

# Behavioral responses to taxation

Kyle Coombs

Vassar College

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# Optimal Income Tax and Elasticities

Recall the optimal income tax formula:

$$\frac{t}{1-t} = - \frac{\text{cov} \left( \lambda, \frac{I}{I^M} \right)}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \varepsilon_i \cdot \frac{I_i}{I^M}}$$

## Policy goals:

- ▶ Define (taxable) income appropriately to capture the ability to pay (accurate  $I/I^M$ )
- ▶ Make avoidance/evasion more or less accessible (lower  $\varepsilon_i$ )
- ▶ Most empirical estimates of the tax elasticity of labor supply  $\varepsilon_i$  are fairly small
- ▶ What does small  $\varepsilon_i$  imply for income tax rates?
- ▶ How can people reduce their taxable income?

# Lecture Goals

- ▶ Identify the different margins of response to taxation
- ▶ Characterize the empirical methods used to estimate the behavioral responses to taxation
- ▶ Contrast and evaluate tax avoidance and tax evasion and their impact on the social cost of taxation

# Limitations of the Theory on Labor Supply

## **Theory assumes free adjustment of hours worked.**

- ▶ Ambiguous effect on labor supply (income vs. substitution)
- ▶ Firms may want all workers to work the same hours
- ▶ Overtime pay makes it harder to adjust at a constant wage

## **Intensive versus Extensive Margin Adjustments:**

- ▶ Intensive margin = hours changes for those who work
- ▶ Extensive margin = labor force participation

## **Variation by group:**

- ▶ Primary vs secondary earners
- ▶ Low vs high income individuals
- ▶ Cost of work variation (e.g., parenthood)

## **Other Behavioral Margins of Adjustment:**

1. Intensity of work, occupational choice, retirement
2. Short- and long-run elasticities may differ

# Summary of Evidence on Labor Supply Responses

- ▶ both margins small for men/primary earners
- ▶ large response for secondary earners ( $\varepsilon \in [0.5, 1]$ ), mostly via participation
  - ⇒ Declined as gender gaps in employment rates closed
- ▶ large responses for low-income/welfare/EITC recipients, again mostly on the participation margin

# Behavioral responses to taxation

- ▶ The cost and incidence of taxes depend on responses
- ▶ For income tax, labor supply responsiveness,  $\varepsilon_l$ , matters, but need:
  - ▶ To account for income (positive) and substitution (negative) effects
  - ▶ “Exogenous” variation in tax rates
  - ▶ Assume wage elasticity of labor supply = tax elasticity of labor supply

## Excess burden of income tax

- ▶ Labor supply responses suggest small overall cost of income taxation, but...
- ▶ **Types of responses to income tax**
  - ▶ real — labor supply, effort, occupational choice
  - ▶ shifting — salary vs. fringe benefits, organization of firm
  - ▶ re-timing — e.g., asset sales, timing of bonus payments
- ▶ Each behavior is a “costly” response to taxation
- ▶ Feldstein (1999) showed that cost of income tax depends on total taxable income, not just labor supply
- ▶ On the government side, revenue depends on taxable income only (it is  $t \cdot I$  where  $I$  is taxable income)
- ▶ On the individual side, see next slide...

## Taxable income summarizes effect on utility

- ▶ Utility:  $u(C, L, E)$  with consumption  $C$ , leisure  $L$ , and effort  $E$
- ▶ Budget constraint:

$$C = w(E)(1 - L) - t \cdot \underbrace{[w(E)(1 - L) - A]}_{I=\text{taxable income}} - g(A)$$

Wage rate  $w(E)$  depends on effort;  $A$  is avoidance — it reduces taxable income but costs  $g(A)$ .

