Book Title: Home Advantage in Sport: Performance and Influence

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1. Introduction

Throughout this book, evidence of a home advantage has been discussed across a range of sports, competitive levels, timeframes, and geographical regions. Indeed, the bulk of the extant research on the home advantage effect suggests that, overall, there is a benefit to competing at home versus away venues (e.g., Jamieson, 2010). Nonetheless, sport enthusiasts could likely point to several instances where home teams tend to perform worse than away teams. Are these merely examples of the adage that "the exception proves the rule" and simply part of the natural ebbs and flows of competition? Or, are there truly situations in sport whereby the advantage of competing at home disappears or even reverses to a home *dis*advantage?

In this chapter, we attempt to dissect this area of research within the home (dis)advantage literature. We begin by highlighting the foundational work of Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984), which proposed—and appeared to provide initial evidence of—a home disadvantage. We then review the research that has been conducted since their initial work testing this phenomenon. Finally, we provide a series of considerations for future research that could help advance this area of study. To be clear, our goal in this chapter is not to convince readers that a home advantage in sport does not exist—such a contention would ignore the decades of evidence demonstrating that athletes and sport teams tend to perform better at their home venue. Instead, we aim to delve into the nuance that appears to exist in this home (dis)advantage effect.

2. Foundational research on the home disadvantage

Early work on the home disadvantage effect dates back over 35 years. Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984) proposed that supportive audiences (i.e., an athlete's home crowd) could undermine skilled performance under certain conditions as a result of increases in *self-presentational concerns*. Self-presentation involves claiming desired identities through public

performances (Baumeister & Steinhilber, 1984). Self-presentational concerns can become salient in front of supportive audiences (compared to hostile, unsupportive audiences), particularly as the importance of a given performance increases. These increases in self-presentational concerns are thought to amplify *self-awareness*, whereby individuals become increasingly focused on themselves.

Why do self-presentational concerns and increased self-focus matter to sport performance? There appear to be two potential explanations. First, in situations of high self-awareness, an athlete may become distracted away from important cues to which they typically attend and towards the prospect of gaining a new identity instead. Second, these situations may engender greater conscious attention by the athlete to the step-by-step execution of well-learned skills rather than carrying out those skills in their typical manner—a process that Masters et al. (1993) referred to as "reinvestment". As an example, through years of learning, an expert golfer may have reached a point in their development whereby each shot they take is rather "automatic" and, thus, they focus solely on the golf ball when they swing their golf club. Under conditions where self-presentational concerns and self-awareness are heightened (e.g., during the final hole of a championship tournament where they are performing in front of a supportive audience *and* have an opportunity to win), the golfer's focus may shift from being exclusively on the golf ball to (a) their potential new identity as a "champion", and/or (b) the individual components involved in the swing (e.g., thinking about the strength of their grip on the golf club, bringing the club back in a certain manner, shifting their weight across different positions and at particular times, and so forth).

Based on the above theorizing, Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984) hypothesized that athletes would perform worse during competitions that presented an imminent opportunity to win a championship (thereby allowing the athletes to claim or redefine their identities as

"champions") in front of supportive home crowds compared to non-imminent competitions or in front of non-supportive away crowds. From their perspective, it is the combination of *imminence* and *audience support* that is particularly important in predicting performance decrements during high-stakes competition. To test their propositions, Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984) conducted an archival study of Major League Baseball (MLB) World Series games from 1924-1982 as well as National Basketball Association (NBA) semi-final and final series games from 1967-1982. In support of their hypotheses, they found that home teams in both sports were more likely to win the first two games of the best-of-seven series (n = 98) which do not imminently decide the series champion but lose the final game of the series, regardless of whether that final game was delimited to games 5, 6, or 7 (n = 49) or to game 7 only (n = 26; see Figure 1). In addition, visiting team players were shown to make more fielding errors in the first two games of the MLB series, but the home team made more in the 7th game.[1] Examined another way, the researchers found that home team players showed a significant degradation in terms of the number of errors made in the final game compared to their fielding performance in the first two games, whereas the away team's performance was approximately unchanged. In further support of their hypotheses, the researchers found that NBA home teams performed significantly better during games 1-4 of a semi-final or championship series (n = 164) compared to the final game of the series (n = 41); similar findings were shown when the final game was delimited to game 7 (n = 13; see Figure 2). Moreover, home and away team players performed approximately equally in terms of free-throw shooting during the first four games of the series; however, the away team players had significantly better free-throw shooting percentages compared to home players during the final game of the series. Finally, similar to the findings of fielding errors in MLB games,

