1 Cigarette pack prices and sales following policy changes in California, 2011-2018

2

3 David C. Boettiger, PhD, and Justin S. White, PhD, MA, MSPH

4

- 5 David C. Boettiger is with the Philip R. Lee Institute for Health Policy Studies, University of
- 6 California, San Francisco, and the Kirby Institute, University of New South Wales, Sydney,
- 7 Australia.
- 8 Justin S. White is with the Philip R. Lee Institute for Health Policy Studies and the
- 9 Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, University of California, San Francisco.
- 10 Correspondence should be sent to Justin S. White, PhD, MA, MSPH, Philip R. Lee Institute
- for Health Policy Studies, University of California, San Francisco, 3333 California St, Box
- 12 0936, San Francisco, CA 94118 (e-mail: justin.white@ucsf.edu).

13

- 14 Abstract
- Objective: To estimate the combined effect of California's Tobacco-21 law (enacted June
- 2016) and \$2-per-pack cigarette excise tax increase (enacted April 2017) on cigarette prices
- and sales, compared with matched comparator states.

18

- 19 **Methods:** We used synthetic control methods to compare cigarette prices and sales after the
- 20 policies were enacted, relative to what we would have expected without the policy reforms.
- 21 To estimate the counterfactual, we matched pre-reform covariates and outcome trends
- between California and control states to construct a "synthetic" California.

23

- 24 **Results:** Compared with the synthetic control in 2018, cigarette prices in California were
- \$1.89 higher (\$7.86 versus \$5.97, p<0.01), and cigarette sales were 16.6% lower (19.9 versus
- 16.6 packs per capita, p<0.01). This reduction in sales equates to 153.9 million fewer packs
- 27 being sold between 2017-2018.

28

- 29 **Conclusions:** California's new cigarette tax was largely passed on to consumers. The new
- 30 cigarette tax, combined with the Tobacco-21 law, have contributed to a rapid and substantial
- 31 reduction in cigarette consumption in California.

32

33

35	Introduction
36	California has been a national leader in tobacco control since the California Tobacco Control
37	Program was established in 1989. As a result, cigarette pack sales per capita have declined
38	80% across the state over the past 30 years.[1] Despite this, there were still approximately 3.3
39	million adult smokers residing in California in 2016.[2]
40	
41	A 2015 report by the National Academy of Medicine concluded that restricting tobacco sales
42	to those ≥21 years-old would effectively reduce youth and young adult smoking and have a
43	substantial positive impact on future population-level smoking rates.[3] Consequently, in
44	June 2016, California enacted a Tobacco-21 (T21) law.
45	
46	Shortly afterwards, in April 2017, California enacted a voter-approved tax increase of \$2 per
47	pack of cigarettes and an equivalent amount on e-cigarettes and other tobacco products
48	(Proposition 56). In addition to higher pack prices being a disincentive for current and
49	potential smokers, the tax revenues fund tobacco-related law enforcement and medical
50	treatment.[4] However, not all tax initiatives are equally successful. Tax-induced price
51	increases may be circumvented, for example, by introducing cheaper products or setting
52	lower baseline prices for consumers who are most price-sensitive.[5]
53	
54	Our aim was to evaluate the extent to which Proposition 56 has been passed on to smokers
55	and the combined impact T21 and Proposition 56 have had on cigarette sales.
56	
57	Methods
58	We used synthetic control methods to construct a control group that matched pre-reform
59	covariates and outcomes in California. To create the counterfactual, we used longitudinal
60	outcome and covariate data from a weighted combination of 30 comparison states that did not
61	introduce a state-wide under-21 law or tobacco tax between 2011-2018. Supplementary Table
62	1 shows the excluded states and the reason for their exclusion.
63	
64	Outcomes and Covariates
65	We compiled annual state-level data from 2011-2018 on cigarette pack prices (calculated as
66	retail revenue divided by sales) and sales per capita from Orzechowski and Walker's Tax
67	Burden on Tobacco.[1] Time-varying, state-level covariates evaluated in the development of
68	our counterfactuals included (for 2011-2018 except as indicated): percentage aged <25

years,[6] percentage male,[6] percentage white race,[6] log-transformed income per capita (2011-2017),[6] over-18 cigarette smoking prevalence,[7] over-18 percentage who drink alcohol,[7] and tobacco control spending per capita (2011-2016),[8] Log-transformed

cigarette pack price was also evaluated for the sales model.[1] All dollar values were inflated

73 to 2018 dollars.