- ▶ Effect of  $\uparrow t$  on utility:
  - ▶ Taxes higher
  - ▶ By envelope theorem,  $C'(t) = L'(t) = E'(t) = A'(t) = 0$  at optimum

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left\{ u(C(t), L(t), E(t)) \right\} = -u_C \cdot I$$

(substitute out  $C$  with budget constraint)



# Responsiveness of taxable income

- ▶ Empirical benefit: taxable income right in the tax data
- ▶ A lot of other problems though:
  - ▶ Measurement: Taxable income changes with policy
  - ▶ Variation rare: Tax structure somewhat stable
  - ▶ Reverse causality: Taxable income determines  $t$
- ▶ Which side of the Laffer curve are we on?

$$\frac{\partial tI}{\partial t} = I + t \frac{\partial I}{\partial t} = I \left( 1 - \frac{t}{1-t} \varepsilon \right) \stackrel{?}{>} 0 \text{ depends on } \leftrightarrow \varepsilon \stackrel{?}{>} \frac{1-t}{t}$$

- ▶ Initial work in the 1990s (Lindsay, Feldstein): high taxable income elasticity, so “wrong side of Laffer curve”
- ▶ Newer studies find high elasticities due to re-timing in short run; longer term effects much smaller, but larger than labor supply alone

## Bunching at kink points

Assume that your marginal tax rates are 10% up to 50K, 20% up to 100K and 90% for every dollar over \$100K.

Where would you expect there to be a lot of people earning their income?

⇒ Bunching at exactly \$100,000

What are some reasons we might not see any bunching?

- ▶ Difficult to perfectly choose hours/earnings and earnings/hours
- ▶ Effective after-tax wage still high enough to work beyond kink point

# Empirical Estimation: Bunching at Kinks & Notches

## Kink estimation (discontinuities in marginal tax rate)

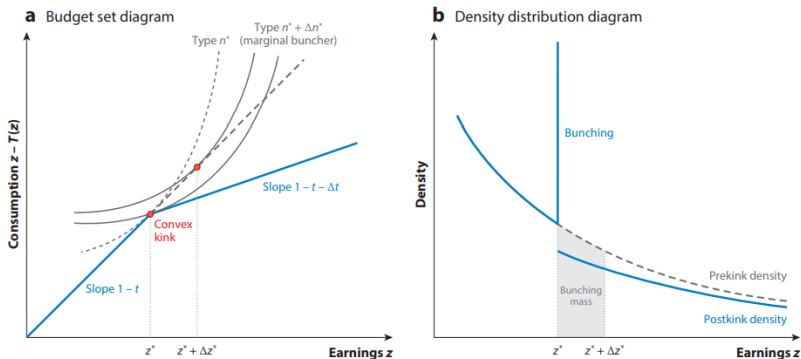
- ▶ Marginal tax rate changes create non-linear budget constraints
- ▶ A group of marginal workers optimize at the “kink,” but would work more under the counterfactual linear budget constraint
- ▶ The implied reduction in taxable income by these marginal workers is used to calculate an elasticity

## Notch estimation (discontinuities in average tax rate)

- ▶ Suppose the tax liability jumps at some income threshold, which creates a discontinuity in the average tax rate
- ▶ Creates region where reducing earnings raises consumption and leisure, then a region where preferences take over
- ▶ Elasticity harder to measure because level change does not map to derivative in the elasticity formula

Estimate a counterfactual earnings density (usually assume “smoothness” without kink/notch) to use these methods

# Bunching at a Kink: Graph



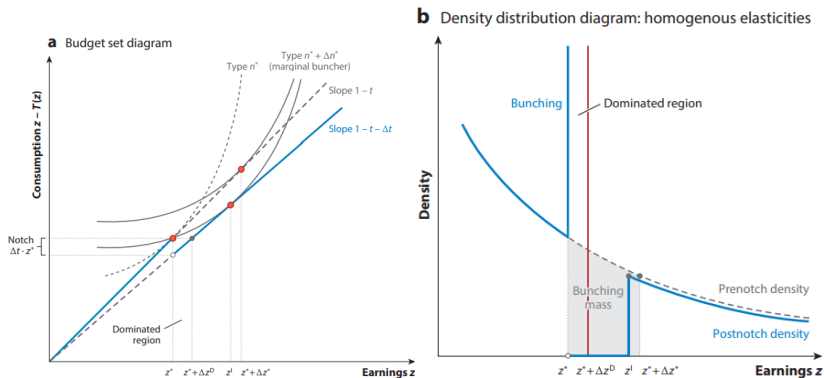
From Kleven (2016) “Bunching” at a kink point