[1] In their paper, the authors only presented data analyses on game 7 for this outcome measure; however, they noted that the "results are quite similar if we used all 5-, 6-, and 7-game series".

home team players showed significant decreases in free-throw percentages in the final game of the series compared to the first four games, whereas the percentages for away team players did not change during this timeframe.

[Insert Figure 1 and Figure 2 around here]

In summary, Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984) concluded that NBA and MLB teams—and individual athletes within those teams—performed worse when they were competing in front of a home crowd and had an impending opportunity to secure the desired "champion" identity. The authors acknowledged that a direct test of the mechanisms underpinning this apparent home disadvantage effect was not possible due to the study's archival design. Specifically, the researchers were unable to determine whether the observed performance decrements by home athletes in win-imminent situations were due to (a) increases in *distraction* away from relevant cues and towards irrelevant cues (i.e., claiming a new identity as a champion) and/or (b) increases in *self-attention* wherein the athletes' execution of skill-based tasks moved away from automaticity and towards a conscious, step-by-step attentional approach. Furthermore, the study only included two sports, which raised questions regarding the generalizability of the findings. Fortunately, research following Baumeister and Steinhilber's (1984) foundational work has helped shed further light on the proposed home disadvantage effect.

3. What have we learned about the home disadvantage over the past 35 years?

[Insert Table 1 around here]

Additional archival research demonstrated that the findings from Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984) in the MLB and NBA were replicated in other sports (see Table 1 for examples). For instance, Wright et al. (1995) showed that home teams were more likely to win games 1 and 3 of best-of-seven National Hockey League (NHL) playoff series but lose the final

game (whether game 5, 6, or 7) of the series.[2] Archival data have also been examined in individual sports. For example, Wright et al. (1991) found that British golfers who were in contention to win the British Open Championship going into the final round of the tournament had greater deteriorations in performance from the first to final round compared to contending foreign/international players over this timespan. In an effort to move beyond archival findings, Butler and Baumeister (1998) as well as Law et al. (2003) found that performance on various mental (e.g., arithmetic) and physical (e.g., table tennis) tasks was generally poorer in front of supportive audiences (simulating a crowd at one's home venue) compared to unsupportive audiences (simulating a crowd at an opposing team's venue). In explaining the existing research on performance decrements due to audience support, Wallace et al. (2005) contended that (a) "audiences magnify both the rewards of success and the costs of failure", (b) a performer's "motivation to achieve success may be eclipsed by their desire to avoid the penalties associated with failure", and (c) "performers with supportive audiences simply have more to lose than other performers with unsupportive audiences" (p.433).

In contrast to the above studies supporting Baumeister and Steinhilber's (1984) initial work, a number of other studies actually pointed to a home *advantage* in high-pressure and/or championship competitions. For instance, Leonard (1989) showed that athletes from a host country of the Olympic Games won more medals than they did in either the immediately preceding or subsequent Olympic Games. In addition, Irving and Goldstein (1990) found that MLB pitchers were more likely to pitch no-hitters (which is considered to be a near-perfect performance by a baseball pitcher) at home than at an away venue. Perhaps most critically though were the studies by Schlenker et al. (1995) as well as Jones (2014) which updated and re-

