

Disposable Income and Gambling Expenditure in Sweden: Quarterly Evidence from the Licensed Market, 2019-2025

RAPHAEL MUPETA

raphael.mupeta2015@gmail.com

Research Article

Keywords: gambling expenditure, disposable income, Sweden, sports betting, football betting, online gambling, gross gaming revenue

Posted Date: September 24th, 2026

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-11009536/v1>

License: © ⓘ This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. [Read Full License](#)

Additional Declarations: No competing interests reported.

Abstract

Income is often treated as a background characteristic in gambling research, yet less is known about whether changes in household purchasing power move aggregate gambling expenditure in a rapidly digitising market. This study examines Sweden's licensed gambling market from 2019Q1 to 2025Q4. Quarterly gross gaming revenue (GGR) from the Swedish Gambling Authority was converted to 2025 prices and linked to OECD real disposable income per capita, real GDP per capita, unemployment, population, and harmonised consumer prices. Real total GGR fell 7.8% between 2019 and 2025 even as average real disposable income rose 3.1%, while the online share of nominal GGR increased from 56.4% to 65.3%. Complementary regulator survey evidence shows that betting participation among past-year gamblers rose from 19% in 2024 to 30% in 2025; among 2025 bettors, football was the most common betting object at 69%. Against this structural shift, short-run income movements were positively associated with gambling expenditure: the primary income elasticity was 1.03 (SE = 0.15, 95% CI [0.75, 1.32], $p < .001$). The corresponding year-on-year elasticity for the broad online betting/casino segment was 0.79 (SE = 0.25, $p = .002$). Results suggest that disposable income matters for cyclical gambling expenditure, while digital and sports-betting growth alter where gambling occurs. GGR is a market expenditure measure, not a measure of gambling harm, and the ecological design does not establish causality.

Introduction

Gambling expenditure sits at the intersection of consumption, risk and public health. Disposable income is especially relevant because it is closer to households' spendable resources than gross earnings or GDP: after current transfers are taken into account, it represents income available for consumption or saving (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2026). In real per-capita terms, the measure used here asks whether purchasing power available to the average household is expanding or contracting after price changes. It does not measure wealth, credit access or financial resilience, and taxation is not modelled as a separate explanatory variable. This distinction matters for gambling. A household with more disposable income can spend more in absolute terms, yet a household with fewer resources can experience greater harm from the same monetary loss. Population studies therefore show both higher absolute expenditure among some higher-income gamblers and greater vulnerability to gambling-related harm at lower socioeconomic positions (Grönroos et al., 2022; Raybould et al., 2021). The market-level question is consequently not whether richer people gamble more, but whether changes in real household spending power are followed by changes in gambling expenditure.

Sweden offers an unusually clear setting for examining this question. On 1 January 2019 the country replaced large parts of its former gambling regime with a licensing system intended to bring online gambling and betting into a regulated market (Statskontoret, 2022). Licensed operators generated approximately SEK 28.2 billion in GGR in 2025, of which SEK 18.4 billion came from the regulator's combined category of commercial online gambling and betting (Swedish Gambling Authority, 2026b). The market shift is also visible in participation. In the regulator's 2025 national survey, 30% of people who had gambled during the previous 12 months reported betting, up from 19% in the comparable 2024 survey; among bettors, football was the most common betting object at 69%, ahead of horse racing at 44% and ice hockey at 37% (Swedish Gambling Authority, 2026a). Football therefore matters to the interpretation of Swedish gambling growth not because quarterly football

revenue is separately observed—it is not—but because it is the dominant object inside a betting category that has become more widely used.

The economic literature does not imply a uniform income response across gambling products. Permanent-income reasoning suggests that temporary income shocks need not pass fully into consumption because households smooth spending around expected longer-run resources (Friedman, 1957). Gambling, however, contains products with different participation costs, accessibility and consumption rhythms. Horváth and Paap (2012) showed that casino, lottery and pari-mutuel expenditure reacted differently across the business cycle in the United States. Eakins (2016) similarly found that the Irish recession affected bookmaker/tote and lottery expenditure differently. In Sweden, Rude et al. (2014) used household data and reported income elasticities that varied across income classes and economic conditions. These studies imply that the income-gambling relationship is conditional rather than mechanically proportional.

The Swedish evidence also makes channel structure impossible to ignore. Abbott et al. (2014) showed that gambling participation and problem gambling changed over time even while new gambling forms became more available. More recently, Swedish COVID-era studies found substantial divergence between sports betting, online casino and land-based gambling when physical opportunities and sports schedules were disrupted (Balem et al., 2023; Håkansson, 2020). Football provides a particularly visible example of this new opportunity structure: betting can occur before matches, during matches and across domestic and international competitions, while mobile access removes many of the physical constraints faced by traditional gambling venues. At the same time, sports betting should not be treated as synonymous with gambling harm. Among Swedish elite male footballers, sports betting was the most commonly reported gambling form, but slots and bingo—not sports betting—were the significant gambling-type correlates of problem gambling in multivariable analysis (Wall et al., 2025). The implication is that income, access and product form need to be examined together rather than assuming that rising betting participation has a single behavioural meaning.