If kink is small, the local “compensated” tax elasticity of taxable earnings is

$$\varepsilon = - \frac{\Delta z^* / z^*}{\Delta t / (1 - t)}$$

Technical note: Actual tax rate does not change, so there are no “income effects” making this the compensated elasticity (see Saez (2010) for details and exceptions)

# Bunching at a Notch: Graph



From Kleven (2016) “Bunching” at a notch points.  $\Delta z^D$  is area for which reducing earnings increases consumption and leisure.

Approximate elasticity with upper bound (see Kleven & Waseem (2013)):

$$e_R \approx \frac{(\Delta z^*/z^*)^2}{\Delta t/(1-t)}$$

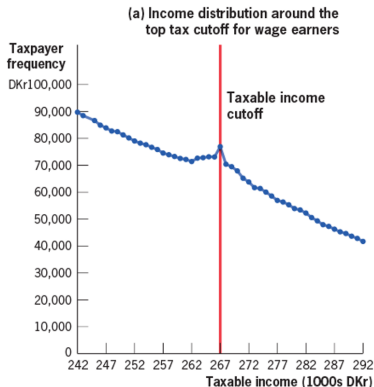
## Limitations to bunching estimation

- ▶ Requires “smoothness” in absence of the discontinuity, so discontinuities in wage settings/hours worked can create issues
- ▶ Are estimates from one part of the income distribution externally valid? Need a model to map to rest of distribution
- ▶ Highly salient tax discontinuities get bigger bunches, underinformed taxpayers may underoptimize
- ▶ It is costly to adjust earnings, so kinks/notches discontinuities with smaller changes may underestimate elasticity

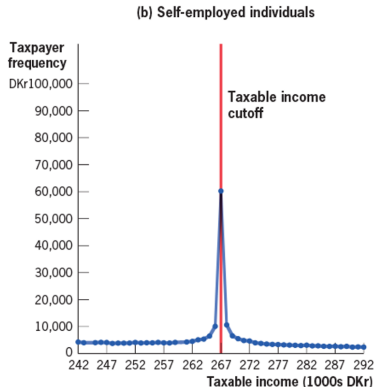
## Behavioral responses - examples

- ▶ “Bunching” of taxpayers in place where marginal tax rates change (Chetty et al, Quarterly Journal of Economics, 2011).
- ▶ Introduction of the flat tax in Poland in 2004 (Kopczuk, 2013): a tax reduction at the top of the distribution for people with business incomes – and “suddenly” the rich got richer?
- ▶ Importance of tax evasion (Kleven et al. “Unwilling or Unable to Cheat? Evidence from a Tax Audit Experiment in Denmark,” Econometrica, 2011)

