



MONITORING TAX INCENTIVES

Assessing Revenue & Other Impacts

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DEFINITION & BENCHMARK



Definitions

Tax expenditures are “provisions of tax law, regulation or practices that reduce or postpone revenue for a comparatively narrow population of taxpayers relative to a benchmark tax” (Anderson, 2008)

For government, a ***tax expenditure*** is a loss in revenue; for a taxpayer, it is a reduction in tax liability. ... often better known as tax reliefs, tax subsidies & tax aids (Schick, 2007)

“A ***tax incentive*** is an aspect of a country's tax code designed to *incentivise*, or encourage a particular economic activity” (Wikipedia, 2016)



The benchmark

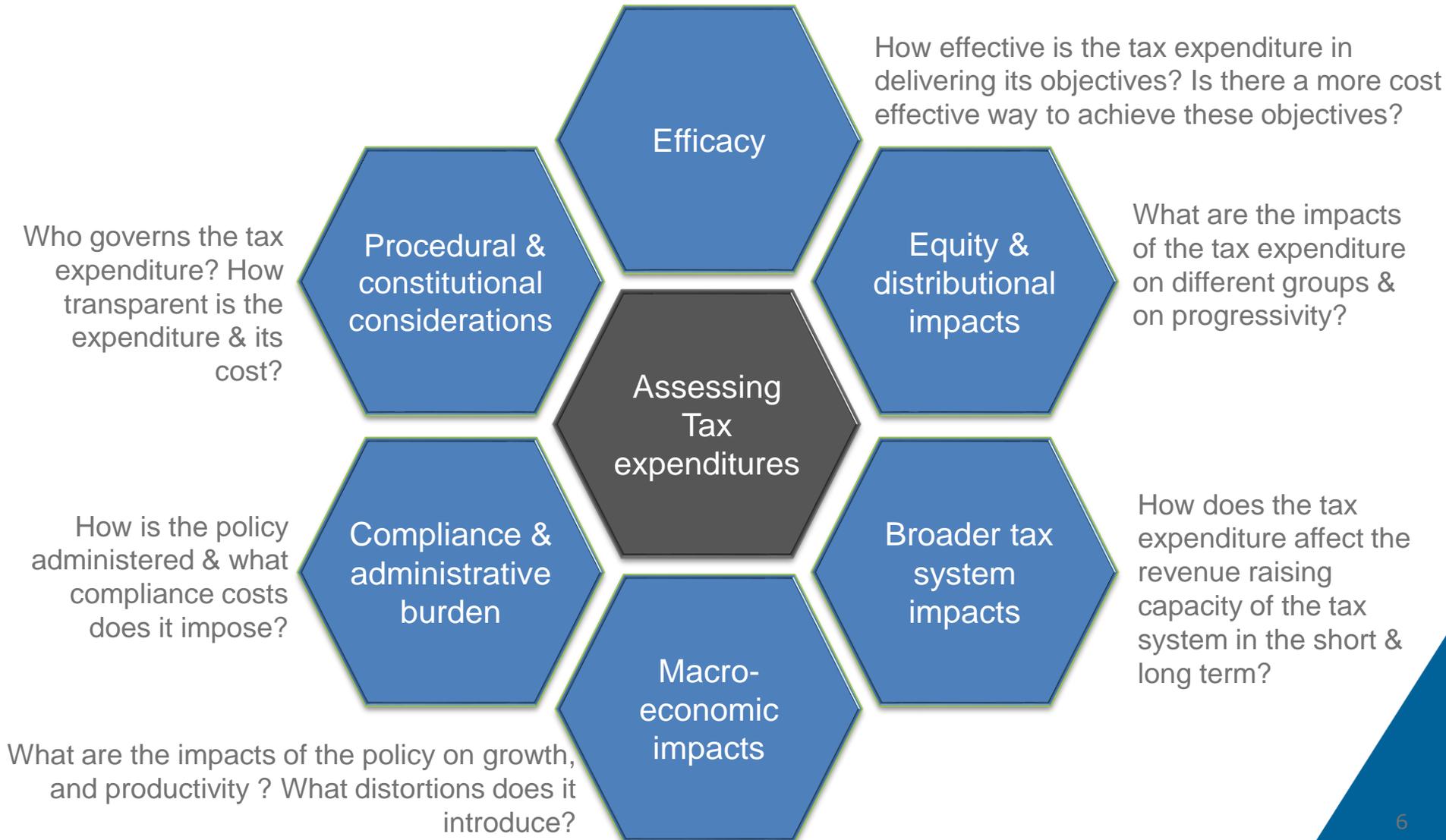
- Tax expenditures are explicitly or implicitly defined by the “benchmark tax system” from which they derogate
- Choosing a benchmark is subjective & country-specific
 - E.g., a lower tax rate for a particular product can be viewed as a tax expenditure in one country, but as an integral feature of the tax system in another country;
 - One consideration is whether a feature is a structural part of the tax system (benchmark) or a deviation from it (tax expenditure)
 - Cross country comparisons are not possible as there is no common benchmark
- Conceptually, a benchmark is the consistent taxation of either income or consumption
- Practically, it is the treatment that “would have applied” in the absence of the tax expenditure
- Benchmark question is foundational for revenue assessment and monitoring



