# Tax Policy and Income and Wealth Inequality 

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## Inequality of what?

- Ideally: well-being, but it is hard to measure.
- Wealth, income, earnings, consumption
- Annual, lifetime.
- Individuals vs households.
- Different sources of data allow for measuring different things.
- Treatment of taxes and transfers.
- Mobility: is place in the society stable or mobile? Both within and across generations.


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Figure A1: Average Real Earnings and Number of Workers


Figure 1: Gini Coefficient Series


Figure 2: Percentile ratios Log(P80/P50) and Log(P50/P20)


Top 10\% Income Share, 1913-2009


## Decomposing Top 10\% into 3 Groups, 1913-2009



Figure 6A: Top 1\% Earnings Share: Annual vs 5-Year


## Empirical facts about inequality

- Labor income inequality has increased dramatically since 1970s. Factors: skill-biased technological progress, compositional/demographic changes of the labor force (education, gender), institutions (minimum wage, unions, taxation), globalization.
- Mobility over the lifetime stable, intergenerational mobility less clear
- Top income shares dropped during WWII but have increased very rapidly since the 1970s (Piketty and Saez, 2003) in the US and some other countries (though less dramatic changes in Europe)
- Labor income the key driver of top income share growth
- Permanent changes rather than increased volatility at the top
- Wealth concentration more stable than income in the last 30 years
- Not too much known about intergenerational mobility at the very top It is low in Sweden (Björklund et. al, 2011), but it may have actually increased in the US


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## Wealth concentration

- An increase in income concentration has not been accompanied by a similar increase in wealth concentration
- Current rich are more likely to be self-made than 30 years ago.
- Also, fewer wealthy women in estate tax data and in Forbes 400 despite women making huge gains in the labor market
- Edlund and Kopczuk (2009): wealthy women are a proxy for the importance of inherited wealth
- Hypothesis: old wealth declining, new wealth increasing


## Wealth and Income Shares, Top . $01 \%$



Source: Piketty and Saez (2003) and Kopczuk and Saez (2004)

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## Forbes 400: 1982-2003

|  |  |  | \# with inheritance |  |  | \% with inheritance |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Year | \#Women | \%Women | Total | Women | Men | Total | Women | Men |
| 1982 | 72 | 0.18 | 143 | 64 | 78 | 0.36 | 0.89 | 0.24 |
| 1983 | 74 | 0.19 | 142 | 67 | 74 | 0.36 | 0.91 | 0.23 |
| 1984 | 67 | 0.17 | 135 | 60 | 74 | 0.34 | 0.90 | 0.22 |
| 1985 | 83 | 0.18 | 159 | 75 | 83 | 0.34 | 0.90 | 0.22 |
| 1986 | 88 | 0.19 | 150 | 76 | 73 | 0.32 | 0.86 | 0.19 |
| 1987 | 87 | 0.18 | 143 | 73 | 69 | 0.29 | 0.84 | 0.17 |
| 1988 | 66 | 0.14 | 107 | 52 | 55 | 0.23 | 0.79 | 0.14 |
| 1989 | 67 | 0.14 | 114 | 51 | 63 | 0.24 | 0.76 | 0.16 |
| 1990 | 70 | 0.16 | 109 | 51 | 58 | 0.24 | 0.73 | 0.15 |
| 1991 | 74 | 0.16 | 110 | 51 | 59 | 0.24 | 0.69 | 0.16 |
| 1992 | 70 | 0.16 | 107 | 49 | 58 | 0.24 | 0.70 | 0.15 |
| 1993 | 73 | 0.16 | 104 | 49 | 55 | 0.23 | 0.67 | 0.15 |
| 1994 | 76 | 0.17 | 105 | 50 | 55 | 0.23 | 0.66 | 0.15 |
| 1995 | 75 | 0.17 | 96 | 46 | 50 | 0.21 | 0.61 | 0.13 |
| 1996 | 76 | 0.17 | 99 | 47 | 52 | 0.22 | 0.62 | 0.14 |
| 1997 | 73 | 0.16 | 91 | 42 | 49 | 0.20 | 0.58 | 0.13 |
| 1998 | 69 | 0.15 | 87 | 40 | 47 | 0.19 | 0.58 | 0.12 |
| 1999 | 67 | 0.14 | 84 | 37 | 47 | 0.18 | 0.55 | 0.12 |
| 2000 | 49 | 0.12 | 58 | 24 | 34 | 0.14 | 0.49 | 0.10 |
| 2001 | 47 | 0.12 | 60 | 25 | 35 | 0.15 | 0.53 | 0.10 |
| 2002 | 49 | 0.12 | 58 | 26 | 32 | 0.14 | 0.53 | 0.09 |
| 2003 | 52 | 0.13 | 66 | 30 | 36 | 0.16 | 0.58 | 0.10 |