# Bunching at the cutoff

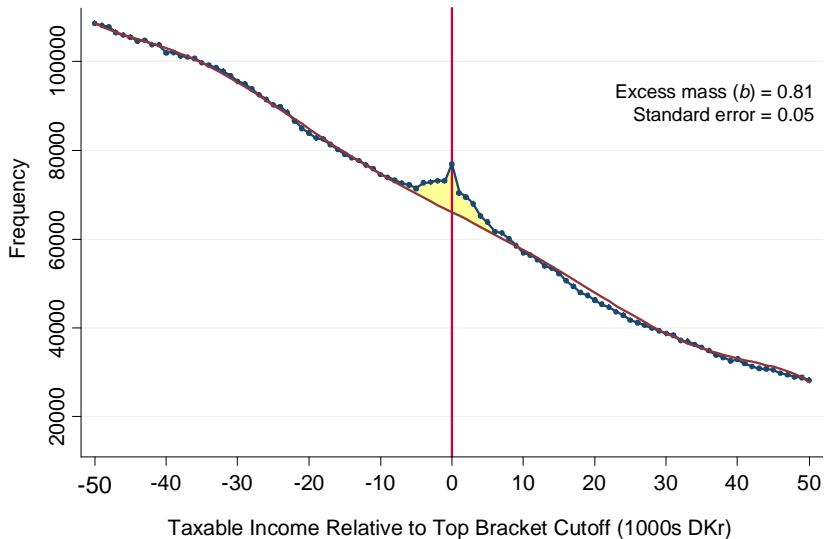


(a) Y-axis is # of individuals at each earning level

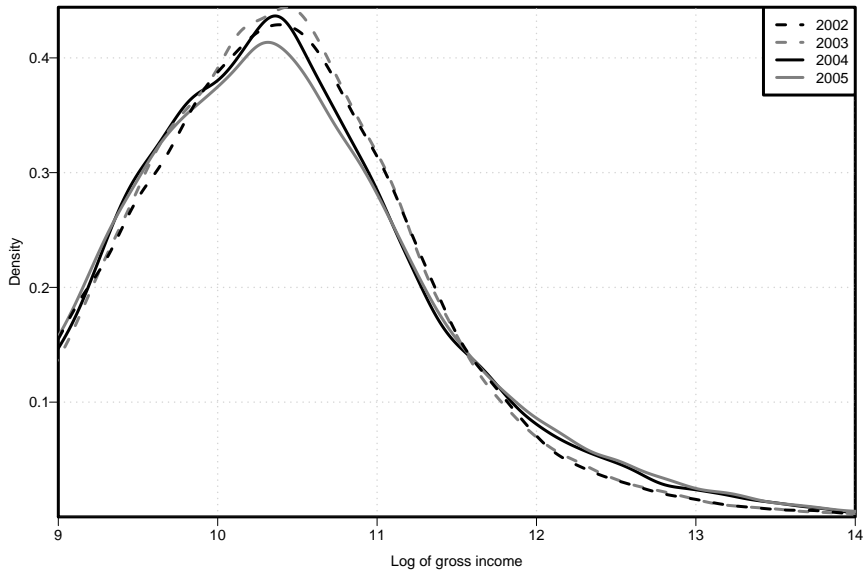


(b) Response could be changes in tax reporting

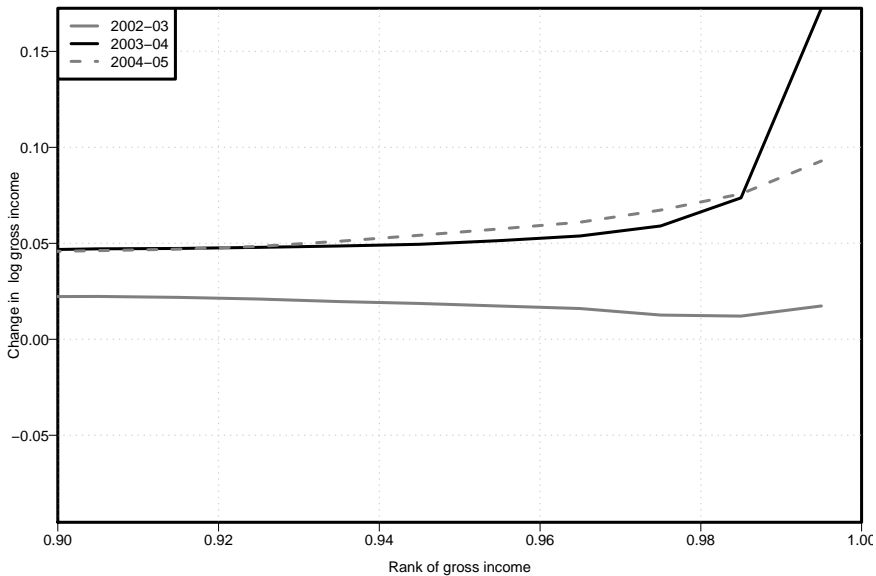




Earnings around the kink in the tax schedule — Denmark

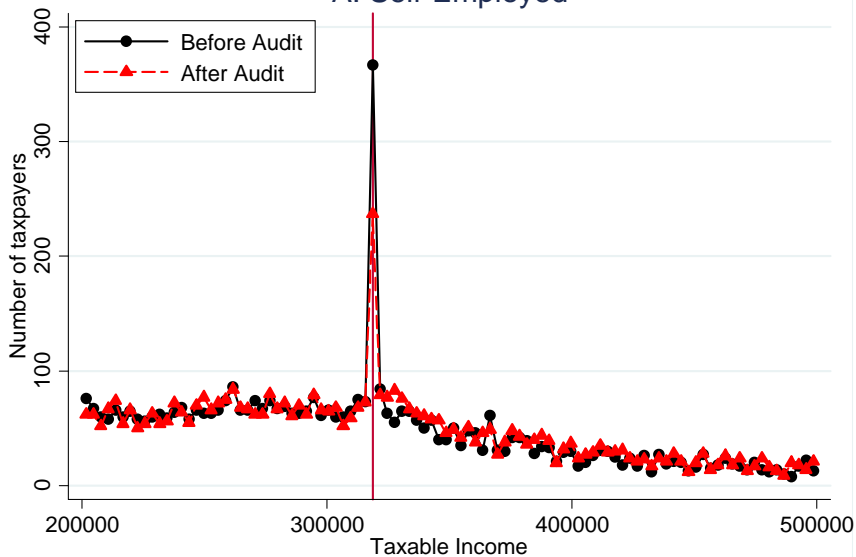


Distribution of gross income inflation/GDP adjusted (business owners)



Change in reported income 2002-05 by location in the full income distribution; tax reduction took place mostly in the top 1%

## A. Self-Employed



# Would you evade?

- ▶ How can someone avoid paying \$100 in tax?
- ▶ Imagine you received \$300 in cash for a side job. If you report, your tax liability goes up \$100. Do you?
- ▶ If you donate \$300, you can deduct \$100 from tax liability
- ▶ Only donations over \$250 require a receipt
- ▶ What would you do?
  - ▶ Just pay the \$100
  - ▶ Donate \$300 and deduct \$100
  - ▶ Say you donated \$300 and deduct \$100
  - ▶ Say you donated \$150 to two organizations and deduct \$100
- ▶ You start renting your basement as an Airbnb, but rent infrequently. Can you deduct mortgage/utility costs?
- ▶ Turns out there are a lot of holes in the tax code – even more for the wealthy

# Tax gap

Tax gap: the difference between the tax that taxpayers should pay and what they actually pay on a timely basis.

The Tax Gap in 2022 (according to the IRS, numbers rarely updated): \$696B or 15% of overall tax liability.

These numbers do not account for enforcement and late payments which were estimated to reduce the gross tax gap by \$90 billion to \$606B (13.1% noncompliance)

Sources of tax gap: nonfiling, underreporting, underpayment.  
Underreporting accounts for 80% of the tax gap.