MONITORING TAX EXPENDITURES: OVERVIEW & KEY CONCEPTS



Key questions for tax expenditure assessment





Assessing tax expenditures

- First step: introduce or improve Tax Expenditure reporting
- Second step: Cost-benefit analysis

Is social benefit greater than social cost?



TAX EXPENDITURE REPORTING & REVENUE FOREGONE



Tax Expenditure reporting

- Key first step in assessing tax expenditures within a jurisdiction
- Increases transparency and brings tax expenditures under more effective control and fiscal management
- No internationally agreed format and country protocols differ, but key elements common in many countries:
 - List of all tax expenditures, tax affected, administering authority, and objectives
 - Where possible, quantification of the revenue cost of each measure
 - Description of benchmarks and methodology used to calculate revenue cost
- Good practice
 - Prepared and published regularly (even if only for internal use)
 - Ideally, by central revenue or finance authority



Calculating foregone revenue

- Where possible, a tax expenditure report quantifies the revenue foregone for each tax expenditure
- Requires calculation of the “benchmark” tax treatment; more straightforward for some taxes than others
- Ex-post calculations, for example:
 - Lower tax rate for one good under excise system = (normal rate – lower rate) * amount of good imported/produced
 - Deduction against tax base of individual or company: deduction of \$100, marginal tax rate = 25%, revenue loss = \$25
- If used in cost-benefit analysis, each dollar of public revenue foregone should be inflated by an indicator reflecting the scarcity of public funds
 - “marginal cost of public funds” or the social cost of a dollar of tax revenue



Caution: revenue foregone is not revenue potential

- Revenue foregone overstates the potential yield of removing tax expenditures:
 - behavioural responses are not typically included in the calculation of revenue foregone
 - Interaction of tax expenditure with other elements of tax system
 - Assumes that none of the tax expenditures will be replaced by a spending program
- Example: lower tax levels on diesel vs gasoline
 - Foregone revenue (assuming gasoline is the benchmark):
 $(\text{Gasoline rate} - \text{diesel rate}) * \text{number of litres of diesel consumed}$
 - However, this overstates revenues because:
 - Consumers may choose to use less diesel after the tax expenditure is removed (more gasoline or other fuels, and/or less driving)
 - Business customers will have higher costs, which will lead to higher expense deductions under income taxation