The present study addresses this gap using quarterly licensed-market data for 2019–2025 and complementary national survey evidence on betting participation. It asks three questions. First, are year-on-year changes in real disposable income per capita associated with year-on-year changes in real licensed gambling expenditure? Second, is the association visible within the broad commercial online gambling and betting segment as the market digitises? Third, how should the income relationship be interpreted against the recent rise in sports betting and the prominence of football within Swedish betting? The primary expectation is that real income growth will be positively associated with real GGR growth after major temporal disruptions are represented. The analysis is intentionally associational: aggregate GGR cannot identify individual behaviour or gambling disorder, and the available quarterly revenue series does not isolate football betting. The contribution is instead to show how household purchasing power operates alongside a changing sports-betting and online market structure.

Methods

Design and study period. The study uses an ecological quarterly time-series design covering 2019Q1 through 2025Q4. The start date coincides with Sweden's new licensing regime, reducing the comparability problems that would arise from combining pre- and post-reform market definitions. Figure 1 locates the national study setting. The unit of analysis is the calendar quarter. Twenty-eight quarters are available for level models; year-on-year growth models begin in 2020Q1 and contain 24 observations.

Gambling expenditure. The dependent variable is quarterly GGR for operators holding a Swedish licence or permit, obtained from the Swedish Gambling Authority. GGR is defined as players' stakes minus winnings and is therefore closer to consumer net gambling expenditure than to total stakes. Nominal GGR was deflated with the quarterly mean of the all-items Harmonised Index of Consumer Prices (HICP, 2025 = 100) to create real GGR in 2025 SEK. The primary outcome is the four-quarter log change in real total GGR. Secondary outcomes separate commercial online gambling and betting, lottery/value-machine activity, and land-based casino/bingo/commercial gambling. The commercial online category is important for the sports-betting question but must be interpreted carefully because the regulator reports online casino and betting together; quarterly football-specific GGR is not separately available. Illegal or unlicensed gambling is outside the dependent variable.

Income and controls. The principal explanatory variable is the OECD quarterly index of real gross disposable income per capita for households and non-profit institutions serving households, seasonally adjusted. Disposable income is the part of household income available for final consumption or saving after current income flows and transfers are accounted for; using the real per-capita series removes price-level effects and population growth from the purchasing-power measure (OECD, 2026). The primary specification uses the four-quarter log change in this index. Real GDP per capita growth is added as a macroeconomic control in a robustness model, while the harmonised unemployment rate is used in an additional control specification. Population aged 15 years and older is used only for an exposure-normalised sensitivity outcome; it is not described as the exact population legally eligible to gamble. Tax policy and gambling taxation are not included as separate regressors because the study focuses on household purchasing power rather than fiscal-policy effects.

Sports-betting and football context. To factor the changing betting market into the interpretation without misclassifying casino revenue as football revenue, the quarterly models are supplemented with the Swedish Gambling Authority's 2025 survey of adults aged 18 years or older. The survey included 1,503 respondents, of whom 1,087 had gambled in the previous 12 months; 1,076 answered the gambling-form question and 326 respondents reported betting (Swedish Gambling Authority, 2026a). The comparable share reporting betting rose from 19% in 2024 to 30% in 2025. Among 2025 bettors, 69% reported betting on football, 44% on horse racing and 37% on ice hockey. These survey observations are used descriptively rather than as quarterly regressors because they do not form a long, frequency-matched time series. Earlier bettor subsamples in the report are also much smaller, so the paper avoids presenting them as a stable trend.

COVID and time structure. COVID-19 altered gambling opportunities rather than only household income. Sweden did not impose the same restrictions as many countries, but sports schedules and physical gambling venues were nonetheless disrupted, and prior Swedish research documents strong product-level changes during 2020 (Balem et al., 2023; Håkansson, 2020). A COVID indicator is therefore set to one from 2020Q2 through 2021Q2. Level models also include quarter indicators and a linear trend to represent seasonality and the secular movement in real GGR. The primary year-on-year model does not require quarter dummies because each observation is compared with the same quarter of the previous year.

Statistical analysis. The primary model is $\Delta^4 \ln(\text{GGR}_t) = \alpha + \beta \Delta^4 \ln(\text{Income}_t) + \gamma \text{COVID}_t + \tau \text{Trend}_t + \epsilon_t$. The coefficient β is interpreted as an income elasticity: approximately the percentage change in real GGR growth associated with a 1% change in real disposable income growth. Ordinary

least squares estimates use Newey-West heteroskedasticity- and autocorrelation-consistent standard errors with four lags, reflecting quarterly data. The same year-on-year specification is estimated for the broad commercial online betting/casino segment as a secondary test, while log-level channel models provide a further view of longer-run differences. Robustness checks add real GDP growth, replace contemporaneous income with a one-quarter lag, exclude the COVID window, estimate log-level models with quarter effects, and use real GGR per population aged 15 + as the outcome. Residual serial correlation and heteroskedasticity were checked using Breusch-Godfrey and Breusch-Pagan tests. Because the level series show strong time structure and the sample is short, year-on-year log growth is treated as the principal specification rather than relying on a levels correlation.

Research integrity and AI assistance. All variables are derived from publicly available aggregate statistics and contain no individual-level or identifiable data. No human participants were recruited. Generative AI tools were used to assist with manuscript drafting and grammar checks. Numerical results were generated from the cited public data and were checked against the analysis dataset; responsibility for the final manuscript and interpretation remains with the author.