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## Share of Women Among the Wealthiest (Decedents)



Source: Edlund and Kopczuk (2009)

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## Redistributive taxation

- Redistribution is a big part of the current system
- Income tax - tax liability based on income, related to (current) ability to pay
- Many adjustments to the basic income tax structure to strengthen this link (exemptions for children, deductions for losses and for work-related expenses)
- Welfare programs provide additional transfers for some groups with low ability to pay (single mothers, disability)
- Social insurance programs - redistribution ex post; sometimes mixed with ex ante redistribution
- A lot of other features of the tax and transfer system serve to encourage particular behaviors (charitable and mortgage deduction, work incentives via EITC, saving)
- Complexity growing over time, many tax incentives hard to justify


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## Optimal income tax

- People work and consume
- Everybody has some skill level (or ability to pay), unobservable
- We can observe income, related to skills
- Society values transfers from people with higher income/utility/well-being to those with lower levels


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- Just one tax rate - not a realistic policy, but it is simple and highlights the key issue: equity-efficiency tradeoff
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- Taste for redistribution matters.
- Higher inequality, higher rate
- How well income indicates who is deserving matters
- How strongly people respond is an empirical question
- .. but it may also denend on nolicy. Fxample: tax enforcement.


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## Tax rate for top incomes

- Starting with Diamond (1998) and Saez (2001) - express optimal income tax formulae in terms of empirically observable parameters
- Let's assume that we do not care (much) about people making top incomes. How we should we tax them?
- Ton marginal tax rate:

- where a ("thickness of the tail") is a measure of the shape of the income distribution, $a \approx 2$
- and $\varepsilon$ measures by how many $\%$ income changes in response to $1 \%$ change in its price $(1-\tau)$
- Note that even though the top marginal tax rate may be low, the overall tax liability may be still very high!


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## Incentive effect



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## Revenue cost



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## Tax rate at the top



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FIGURE 4 - Hazard Ratio (1-H(z))/(zh(z)), years 1992 and 1993


[^0]Saez, E. (2001). Using elasticities to derive optimal income tax rates. Review of Economic Studies, 68(1):205-29

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## Taxable income responses

- The key and hardest to evalute parameter here is the extent of behavioral response.
- Overall labor supply responsiveness appears small, $\varepsilon \approx 0$

- ...does it mean that the efficiency cost of taxation is small?
- Feldstein $(1995,1999)$ : no, there are many other margins of response. We knew that of course, but Feldstein's point was that they can be usefully summarized by response of taxable income.


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## Possible responses to income taxation

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- Labor supply related - effort, occupational choice
- Capital gains realizations, portfolio choice, saving
- Organizational form of a firm
- Deductions (charity, business expenses)
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## Possible responses to income taxation

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## Evidence (survey Saez, Slemrod and Giertz 2011)

- Initial papers (Lindsey, 1987; Feldstein, 1995; Auten-Carroll, 1999): very high elasticities, possibly above 1.
- Note: $\frac{\partial t l}{\partial t}=I\left(1-\frac{t}{1-t} \varepsilon\right)$; when $t \approx 0.5, \varepsilon>1$ puts you on the wrong side of the Laffer curve!
- Hard to estimate econometrically, recent evidence indicates taxable income elasticity of $0.4-0.6$

- Higher elasticities (>1?) for high-income and self-employed.

- Non-structural elasticity: results somewhat different in different countries, periods, vary with definition of income


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- Reform: people with business income can opt for a flat tax of $19 \%$ no deductions or other preferences, no joint filing. Otherwise, progressive tax rates of $19-30-40 \%$
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Relevance of Poland


Tax Policy and Income and Wealth Inequality

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## Were there any effects?



## More subtle ways of studying it

Flat tax and gross income change 2003-2004 by having a spouse in high bracket (business owners)


Tax Policy and Income and Wealth Inequality

## Final remarks

- Trends in inequality
- Equity vs efficiency costs
- Understanding the nature of top incomes - how important is rent-seeking (negative externalities)?
- Empirical research: revolution in empirical work due to access to detailed administrative datasets


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[^0]:    Source: Saez (2001), p. 219

