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# Journal Pre-proof

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1 MAPPING THE VISIBILITY OF SMOKERS ACROSS A LARGE CAPITAL CITY

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23 **Keywords:** smoking visibility, GIS, viewshed analysis, smoking normalization.

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 **Background:** Smoking visibility may affect smoking norms with implications for tobacco  
26 initiation, particularly amongst youths. Understanding how smoking is distributed across  
27 urban environments would contribute to the design and implementation of tobacco control  
28 policies. Our objective is to estimate the visibility of smokers in a large urban area using a  
29 novel GIS-based methodological approach.

30 **Methods:** We used systematic social observation to gather information about the presence of  
31 smokers in the environment within a representative sample of census tracts in Madrid city in  
32 2016. We designed a GIS-based methodology to estimate the visibility of smokers throughout  
33 the whole city using the data collected in the fieldwork. Last, we validated our results in a  
34 sample of 40 locations distributed across the city through direct observation.

35 **Results:** We mapped estimates of smokers' visibility across the entire city. The visibility was  
36 higher in the central districts and in streets with a high density of hospitality venues, public  
37 transportation stops, and retail shops. Peripheral districts, with larger green areas and  
38 residential or industrial land uses, showed lower visibility of smokers. Validation analyses  
39 found high agreement between the estimated and observed values of smokers' visibility  
40 ( $R=0.845$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

41 **Discussion:** GIS-based methods enable the development of novel tools to study the  
42 distribution of smokers and their visibility in urban environments. We found differences in the  
43 visibility by population density and leisure, retail shops and business activities. The findings  
44 can support the development of policies to protect people from smoking.

45

46

## 47 1. INTRODUCTION

48 Globally, tobacco kills more than 7.1 million people each year, of which 12.5% are non-  
49 smokers exposed to second-hand smoke (SHS).[1] Key to understanding why people continue  
50 to smoke is their socio-geographical context. Sociological research on smoking emphasizes  
51 the importance of factors including social relationships, power, identity, and body image, and  
52 argue a social contagion driven by the visibility and exposure to smoking.[2,3] Tobacco  
53 consumption may be linked to certain social perceptions including that smoking has  
54 psychological benefits (e.g. smoking helps people to cope better with life, gives them  
55 confidence and helps them relax), makes people more sociable and, reflects a positive body  
56 image from themselves (e.g. being "cool" or "mature").[4,5] Smoking in public spaces  
57 increases the visibility of these role models, contributing to the normalization and social  
58 acceptance of smoking.[6] Thus, smoking visibility may increase tobacco initiation and  
59 undermine cessation, particularly among current smokers, former smokers, and youth.  
60 Moreover, smoking normalization may reduce the perception of the health risks associated  
61 with tobacco use.[6,7] The visibility of smoking is related to SHS exposure[8] and may create  
62 opportunities for people to smoke or exchange tobacco products.[6]

63 Since the implementation of indoor smoking bans over the past 10-15 years, there has been a  
64 focus on examining specific outdoor public spaces where smokers may have relocated,  
65 including: outdoor areas of hospitality venues (i.e. bars, restaurants, and cafeterias);[9–11]  
66 entrances to healthcare centres;[12] surrounding areas of schools and university  
67 campuses;[13,14] parks and beaches;[15] playgrounds;[16] public transportation stops;[17] or  
68 entrances to other public buildings (e.g. shopping centres, government buildings, etc.).[18,19]  
69 Different methodologies have been used to assess the incidence of tobacco on these specific  
70 venues, such as systematic social observation to capture visibility of smokers,[20] airborne

71 makers and biomarkers to obtain objective measures of SHS exposure [21,22] or surveys and  
72 interviews to capture perceptions about tobacco visibility and SHS exposure.[23,24]  
73 However, the findings of these studies suggest the need to assess the extent of smoking  
74 visibility and SHS exposure in these settings and other parts of the urban environment, and  
75 the implications for tobacco consumption.[18] A systematic and comprehensive spatial  
76 approach would help to map the distribution of people smoking at different locations in a  
77 given urban area (e.g. a city as a whole).[10] This approach would help to understand how the  
78 population is dynamically exposed to smoking visibility and related second-hand smoke in  
79 their daily activities throughout the urban space. These data will provide new insights into  
80 how to improve and develop new smoke-free policies in outdoor public areas.

81 The use of Geographical Information Systems (GIS) enables the integration of disparate  
82 information into a comprehensive spatial approach. Specifically, GIS techniques support the  
83 development of robust and geographically-specific measures of smoking visibility. In the  
84 present study, we aimed to develop a novel method for estimating and mapping the visibility  
85 of smokers across a large urban area, using systematic social observation and GIS.  
86 Additionally, we aimed to validate the results to assess reliability of the estimations with  
87 direct on-field measurements.