Table 1
Variable definitions and sources

Variable	Role	Source	Operationalisation
Real licensed GGR	Dependent variable	Swedish Gambling Authority	Quarterly stakes minus winnings; deflated to 2025 SEK with HICP
Real disposable income per capita	Primary explanatory variable	OECD	Quarterly SA index; four-quarter log change in primary model
Real GDP per capita	Control	OECD	Quarterly SA index; four-quarter log change
Unemployment rate	Control	OECD/FRED interface	Harmonised total 15 + rate, seasonally adjusted
Population 15+	Exposure sensitivity	OECD/FRED interface	Quarterly SA population; not treated as exact legal gambling-age denominator
HICP	Deflator	Eurostat/FRED interface	All-items monthly index, 2025 = 100; averaged by quarter
COVID indicator	Temporal control	Author coding	1 for 2020Q2-2021Q2, otherwise 0
<i>Note. SA = seasonally adjusted; GGR = gross gaming revenue; HICP = Harmonised Index of Consumer Prices; VLT = video lottery terminal/value-machine activity.</i>			

Results

Market movement before modelling. The descriptive pattern is a divergence rather than a simple upward income-and-gambling trend. Average quarterly real GGR was SEK 7.41 billion in 2025 prices (SD = 0.44 billion), while the real disposable-income index averaged 124.81 (SD = 2.64). From 2019 to 2025, nominal licensed GGR rose from SEK 24.71 billion to SEK 28.20 billion, an increase of 14.1%. After inflation adjustment, however, annual real GGR fell by 7.8%. Over the same interval, the annual average real disposable-income index rose by

3.1%. Figure 2 makes this contrast visible: income recovered from the 2020 shock and ended above its 2019 level, whereas real gambling expenditure became lower after 2022 despite pronounced fourth-quarter peaks.

Table 2
Descriptive statistics, 2019Q1-2025Q4

Variable	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Real total GGR (SEK million, 2025 prices)	7,414.30	443.27	6,683.70	8,358.13
Real GGR per population 15+ (SEK)	875.13	59.57	774.08	1,001.69
Real disposable income per capita index	124.81	2.64	115.64	130.17
Real GDP per capita index	109.60	2.45	100.03	112.89
Unemployment rate (%)	8.00	0.78	6.57	9.17
Online share of licensed GGR (%)	62.0	3.1	54.7	67.3
<i>Note. Monetary values are expressed in 2025 prices where indicated. N = 28 quarters.</i>				

The composition of gambling changed even more strongly than the total. Commercial online gambling and betting represented 56.4% of nominal licensed GGR in 2019 and 65.3% in 2025. The segment generated SEK 18.4 billion in nominal GGR in 2025, 3.3% more than in 2024. In real terms, annual online GGR was 6.7% above its 2019 level by 2025, whereas real lottery/value-machine GGR was 19.6% lower and the combined land-based series was 71.9% lower. Figure 3 therefore shows why total-market income sensitivity cannot be interpreted without channel migration: a growing online/betting segment can coexist with a flat or falling real total when traditional channels contract.

Primary income model. Despite the negative secular movement in real total GGR, short-run changes in income were positively associated with short-run changes in gambling expenditure. In the primary year-on-year log model, the income elasticity was 1.03 (SE = 0.15, 95% CI [0.75, 1.32], $p < .001$). In practical terms, a 1% higher year-on-year growth rate in real disposable income was associated with approximately 1.03% higher year-on-year growth in real licensed GGR, conditional on the COVID indicator and time trend. The model explained 68.0% of variation in year-on-year real GGR growth. The Durbin-Watson statistic was 2.31; the Breusch-Godfrey test did not indicate residual serial correlation in the comparable specification, and the Breusch-Pagan test did not indicate heteroskedasticity.

Robustness. The result did not depend on a single specification. With no macroeconomic controls beyond COVID, the elasticity was 1.04 (SE = 0.15, $p < .001$). Adding real GDP growth reduced the income estimate to 0.80 (SE = 0.29, $p = .012$), while GDP growth itself was not statistically significant. Replacing current income growth with a one-quarter lag produced an elasticity of 0.83 (SE = 0.21, $p < .001$). Excluding quarters coded as COVID disruption yielded 1.18 (SE = 0.31, $p = .001$). A log-level model with quarter effects, COVID and trend produced an income coefficient of 1.17 (SE = 0.16, $p < .001$), and the population-normalised level model gave 1.18 (SE = 0.17, $p < .001$). Figure 4 summarises these estimates. Importantly, the level association becomes weak if the secular trend is omitted, reinforcing the interpretation that income explains cyclical variation around a changing market structure rather than the long-run direction of the market itself.

Table 3
Income elasticity estimates across primary and robustness models

Specification	Income coefficient	HAC SE	95% CI	p	N	R2
Primary YoY log model	1.03	0.15	0.75, 1.32	< .001	24	0.680
Primary + GDP growth	0.80	0.29	0.24, 1.36	.012	24	0.693
Income lagged 1 quarter	0.83	0.21	0.42, 1.25	< .001	23	0.515
Exclude COVID window	1.18	0.31	0.58, 1.77	.001	19	0.502
Log-level model	1.17	0.16	0.85, 1.49	< .001	28	0.915
Per-capita log-level model	1.18	0.17	0.84, 1.52	< .001	28	0.934

Note. Primary and first four robustness rows use four-quarter log changes. Level models use log real GGR and log income with quarter indicators, COVID and linear trend. HAC = heteroskedasticity- and autocorrelation-consistent Newey-West standard errors (four lags).