Revenue impact of tax expenditures

- There are no figures on tax expenditures that are internationally comparable:
 - Methodologies differ in calculating revenue foregone
 - Often difficult to arrive at a total figure because summing is not necessarily accurate
 - Benchmarks differ, even within countries
 - Even then, caution about revenue foregone vs revenue potential
- However, the revenue impact of tax expenditures can be significant
- Range of estimates in the literature(warning – not comparable!!)
 - OECD countries: Netherlands: 2% of GDP (2002); Australia: 4% of GDP (2003); Canada and the USA : 7% of GDP (2003)
 - Mortaza and Begum, 2006: Bangladesh: 2.52% of GDP, India: 4.49% and Pakistan: 0.381% (2005),
 - Swift, 2006: Turkey: 5% of GDP; China: >10% in 2002;
 - Munyentali and Bizumugabe, 2017: Rwanda ~8% of GDP
 - IMF estimates (Article IV reviews): 6% in 2006 for Barbados, 1.7 % of GDP in 2002 for Tunisia; and 0.5% of GDP for the Philippines in 2007



Example: Tax Expenditure reporting in NZ

(Re)-introduced by the Treasury in 2010 as part of the Budget process;
voluntary

1. What is a tax expenditure? Defines tax expenditure and criteria for inclusion in the document:

1. Is the concession available to a targeted group or type of activity?
2. Does the provision represent a targeted reduction in a tax obligation relative to current tax practice?
3. The provision is not primarily administrative or motivated by a (domestic of international) double taxation objective?
4. Is the provision significantly motivated by a non-revenue policy objective?
 - *If answer to all question is yes, measure is included in the Tax Expenditure Report*

2. Current tax expenditures: Lists current tax expenditures in two tables:

- Quantified tax expenditures
- Unquantified tax expenditures



Quantified tax expenditures

- Lists names and provides costs over last 5 years, plus forecast cost for the next year
- Annex provides details of how each element has been estimated (mostly through tax return data from companies and individuals)
- No total given for revenue foregone

Quantified tax expenditures	Value of expenditure 2011/12 (actual)	Value of expenditure 2012/13 (actual)	Value of expenditure 2013/14		Value of expenditure 2014/15		Value of expenditure 2015/16		Value of expenditure 2016/17 (forecast)
			As at April 2017	Estimated Actual	As at April 2017	Estimated Actual	As at April 2017	Estimated Actual	
Charitable or other public benefit gifts by a company: deduction	22	20	17	17	31	31	18	21	21
Charitable or other public benefits: tax credit	235	225	234	234	241	244	235	247	247
Independent earner tax credit	223	223	221	223	219	223	208	223	223
Māori Authorities: donations	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.9	2.5	2.5	3.7	3.7	3.7



Unquantified expenditures

- Revenue impacts not quantifiable because:
 - Uncertainty or disagreement about the appropriate benchmark
 - Lack of data
- Details included:
 - Notes which provision in law the tax expenditure is made under
 - Categorises it by type of provision (Business, Social, Other)
 - Includes a description of the expenditure and its policy rationale
 - Notes whether revenue impact is (one-off, ongoing, or timing)