88

## 89 **2. METHODS**

### 90 **2.1. Study area and project design**

91 This study is part of the Heart Healthy Hoods project (<https://hhhproject.eu/>), that explores  
92 how social and physical characteristics of the urban environment (including tobacco  
93 exposure) affect residents' health.[25,26] Our study area is the whole municipality (from now

94 on city) of Madrid, Spain, with a population of 3.2 million inhabitants in 2018.[27] The  
95 prevalence of smoking in Madrid in 2014 was rather high (27% of population between 18 and  
96 64 years old)[28] as compared with other large cities (e.g. 14.6% in London or 14.3% in New  
97 York)[29,30]. In 2016 the volume of tobacco sales per capita (including manufactured and  
98 roll-your-own cigarettes and considering population older than 15 years old) was greater in  
99 Madrid (1,534 cigarettes/person),[31] and overall in Spain (1,499 cigarettes/person), as  
100 compared with other settings (in France, 1,090 cigarettes/person; in the United States, 1,070  
101 cigarettes/person; and in the United Kingdom, 828 cigarettes/person).[1]

102 The study is organized in several stages. First, we conducted systematic social observation to  
103 collect data about people smoking in outdoors spaces within the city of Madrid. We  
104 purposively sampled 42 census tracts ( $\approx 2\%$  of census tracts of Madrid), representing a wide  
105 variety of the socio-economic and urban form characteristics of the whole municipality.  
106 Specifically, we first selected two representative neighbourhoods for each district within the  
107 city ( $n=21$ , 42 neighbourhoods) according to unemployment, precarious work, occupational  
108 class, educational level and immigration. This was a non-probabilistic sample. Next, we  
109 selected the median census tract in each neighbourhood in terms of population density,  
110 business density, educational level, immigration and aging.[11] Census tracts are the smallest  
111 administrative unit in Spain and designed to have similar sized populations (an average of  
112 1,500 residents). Then, we designed a GIS-based methodology to estimate the visibility of  
113 smokers throughout the whole city using the data collected in the fieldwork. Finally, we  
114 validated these results by comparing on-field measures in a sample of 40 points to our  
115 estimated exposure data. Figure 1 shows a flow-diagram illustrating the methodology  
116 developed in this study.

117 <figure 1 here>

118

119 **2.2. Data collection and databases**120 *2.2.1. Signs of tobacco consumption*

121 A single trained data collector recorded data and geocoded all people smoking at the time of  
122 the observation encountered across the outdoor public spaces within the 42 census sections by  
123 using systematic social observation (also known as “field observation”) (stage 1 in figure 1).

124 We defined the outdoor public spaces as all publicly accessible outdoor places (i.e. streets,  
125 squares, parks, and other public pathways and open spaces). The data collector walked a pre-  
126 defined route within each census tract depicted in a map to guide the fieldwork. Data on  
127 smokers’ visibility were collected using an adapted version of an audit questionnaire designed  
128 to characterize the tobacco environment.[9,11,19] This tool collects exhaustive data on 1) the  
129 presence and number of people smoking, 2) the type of public space in which the smoker was  
130 located (e.g. hospitality venues, public transportation stops, educational centres, hospitals,  
131 supermarkets, other venues within parks or streets, etc.), and 3) contextual information  
132 including address, date, and time of each registry.

133 We implemented the audit tool on smartphones using Open Data Kit (ODK)  
134 (<https://opendatakit.org/use/collect/>) to facilitate data collection. This app supported the  
135 capture of pictures and the geocoding of all the observations using the smartphone GPS.  
136 Fieldwork was conducted between May and September 2016, from Monday to Thursday.  
137 Weekdays were selected to capture the visibility to smokers in a “working” day. Data  
138 collection was completed in the evenings (between 5 and 9 pm) since previous studies  
139 estimated that smoking visibility is highest during this time period.[10,32]

140



### 141 2.2.2. *Data for GIS analyses*

142 We created a spatial database which included all required data to perform the geographical  
143 analyses and the cartographic representations of the results, through information collected  
144 from official sources. First, we obtained data about administrative boundaries (city, districts,  
145 neighbourhoods, and census tract boundaries) and areas categorized as public land use and  
146 suitable for pedestrians from the Open Database website of the Madrid City Council for July  
147 2016 (<https://datos.madrid.es/>). Second, we procured data about the location (UTM  
148 coordinates and address) of all public spaces, and related facilities, across the city, including  
149 hospitality venues (bars, restaurants, cafeterias and pubs), healthcare centres, educational  
150 institutions, supermarkets and food stores, playgrounds, other public buildings (such as post  
151 offices, government buildings, retail shops or other service premises), public transportation  
152 stops (considering bus, metro and train) and other specific elements of the urban furniture  
153 which characterize public spaces. On these latter elements, only data about benches were  
154 available. This information was also obtained from the same source and date.

155 Finally, we obtained data on all buildings within the city, including their footprints and height  
156 from the Spanish Land Registry (Cadastral) in July 2017 (<https://www.sedecatastro.gob.es/>).