Channel models. The income association was also visible inside the broad online betting/casino segment. In the year-on-year growth specification used for the primary analysis, the online-segment income elasticity was 0.79 (SE = 0.25, 95% CI [0.29, 1.28], $p = .002$). The comparable lottery/value-machine elasticity was 0.61 (SE = 0.15, $p < .001$). In log-level models with the same seasonal, COVID and trend controls, the income coefficient was 1.53 for real online GGR (SE = 0.30, $p < .001$) and 0.82 for real lottery/value-machine GGR (SE = 0.24, $p = .003$). The land-based coefficient was negative and imprecisely estimated (-2.00, SE = 1.26, $p = .129$). The land result should not be read as evidence that income reduces physical gambling: the segment was dominated by venue closures, the disappearance of state casino revenue and a major structural decline. Likewise, the online estimate is not a football-specific elasticity because casino and betting are combined in the official quarterly series.

Table 4
Channel-specific log-level income coefficients

Gambling channel	Income coefficient	HAC SE	p	R2
Online betting/casino	1.53	0.30	< .001	0.725
Lottery and VLT	0.82	0.24	.003	0.932
Land-based casino/bingo/commercial	-2.00	1.26	.129	0.963

Note. Each model includes quarter indicators, the COVID indicator and a linear trend. N = 28 quarters. The land-based series experienced major structural disruption and should be interpreted cautiously.

Sports-betting and football evidence. The complementary survey data sharpen the interpretation of the online shift. Among respondents who had gambled in the past year, betting participation increased from 19% in 2024 to 30% in 2025. Football was the leading betting object in 2025: 69% of bettors reported football, compared with 44% for horse racing and 37% for ice hockey (Swedish Gambling Authority, 2026a). The football share among bettors was 75% in 2024, so the evidence does not show that football's share itself rose in the latest year. Rather, a larger share of gamblers entered betting while football remained its dominant sporting focus. Figure 5

separates these two facts. This distinction matters because it prevents the aggregate rise in betting participation from being misreported as a football-specific revenue trend.

Discussion

This study produces a three-part finding. First, Swedish licensed gambling expenditure was income-sensitive over the business cycle: quarters with stronger year-on-year growth in real disposable income tended to record stronger growth in real GGR. Second, that short-run association coexisted with a long-run decline in inflation-adjusted total gambling expenditure and a pronounced shift toward online products. Third, the digital shift occurred alongside a sharp recent increase in betting participation, with football remaining the most common betting object. The result is therefore not that rising national income mechanically caused Sweden to gamble more, or that football alone drove aggregate GGR. It is that household purchasing power was associated with the pace of gambling expenditure within a market where increasingly accessible betting opportunities—often organised around football—were becoming more prominent.

Disposable income gives this finding a clearer economic meaning than GDP alone. GDP describes production in the economy, whereas real household disposable income is closer to the purchasing power households can actually allocate between consumption and saving (OECD, 2026). Rude et al. (2014) found that Swedish household gambling demand responded to income, but elasticities varied across income classes and economic conditions. Horváth and Paap (2012) and Eakins (2016) likewise showed that gambling products do not respond uniformly to recessions. The present evidence adds a post-2019 Swedish market perspective: once inflation, year-on-year comparison and the COVID disruption are addressed, real income growth remains positively associated with licensed expenditure. The lagged result suggests that adjustment need not be instantaneous, which is consistent with consumption smoothing. In other words, disposable income appears to affect the financial capacity for gambling at the margin, while the product and channel environment determines how that capacity is expressed.

The stronger online result is especially relevant when read beside the sports-betting evidence. Sweden's reregulation was designed partly to channel online play to licensed operators (Statskontoret, 2022), and by 2025 commercial online gambling and betting accounted for nearly two thirds of licensed GGR (Swedish Gambling Authority, 2026b). During the same year, the national survey recorded a rise in betting participation from 19% to 30% among past-year gamblers, while 69% of bettors reported football (Swedish Gambling Authority, 2026a). This suggests a plausible 'resources plus opportunity' interpretation: disposable income determines how much purchasing power households have available, while mobile betting and a dense football calendar provide frequent opportunities to commit some of that spending to gambling. The present data cannot test that mechanism directly, however, because the quarterly revenue series combines online casino with betting and does not report football turnover separately. The football evidence therefore strengthens market interpretation rather than serving as a causal regressor.

For public health, neither the income coefficient nor the prominence of football betting should be translated into a claim about gambling disorder. GGR measures net expenditure in the market; it does not identify who generated the revenue or whether losses produced harm. This caveat is especially important because income has different meanings in absolute and relative terms. Grönroos et al. (2022) showed that high expenditure can be concentrated among higher-spending groups, yet lower socioeconomic position can still increase

vulnerability because the same loss consumes a larger share of available resources. Swedish lower-risk research likewise treats expenditure as a proportion of personal income as a distinct harm-relevant dimension (Dowling et al., 2025). The football evidence makes the same point from another direction: sports betting was very common among Swedish elite male footballers, but Wall et al. (2025) found that slots and bingo, rather than sports betting, were the gambling forms significantly associated with problem-gambling status in their adjusted model. The macro result therefore supports affordability and product monitoring, not the inference that higher-income periods or football betting are inherently more harmful.

There are practical implications for regulators and operators. First, quarterly real disposable-income growth can be used as a contextual forecasting variable when interpreting GGR movements. A revenue increase during strong household purchasing-power growth has a different economic context from the same increase during falling real income. Second, total GGR should be accompanied by channel-specific, sports-betting and affordability indicators. The 2019–2025 Swedish data show that a stable or falling real market total can conceal growth in online gambling, while the 2025 survey shows that betting participation can rise rapidly within that changing mix. Third, football deserves monitoring because it is the most common object of betting, but football-specific turnover should be measured directly before attributing market growth to the sport. Finally, policy evaluation should distinguish market growth from channelling: a rise in licensed online GGR may partly reflect successful movement away from unlicensed operators rather than an equivalent rise in total Swedish gambling consumption.

