



Smoke-free laws and bar revenues in California – the last call

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Summary

California was the first state to implement smoke-free restaurant and bar laws, in 1995 and 1998, respectively. We analyze how these laws affected the distribution of revenues between bars and restaurants. Critics of smoke-free bar laws have often claimed that a prohibition on smoking reduces bar revenues. Similar claims are made for the effects of smoke-free restaurant laws. Such claims implicitly assume that a smoke-free law reduces expenditures by smokers by more than it increases expenditures by non-smokers. Using tax revenue data from 1990 to 2002, our analysis suggests that the actual effect is just the opposite: the 1995 smoke-free restaurant law is associated with an *increase* in restaurant revenues, while the 1998 smoke-free bar law is associated with an increase in bar revenues. Copyright © 2005 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

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Introduction

Smoke-free restaurant and bar laws are being considered, and often implemented, by a large number of jurisdictions around the world. Within the US, California was the first state to implement a statewide smoke-free restaurant law in January 1995, and a statewide smoke-free bar law in January 1998 [1,2]. These laws have clearly reduced the exposure of bar and restaurant employees to secondhand smoke [3], and as such should have reduced their susceptibility to respiratory and heart diseases [4,5]. The tobacco industry and its front groups, however, have consistently attacked these laws on a variety of levels [6,7]. A common argument is that customers will be driven away and consequently businesses will lose revenue. In the current paper we examine the validity of this argument.

The claim that smoking bans will reduce restaurant and bar profits stems from an assumption that smokers will substitute away from spending time in these locales in favor of other forms of leisure activity. In practice, any exit of smokers is likely to be at least partially offset by a substitution by non-smokers towards spending time in bars and restaurants. Whether the overall effect is favorable or unfavorable for bars and restaurants is ultimately an empirical matter.

In this paper we present evidence that non-smoking laws in California have actually increased revenues for the establishments affected. Our central findings are that, relative to trend, restaurant revenues increased following the introduction of the smoke-free restaurant law in 1995; and likewise, bar revenues increased (again relative to trend) after the smoke-free bar law was introduced in 1998. In both cases, these findings suggest that any substitution by smokers *away* from the

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1 establishments affected was more than offset by
 3 the substitution by non-smokers *towards* the same
 establishments.

5 It is of course possible that the increases in
 restaurant and bar revenues after the 1995 and
 7 1998 laws, respectively, was a result of other
 factors, and that these non-smoking laws were
 9 unfavorable for the establishments they targeted.
 For instance, perhaps the increase in bar revenues
 11 after 1998 would have been *even larger* had
 smoking in bars remained legal? Two further
 13 findings suggest that this is unlikely to have been
 the case.

15 First, the findings that restaurant revenues
 increased after 1995 and bar revenues increased
 after 1998 are robust to the inclusion of individual
 17 time trends for different counties. In other words,
 even after controlling for secular trends in
 19 entertainment expenditures in different counties,
 there are still noticeable increases in restaurant
 21 revenues after 1995 and bar revenues after 1998.
 Thus if one wants to maintain that these increases
 23 were *not* due to the smoke-free laws, one would
 have to argue that some other *statewide* change
 25 occurred in the same years.

27 As noted above we are inclined to interpret the
 increases in restaurant and bar revenues in 1995
 and 1998, respectively, as evidence of substitution
 29 effects by non-smokers outweighing substitution
 effects by smokers. Our second set of supporting
 31 results concerns the existence of substitution
 effects of this kind.

33 Our results suggest that in 1995 non-smokers
 substituted from bars to restaurants. One would
 35 expect this effect to be most pronounced in
 counties where restaurants are good substitutes
 37 for bars. Consistent with this hypothesis, we
 find that the rise in restaurant revenues was largest
 39 in counties with a higher ratio of restaurants to
 bars.

41 Likewise, one would expect the 1998 rise in bar
 revenues to be more pronounced in counties where
 43 substitution from restaurants to bar is easiest.
 Again, consistent with this hypothesis, we find that
 45 the rise in bar revenues was larger in counties with
 a higher ratio of bars to restaurants.