# Tax evasion in the U.S.

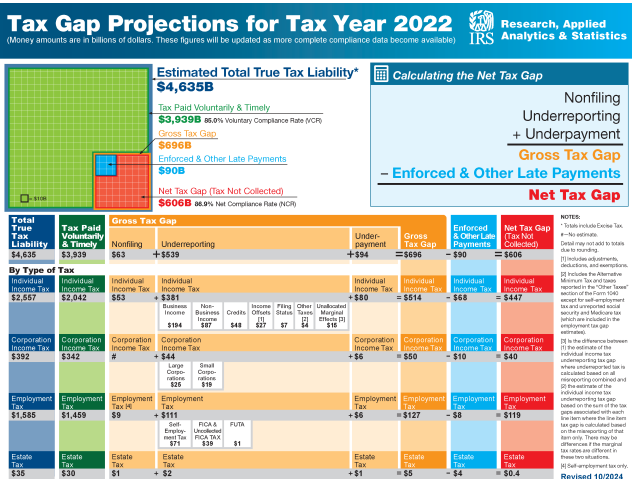


Figure: Source: <https://www.irs.gov/pub/irs-pdf/p5869.pdf>

# The cost of tax evasion

## Why is tax evasion bad? Is it?

- ▶ Tax evasion reduces revenue and requires adjusting other tax rates to make up revenue.
- ▶ One source of the social cost of tax evasion: excess burden due to higher taxes.
- ▶ Another source of cost: extra risk undertaken by tax evaders.
  - ▶ Worse off relative to everyone who pays same expected tax liability without taking risk
  - ▶ But, maybe we don't care about welfare of cheaters?
  - ▶ But what about people who make mistakes?
- ▶ Horizontal inequity: not everybody cheats.



## Tax evasion

Assumptions: tax rate of  $t$ , probability of getting caught  $p$ , penalty of  $f$ , income of  $y$ . A risk neutral taxpayer wants to maximize

$$(1 - p) \underbrace{[y - t(y - E)]}_{\text{evasion income}} + p \underbrace{[(1 - t)y - fE]}_{\text{penalized income}},$$

where  $E$  is evasion.

Equivalently, the expected after-tax/penalty resources are

$$(1 - t)y + [t(1 - p) - pf]E$$

For what values  $t(1 - p) - pf$  does raising  $E$  raise taxable income?

For  $t(1 - p) - pf > 0$ .

Income tax audit rate is  $p \approx 0.01$ . If marginal tax rate,  $t = 0.35$ , a penalty of  $f = \$34.65$  per dollar cheated discourages evasion.

Similar logic if a person is risk averse: if the evasion lottery pays on average, then cheat a little bit... (as a treat)

# Improving this framework

- ▶ The true audit probability is much bigger than 0.01. Why?
- ▶ Cross-referencing of wages and salaries with employer's reports means  $p \approx 1$  for most taxpayers
  - ▶ Underreporting varies by the type of income: very low ( $\approx 1\%$ ) for wages/salaries, closer to 30% for business income
  - ▶ Non-compliance generally increases with more options to withhold and more information sources needed to verify income
  - ▶ most effective ways of reducing non-compliance involve more third party reporting matched to individual reports
- ▶ Does  $\uparrow E$  attract more attention,  $\uparrow p$ : “petty” cheating — underreporting by a few bucks — likely undetected.
- ▶ Perception of fairness in the tax code has been suggested as an important determinant of compliance

# Tax evasion in the U.S.

TY 2008–2010 (Annual Average), TY 2011–2013 (Annual Average), TY 2014–2016 (Annual Average), TY 2017–2019 (Annual Average), TY 2020, TY 2021 and TY 2022