157

### 158 **2.3. Descriptive analyses of data on smoking visibility**

159 Through fieldwork in 42 census tracts, the types of places where smokers are frequently  
160 found (for instance bars and restaurants entrances or public transport stops) were identified.  
161 Then, with this information, the percentage of these places where there were smokers was  
162 determined (stage 2 in figure 1).

163

#### 164 **2.4. Extrapolation of smoking visibility to the whole city**

165 Considering each of these places showed a particular percentage of visible smokers, we  
166 extrapolated it to the complete dataset on these kinds of locations for the whole city. This way  
167 we could estimate, for instance, the total percentage of bars and restaurants in the whole city  
168 where we could find smokers. We assumed that at each of these locations there is a  
169 probability to find smokers according to the proportions obtained from the sampled locations  
170 during the fieldwork, which could be visible from a certain surrounded area. We completed  
171 this procedure in several steps (stage 3 in figure 1).

172 First, the locations were added to a Digital Elevation Model (DEM) to estimate the visible  
173 areas around each location by using the 3D Viewshed tool in ArcGIS 10.4. (ESRI Inc.,  
174 Redlands, CA, USA). A DEM is a 3D raster file (digital matrix of pixels, in which each pixel  
175 displays a specific portion of the space) that represents the elevation of different elements of  
176 the landscape that may obstruct for visibility (i.e. topography, buildings, etc.). In our analyses,  
177 to generate the DEM, we extruded the buildings footprints on the ground surface according to  
178 their height in the whole city, defining a pixel resolution of 1x1 meter. Given that slope is not  
179 significant in most parts of Madrid, topography was disregarded, and we considered the  
180 ground surface as flat terrain. Thus, using the DEM surface, we calculated lines of sight (LoS)  
181 from the observer points to the locations to depict the viewshed area. We assumed an  
182 observation height of 170 cm (approximately, the height of a standing person), and performed  
183 a maximum distance of 50 meters to approximate the maximum distance at which a smoker  
184 could be seen under good visibility conditions: clarity, flat terrain and no obstacles.[33] The  
185 viewshed analysis generates a raster surface in which the value of each pixel represents the  
186 number of locations with smokers that can be seen from that location. For instance, a value of

187 0 indicates that no locations were visible, while a value equal or greater than 1 determines that  
188 one or more locations where smokers could be seen are visible from the location of the pixel.  
189 Given that the probability of seeing smokers varies between different types of public spaces,  
190 we conducted a viewshed analysis for each type of public space across the city individually.  
191 Thus, we weighted the value of visibility for each pixel at each one of the maps of visible  
192 areas by the observed probability of seeing smokers at each type of public space respectively  
193 (obtained in stage 2). Next, we added the values of each pixel obtained from the different  
194 viewshed analyses of each type of public space to obtain an aggregated value that represents  
195 the total visual exposure to smokers (i.e. a magnitude of smoking visibility) in each pixel.  
196 Then, we normalized the resulting values using the following equation:

$$197 \quad X' = \frac{X - X_{min}}{X_{max} - X_{min}} \times 100 \quad [1]$$

198 When  $X'$  is the new pixel standardized value,  $X$  is the old pixel value, and  $X_{min}$  and  $X_{max}$  are  
199 the lowest and the highest pixel value in the map extension, respectively. We categorized the  
200 final values of smoking visibility into 3 groups (moderate, high and extreme) using Natural  
201 Breaks to facilitate their interpretation. Natural Breaks is a classification method which  
202 optimizes the classification of values by reducing the variance of the values within each class  
203 and maximizing the variance of the values between classes.[34] The areas represented with a  
204 value of 0 were included as a fourth category, which was interpreted as null visibility of  
205 smokers.

206 This extrapolation procedure required that the types of public spaces considered in our  
207 analyses were linked to specific addresses which were registered and georeferenced in the  
208 administrative databases (i.e. hospitality venues, schools, etc.).

209 Finally, we quantified the total areas with estimated exposure to smokers within the  
210 residential areas (according to the land use classification from the Madrid City Council) and  
211 how many people live there using GIS.

212

## 213 **2.5. Validation analyses**

214 To validate our results, we compared the estimates with observed values of visibility of  
215 smokers in a subsample of 40 observation points throughout the entire city (stage 4 in figure  
216 1). To sample these 40 points, we randomly chose 10 addresses within each category of  
217 exposure (null, moderate, high, and extreme). A similar procedure to define points for  
218 validation was designed in a previous study.[35] We excluded the 42 census sections selected  
219 for the first observational fieldwork for the validation analysis.

220 The estimated values of smokers' visibility at each point were collected from the results of the  
221 viewshed analyses explained above (section 2.4.). We considered the unstandardized values  
222 for validation analysis. To obtain on-field measures, we visited each point and collected data  
223 on the number of visible smokers from that location. Data were collected by the same data  
224 collector as in stage 1, between July and September 2018, from Monday to Thursday and  
225 between 5 and 9 pm.