Several limitations define the boundary of these conclusions. The sample contains only 28 post-reregulation quarters, and the primary year-on-year model contains 24 observations. This limits power for complex dynamic specifications and makes structural-break estimation unreliable. The design is ecological, so aggregate income and GGR cannot be used to infer individual spending responses. The dependent variable excludes unlicensed gambling, and channelling has varied over the study period. Most importantly for the sports interpretation, the regulator's quarterly market series combines commercial online casino and betting, so football betting cannot be isolated from casino revenue. The national survey helps establish that betting participation rose and that football dominates betting objects, but it is annual, self-reported and not frequency-matched to the quarterly income series. Broad HICP is used to express GGR in real terms, although gambling does not have a conventional product price index. COVID controls cannot capture every contemporaneous policy, sports-calendar or behavioural change. Advertising, operator promotions, product innovation and specific regulatory interventions are not separately modelled. The analysis is associational and cannot establish that changes in disposable income caused changes in gambling expenditure.

These limitations point to a useful next research step rather than negating the result. A longer post-reregulation series could support formal cointegration and structural-break tests, while monthly operator or product data could separate sports calendars, promotional intensity and policy interventions. The most informative extension would obtain football-specific stakes or GGR and test whether disposable-income sensitivity strengthens during high-intensity football periods such as major international tournaments or dense domestic match schedules. Linking register-based income measures to behavioural account data would then show whether the aggregate elasticity reflects broad consumer adjustment or concentration among high-intensity bettors. Sweden's existing longitudinal gambling research infrastructure provides a natural foundation for that work (Abbott et al., 2018; Swedish Public Health Agency, 2026).

Conclusion

The Swedish evidence shows the relationship between disposable income and gambling between 2019 to 2025. While real disposable income ended above its starting level, real licensed GGR ended below it, yet year-on-year income growth remained strongly associated with year-on-year gambling growth. At the same time, commercial online gambling and betting gained market share, betting participation rose sharply between the 2024 and 2025 national surveys, and football remained the leading object among bettors. Income therefore appears to matter for cyclical spending capacity, while digital access and sports-betting opportunities shape where that capacity can be expressed. For research and policy, the implication is straightforward: monitor real household purchasing power alongside gambling channels and sports-betting participation. The study therefore concludes that gambling behaviour in Sweden is shaped by the interaction between disposable income, digital accessibility and the growing importance of football-related betting opportunities.

Declarations

Ethics approval: Not applicable. The study analyses public, aggregate secondary data and does not involve human participants or identifiable personal data.

Consent to participate: Not applicable.

Funding: No external funding was used for this study.

Competing interests: The author declares no competing interests.

Data availability: The analysis-ready quarterly dataset is compiled from public Swedish Gambling Authority, OECD and Eurostat series. The cleaned dataset and derived variables can be supplied as supplementary material with the submission. Source links are provided in the references and data workbook.

References

1. Abbott, M. W., Romild, U., & Volberg, R. A. (2014). Gambling and problem gambling in Sweden: Changes between 1998 and 2009. *Journal of Gambling Studies*, 30(4), 985–999. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10899-013-9396-3>
2. Abbott, M., Romild, U., & Volberg, R. (2018). The prevalence, incidence, and gender and age-specific incidence of problem gambling: Results of the Swedish longitudinal gambling study (Swelogs). *Addiction*, 113(4), 699–707. <https://doi.org/10.1111/add.14083>
3. Balem, M., Karlsson, A., Widinghoff, C., Perrot, B., Challet-Bouju, G., & Håkansson, A. (2023). Gambling and COVID-19: Swedish national gambling data from a state-owned gambling sports and casino operator. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 12(1), 230–241. <https://doi.org/10.1556/2006.2022.00089>
4. Dowling, N. A., Wennberg, P., Wall, H., & Molander, O. (2025). Striving towards national lower-risk gambling guidelines: An empirical investigation among a sample of Swedish gamblers. *Journal of Gambling Studies*, 41, 753–766. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10899-024-10372-w>
5. Eakins, J. (2016). Household gambling expenditures and the Irish recession. *International Gambling Studies*, 16(2), 211–230. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14459795.2016.1157698>