[2] *Note.* Higher-seed NHL teams host games 1, 2, 5, and 7; lower-seeded teams host games 3, 4, and 6.

analysed the data from Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984). In some cases, the evidence of a home disadvantage that Baumeister and Steinbilber (1984) found was corroborated in the two later studies. For example, Schlenker et al. (1995) found that visiting MLB players had nearly the same number of errors in game 7 as they did in games 1 and 2, whereas home team players made more errors in the seventh game compared to (a) the number of errors they made in games 1 and 2, and (b) the number of errors that away team players made in those seventh games. In other cases, though, evidence of a home disadvantage was reduced or eliminated altogether. In particular, Jones (2014) found that home and away team percentages did not differ significantly between Games 1 and 2 compared to the final games of MLB World Series. Furthermore, where there was still evidence of a home disadvantage, this effect appeared to be largely driven by two variables that we will discuss later in this chapter. The first variable was the *type of decisive game* a team is facing—that is, whether the game provided an opportunity for the home team to clinch the series (i.e., when that home team had three wins) or to avoid losing the series (i.e., when the opposing away team had three wins). For example, Schlenker et al. (1995) found that when the home team was down 3-2 in the sixth game of a seven-game MLB series and, thus, facing elimination (i.e., a *loss-imminent* game), they won 70% of the time; when they were up 3-2 in the sixth game and, thus, had the opportunity to clinch the series with a win (i.e., a *win-imminent* game), they only won 42% of the time.

The second variable related to differences in *team quality*. For example, Schlenker et al. (1995) pointed out that although the home team in NBA series only won the sixth game of a series 41% of the time, this sixth game was typically hosted by the team with the poorer regular

season record.[3] Indeed, of the 23 games in which the lower-quality team hosted game 6, the home team only won only eight (35%); of the five games that were hosted by the team with a better regular season record, that home team won three (60%). As such, the authors argued that the relatively poorer win percentages of the home teams in the potentially-decisive sixth games were not due to those home teams "choking" per se but, rather, due to them simply being lower-level teams. Indeed, the win percentage in these sixth games by the lower-quality team was nearly the exact same as their win percentage in any series (36%) irrespective of court location. The findings from this study suggest that performing at home in decisive games does not necessarily result in performance decrements; other variables that could influence differences in success rates between home and away teams need to be taken into account (e.g., team quality, situational factors).

4. What are we still learning about the potential home disadvantage effect?

Since the seminal work of Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984), researchers have investigated the proposed home disadvantage in further detail in an attempt to clarify whether the effect truly exists and to tease apart its various influences. Below, we discuss six factors that have improved our understanding of the apparent inconsistencies in this phenomenon. For each, we also provide considerations for future work that could help continue to advance this area of research.

Game type. To help explain the contradictory evidence on the home (dis)advantage, researchers need to move beyond simply comparing the overall success between home and away

[3] The NBA's playoff structure has changed over the years. As a result, although the team with the better regular season record currently hosts games 1, 2, *5*, and 7 of a series, there have also been years when they hosted games 1, 2, *6*, and 7.

teams. Instead, examining performance across specific types of games—especially in 'best-of' competition formats—could provide a more complete evaluation of the propositions advanced by Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984). For example, multiple studies (e.g., Baumeister & Steinhilber, 1984; Jones, 2014; Schlenker et al., 1995; Wright et al., 1995) have compared home and away team win percentages in early games of a best-of-seven series versus later or final games. As others have pointed out (e.g., McEwan, 2019; Schlenker et al., 1995; Tauer et al., 2009), the precise circumstances of the (potentially) decisive games of a series need to be considered. For example, in a best-of-seven series, the "final game" of a series implies that the home team, away team, or both teams have an opportunity to clinch a series. More specifically, this final game could involve: the home team leading the series 3-0, 3-1, or 3-2; the visiting team leading 3-0, 3-1, or 3-2; or the series being tied 3-3, with both home and away teams having a chance to clinch the series with a win. Comparing team performance in various types of games such as these provides a more detailed understanding of the home (dis)advantage, rather than simply measuring performance in "early" versus "late" games (e.g., games 1 and 2 versus the final game of the series).