226 We calculated a correlation coefficient and linear regression analysis to compare both  
227 observed and estimated measures of smoking visibility. We interpreted the correlation  
228 coefficients as follows:  $\pm 0-0.3$  (negligible),  $\pm 0.3-0.5$  (low),  $\pm 0.5-0.7$  (moderate),  $\pm 0.7-0.9$   
229 (high) and  $\pm 0.9-1$  (very high).[36] All statistical analyses were conducted using Stata v.12.  
230 software.

231

232 **3. RESULTS**

233 **3.1. Descriptive results of observational data**

234 We identified a total of 263 public spaces with people smoking within the 42 census tracts  
 235 selected for the observation (table 1). The highest values of smokers' visibility were found  
 236 around hospitality venues. In 52.97% of bars and restaurants there were at least one person  
 237 smoking. Other types of public spaces where we identified visibility of smokers were the  
 238 public transportation stops (10.00%), playgrounds (7.32%), educational centres (3.57%),  
 239 benches in the streets and parks (1.45%) and in the entrance to supermarkets, markets and,  
 240 food stores (0.83%) (table 1). However, we identified a large number of smokers walking  
 241 around other locations within parks and green areas (n=6/263, 2.28%) and streets, squares and  
 242 other public pathways (n=121/263, 42.21%). (table 1).

243 **Table 1.** Types of outdoor public spaces with smokers' visibility during the fieldwork (42  
 244 census tracts).

Final list of public spaces observed	Number of places with smokers	Total number of places observed across the 42 census sections	Percent of places with smokers over the total number of places
Hospitality venues <sup>a</sup>	107	202	52.97%
Public Transportation stops	8	80	10.00%
Playgrounds	3	41	7.32%
Educational centers entrances	1	28	3.57%
Supermarkets and food stores entrances	2	240	0.83%
Benches	15	1033	1.45%
Parks and green	6	- <sup>c</sup>	- <sup>c</sup>

spaces <sup>b</sup>			
Streets, squares and, public pathways <sup>d</sup>	121	- <sup>c</sup>	- <sup>c</sup>
Total	263		

245 <sup>a</sup> We considered only those premises that were opened by the time of observation.

246 <sup>b</sup> This type of place comprises smokers walking around the parks and green areas.

247 <sup>c</sup> These data could not be estimated. These measures were either related to non-specific addresses which are  
248 difficult to concrete as points or to very specific elements which are not registered and geocoded in the  
249 secondary databases and could not be counted. See section 3.2. for more information.

250 <sup>d</sup> This type of place encompassed smokers walking around the streets, sidewalks, squares, car parking's or other  
251 public pathways.

252

### 253 **3.2. Public spaces selected for extrapolation and spatial distribution**

254 The final typologies of public spaces imputed to the entire city for the visibility analyses were  
255 as follows: 1) hospitality venues, 2) public transportation stops, 3) entrances to educational  
256 centres, 4) entrances to supermarkets and food stores, 5) playgrounds and 6) benches. The  
257 locations that were not related to specific addresses nor registered on secondary databases  
258 (e.g. smokers found walking around traversing paths within parks) could not be included in  
259 the analyses. We considered parks, squares and streets as uncountable places since their  
260 influence are less determined by their number than their land area. For instance, a given  
261 neighbourhood with a preponderance of small parks may present a smaller number of  
262 smokers than another neighbourhood with only one park but a larger total area of parkland.  
263 For that reason, smokers observed in these spaces were not considered in our analyses. In  
264 contrast, smokers registered within playgrounds were included. According to Madrid City  
265 Council, the whole playgrounds in the city have similar dimensions and presents well-defined  
266 and homogeneous characteristics.

267 A total of 104,120 locations were correctly compiled and geocoded, including 16,730  
268 hospitality venues, 5,860 transportation stops, 2,159 educational centres, 14,998  
269 supermarkets, markets and, food stores, 1,935 playgrounds and 62,438 benches along the city.

270

### 271 **3.3. Visibility of smokers**

272 Figure 2 represents the estimated visibility of smokers in Madrid. We observed the highest  
273 values of visibility in the central districts of the city, particularly in downtown (“Centro  
274 district”). We also found that the main streets and squares within each district presented high  
275 values of visibility. These areas included a large density of hospitality venues and public  
276 transportation stops, where the visibility of smokers is higher than in other types of public  
277 spaces (table 1). In contrast, the areas with lower visibility of smokers coincided with  
278 residential, industrial and green areas, which are mostly concentrated in the peripheral areas.  
279 We also observed that southern districts showed higher visibility than northern districts,  
280 where larger areas of null exposure were depicted (figure 2), given that southern districts have  
281 a higher density of hospitality venues, public transportation stops and supermarkets, markets  
282 and, food stores. Figure 2 (upper right) shows that for the downtown area, the main streets  
283 and squares have a large number of hospitality venues, entrances to public transportation  
284 stations and retail shops. All of them constitute places where the visibility of smokers is high  
285 or extreme.