6. Eurostat (2026). Harmonised Index of Consumer Prices (HICP): All items, Sweden. Eurostat database. <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/>
7. Friedman, M. (1957). *A theory of the consumption function*. Princeton University Press.
8. Grönroos, T., Kouvonon, A., Kontto, J., & Salonen, A. H. (2022). Socio-demographic factors, gambling behaviour, and the level of gambling expenditure: A population-based study. *Journal of Gambling Studies*, 38, 1093–1109. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10899-021-10075-6>
9. Håkansson, A. (2020). Effects on gambling activity from coronavirus disease 2019: An analysis of revenue-based taxation of online- and land-based gambling operators during the pandemic. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 11, 611939. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2020.611939>
10. Horváth, C., & Paap, R. (2012). The effect of recessions on gambling expenditures. *Journal of Gambling Studies*, 28, 703–717. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10899-011-9282-9>
11. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2026). Household indicators dashboard: Real gross disposable income per capita and real GDP per capita. OECD Data Explorer. <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/>
12. Raybould, J. N., Larkin, M., & Tunney, R. J. (2021). Is there a health inequality in gambling related harms? A systematic review. *Bmc Public Health*, 21, 305. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-10337-3>
13. Rude, J., Surry, Y., & Kron, R. (2014). A generalized double-hurdle model of Swedish gambling expenditures. *Applied Economics*, 46(34), 4151–4163. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00036846.2014.939376>
14. Statskontoret (2022). Evaluation of the reregulation of the gambling market - Final report. Swedish Agency for Public Management. <https://www.statskontoret.se/english/reports/publikationer-2022/evaluation-of-the-reregulation-of-the-gambling-market---final-report/>
15. Swedish Gambling Authority (2026a). Allmänheten om spel 2025 [The public on gambling 2025]. <https://www.spelinspektionen.se/globalassets/dokument/statistik/marknadsundersokningar/allmanheten-om-spel-2025.pdf>
16. Swedish Gambling Authority (2026b). Statistics: Swedish gambling market. <https://www.spelinspektionen.se/en/contact-us/statistics/>
17. Swedish Public Health Agency (2026). Swelogs (The Swedish Longitudinal Gambling Study). <https://www.folkhalsomyndigheten.se/the-public-health-agency-of-sweden/living-conditions-and-lifestyle/andtg/gambling/swelogs/>
18. Şimşek, T., & Weidner, L. (2024). The effect of inequality and prosperity on the European market for gambling machines: A socioeconomic panel analysis. *Journal of Gambling Studies*, 40, 107–129. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10899-023-10213-2>
19. Wall, H., Gripenberg, J., & Elgan, T. H. (2025). Prevalence and predictors of problem gambling among Swedish male elite football players: A cross-sectional study. *BMJ Open Sport & Exercise Medicine*, 11(2), e002360. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjsem-2024-002360>

Figures



Figure 1

Study setting: Sweden and Stockholm, the national regulatory and statistical context