47 Numerous authors have examined the effects of
 smoke-free restaurants on revenues, employee
 49 counts, and tourism [8,9]. Studies appearing
 in peer-reviewed journals have either reported
 51 favorable effects of the smoke-free restaurant
 law, or else have failed to detect any statistically
 53 significant effect. Closest to the current paper,

1 Bartosch and Pope [10], Bartosch and Pope [11]
 and Hyland *et al.* [12] have looked at the effects of
 3 smoke-free restaurant laws on revenues; neither
 study was able to detect a statistically significant
 5 reduction in revenues. Likewise, Glantz [13]
 examines aggregate California bar revenue data
 7 up to 1999. He concludes that the implementation
 of the smoke-free laws positively impacted bar
 9 revenues.

11 Relative to these previous papers, we make
 three main contributions. First, by using county-
 level data we are able to more effectively control
 13 for changes in revenues stemming from factors
other than the introduction of smoking bans.
 15 Second, Glantz's findings on the effects of the
 smoke-free bar law are based on a single year of
 17 data after the introduction of the smoke-free bar
 law, and as such must be viewed as being
 19 somewhat preliminary. By also including revenue
 data from 1999 to 2002, our paper considerably
 21 strengthens his findings. Third, we discuss in
 considerably greater detail *why* a ban on smoking
 23 in bars (respectively, restaurants) may have led to
 an increase in bar (respectively, restaurant) reven-
 25 ues. In particular, we present evidence consistent
 with the hypothesis that smoke-free laws induce
 27 substitution of expenditures between bars and
 restaurants.

31 The choice between bars and 33 restaurants

35 Our main object of interest in this paper is the
 effect of no-smoking laws on the distribution of
 37 revenue between bars and restaurants. Through-
 out the paper, we denote the bar sector's share of
 39 total expenditures in eating and drinking establish-
 ments by $P_{B/ED}$. That is, $P_{B/ED} = (\text{total bar}$
 41 $\text{revenue}) / (\text{total revenue of all eating and drinking}$
 establishments). In the next section we detail how
 43 this quantity is measured.

45 By definition, $P_{B/ED}$ can be decomposed into
 a weighted sum of $P_{B/ED}^S$, the proportion of
 eating and drinking expenditures *by smokers* that
 47 takes place in bars, and $P_{B/ED}^{NS}$, the equivalent
 expenditure measure for *non-smokers*. That is,
 49

$$51 P_{B/ED} = \alpha P_{B/ED}^S + (1 - \alpha) P_{B/ED}^{NS} \quad 51$$

53 where α is the proportion of all total expenditure
 on eating and drinking accounted for by smokers.

1 The effect of no-smoking laws stressed by
2 tobacco groups and other opponents of smoke-
3 free laws is:

5 *Prediction 1.* A ban on smoking in bars will
6 reduce $P_{B/ED}^S$.

7 The basic reasoning behind this prediction is
8 smokers find smoke-free bars less attractive, and
9 substitute to other forms of leisure activity. Similar
10 reasoning implies the following three predictions:

11 *Prediction 2.* A ban on smoking in restaurants
12 will increase $P_{B/ED}^S$, as smokers substitute from
13 restaurants to bars.

14 *Prediction 3.* A ban on smoking in bars will
15 increase $P_{B/ED}^{NS}$, as non-smokers substitute from
16 restaurants to bars.

17 *Prediction 4.* A ban on smoking in restaurants
18 will decrease $P_{B/ED}^{NS}$, as non-smokers substitute
19 from bars to restaurants.

20 From the preceding observations, it is apparent
21 that the overall effect of the laws banning smoking
22 in restaurants and in bars is more complicated
23 than is often suggested. However, the following
24 three additional hypotheses appear plausible:

25 *Hypothesis A.* Suppose that a smoke-free
26 restaurant law is enacted *before* a smoke-free bar
27 law. Then at the introduction of the smoke-free
28 bar law the decrease in $P_{B/ED}^S$ will be small since
29 there are no easily accessible alternative social
30 venues in which smoking is allowed. Conse-
31 quently, $P_{B/ED}$ will increase.

32 *Hypothesis B.* At the introduction of the smoke-
33 free restaurant law the decrease in $P_{B/ED}^{NS}$ will be
34 most pronounced in those counties where substi-
35 tution from bars to restaurants is easiest, i.e.
36 where the relative predominance of restaurants to
37 bars in a county is high. As such, $P_{B/ED}$ will
38 decrease by more (or increase by less) in such
39 counties.

