	-0.09360267	0.29939517	-0.31263922
manchester.u.def	0.30612137	0.27015372	1.13313772
middlesbrough.def	0.40477409	0.25992061	1.55729894
newcastle.def	0.56025126	0.24346025	2.30120223
sheffield.w.def	0.82196321	0.24305033	3.38186418
southampton.def	0.41094196	0.25725478	1.59741234



```

sunderland.def 0.26128400 0.27698961 0.94329892
tottenham.def 0.22564444 0.27646742 0.81617009
  watford.def 0.66935126 0.23598115 2.83646069
  west.ham.def 0.07217156 0.28596980 0.25237477
wimbledon.def 0.60385220 0.24273300 2.48772190

```

(Dispersion Parameter for Poisson family taken to be 1 )

Null Deviance: 549.8061 on 760 degrees of freedom

Residual Deviance: 392.8681 on 340 degrees of freedom

**Table D.2** S-Plus output of the first half of the season 99-00

\*\*\* Generalized Linear Model \*\*\*

Coefficients:

Arsenal.att=0 to avoid overparametrisation

	Value	Std. Error	t value
home	0.37463060	0.08901497	4.20862491
aston.villa.att	-0.39163024	0.25260782	-1.55034887
bradford.att	-0.54272934	0.26726749	-2.03065981
chelsea.att	-0.42374071	0.24732011	-1.71332897
coventry.att	-0.59704330	0.27456666	-2.17449307
derby.att	-0.40038806	0.25173327	-1.59052501
everton.att	-0.43686698	0.25838984	-1.69072815
leeds.att	-0.43828573	0.26384727	-1.66113421
leicester.att	-0.31540003	0.25447143	-1.23943202
liverpool.att	-0.62770692	0.27949432	-2.24586645
manchester.u.att	0.15962732	0.21985332	0.72606284
middlesbrough.att	-0.49402055	0.26779904	-1.84474357
newcastle.att	-0.27331082	0.24571065	-1.11232797
sheffield.w.att	-0.66525973	0.27128318	-2.45227045
southampton.att	-0.62185816	0.26470579	-2.34924276
sunderland.att	-0.52184578	0.26465258	-1.97181443
tottenham.att	-0.39213443	0.25521010	-1.53651615
watford.att	-0.61129731	0.27593916	-2.21533368
west.ham.att	-0.33900559	0.24635067	-1.37610989
wimbledon.att	-0.87753010	0.30771276	-2.85178325
arsenal.def	0.47384249	0.27645732	1.71398059
aston.villa.def	0.01110346	0.30759285	0.03609793
bradford.def	0.94445940	0.23158170	4.07829883
chelsea.def	-0.06217843	0.30020306	-0.20712124
coventry.def	0.68983187	0.24339570	2.83419907
derby.def	0.53144334	0.26693576	1.99090351
everton.def	0.43041210	0.27436636	1.56874950
leeds.def	0.36067882	0.27543666	1.30948010
leicester.def	0.63611025	0.26339929	2.41500362
liverpool.def	-0.16140012	0.32284384	-0.49993248
manchester.u.def	0.34324080	0.27249198	1.25963633
middlesbrough.def	0.45891930	0.25947522	1.76864403
newcastle.def	0.30853180	0.28299832	1.09022484
sheffield.w.def	0.53196442	0.24280234	2.19093613
southampton.def	0.70255013	0.24001490	2.92711041
sunderland.def	0.74674898	0.23887203	3.12614660
tottenham.def	0.51161880	0.25485368	2.00750016
watford.def	0.86981002	0.23485594	3.70358959

```

west.ham.def 0.70957649 0.23983304 2.95862691
wimbledon.def 0.96889237 0.23164408 4.18267701

```

(Dispersion Parameter for Poisson family taken to be 1 )

Null Deviance: 538.3198 on 760 degrees of freedom

Residual Deviance: 393.6574 on 340 degrees of freedom

**Table D.3** S-Plus output of the second half of the season 99-00

\*\*\* Generalized Linear Model \*\*\*

Coefficients:

Arsenal.att=0 to avoid overparametrisation

	Value	Std. Error	t value
home	0.40591095	0.07282501	5.5737846
aston.villa.att	-0.47979004	0.21538092	-2.2276348
bradford.att	-0.61259129	0.22647018	-2.7049535
chelsea.att	-0.39557812	0.20826794	-1.8993712
coventry.att	-0.48764476	0.21856073	-2.2311637
derby.att	-0.49088847	0.21761700	-2.2557450
everton.att	-0.28784336	0.20422998	-1.4094079
leeds.att	-0.31753413	0.20617113	-1.5401483
leicester.att	-0.33077135	0.20745252	-1.5944436
liverpool.att	-0.43400706	0.21192459	-2.0479316
manchester.u.att	0.25839786	0.17814668	1.4504781
middlesbrough.att	-0.49183787	0.21753190	-2.2609919
newcastle.att	-0.20214264	0.19972964	-1.0120813
sheffield.w.att	-0.61964978	0.22689188	-2.7310355
southampton.att	-0.56379807	0.22130976	-2.5475518
sunderland.att	-0.31237692	0.20685824	-1.5101014
tottenham.att	-0.30513754	0.20514902	-1.4873946
watford.att	-0.70207625	0.23503549	-2.9871074
west.ham.att	-0.35833228	0.20716221	-1.7297184
wimbledon.att	-0.54843871	0.22430948	-2.4450090
arsenal.def	0.32821245	0.22712931	1.4450467
aston.villa.def	0.03356866	0.24192702	0.1387553
bradford.def	0.74276967	0.19462746	3.8163663
chelsea.def	0.02961975	0.23806707	0.1244177
coventry.def	0.52904905	0.20471127	2.5843669
derby.def	0.51412536	0.20863993	2.4641753
everton.def	0.37150090	0.21728363	1.7097510
leeds.def	0.25820618	0.22288523	1.1584715
leicester.def	0.52439399	0.20897603	2.5093499
liverpool.def	-0.14734253	0.25574469	-0.5761313
manchester.u.def	0.33439608	0.22270048	1.5015507
middlesbrough.def	0.41159291	0.21142015	1.9468008
newcastle.def	0.39197088	0.21559141	1.8181192
sheffield.w.def	0.66972079	0.19628842	3.4119222
southampton.def	0.60312655	0.20113400	2.9986306
sunderland.def	0.58115407	0.20421914	2.8457375
tottenham.def	0.39913306	0.21308129	1.8731492
watford.def	0.85381420	0.18921067	4.5125055
west.ham.def	0.52873345	0.20420958	2.5891707
wimbledon.def	0.80526325	0.19030534	4.2314276

(Dispersion Parameter for Poisson family taken to be 1 )

Null Deviance: 807.0231 on 760 degrees of freedom

Residual Deviance: 605.9874 on 720 degrees of freedom

**Table D.4** S-Plus output of the weighted model

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