### 75 Statistical Analysis

We constructed our synthetic California groups as a weighted average of all available control states, with weights selected to find the best match (the minimum mean squared prediction error, or MSPE) to California in outcome and covariate trends prior to policy implementation (2011-2016). We estimated the cigarette pack price and sales separately. After calculating the weights, we compared California and synthetic California in 2017 and 2018. Given the proximity of T21 (June 2016) and Proposition 56 (April 2017) enactment, we assumed that their combined impact on cigarette sales started after 2016 so as our intervention time point aligned in our sales and price analyses. In a sensitivity analysis, however, we assumed their impact on sales started after 2015 to account for the possibility that T21 had an appreciable impact in the second half of 2016. In a further sensitivity analysis, we excluded New York from the donor pool because, even though New York did not enact a tax increase or T21 law during the study period, it implemented several important tobacco control policy and administrative changes during the study period.

We assessed statistical significance using a permutation-based test comparing the treated and synthetic control populations. Specifically, we estimated the "placebo" effect by assuming each state in the control pool had been treated instead of California. We calculated a p-value as the proportion of placebo effects at least as large as California's effect, standardized by how closely the control state resembles California. The estimated reduction in the number of cigarettes packs sold as a result of T21/Proposition 56 was calculated by multiplying the difference in cigarette sales per capita between California and its synthetic control by California's population size in 2017 and 2018 then summing across those years.

Statistical analyses were conducted with Stata 14 (Stata Corp., College Station, Texas) using the user-generated "synth" and "synth runner" packages.

#### Results 103 The covariates and pre-reform outcome data used in our price analysis to construct synthetic 104 California were percentage aged <25 years, log-transformed income per capita, percentage 105 aged ≥18 years who drink alcohol, and cigarette pack price for 2011, 2013, 2014 and 2016. 106 For our cigarette sales analysis, synthetic California was constructed using log-transformed 107 cigarette pack price, percentage aged <25 years, log-transformed income per capita, and 108 cigarette sales for 2011, 2013, and 2015. States with a non-zero weight contribution are listed 109 in Supplementary Table 2. The MSPE was 0.0006 for our price model and 0.0115 for our 110 sales model, indicating our synthetic control groups were an excellent fit for the pre-reform 111 112 California data. The balance of our predictor variables are shown in Supplementary Tables 3 and 4. 113 114 Figure 1A compares average cigarette pack prices over time between California and synthetic 115 California. Proposition 56 resulted in consumers paying \$1.89 more for a pack of cigarettes in 116 2018 than they would have paid without this policy (\$7.86 versus \$5.97, standardized 117 p<0.01). Our permutation tests indicated that none of the 30 potential control states had a 118 price trend that diverged this much from their synthetic control (Supplementary Figure 1). 119 120 121 Figure 1B compares cigarette pack sales over time between California and synthetic California. The T21 and Proposition 56 laws reduced 2018 cigarette sales in California by 122 16.6% (19.9 versus 16.6 packs per capita, standardized p<0.01). This accounted for 61.1% of 123 the total decline in sales between 2016 (22.0 packs per capita) and 2018 (16.6 packs per 124 capita). Permutation testing indicated that none of the 30 potential control states had a sales 125 trend that diverged this much from their synthetic control (Supplementary Figure 2). Based 126 on these findings, we estimate that the policies resulted in 22.6 million and 131.3 million 127 fewer packs of cigarettes being sold in 2017 and 2018, respectively. 128 129 In our sensitivity analysis assuming the intervention effect on cigarette sales started after 130 131 2015, our findings were very similar to the main model; a decline of 3.4 packs per capita (Supplementary Figure 3). When we excluded New York from the donor pool in our other 132 133 sensitivity analysis, our price model was unchanged as New York did not contribute to the main analysis, and our sales model produced the same effect size as the main analysis; a 134

decline of 3.3 packs per capita (Supplementary Figure 4).