One recent example of this type of assessment stems from McEwan (2019) who compared home and away team success across several types of NHL playoff overtime games. These games were first broken down into non-outcome-imminent games—wherein neither team could clinch the series with a win—and outcome-imminent games—where at least one team could clinch the series. In terms of win percentages, no significant differences were evident between home and away teams for outcome-imminent games.[4] However, when the outcome-imminent games were further broken down into home-win-imminent or away-win-imminent (i.e.,

[4] Note that non-imminent games was used as a baseline comparison in this study.

where the home or away team, respectively, was leading 3-0, 3-1, or 3-2 and, thus, had an opportunity to clinch the series), some interesting findings emerged. Specifically, when the away teams had an imminent opportunity to clinch the series, they won significantly more games than home teams.[5] In contrast, when home teams had an imminent opportunity to clinch the series, they were no more likely than away teams to win the overtime game[5]—this latter finding aligned with the results from Jones (2014), who demonstrated that home teams won approximately the same number of game sevens as they did games 1 or 2 in MLB, NBA, and NHL semi-finals and finals series. Tauer et al. (2009) took another approach to examining the home (dis)advantage in NBA playoff games—they compared home and away team performance in outcome-imminent games wherein the series was tied 3-3 or one team had a 3-2 or 3-1 series lead. Relative to their performance in the first two games of a series, home team win percentages were: poorer in game 5 of the series when leading 3-1; poorer in game 6 when leading 3-2; no different in game 5 when trailing 3-1; higher in game 6 when trailing 3-2; and higher in game 7 when the series was tied 3-3. Had the outcome-imminent games in these two studies not been further broken down, some valuable information on the home (dis)advantage in ice hockey and basketball would have been overlooked. As such, researchers are encouraged to consider the specific type of game that competitors are faced with in outcome-imminent games.

Situations within games. In addition to comparing performance in various types of games, researchers could also consider home and away team performance in specific situations within those games. For instance, Heaton and Sigall (1989) re-examined the MLB data from Baumeister and Steinhilber's (1984) study and sought to better understand how the differences in home and away team success emerged in the final game of a tied series. They found that home teams were more likely to fall behind and never take a lead in game 7, relative to the likelihood of this occurring during the first six games. More recently, Hoffmann et al. (2017) compared

home and away team win percentages in NHL regular season games (2005-06 through 2013-14) based on the specific situation in which a game ended—regulation (i.e., three 20-minute periods of 5-on-5 play), overtime (i.e., five minutes of extra time [4-on-4 play] when there is no winner following regulation), or shootouts (i.e., one-on-one breakaways between a shooter and the goaltender when there is still no winner following overtime; shootouts continue until a winner is decided). They found that home teams that were superior to their visiting counterparts had 1.03 times greater odds of winning when the game concluded in regulation versus overtime. In contrast, there was a significant decrease in the home team's odds of success when the game transitioned into the more individually-oriented shootout situation, regardless of the relative quality of home versus visiting teams. Specifically, home teams' odds of winning were 1.23 times greater when the game ended in overtime rather than the shootout. These findings were reflected in the following average home team win percentages: games ending in regulation (57%), games ending in overtime (54%), and games ending in the shootout (48%). In sum, it seemed that home team performance suffered as the situation within the competition became increasingly imminent and determined by individual skill.