40 *Hypothesis C.* At the introduction of the smoke-
41 free bar law the increase in $P_{B/ED}^{NS}$ will be most
42 pronounced in those counties where substitution
43 from restaurants to bars is easiest, i.e. where the
44 relative predominance of bars to restaurants in a
45 county is high. As such, $P_{B/ED}$ will increase by
46 more (or decrease by less) in such counties.

49 Data

51 The data is taken from the California Board of
52 Equalization's (BOE) *Taxable Sales in California*
53 (*Sales & Use Tax*) quarterly reports from 1990 to

2002. These reports give the revenues for a variety
1 of business types at the state-level, and also at the
2 county-level for the largest 36 of California's 58
3 counties. For our analysis the relevant business
4 types are: 'Eating and drinking establishments –
5 no alcohol,' 'Eating and drinking establishments –
6 beer and wine,' 'Eating and drinking establish-
7 ments – all types of liquor.' We measure total
8 expenditure in eating and drinking establishments
9 as the sum total of these three categories.

10 It is important to note a significant limitation in
11 the data we use. The BOE business type category,
12 'Eating and Drinking Establishments – all types of
13 liquor,' includes 10 635 establishments in 2002.
14 Although we will label this category as 'bars'
15 for the remainder of the manuscript, this category
16 includes *both* stand-alone bars and restaurant
17 bars. (For the purposes of the smoke-free restau-
18 rant laws, a stand-alone bar is an establishment
19 where drinks sales account for a substantial
20 portion of revenue.) According to California's
21 Alcohol and Beverage Commission classification,
22 for 2002 only approximately one-third of estab-
23 lishments covered by this category were in fact
24 stand-alone bars. The 1995 smoke-free restaurant
25 law prohibited smoking in restaurants. Conse-
26 quently, the smoke-free restaurant law potentially
27 affects all of the BOE business types. Likewise, the
28 1998 law prohibited smoking in bars impacted
29 only about one-third of the establishments in the
30 'Eating and drinking establishments – all types of
31 liquor' category.

32 This artifact of the data will make the substiti-
33 tion effects discussed above harder to detect, since
34 not all switches between bars and restaurants will
35 be empirically observable. However, to the extent
36 to which this form of measurement error biases
37 our estimates towards zero, it only strengthens our
38 main results.

39 Also biasing the result towards zero is that eight
40 jurisdictions, which represent a small proportion
41 of the state's population, passed smoke-free bar
42 laws before the implementation of the statewide
43 law. These ordinances were not uniform in their
44 provisions and were not uniformly enforced.
45 Consequently, we have chosen to not model these
46 ordinances separately.

47 To further control for possible trends in revenue
48 distribution, in our regressions below we include
49 time-series variation in unemployment rates. The
50 source for this data is the California Employment
51 Development Department, Labor Market Infor-
52 mation Division.

Empirical analysis

As discussed, we focus throughout on the proportion of all eating and drinking establishment revenues that are attributed to bars, that is, the ratio of bar revenues to the revenue of the 'All Eating and Drinking' group. It is worth emphasizing that by focusing on the division of total food and drink expenditures between bars and restaurants, we are insulated from many of the time series changes in economic conditions that might cause total expenditures to fluctuate substantially over time.

Statewide analysis

We start with the simplest regression model using only state-level data

$$(P_{B/ED} * 100)_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Q_{2i} + \beta_2 Q_{3i} + \beta_3 Q_{4i} + \beta_4 \tau_i + \beta_5 \gamma_i + \beta_6 SFR_i + \beta_7 \tau_i SFR_i + \beta_8 SFB_i + \beta_9 \tau_i SFB_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

The subscript i denotes the time period. Q_2 , Q_3 , and Q_4 are quarterly dummy variables. τ is a centered time trend variable. γ is the quarterly unemployment rate. SFR and SFB are dummy variables that take the value one after, respectively, the introduction of the smoke-free restaurant law and the smoke-free bar law. β_1 – β_9 are the regression coefficients to be estimated. The error terms ε_i are assumed to be independent and normally distributed. By including the unemployment rate we hope to control for any other secular trends that are not eliminated by examining $P_{B/ED}$. To account for the fact that the effects of smoking bans may build slowly over time, we have included the dummy variables SFR and SFB both separately, and also in interaction with the time trend variable τ . Conceptually, this approach is similar to fitting a fixed changepoint model at the time of the law's implementation to assess the impact of the laws.