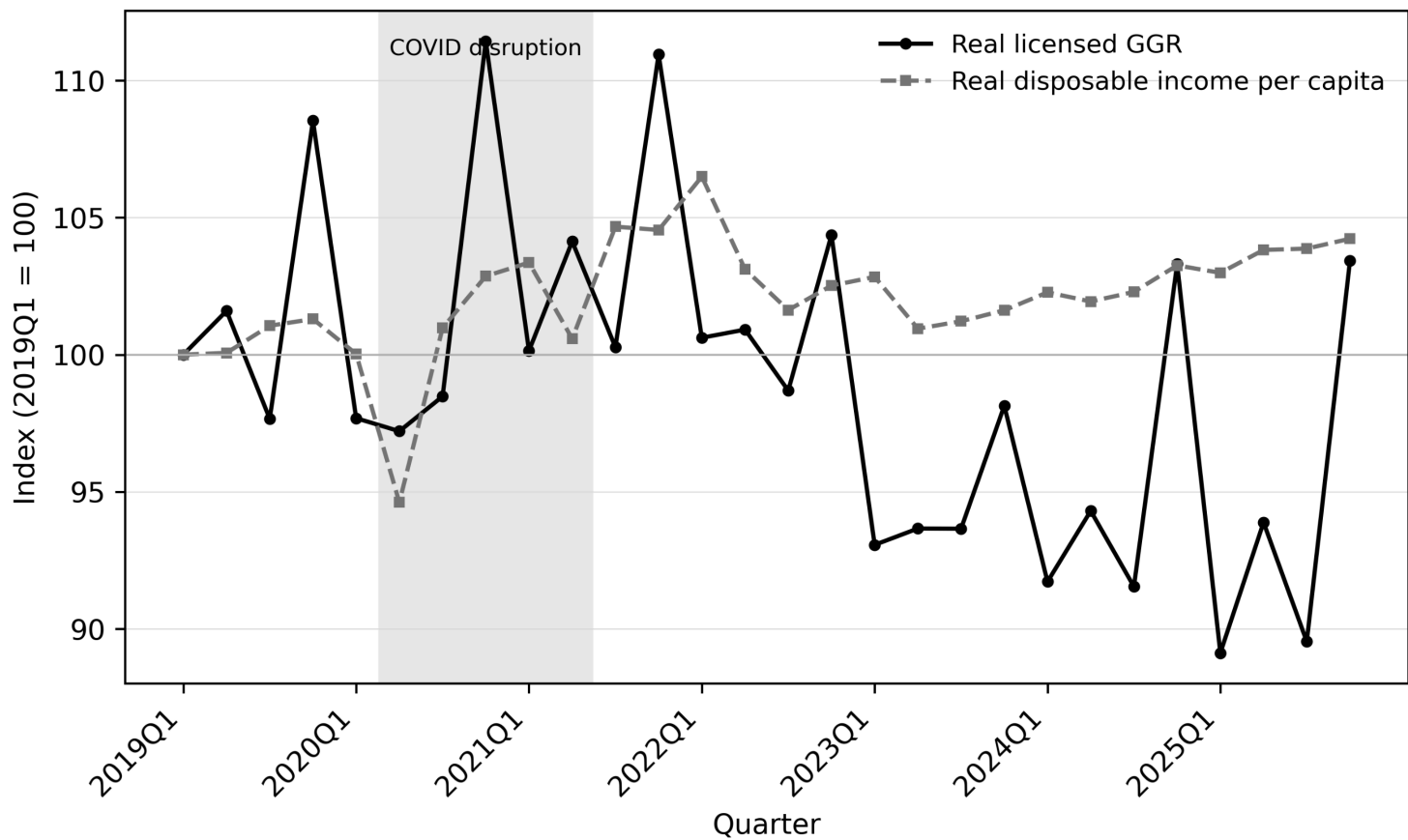


Figure 2

Real licensed GGR and real disposable income per capita, indexed to 2019Q1 = 100

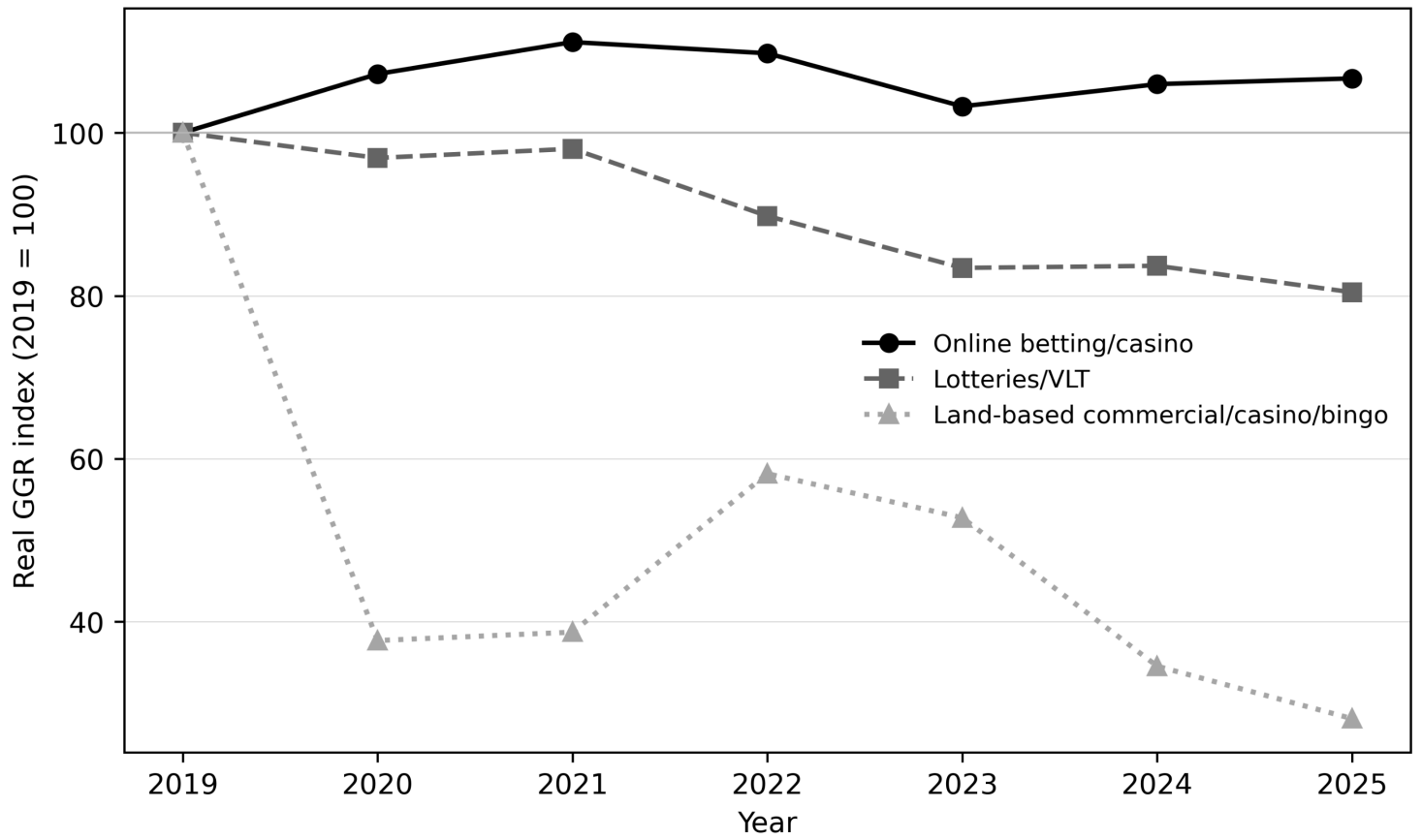


Figure 3

Real licensed GGR by broad gambling channel, annual totals indexed to 2019 = 100

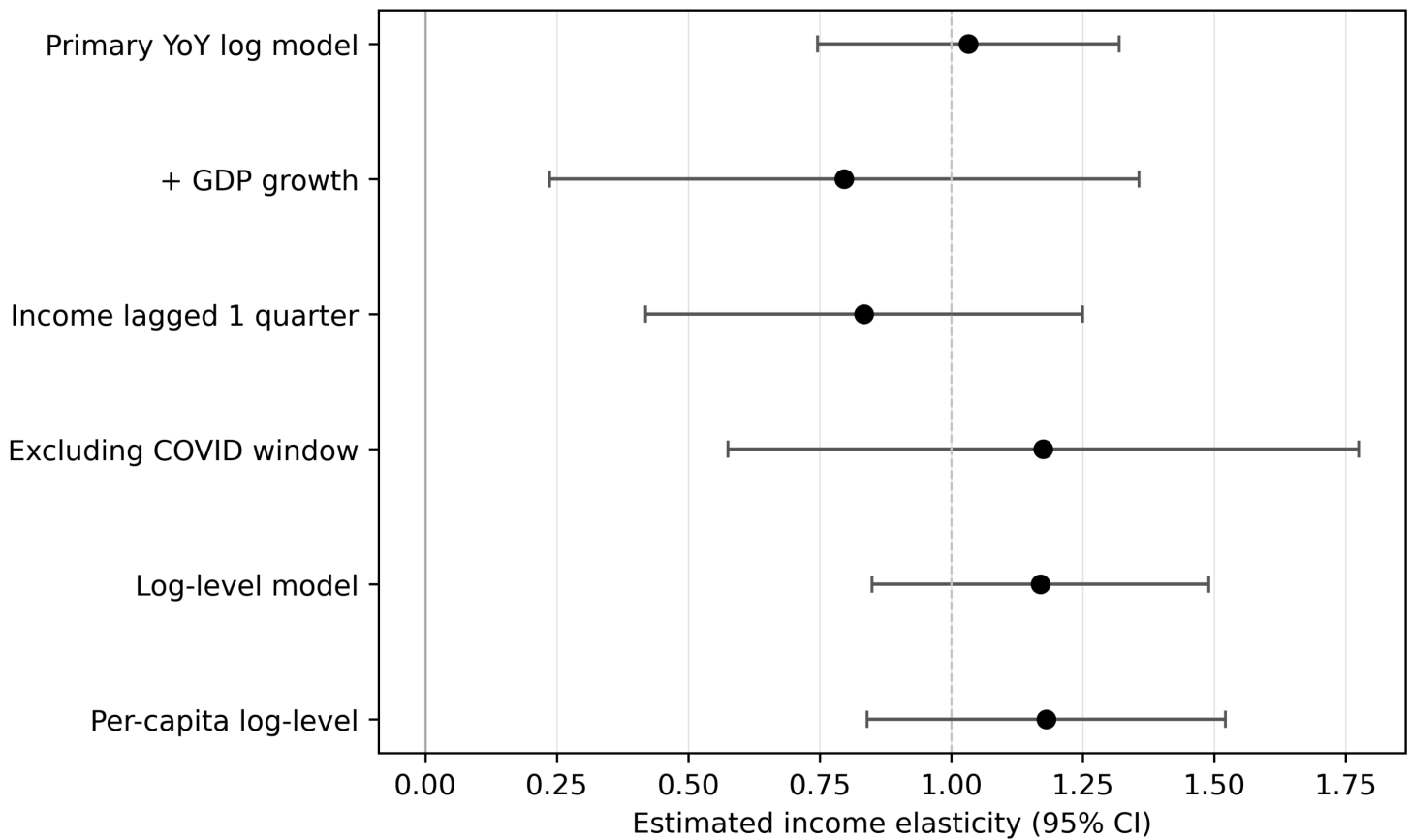