286 The lower right side of figure 2 shows a zoomed section over a popular central square and  
287 represents all the public spaces with estimated visibility of smokers. This image represents  
288 how the estimated visibility of smokers is distributed around each point. This visibility is  
289 greater in those zones where the calculated visible areas from different venues are overlapped,

290 particularly in those with higher concentration of hospitality venues, playgrounds, and  
291 benches (figure 2).

292 *<figure 2 here>*

293 According to the land use classification of the Madrid City Council, we estimated a total of  
294 58.98 km<sup>2</sup> of outdoor public spaces within residential areas in the city. We identified that  
295 69.26% (40.86 km<sup>2</sup>) of the residential areas had at least a moderate visibility of smokers. We  
296 calculated that 78.98% of Madrid total population (2.5 million people) were exposed to  
297 smokers from their residential addresses.

298

### 299 **3.4. Validation results**

300 The location and spatial distribution of all validation points throughout the city is shown in  
301 the supplementary material (figure S1). We applied Spearman's correlation coefficient since  
302 variables were skewed (see supplementary file, figure S2). The correlation between observed  
303 and estimated visibility of smokers was high ( $r=0.845$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) (figure 3). However, we  
304 noted some inaccuracies in certain points. Some areas with null estimated visual exposure to  
305 smokers presented visibility of people smoking in the validation fieldwork, while certain  
306 areas with high estimated visual exposure had low observed visibility values.

307 *<Figure 3 here>*

308

## 309 **4. DISCUSSION**

310 This study presents a novel methodological approach based on systematic social observation  
311 and GIS to estimate and map the visibility of smokers in and around outdoor public spaces



312 across the whole urban area of Madrid. The study findings were validated and showed that  
313 78.98% of the population in Madrid have visibility of smokers in their residential addresses.  
314 These results demonstrate that smokers are highly visible and, therefore, it might be  
315 anticipated that smoking is highly normalized among the population.

316 We found a significant geographical unevenness in the visual exposure to smokers, as the  
317 central districts and main streets and squares within the city demonstrate higher levels of  
318 visibility in comparison to the peripheral districts. This is probably because these areas have  
319 higher number of tourists and population densities, and have a greater range of leisure, retail  
320 shops and business activities. Southern districts, with a higher diversification of land use, also  
321 had greater exposure. These findings add on to the results obtained in a previous study that  
322 also applied viewshed analyses to examine the visibility of smokers in New Zealand, where  
323 streets with high level of retail shops and hospitality venues showed higher values of  
324 visibility.[10]

325 This study reveals the potential of GIS techniques for developing valuable tools for tobacco  
326 control research. To our knowledge, no previous studies have leveraged integration of GIS  
327 techniques to provide a spatial citywide approach to understand visibility of smokers.  
328 Previous studies that examined visibility of smokers (i.e. surveys, interviews or systematic  
329 social observation) were constrained to small areas (e.g. downtown of a city or a sample of  
330 streets)[10] or to specific types of places (e.g. entrances to public buildings).[19,20] Further,  
331 GIS-based methods are replicable to other urban settings providing that the necessary  
332 databases for the analyses are available.

333 From an international perspective, our study provides a new insight to study smoking  
334 visibility, and related urban spatial health inequalities, reporting the need for future

335 interventions in specific outdoor public spaces. These interventions would include extending  
336 smoke-free laws to some outdoor areas, such as outdoor hospitality venues where we found  
337 greater visibility of smokers. Previous studies conducted in Spain,[13] and also in other  
338 countries,[8,19,20] showed that smoking was most reported in bars and restaurants in  
339 comparison to other outdoor places. Furthermore, public transportation stops were places  
340 where we also observed visibility of smokers in accordance to other international  
341 studies,[17,37] and should be considered in future interventions. This approach has been  
342 adopted in setting such as Queensland, Australia, where smoking is banned within 5 metres of  
343 public transportation waiting areas.[38]

344 We also underlined visibility of smokers at playgrounds and entrances to educational centres,  
345 despite the Spanish current smoke-free law prohibits smoking in playgrounds and  
346 recommends not smoking in the nearby of educational centres where minors may be present,  
347 including their precincts, entrances and adjacent sidewalks.[39] Smoking bans should be  
348 enforced in those places where smoking is already prohibited, and strengthen in those places  
349 where the specifications of smoking prohibition may be confusing (such as the case of  
350 educational centres) to protect these serving-youth facilities. Similarly, these findings  
351 evidenced the need to evaluate compliance with smoke-free laws to protect people from SHS  
352 exposure, especially vulnerable people including minors.