Because we allow for a change in both intercept and slope, it is possible that the estimated impact of a smoke-free law will be a decrease (increase) in bar revenues in the short-term but an increase (decrease) in the long-term. In such cases, the overall impact is ambiguous. Consequently, to assess the effects of the smoke-free laws we examine the modeled $P_{B/ED}$ after a specific time

period from the implementation of the law in comparison to the predicted value of $P_{B/ED}$ without the implementation of a smoke-free law. For the smoke-free restaurant law, this comparison is

$$\begin{aligned} & \hat{P}_{B/ED}(\tau|\text{smoke-free restaurant effects}) - \hat{P}_{B/ED} \\ & (\tau|\text{without smoke-free restaurant effects}) \\ & = (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \tau_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Q_{2i} + \hat{\beta}_3 Q_{3i} + \hat{\beta}_4 Q_{4i} + \hat{\beta}_5 \gamma_i \\ & \quad + \hat{\beta}_6 SFR_i + \hat{\beta}_7 \tau_i SFR_i) - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \tau_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Q_{2i} \\ & \quad + \hat{\beta}_3 Q_{3i} + \hat{\beta}_4 Q_{4i} + \hat{\beta}_5 \gamma_i) \\ & = (\hat{\beta}_6 SFR_i + \hat{\beta}_7 \tau_i SFR_i) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where i is a time period after the implementation of the smoke-free restaurant law. For the smoke-free bar law, the comparison is

$$\begin{aligned} & \hat{P}_{B/ED}(\tau|\text{smoke-free bar effects}) \\ & - \hat{P}_{B/ED}(\tau|\text{without smoke-free bar effects}) \\ & = (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \tau_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Q_{2i} + \hat{\beta}_3 Q_{3i} + \hat{\beta}_4 Q_{4i} \\ & \quad + \hat{\beta}_5 \gamma_i + \hat{\beta}_6 SFR_i + \hat{\beta}_7 \tau_i SFR_i + \hat{\beta}_8 SFB_i \\ & \quad + \hat{\beta}_9 \tau_i SFB_i) - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \tau_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Q_{2i} + \hat{\beta}_3 Q_{3i} \\ & \quad + \hat{\beta}_4 Q_{4i} + \hat{\beta}_5 \gamma_i + \hat{\beta}_6 SFR_i + \hat{\beta}_7 \tau_i SFR_i) \\ & = (\hat{\beta}_8 SFB_i + \hat{\beta}_9 \tau_i SFB_i) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where i is a time period after the implementation of the smoke-free bar law. The selection of the time period could be chosen to measure the effects over short-, intermediate- or long-term.

In addition to the specification given above in Equation (1), we also conducted the analysis using $\log(P_{B/ED})$ in place of $P_{B/ED}$ as the dependent variable and used a model with autoregressive errors. The results were largely unaffected (see below for more detail).

County-level analysis

A weakness of the state-level analysis is its inability to distinguish between changes in bar and restaurant revenues caused by the smoke-free laws, and contemporaneous changes in bar and restaurant revenues caused by other factors. A fixed-effects county-level regression can address some of these issues. While the smoke-free laws affected all counties in California simultaneously, other potential factors are unlikely to have equally impacted bar revenues in the counties at the same

time. Using data for the 36 largest counties, we regressed county-level measures of $P_{B/ED}$ on the county measures of the same explanatory variables as before

$$(P_{B/ED})_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}Q_2\lambda_j + \beta_{2j}Q_3\lambda_j + \beta_{3j}Q_4\lambda_j + \beta_4\tau_i + \beta_5\gamma_{ij} + \beta_6\lambda_j\tau_i + \beta_7SFR_i + \beta_8\tau_iSFR_i + \beta_9SFB_i + \beta_{10}\tau_iSFB_i + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad (4)$$

As before, the superscript i denotes the time period, while j denotes the county. λ_j is a dummy variable for each county j , which we treat as a fixed effect. (The random effects regression produced similar results.) Note that the regression allows for county-specific time trends and quarterly effects (τ and Q are interacted with the county dummies).

We estimated the county-level regression (4) using both weighted and unweighted data. When used, weightings are based on county populations in 2000 (with estimates taken from the California Department of Finance).