In the 2015-16 NHL season, the league modified the overtime format to consist of 5-minutes of *3-on-3* hockey (as opposed to the earlier *4-on-4* format), followed still by a shootout if required. Hoffmann et al. (in press) sought to replicate the analysis from the 4-on-4 overtime era (i.e., Hoffmann et al., 2017) using regular season game data for the four NHL seasons since the implementation of 3-on-3 overtime (2015-16 through 2018-2019). One noteworthy finding was that home teams that were clearly superior to their visiting opponents had a substantially better home winning percentage when games ended in regulation (77%) compared to overtime (53%), perhaps suggesting that the home advantage might decline during situations when there is a greater emphasis on individual play (i.e., during overtime periods). This finding was also

demonstrated through a significant interaction, which showed that superior home teams were 4.24 times more likely to win than inferior home teams when games concluded in regulation rather than overtime.

Returning to the seminal work by Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984), it is "the *imminent opportunity* to claim a desired identity in front of a supportive audience" (p. 85; emphasis added) that is proposed to result in performance decrements for home team athletes. In most sports, there will be differences across situations within a competition in terms of the imminence in deciding a winner (e.g., a basketball player who takes a jump-shot in the waning seconds of a 1-point game versus an earlier point of a game). Moreover, in various scenarios where the outcome of the competition is looming, the salience of claiming the "ultimate" identity (i.e., as a "champion") is further amplified in championship games versus non-championship games (e.g., game 7 of a basketball series versus a regular season game). As such, a more thorough understanding of the home (dis)advantage will be obtained as researchers continue to not only consider game type but also break those games down into specific types of situations.

Types of sport and type of skills. The home advantage has been found to be moderated by sport type. For example, sports that are more "continuous" in their scoring and temporal nature (e.g., basketball, ice hockey) generally demonstrate stronger home advantages than sports that have discrete breaks embedded over the course of the game (e.g., baseball, American football; Pollard & Pollard, 2005; Tauer et al., 2009). Further, whereas a home advantage has been historically reported in team sports, findings typically demonstrate that "objectively evaluated" individual sports (e.g., tennis, golf) show comparatively weaker evidence of a home advantage (Jones, 2013). This finding may be useful to consider when reflecting on the performance of home versus away players in individually-oriented situations that occur within team sport, such as penalty kicks in football or shootouts in ice hockey. Jones (2013) did, however, report that

individual sports that are "subjectively judged" tend to demonstrate significant home advantages (e.g., figure skating, gymnastics). Thus, might sport type also impact the potential home *disadvantage* effect that could arise during outcome-imminent situations?

In many sports, there are also certain player positions or times during competition where performance is more skill-based (e.g., a quarterback or receiver in American football) compared to others that a more effort-based (e.g., an offensive or defensive lineman in American football). Some researchers have suggested that skill-based tasks are more prone to performance decrements under pressure compared to effort-based tasks (e.g., Wallace et al., 2005). This might imply that home athletes are more likely to choke when performing offensive tasks which tend to be more skill-based (e.g., a field hockey player attempting to score near the end of a tied game) compared to defensive tasks which tend to be more effort (e.g., a field hockey player attempting to block the opposing team's shot near the end of a tied game). Despite being proposed as additional potential moderators (see Wallace et al., 2005), there is scant empirical evidence that these variables (skill-/effort-based tasks, offensive/defensive skills) play a role in predicting a home disadvantage. As such, future research examining these potential moderating variables is clearly warranted.

Team quality. While it is beyond the scope of this chapter to delve deep into the measurement of team quality as it pertains to the home advantage (readers are instead directed to Chapter 2), we would generally encourage greater consideration of this variable as a potential moderator in future home (dis)advantage work. Schwartz and Barsky's (1977) pioneering study demonstrated that some teams benefitted from a particularly strong home advantage by virtue of their quality relative to their visiting opponents. That is, some home teams were able to exploit the advantages of playing at home because of the inferiority of their opponents. Since that discovery, home (dis)advantage researchers have adjusted for athlete and team quality in their

studies using different approaches. For instance, Clarke and Norman (1995) used a method that estimated home advantage and team quality simultaneously based on goal margins. Hoffmann et al. (2017) accounted for team quality using a formula grounded in the Pythagorean Method that approximated an NHL team's winning percentage based on goals scored and goals allowed.