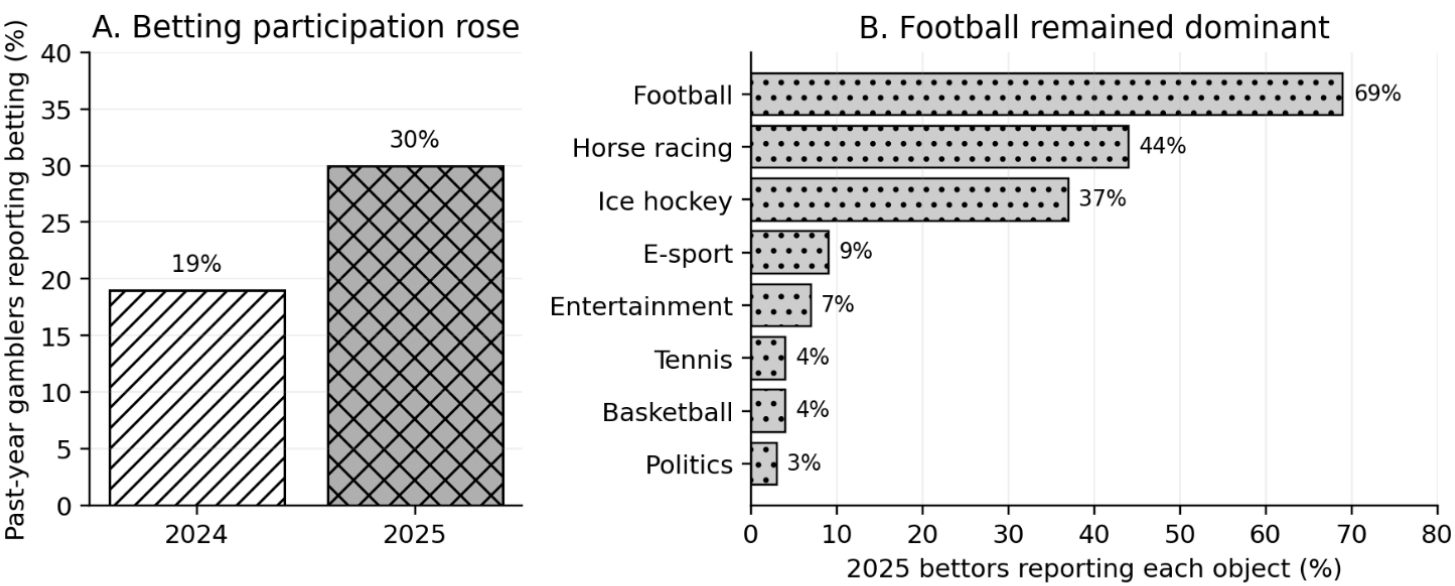


Figure 4

Estimated income elasticities and 95% confidence intervals across key specifications

Sports betting and football in Sweden: national survey context



Note. Denominators differ across panels. Source: Swedish Gambling Authority, Allmänheten om spel 2025.

Figure 5