353 Finally, we found smokers at the entrances of other public buildings such as supermarkets,  
354 markets and, food stores. Beyond the behavioural influences of the smoking visibility, these  
355 spaces are also problematic because users entering or exiting the building cannot avoid SHS  
356 exposure.[18,40] Some jurisdictions provide guidelines to regulate smoking at outdoor main  
357 building entrances. For instance, the Australian States adopted diverse regulations. In New  
358 South Wales, the current laws ban smoking up to 4 meters from an entrance to a public

359 building used by pedestrians.[41] In Queensland smoking is prohibited in the precincts around  
360 State Government Buildings and up to 5 metres to smoke-free entrances in some public  
361 buildings (e.g. hospitals and other health facilities, etc.).[38,42] Similar, but stronger policies  
362 were found in Canada. In Quebec, smoking and vaping are prohibited within 9 meters of any  
363 door, air intake or operable window leading to enclosed spaces that are open to the public.[43]  
364 Different political frameworks have been developed in the United Kingdom, where the  
365 proprietors of commercial and public service venues (e.g. airports or shopping centres) can  
366 voluntarily create smoking areas at the entrances to the building.[44] Further, in Japan, we  
367 found some jurisdictions that implemented banning smoking policies in the streets,[45] and in  
368 Tasmania, Australia, smoking is prohibited at public streets with high offer of retail shops and  
369 declared by regulation to be “pedestrian malls”.[46] Our findings may assist in the design and  
370 implementation of these kind of policies to reduce visibility of smokers outdoors.

371 Several limitations must be acknowledged. First, the data were collected during a specific  
372 time slot (weekdays, between 5 and 9 pm). Further studies should examine variations in  
373 visibility at other times. Second, the extrapolation of observational data was subject to the  
374 availability of geocoded data on specific public spaces, and we could not capture smokers  
375 walking around the space. Future studies should collect data on population movement around  
376 the space to infer this type of exposure. Last, the validation analysis showed some  
377 discrepancies with on-field measures in areas with null and extreme visibility. That reflects  
378 the difficulties of measuring the visibility of ephemeral behaviours such as smoking and  
379 suggests the ubiquity of this type of exposure within urban settings. In addition, some  
380 uncertainties exist in our estimations. They are derived from certain parameters and  
381 conditions that we have assumed in the viewshed analyses such as the elements which may  
382 obstruct the visibility in the DEM, the spatial resolution of the DEM or the maximum distance

383 at which we consider that a smoker may be visible under good visibility conditions. However,  
384 we validated our methodology and our findings showed that the estimations presented in this  
385 study were highly correlated with the observed measures ( $R=0.845$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

386 The methodology presented in this study suggests several implications for future studies on  
387 tobacco control research. Further work can usefully analyse the associations between the  
388 visual exposure to smokers and socio-economic characteristics of population, smoking  
389 prevalence, smoking-cessation rates or the tobacco sales across different geographic areas for  
390 different demographic groups. In Madrid, we are collecting these data about smoking  
391 behaviours from a cohort of adult residents.[11] Beyond tobacco-related studies, our  
392 methodology could be broadly applied to other research fields in public and environmental  
393 health concerned with unhealthy behaviours and commodities. For example, in alcohol  
394 research, viewshed analyses may be suitable to estimate and quantify the visibility of alcohol  
395 consumption in the environment.

396 In conclusion, this study estimated the visibility of smokers using GIS technologies in a large  
397 city as Madrid. We designed a replicable geographical method which provides valuable  
398 contributions to tobacco control studies. We observed differences in the distribution of  
399 smokers' visibility in Madrid and highlighted specific public spaces that constitute a focus for  
400 this exposure. This method and findings may help to evaluate the existing smoke-free policies  
401 and provide keys for future interventions to reduce smokers' visibility, and denormalise and  
402 mitigate tobacco consumption and its initiation.

403

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415 spatial databases. RV conducted all the fieldwork to collect data on smoking visibility around  
416 Madrid, with advice of XS. RV performed GIS and statistical analysis, supervised by FE and  
417 XS. RV, XS and FE designed the validation analyses. All authors contributed substantially to  
418 the interpretation of the data and manuscript review and approved its final version.

419 **Competing interests:** The authors declare they have no actual or potential competing  
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421