Moving forward, home (dis)advantage researchers should think critically in terms of identifying situations in which confounding elements related to team/athlete quality may impact study results. For example, any research examining 'best of' playoff series would benefit from the inclusion of a team quality variable. In many sport leagues (e.g., NHL, NBA, MLB) better teams (based on regular season play) are seeded higher in playoff rankings and ostensibly benefit from having more home games in a playoff series as a result. Hence, it is possible that differences in home and away team success can be explained (at least to some extent) by the winning team simply being of higher quality as opposed to psychological changes related to the home (dis)advantage phenomenon (e.g., increases in distraction and/or self-awareness). As such, a more consistent consideration for team quality would help better identify the precise reasons why differences in home and away team success emerge.

Individual athlete influences. Our understanding of the home disadvantage effect could be further extended by considering individual athlete differences. In particular, examining personality and/or trait-based influences could provide interesting insight into whether certain athletes are more (or less) susceptible to choking at home. For example, Wallace et al. (2005) argued that athletes with higher levels of narcissism would be less likely to choke under the pressure of a supportive audience. Since those with narcissistic characteristics have a propensity for grandiosity, self-aggrandizing behavior, and inflated self-evaluations, it is possible that athletes would maintain their confidence when faced with pressure-filled, outcome-imminent situations in front of supportive audiences. To our knowledge, there is little sport research linking

narcissism to performance under pressure (e.g., Geukes et al., 2012). Nonetheless, a series of studies published in the early 2000's did find that narcissists thrived on performance tasks when there were "self-enhancing" opportunities (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002). For instance, in one of these studies, individuals with high narcissism scores who were told that their dart-throwing task was designed to identify choking under pressure performed better than those with low narcissism scores. Future researchers could attempt to replicate this finding using performance tasks more relevant to high-performance sport (e.g., basketball free-throws).

Another future research direction is to expand beyond narcissism and examine other personality traits such as the 'Big Five' (i.e., extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and openness to experience) in relation to performance under pressure. Although not within a sport setting, one study found that higher levels of neuroticism (i.e., feelings of anxiety, worry, and emotional instability) predicted decreased performance on a high-pressure decision-making task (Byrne et al., 2015). Gaining a better appreciation of athletes' personalities and how they may relate to performance in outcome-imminent situations in front of one's home crowd would not only enhance our understanding of the home disadvantage effect but could also have implications for coaches and applied sport psychology practitioners.

Mechanisms of the home (dis)advantage. Perhaps the largest hole that remains within the home disadvantage literature involves understanding the mechanisms of this proposed effect. As discussed at the outset of this chapter, Baumeister and Steinhilber (1984) contended that the effect of outcome-imminent situations in front of supportive crowds on task performance could be explained by self-presentational concerns and increases in self-awareness. Although they did indeed find differences in performance between home and away teams over the course of a basketball or baseball series, the researchers were unable to test whether those mechanisms explained the performance outcomes. Subsequent archival research that contradicted these

findings (e.g., Jones, 2014; Schlenker et al., 1995) also did not test these potential mechanisms. In other words, when competing at one's home venue, does a change in imminence lead to a change in performance via changes in self-presentational concerns and/or self-awareness? The answer to this question is still not completely clear. Future studies that test this mediating effect could help refine this area of research and clarify the contradictory evidence that exists. For example, the findings supporting a home disadvantage effect under certain conditions might indeed be explained by increases in self-awareness among home competitors. For studies that do not support the home disadvantage effect, it may be that performance decrements did not occur because the changes in imminence were not substantive enough to induce increases in self-awareness. In either case, the point stands that there is simply not a sufficient level of evidence to make an accurate conclusion on this point.