Results

Statewide analysis

To evaluate the effects of the smoke-free restaurant and bar laws, we evaluate Equations (2) and

(3) using the results from regression (1). Figure 1 graphically displays the model's fit, Table 1 reports the estimates of effects of the smoking bans, and Table 2 displays the regression coefficients themselves. We have evaluated Equations (2) and (3) at one year, two years and five years to measure the short-, intermediate- and long-term effects, respectively.

From Table 1, the smoke-free restaurant law appears to have led to a modest decrease in the bar share of total eating and drinking expenditures. While the point-estimates are negative for all horizons, only the short-term effect is statistically significant. Similarly, the smoke-free bar law led to an increase in bar share of total eating and drinking expenditures. In this case the point-estimates are positive for all horizons; the intermediate- and long effects are statistically significant.

To determine if the trend before the implementation of the smoke-free restaurant law was linear, we examined various specifications of the model for the data from 1990 to 1994. A quadratic time trend variable did not fit the data. While the data fit the $P_{B/ED}$ and $\log(P_{B/ED})$ models similarly, residual analysis suggests the data fits the $P_{B/ED}$ model slightly better.

We also estimated Equation (1) under two alternate specifications. First, we used $\log(P_{B/ED})$ as the dependent variable in place of $P_{B/ED}$. Based on R^2 (97.8 for the $P_{B/ED}$ model vs 97.5 for the $\log(P_{B/ED})$ model), F -statistic size (202.9 vs 184.9,

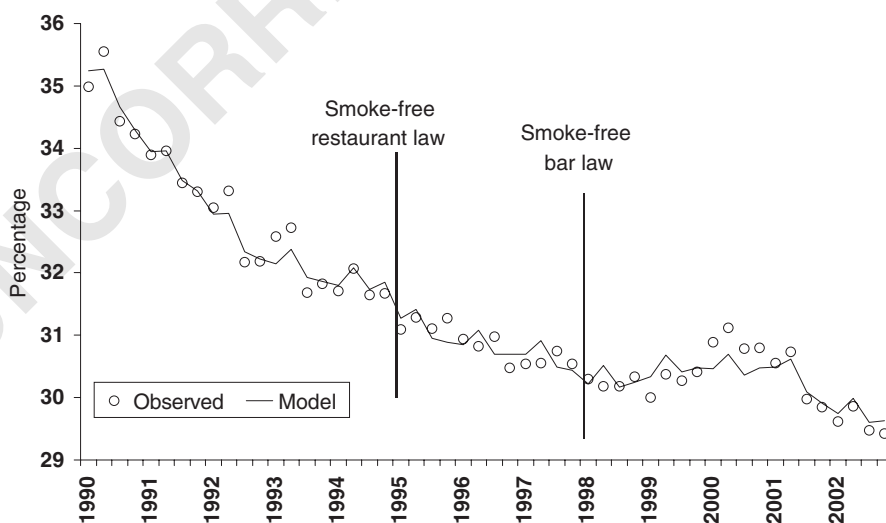


Figure 1. Percentage of quarterly bar revenues as a total of all eating and drinking revenues in California, 1990–2002

Table 1. Effects to the proportion of bar revenues to all eating and drinking revenues in California and 95% confidence intervals due the implementation of the smoke-free restaurant and bar laws

	Smoke-free restaurant law		Smoke-free bar law	
	Effect	95% CI	Effect	95% CI
Statewide				
Short-term	-0.50*	(-0.95, -0.05)	0.22	(-0.24, 0.68)
Intermediate term	-0.53	(-1.16, 0.07)	0.67*	(0.06, 1.28)
Long Term	-0.59	(-1.79, 0.61)	2.03**	(0.86, 3.19)
County-level – weighted				
Short-term	-0.41**	(-0.69, -0.13)	0.33*	(0.02, 0.65)
Intermediate term	-0.41*	(-0.77, -0.05)	0.80**	(0.38, 1.22)
Long Term	-0.42	(-1.16, 0.31)	2.19***	(1.40, 2.98)
County-level – unweighted				
Short-term	-0.35*	(-0.70, 0.00)	0.52*	(0.11, 0.94)
Intermediate term	-0.49*	(-0.92, -0.06)	1.04**	(0.49, 1.58)
Long Term	-0.94*	(-1.84, -0.04)	2.58***	(1.56, 3.59)

Evaluation of results are based on the results of Equations (2) and (3) using one year for short-term, two years for intermediate-term and five years for long-term.