135

#### **Discussion** 137 We estimated that 95% of the Proposition 56 cigarette tax was passed on to consumers. This 138 builds upon a recent study of retail audit data which found over-shifting of Proposition 56 139 (i.e., greater than \$2) for four major cigarette brands but under-shifting for several 140 demographic groups and a significantly greater likelihood of stores offering discounts after 141 implementation of the new tax.[9] The price increase we observed, in conjunction with the 142 similarly timed T21 law, contributed to a reduction in cigarette pack sales in 2017 and 2018. 143 This is consistent with a large prior literature on cigarette taxes,[4] and recent data on 144 restricting tobacco sales to those ≥21 years-old.[10] 145 146 Abadie et al [11] used similar methods to ours to estimate the impact of a \$0.51 (\$0.25 in 147 1989 dollars) tax increase on cigarettes introduced in California in 1989. This equated to a 148 28% increase in retail price (assuming it was all passed on to consumers) and resulted in pack 149 150 sales dropping by approximately 10% (9 packs per capita) in the first two years of the intervention. Abadie's estimates suggest a price elasticity of demand of -0.36, or a 10% 151 increase in cigarette price producing a 3.6% decrease in cigarette consumption.. We found 152 that Proposition 56 increased cigarette pack prices by 31.7% (from \$5.97 to \$7.86). If we 153 assume that the T21 law contributed 2% to the reduction in cigarette sales we observed up to 154 155 2018, in line with national impact estimates, [12] then Proposition 56 resulted in a 14.6% decline in pack sales in the first two years. This equates to a price elasticity of demand of -156 0.46, or a 10% increase in cigarette price producing a 4.6% decrease in cigarette 157 consumption. Ours and Abadie's price elasticities are consistent with other studies from the 158 US, although estimates vary widely.[13] Encouragingly, this indicates that cigarette price 159 160 increases in the modern era may still be an effective policy tool. 161 There are three main limitations to this study. First, we were not able to disaggregate our 162 results by population sub-groups nor by individual policy. Further research should evaluate 163 the extent to which youth, low-income earners, and minority groups have been impacted by 164 165 T21 and Proposition 56. Second, the post-intervention period is short. Abadie et al [11] showed that cigarette sales were still in decline more than ten years after the 1989 tax 166 167 increase in California suggesting our findings may be the beginning of a larger decline. Finally, we have assumed no residual confounding. Cigarette sales data are particularly 168 169 vulnerable to changes in demand for other tobacco products and cigarette smuggling across

jurisdictions. Importantly, synthetic control methods appear better able to account for time-

L71	varying unobserved confounding than standard approaches.[14] Moreover, Proposition 56
L72	applied to both cigarettes and e-cigarettes, and, in an assessment of California Department of
L73	Tax and Fee Administration monthly data we found no evidence that the number of cigarette
L74	packs or tobacco products seized or the dollar value of tobacco products seized changed
L75	following implementation of the Proposition 56 tax.
L76	
L77	Public Health Implications
L78	California's T21 law and Proposition 56 have reduced cigarette consumption and are likely to
L79	continue doing so for several years. Tobacco control initiatives should continue to consider
L80	age restrictions and tax increases to reduce the burden of tobacco-attributable illness.
l81	
L82	About the Authors
L83	David C. Boettiger is with the Philip R. Lee Institute for Health Policy Studies, University of
L84	California, San Francisco, and the Kirby Institute, University of New South Wales. Justin S.
L85	White is with the Philip R. Lee Institute for Health Policy Studies and the Department of
L86	Epidemiology and Biostatistics, University of California, San Francisco.
L87	
L88	Corresponding Author Contact Information
L89	Correspondence should be sent to Justin S. White, PhD, Philip R. Lee Institute for Health
L90	Policy Studies, University of California, San Francisco, 3333 California Street, Box 0936,
L91	San Francisco, CA 94127 (e-mail: Justin.White@ucsf.edu).
L92	
193	Acceptance Date
L94	This article was accepted February 29, 2020.
L95	
L96	Contributor Statement
L97	D. C. Boettiger conceived of the study design, planned and performed the data analyses,
L98	interpreted the findings, and prepared the initial draft of the article. J.S. White conceived of
199	the study design, planned the data analyses, interpreted the findings, and critically revised the
200	article. All authors approved the final version of the article and have agreed to be accountable
201	for the accuracy and integrity of the work.
202	
203	Acknowledgments

None

# 205

**Human Participant Protection** 

This study used deidentified public data sets, and ethical approval was not required.

