

1 People’s productivity is influenced by the environment in which they find themselves. In this
2 case, one of the important points is other people (peers) with whom a person interacts, and the effect
3 they have is called the peer effect. The manifestation of this effect depends on the situation under
4 consideration and can be either positive (for example ...) or negative (for example [Battiston et al.](#)
5 [\(2021\)](#)). Moreover, even within the same environment, women and men respond differently to peers.
6 For example, [Jørgensen et al. \(2022\)](#) showed that girls choose to compete more often with the increase
7 in the number of friends entered a competition, but the same is not true for boys.

8 The impact of competitors in sports has been extensively studied and analyzed. However, the
9 influence of peer effects in running events remains a subject of contradiction. For example, the
10 presence of pacemakers can positively influence participants by setting the pace and pushing them to
11 achieve better results. Meanwhile, competitors may also introduce social pressure that can impact the
12 performance of runners. The extent of this peer effect tends to be more noticeable in longer-distance
13 running events, while the short-term distances may not exhibit significant peer effects due to the
14 predominance of individual biological capabilities. Thereas, among research devoted to differences
15 in speed across different kilometer percentiles, and breaking the 2-hour barrier, marathons have the
16 potential to explore implications of peer effects in running.

17 There have been found positive peer effects in swimming and running sports ([Yamane & Hayashi](#)
18 [\(2015\)](#), [Hill \(2014b\)](#)). At the same time, negative peer effects have also been discovered ([Emerson](#)
19 [& Hill \(2018\)](#)). The difference partly comes from the various ways to detect a peer. The previous
20 research mainly focused on the superstar effect ([Brown \(2011\)](#), [Hill \(2014b\)](#), [Cohen-Zada et al. \(2017\)](#),
21 [Nishihata \(2022\)](#)) or the average level of opponents ([Guryan et al. \(2009\)](#), [Hill \(2014a\)](#), [Emerson &](#)
22 [Hill \(2014\)](#), [Emerson & Hill \(2018\)](#)). Apart from the peer effects, the runner’s result in a marathon
23 race can be influenced by weight, height and age ([Dotan et al., 1983](#)), weather ([Ely et al. \(2007\)](#)),
24 air pollution level ([Marr & Ely \(2010\)](#)), training volume ([Fokkema et al. \(2020\)](#)) and incentive effects
25 ([Frick & Prinz \(2007\)](#)).

26 We are introducing a new approach to assessing the competitiveness of a race for a particular
27 athlete — the number of marathon participants whose career-best time is close enough to that
28 athlete’s best time. In contrast to previous literature, which uses the presence of a superstar in the
29 race or the average level of opponents in the competition as a proxy for competitiveness, our approach
30 simultaneously allows us to take into account the heterogeneity of players, and the resulting different
31 levels of competition for them and also does not consider the influence of opponents, who do not
32 actually show the impact on the athlete’s performance because the time is too high or too low.

33 Our main goal is to show how the competitiveness of the race for each athlete can affect his result
34 (time in the race). Using a regression model that, in addition to competitiveness, includes personal
35 characteristics of the athlete (age, gender, best time), characteristics of the environment (weather),
36 and tournament (type of tournament, city, and year), we show that competitiveness increases the
37 result in the race for women. The relationship between competitiveness and results for women is
38 inverse U-shaped, from which we can conclude that starting from a certain point, the number of
39 competitors begins to reduce the result, but in practice, the number of competitors in Russian races
40 is not so high. For the man, the result was not significant.

41 We associate this difference in the behavior of women and men with different levels of attitude
42 towards risk. It is known that men are generally less risk-averse than women, but a competitive envi-
43 ronment can increase risk-taking among women ([Harris & Jenkins \(2006\)](#), [Jetter & Walker \(2017\)](#)). In
44 marathon races, athletes should balance their efforts to avoid injury or exhaustion. Riskier strategies
45 can improve performance, but also carry the risk of misalignment of efforts and potential withdrawal.
46 We used a logit model to analyze the relationship between the number of participants and the likeli-
47 hood of not finishing the race. The results showed that professional female runners were more likely
48 to complete marathons compared to males, indicating a higher propensity for risk taking among men.
49 In addition, the number of participants had an inverse U-shaped relationship with the likelihood of
50 not finishing, but this effect was observed only in women.

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