* p -value < 0.05.

** p -value < 0.01.

*** p -value < 0.0001.

respectively, with 9 degrees of freedom), and residual diagnostics, the $P_{B/ED}$ model fit was marginally better. Second, we re-estimated Equation (1) under the assumption of autoregressive errors. The autoregressive model suggests that the standard regression model is appropriate (Table 2). Durbin–Watson statistics are as follows: for first-order 1.92 ($p = 0.17$), second-order 1.89 ($p = 0.21$), third-order 1.87 ($p = 0.27$) and fourth-order 1.79 ($p = 0.18$). The results were similar when the quarterly variables were removed from the model.

Summarizing, our basic regression state-level suggests that banning smoking in restaurants increased restaurant revenue relative to bar revenue; while the subsequent ban on smoking in bars led to an increase in bar revenue relative to restaurant revenue. In both cases, the overall impact of a smoking ban appears to have been positive for the establishment class affected.

County-level analysis

Tables 1 and 2 also show our estimates from the county-level regression (4). The results are similar

to the statewide analysis: modest decreases in bar revenue (i.e. increases in restaurant revenue) after the smoke-free restaurant law, and increases in bar revenue after the smoke-free bar law. The results are qualitatively similar for the weighted and unweighted regressions.

Finally, we also re-estimated the county-level regression (4) with $\log(P_{B/ED})$ as the dependent variable. Again, the $P_{B/ED}$ model specification was superior to the $\log(P_{B/ED})$ specification based on an R^2 of 97.1 vs 95.9, F -statistics of 310.6 vs 216.7 on 184 degrees of freedom, and the residual analysis.

Substitution effects

As we have seen, our estimates suggest that the introduction of the smoke-free bar law in 1998 increased the proportion of total food and drink expenditures occurring in bars. This is consistent with Hypothesis A above: when a smoke-free bar law is passed after a smoke-free restaurant law, the substitution effect among smokers is smaller than

Table 2. Regression coefficients and their standard errors for selected models

Variable	Statewide 97.8	Statewide – using 100*Log (P _{B/ED}) 97.5	Statewide – using a model with autoregressive errors 97.9	Global county-level – weighted 97.1	Global county – level variability model – weighted 97.5
Second quarter	0.275 (0.097)***	0.851 (0.317)*	0.282 (0.097)**	Varies based on county	Varies based on county
Third quarter	-0.071 (0.098)	-0.215 (0.319)	-0.068 (0.105)	Varies based on county	Varies based on county
Fourth quarter	-0.012 (0.099)	-0.034 (0.327)	-0.001 (0.101)	Varies based on county	Varies based on county
Time	-0.125 (0.013)***	-0.372 (0.043)***	-0.126 (0.017)***	Varies based on county	Varies based on county
Unemployment	-0.354 (0.049)***	-108.7 (15.99)***	-0.344 (0.060)***	-0.297 (0.027)***	-0.261 (0.026)***
SFR	-0.481 (0.203)*	-1.586 (0.662)*	-0.446 (0.240)**	-0.406 (0.141)**	9.84 (1.02)***
SFB	-1.593 (0.323)***	-4.892 (1.053)***	-1.541 (0.420)**	-1.521 (0.215)***	11.7 (1.05)***
Time*SFR	-0.006 (0.029)	-0.040 (0.095)	-0.004 (0.037)	-0.001 (0.019)	0.008 (0.018)
Time*SFB	0.113 (0.025)***	0.350 (0.083)***	0.110 (0.033)**	0.116 (0.017)***	0.111 (0.016)**
SFR*RED	NA	NA	NA	NA	-0.147 (0.014)***
SFB*RED	NA	NA	NA	NA	-0.188 (0.015)***

* p-value < 0.05.
 ** p-value < 0.01.
 *** p-value < 0.0001.

that among non-smokers since smokers have no obvious substitute to bars.

Our estimates also suggest that bar revenues decreased relative to restaurant revenues after the enactment of the smoke-free restaurant law in 1995. Although smokers presumably substituted away from restaurants to bars from 1995 to 1998 (see Prediction 2), the implication is that the substitution effects of non-smokers moving in the opposite effect were more important. If this explanation is correct, Hypothesis B implies that we should see more pronounced decreases in bar revenues in counties where substitution to restaurants would have been easier.