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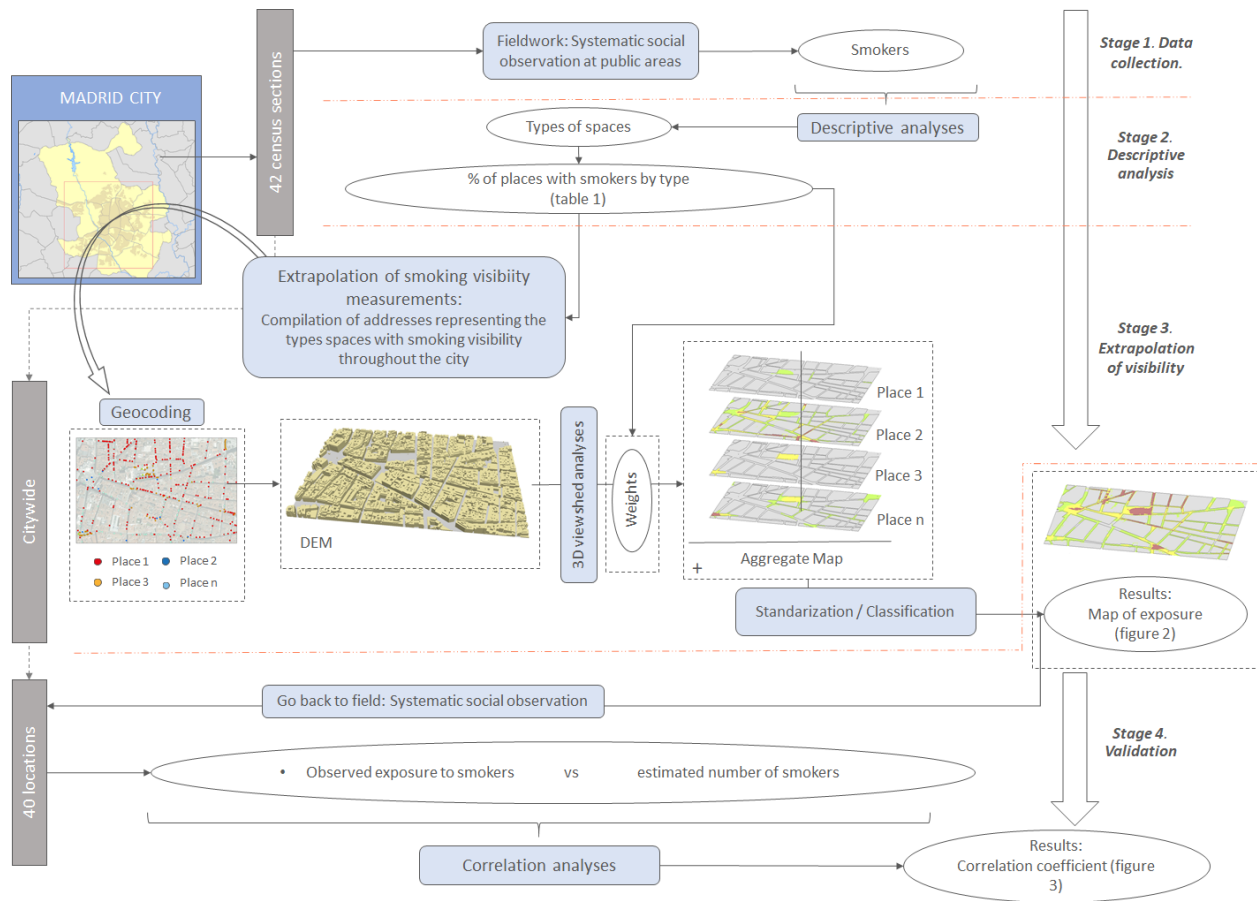
549 **FIGURE LEGEND**

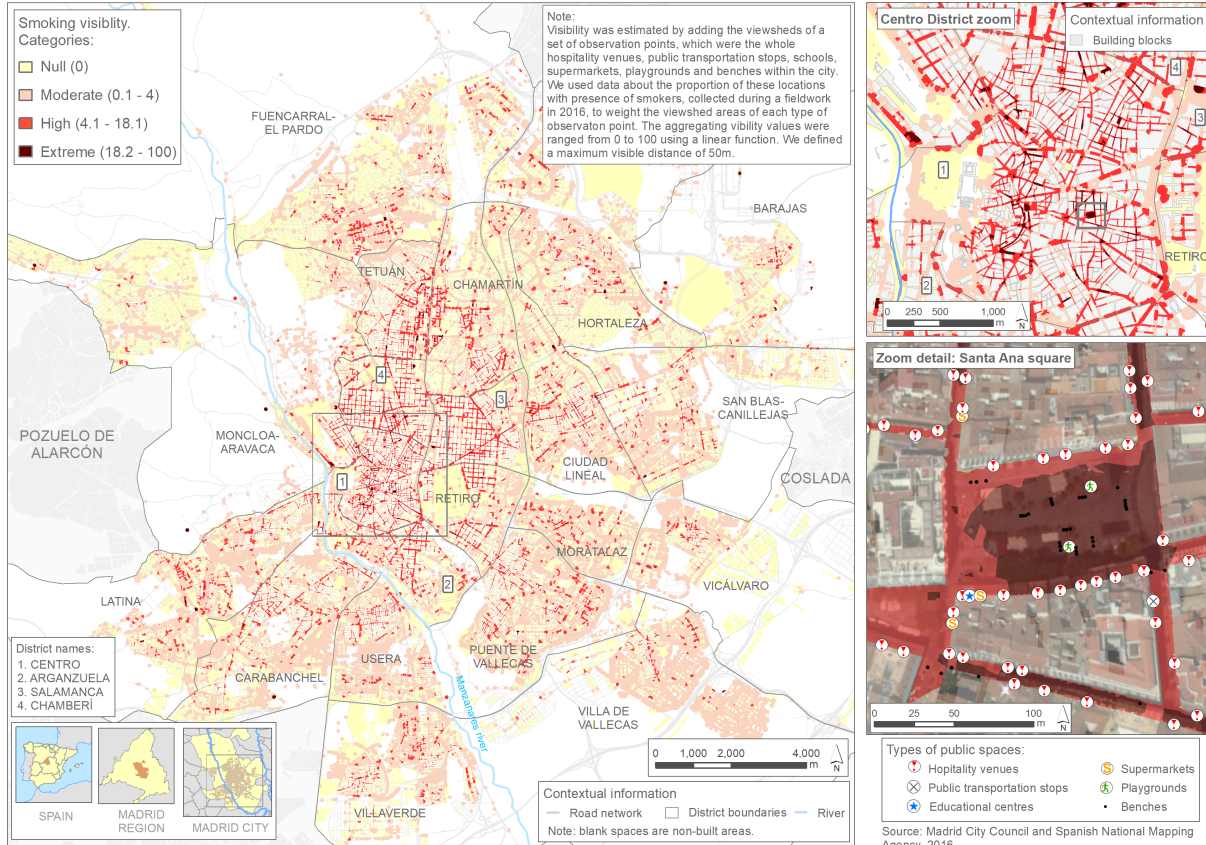
550 **Figure 1:** Flow diagram describing the project design of the study.