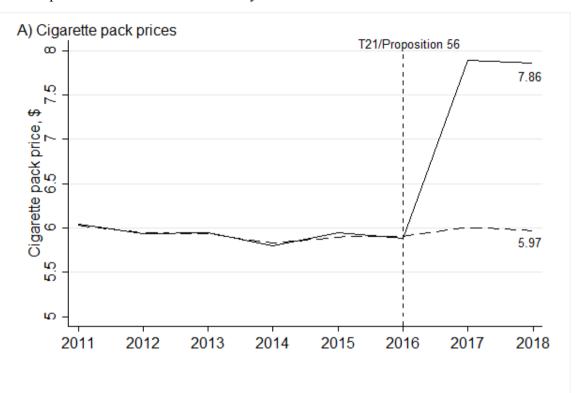
## 209 References

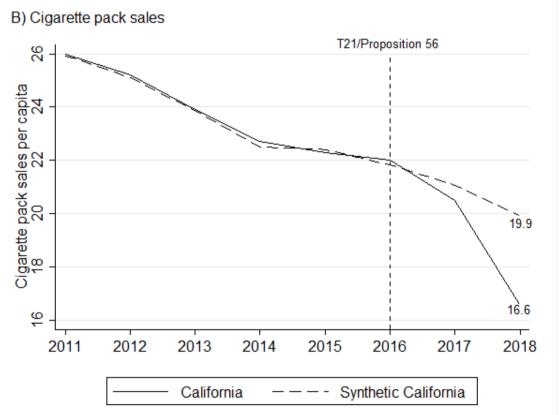
206

208

220

- Orzechowski and Walker. The Tax Burden on Tobacco, 1970-2018. Available at:
   <a href="https://chronicdata.cdc.gov/Policy/The-Tax-Burden-on-Tobacco-1970-2018/7nwe-3aj9">https://chronicdata.cdc.gov/Policy/The-Tax-Burden-on-Tobacco-1970-2018/7nwe-3aj9</a>.
   Accessed 21 Nov 2019.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. State Tobacco Activities Tracking and Evaluation
   System California. Available at: <a href="https://nccd.cdc.gov/STATESystem/">https://nccd.cdc.gov/STATESystem/</a>. Accessed 21 Nov 2019.
- National Academy of Medicine. Public Health Implications of Raising the Minimum Age of
   Legal Access to Tobacco Products. Available at:
- https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26269869. Accessed 12 Dec 2019.
   US Department of Health and Human Services. The Health Consequences of Smoking: 50
   Years of Progress. A Report of the Surgeon General. Available at:
  - https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1111/dar.12309. Accessed 25 Nov 2019.
- Golden SD, Smith MH, Feighery EC, Roeseler A, Rogers T & Ribisl KM. Beyond excise taxes: a
   systematic review of literature on non-tax policy approaches to raising tobacco product
   prices. Tob Control 2016; 25(4): 377-85.
- 224 6. United States Census Bureau. American Community Survey. Available at: 225 https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs. Accessed 22 Nov 2019.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System Annual Survey Data. Available at: <a href="https://www.cdc.gov/brfss/annual\_data/annual\_data.htm">https://www.cdc.gov/brfss/annual\_data/annual\_data.htm</a>.
   Accessed 18 Nov 2019.
- University of Illinois at Chicago Health Policy Center. Bridging the Gap/ImpacTeen Project.Available at:
- https://nccd.cdc.gov/STATESystem/rdPage.aspx?rdReport=OSH\_State.CustomReports.
  Accessed 21 November 2019.
- Henriksen L, Schleicher NC, Johnson TO, Andersen-Rodgers E, Zhang X & Williams RJ. Mind
   the Gap: Changes in Cigarette Prices after California's Tax Increase. Tobacco Regulatory
   Science 2019; 5(6): 532-41.
- 236 10. Friedman AS & Wu RJ. Do Local Tobacco-21 Laws Reduce Smoking among 18 to 20 Year-237 Olds? Nicotine Tob Res **2019**.
- 238 11. Abadie A, Diamond A & Hainmueller J. Synthetic Control Methods for Comparative Case 239 Studies: Estimating the Effect of California's Tobacco Control Program. Journal of the 240 American Statistical Association **2010**; 105(490): 493-505.
- Winickoff JP, Hartman L, Chen ML, Gottlieb M, Nabi-Burza E & DiFranza JR. Retail impact of raising tobacco sales age to 21 years. Am J Public Health **2014**; 104(11): e18-21.
- 13. International Agency for Research on Cancer. Effectiveness of Tax and Price Policies for
   Tobacco Control. Available at: <a href="https://publications.iarc.fr/Book-And-Report-Series/larc-Handbooks-Of-Cancer-Prevention/Effectiveness-Of-Tax-And-Price-Policies-For-Tobacco-Control-2011">https://publications.iarc.fr/Book-And-Report-Series/larc-Handbooks-Of-Cancer-Prevention/Effectiveness-Of-Tax-And-Price-Policies-For-Tobacco-Control-2011</a>. Accessed 21 June 2019.
- 14. O'Neill S, Kreif N, Grieve R, Sutton M & Sekhon JS. Estimating causal effects: considering
   three alternatives to difference-in-differences estimation. Health Serv Outcomes Res
   Methodol 2016; 16: 1-21.





Note: Cigarette pack prices are in 2018 dollars. The vertical dashed line indicates when one of the policies was first implemented.