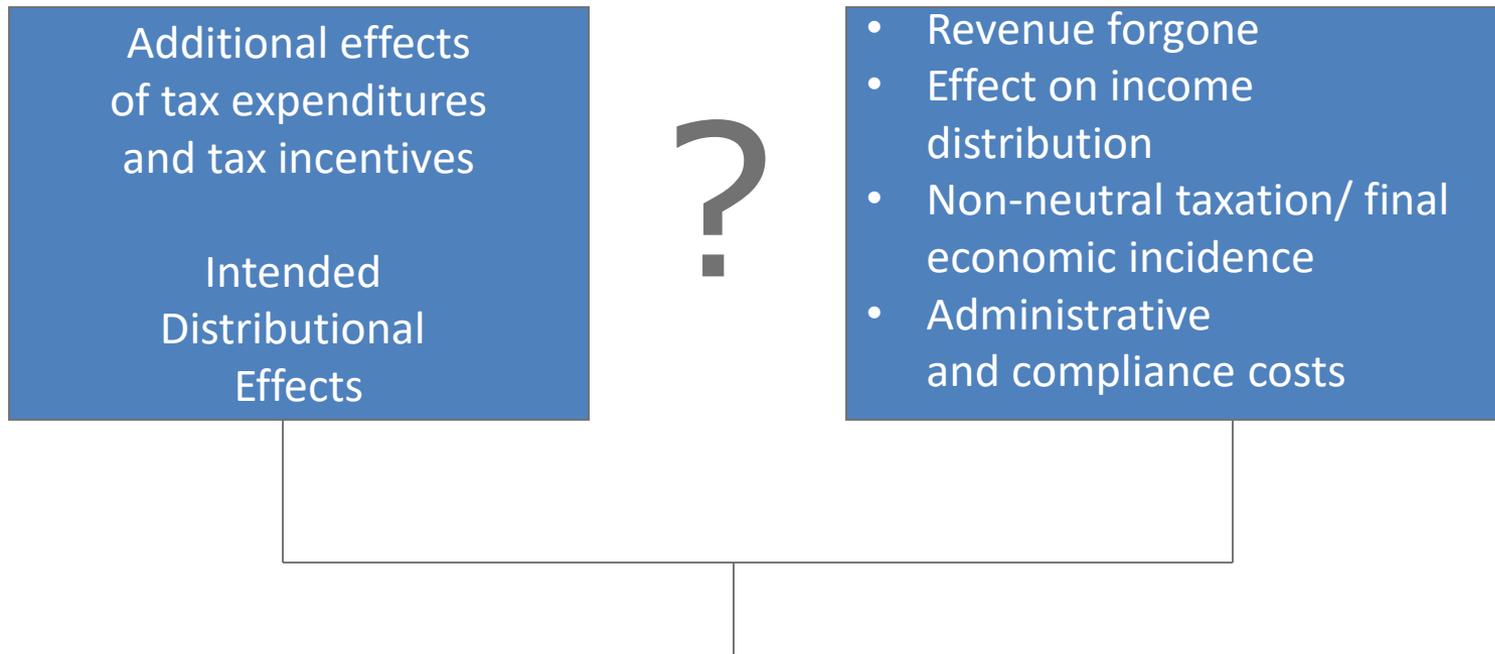
Tax Expenditure	Sections/ Classification	Comment	Policy Rationale	Type			Impact		
				Social	Business	Other	Historic	Timing	Permanent
Local and regional promotional bodies: exempt income	<i>Section CW 40 -Exemption</i>	The income derived by a charitable association or society is exempt income, if it is primarily established for beautification purposes.	To encourage local and regional beautification/advertisement.	✓					✓
Māori Authorities: deduction	<i>Section DV 12 -Deduction</i>	A Māori authority is allowed a deduction for a cash donation that it makes to a Māori association as defined in the <i>Māori Community Development Act 1962</i> . It is also allowed a deduction for charitable or other public benefit cash gifts. This deduction is limited by net income.	Tax incentives for charitable donation.	✓					✓
Non-profit organisations	<i>Section DV 8 -Deduction</i>	Non-profit organisations are entitled to an income tax deduction for the lesser of \$1,000 and their net income.	To reduce compliance costs.	✓					✓



COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS



Cost-benefit analysis gives a more complete picture





Possible benefits from tax expenditures

- Inducement of positive externalities:
 - where an activity has benefits to society that are not captured by the owner, tax incentives may be warranted to increase investment in that activity
 - Examples include: investment in R&D, environmental tax preferences, or to improve incentives for education
- Inducement of behaviour:
 - To incentivise taxpayers to do (or increase) an activity that the taxpayer might not be willing to do without the incentive
 - e.g. investment in a particular sector or region
- Improved fairness
 - Tax expenditures may be used to address poverty or equity concerns (e.g. through expenditures targeted to households), or
 - to reduce the impact of the tax system on particular groups (e.g. SMEs)