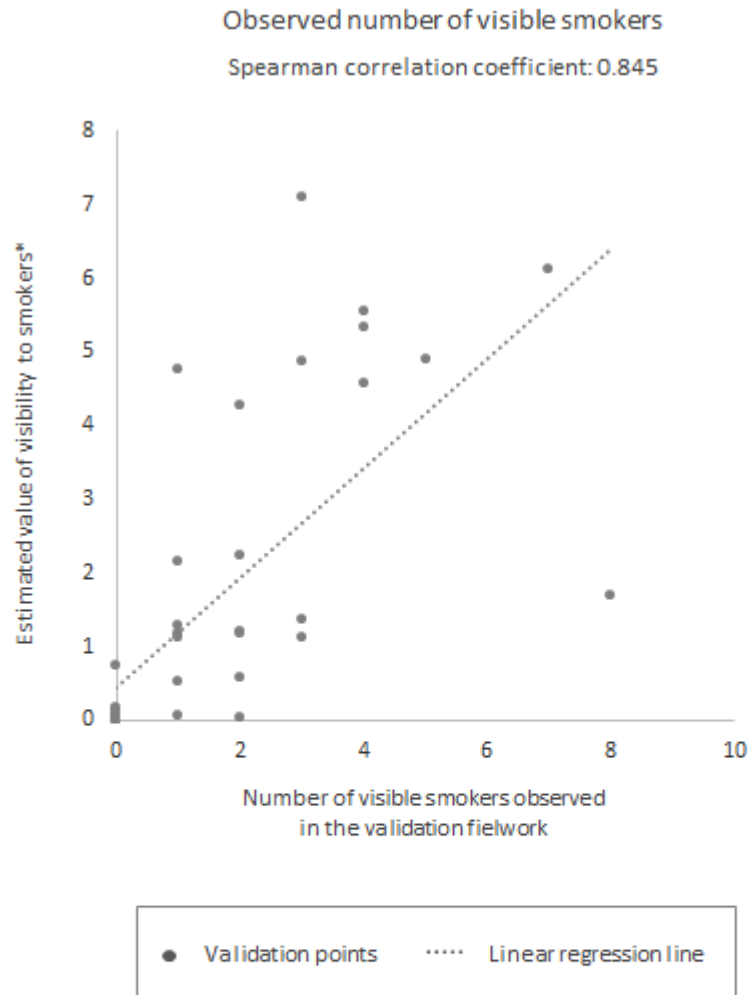
551 **Figure 2:** Smoker' visibility in public outdoor spaces in Madrid, Spain.

552 **Figure 3:** Correlations between the on-field and estimated values of visibility of  
553 smokers.

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\* Notes:

- The estimated values of visibility are all unstandardized in order to not introduce errors in the calculations.
- Note that the estimated values were weighted (stage 3, section 2.4.). The estimated value of visibility to smokers do not represent directly the number of visible smokers. This measure should be interpreted as a magnitude of the exposure.

**HIGHLIGHTS:**

- This study demonstrates that GIS can assist in estimating smokers' visibility at any point within a large city
- Our findings were validated and show an uneven distribution of smokers' visibility across the urban environment
- Hospitality venues and public transportation stops were the places with the highest visibility of smokers
- This study offers relevant insights for the future to reduce smokers' visibility and to denormalize tobacco use

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**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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