To test the potential mechanisms of the home (dis)advantage, future research will need to make use of study designs beyond archival research. That work would not only help uncover why some studies have found a home disadvantage and others have not, but could also be useful to applied sport psychology practitioners. For example, if performance decrements resulting from particular situations are indeed explained by changes in self-presentational concerns, practitioners could identify upcoming situations when a home disadvantage could potentially take place (e.g., in a win-imminent game of a series) and encourage athletes to utilize certain psychological or behavioural strategies that could help offset those concerns from occurring or reducing their detrimental impact on performance if they do indeed take place.

5. Conclusion

As detailed throughout this book, generally there is an advantage to competing at one's home venue. That said, there is evidence to suggest that there may be certain outcome-imminent

situations in which competing at home could present a disadvantage. Additional research is evidently needed to better understand the mechanisms underpinning the home (dis)advantage, as well as the range of variables that may moderate this effect. One conclusion that could be made at this point though is that the home (dis)advantage is a nuanced phenomenon that seems to be far from resolved.

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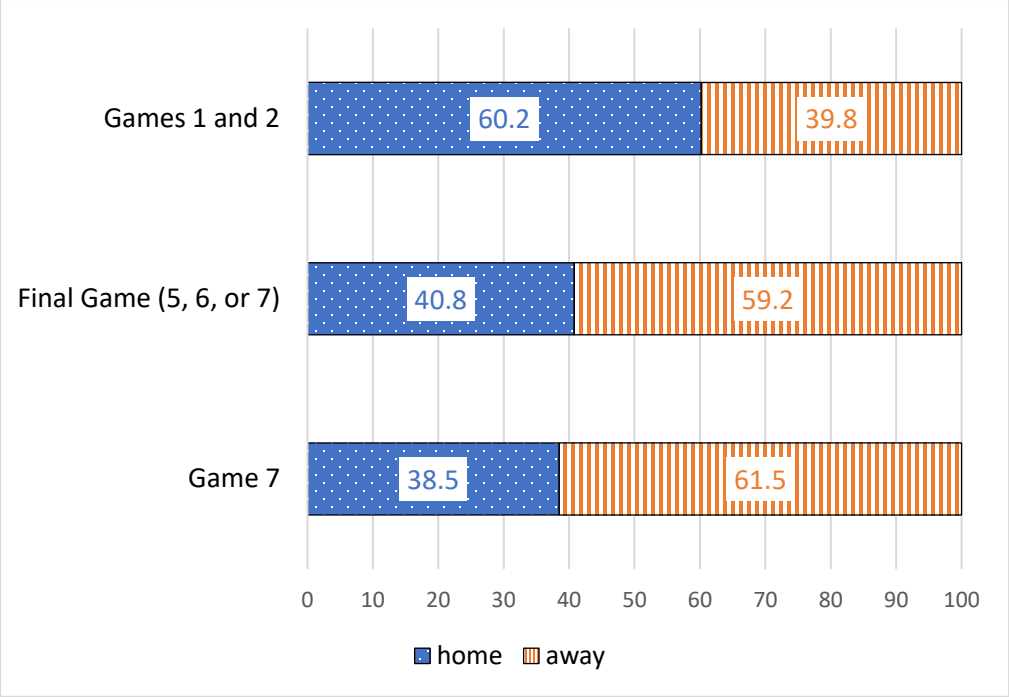

Figure 1. Win percentages in MLB World Series games from 1924-1982 (Baumeister & Steinhilber, 1984).