Measuring additional effects

- What matters is not the number of taxpayers that use a given tax incentive, it is the additional effect.
 - Redundancy: investment that would have occurred anyway
 - Displacement: relocation of investment to qualify for the tax expenditure
 - Crowding out: investment may substitute for investment that no longer takes place
- How can we measure it?
 - First best: difference in difference approach
 - Treatment group vs control group
 - Data before (T_b) and after (T_a) the introduction of a tax incentive
 - If the changes in the treatment and control group are similar, there is no additionality
 - Second best: look at the main factors explaining the take-up of tax incentives, & make your judgement on targeting



Final economic incidence

- The final incidence of a tax expenditure may differ from the primary one
 - Housing incentives may be capitalised in higher pre-tax prices
 - Reduced VAT rates translates into higher pre-tax prices, due to imperfect competition
 - Lower interest rates on savings accounts counteract the effect of tax exemption
- Most of the benefit accrues to middle-higher income households



Costs of tax expenditures

- Direct costs can be high:
 - redundancy – tax expenditure benefits activities that would have happened any way
 - Revenue leakage through avoidance & evasion (e.g. company churning, income shifting, interest deductibility)
 - Revenue losses require other fiscal adjustments
- Tax expenditures also have indirect costs:
 - Introduce economic distortions (stimulate low productivity investments, distort technical decisions)
 - High compliance & administrative costs
 - Tax preferences create inequities & have a hidden cost
 - They are often non-transparent and have poor accountability
- Alternative instruments can be more cost-effective



Measuring cost & benefits of a tax incentive

1

- Identify taxpayers that will likely access the incentive

2

- Measure additional activity that takes place as a result of the incentive & the benefits of this activity

3

- Determine the likely revenue costs over a time period

4

- Isolate the likely welfare costs from the distortion of economic activity & windfall gains

5

- Identify the increase in governments & taxpayers administrative & regulatory costs



Calculate the Benefits-to-Costs ratio

- Using an appropriate discount rate, calculate the Total Benefits and Total Costs
- Calculate Benefits-to-Costs Ratio
 - This should be positive - do not implement TIs with a negative ratio
 - Ideally, the higher the ratio the better, although choices may also depend on other factors (e.g. scale of project, distributional impact of investment).
- Calculate internal rate of return and compare with pre-determined social rate of return



Difficulties in assessing effectiveness

- Lack of data
- Assessing additionality
- Determining which activities were not undertaken by taxpayers because of incentive
 - Taxpayers don't increase overall investment, but shift to different type of investment to access the incentive
- Determining impact of incentive on prices



Other options to analyse tax expenditures

- Descriptive tax statistics
- Ex-ante tax analysis
 - Tax indicators (ETRs, tax depreciation calculator)
 - Micro simulation models
 - CGE models
- Ex-post evaluations
 - Econometric analysis
 - Case studies
 - Surveys



OPTIONS FOR REFORM



Should all tax expenditures be removed?

- Difficult to expand the base further than the “practical” application of the benchmark
 - Non taxation of unrealised capital gains, imputed rents..
- Some tax expenditures may need to be replaced by a spending program
 - Tax credits or exemptions for social benefits
- Tax expenditures may have their own rationale or may be efficient
 - Externalities (e.g. R&D), imperfect competition (2nd best)



Options for reform

- Removal of tax expenditures
 - This can be done in one action, or a path can be established for gradual removal over time to allow time to adjust
 - Possibility to introduce non-tax measures to address objectives or provide compensation
 - Does not necessarily need to be done as part of a tax reform, but could be part of BBLR package
- Scale back: limit the scope of the objective: restrict eligible recipients or activities, limit use in time (e.g. loss carry-forwards only for a finite period)
- Change type: change the form of tax expenditure to reduce economic distortions – pathway to reform
- Improve administration: publish reports on cost & effectiveness; centralise administration; audit activities to ensure they are compliant



Conclusions

- Regular monitoring is essential to ensure tax expenditures are effective and costs are limited
- Tax expenditure reporting is an important first step provides transparency and estimates of revenue foregone
- Cost benefit analysis can provide deeper understanding of the efficiency of particular tax expenditures
- Options for reform include removal as well as limiting the scope of the tax expenditure or moving towards less harmful forms of expenditures



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