We can test this hypothesis as follows. We proxy for the ease of substitution between restaurants and bars by using a measure of the number of restaurants in each county. More specifically, we construct a county-level variable, RED, that measures average Restaurant revenues as a fraction of total Eating and Drinking revenues over the sub-period 1990–1995. Counties in which RED is larger are likely to be those in which substitution from bars to restaurants is easier.

We then regress:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (P_{B/ED})_{ij} = & \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}Q_2\lambda_j + \beta_{2j}Q_3\lambda_j + \beta_{3j}Q_4\lambda_j \\
 & + \beta_4\tau_i + \lambda_j + \beta_5\lambda_j\tau_i \\
 & + \beta_6SFR_i + \beta_7\tau_iSFR_i + \beta_8SFB_i \\
 & + \beta_9\tau_iSFB_i + \beta_{10}SFR_iRED_j \\
 & + \beta_{11}SFB_iRED_j + \varepsilon_{ij}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{5}$$

Hypothesis B predicts that the sign of the interaction term of RED with the dummy variable for the introduction of the smoke-free restaurant, SFR, should be negative. That is, when substitution from bars to restaurants is easier, the decrease in bar revenues stemming from the smoke-free restaurant law is larger. Empirically, this is exactly what we find ($p < 0.0001$, see Table 2). We have reported only the regression using weighted data; the results are similar when unweighted data is used.

Similarly, Hypothesis C predicts that one should observe smaller effects of the smoke-free bar law on bar revenues in counties in which substitution from restaurants to bars is harder (i.e. RED is larger). That is, the coefficient on the interaction term RED*SFB should be negative. Again, this is what we find ($p < 0.0001$).

1 Conclusions

3 Over the period 1995–1998, California first banned
 5 smoking in restaurants and then in bars. While
 7 these legislative moves were motivated primarily
 9 by public health concerns, opponents have often
 11 suggested that smoking bans have deleterious
 13 effects on the food and drink business. As we
 15 have noted repeatedly above, this economic
 17 counter-argument against no-smoking laws is
 19 much less clear than its proponents suggest: by
 21 the same token that banning smoking in bars may
 23 reduce the number of smokers going to bars, it
 25 may also increase the number of non-smokers
 27 who go to bars. In principle, the net effect of
 29 no-smoking laws could be either positive or
 31 negative as far as both bars and restaurants are
 33 concerned.

35 Because smokers have few alternatives to bars
 37 once both bars and restaurants are smoke-free,
 39 there are strong grounds to suspect that at least
 41 in the case of the 1998 smoke-free bar law the
 43 substitution effects stressed by its opponents are
 45 weak. That is, far from smoke-free laws reducing
 47 bar revenues, they may actually increase them by
 49 simultaneously attracting more non-smokers while
 51 repelling few existing smokers – who, to reiterate,
 53 have few alternative venues available. In this paper
 we have presented empirical support for exactly
 this view.

Our analysis suggests that bars are more
 appealing to the population as a whole when they
 are smoke-free. Nonetheless, it is quite possible
 that if an individual bar voluntarily banned
 smoking it would lose business. This would be
 the case, for instance, if the bar in question does
 not promote its new smoke-free status to the
 population of non-smoking potential customers.
 Essentially this is an instance of a classic free-
 riding problem – the bar industry is collectively
 better off if smoking is banned in all bars, although
 any individual bar might lose too much business if
 it banned smoking unilaterally. In such a situation,
 smoking bans will receive the most support from
 restaurants and bars when they are as complete as
 possible. Our results are robust given the various
 methods used to examine the complex relationship
 of smoke-free bar and restaurant policies and bar
 revenues. Statewide and county-level analyses all
 point to a similar conclusion – an increase (relative
 to trend) in restaurant revenues after smoking is
 banned in restaurants, and an increase in bar
 revenues after smoking is banned in bars.

Tang *et al.* [14] present complementary survey
 evidence that bar patrons in California are
 spending more time in bars, approve of the law
 and are observing higher compliance with the
 smoke-free bar law. Our results suggest that
 Californians are not only reporting these beha-
 viors, but are actually spending more money at –
 now smoke-free – bars. In contrast, we find no
 evidence consistent with the concerns often voiced
 by the tobacco industry that smoke-free laws
 reduce the revenues of the establishments affected.

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