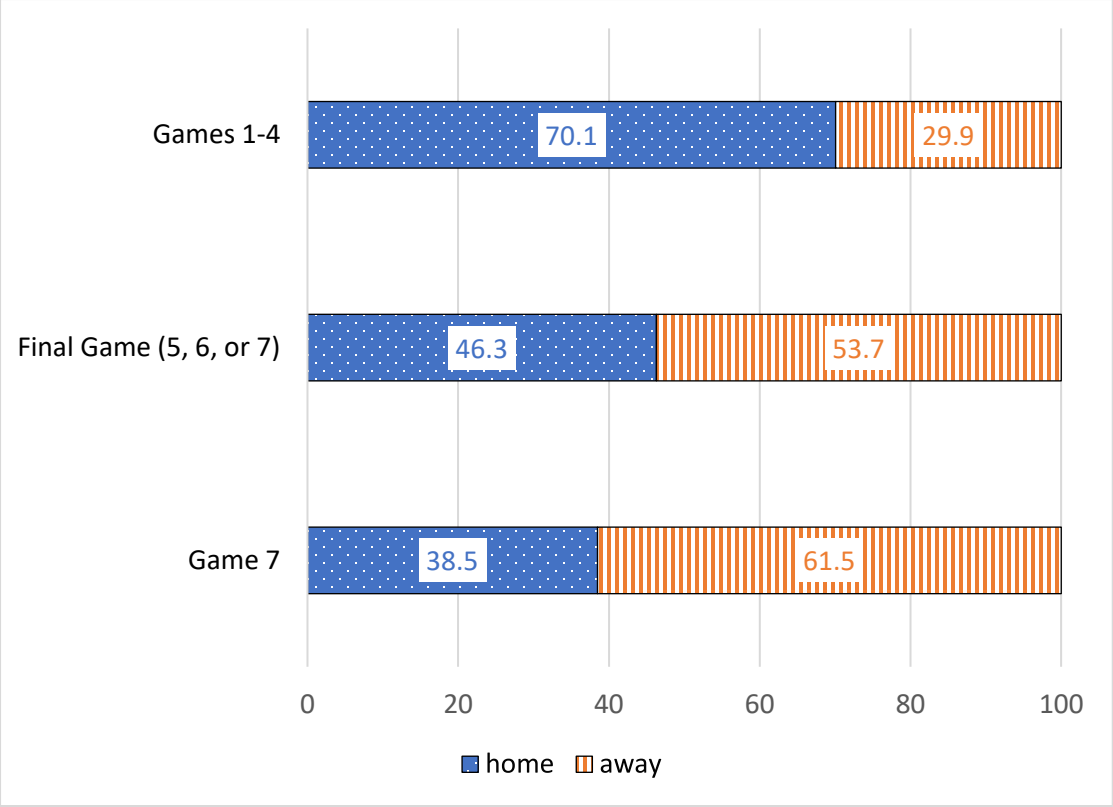

Figure 2. Win percentages in NBA semi-final and final championship games from 1967-1982 (Baumeister & Steinhilber, 1984).

Table 1

Summaries of key studies providing evidence in support of a home disadvantage effect since Baumeister and Steinhilber's (1984) seminal research.

Study	Main Findings
Butler & Baumeister (1998)	In three laboratory-based experiments, performance on difficult mental arithmetic and video game tasks was poorer for participants who completed the task in front of supportive audiences compared to unsupportive audiences.
Gayton et al. (2009)	In best-of-five Davis Cup tennis matches (1900-2007), home teams were significantly more likely to win games 1 and 2 of the series compared with game 5 (although no significant differences were found when comparing games 1 and 2 with games 4 and 5).
Gayton et al. (2013)	In best-of-five Fed Cup golf matches (1995-2010), home teams were significantly more likely to win games 1 and 2 of the series compared with game 5 (although no significant differences were found when comparing games 1 and 2 with games 4 and 5).
Law et al. (2003)	In a laboratory-based study, performance on a table tennis task was worse when participants performance in front of a simulated home (i.e., supportive) audience compared to a simulated away (i.e., adversarial) audience or observation-only condition.
Wright et al. (1991)	From 1946-1980, performances of contending British and Irish players in the British Open decreased significantly more than those of contending international golfers from round one to round four. These differences were maintained when the golfers' skill levels and experience were considered.
Wright et al. (1995)	Home teams were more likely to win games 1 and 3 of a best-of-seven NHL playoff series (1960-1993) but lose the final game of the series (whether the final game was the fourth, fifth, sixth, or seventh game of the series)