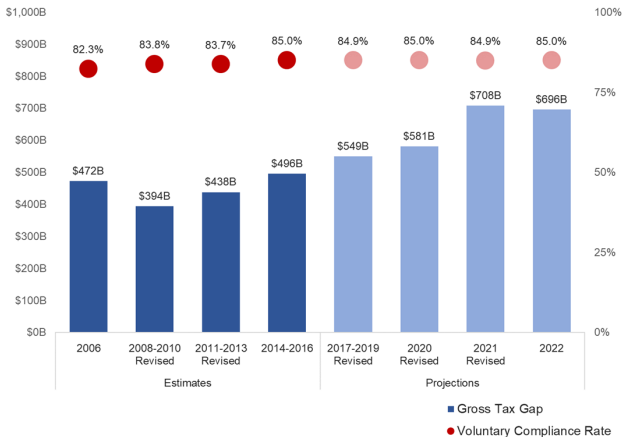


Figure: Source: <https://www.irs.gov/pub/irs-pdf/p5869.pdf>

# Tax evasion in Denmark

TABLE II  
AUDIT ADJUSTMENTS DECOMPOSITION\*

		A. Total Income Reported				B. Third-Party vs. Self-Reported Income			
		Pre-Audit Income	Audit Adjustment	Under- reporting	Over- reporting	Third-Party Income	Third-Party Under- reporting	Self- Reported Income	Self-Reported Under- reporting
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I. Net Income and Total Tax									
Net income	Amounts	206,038 (2159)	4532 (494)	4796 (493)	-264 (31)	195,969 (1,798)	612 (77)	10,069 (1380)	4183 (486)
	% Nonzero	98.38 (0.09)	10.74 (0.22)	8.58 (0.20)	2.16 (0.10)	98.57 (0.08)	2.31 (0.11)	38.18 (0.35)	7.39 (0.19)
Total tax	Amounts	69,940 (1142)	1980 (236)	2071 (235)	-91 (11)				
	% Nonzero	90.76 (0.21)	10.59 (0.22)	8.41 (0.20)	2.18 (0.10)				
II. Positive and Negative Income									
Positive income	Amounts	243,984 (2511)	3776 (485)	3943 (485)	-167 (27)	223,882 (1860)	516 (76)	20,102 (1693)	3427 (478)
	% Nonzero	98.24 (0.09)	5.80 (0.17)	4.78 (0.15)	1.02 (0.07)	98.15 (0.10)	1.60 (0.09)	19.53 (0.28)	3.41 (0.13)
Negative income	Amounts	-37,946 (1014)	756 (71)	853 (69)	-97 (14)	-27,913 (406)	97 (12)	-10,033 (862)	756 (68)
	% Nonzero	79.09 (0.29)	6.45 (0.18)	5.13 (0.16)	1.32 (0.08)	78.21 (0.29)	0.75 (0.06)	29.49 (0.33)	4.99 (0.16)

(Continues)

Evasion: 0.3%

Evasion: 41.5%

Evaders: 2.3% (2.31/98.57)

19.3% of evaders

UNWILLING OR UNABLE TO CHEAT?

Figure: Source: Kleven et al., Econometrica, May 2011

# Tax evasion in Denmark (Kleven et al, 2011)

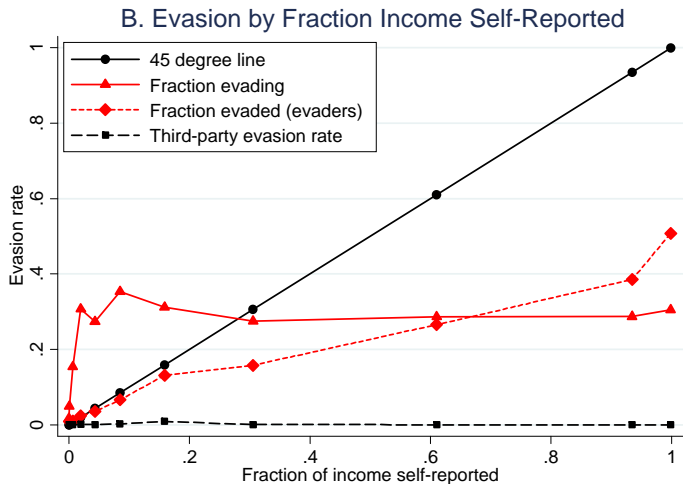


Figure: Source: Kleven et al., Econometrica, May 2011

# Policy response

## What should the government do to increase compliance?

- ▶ High penalties could deter cheating if detection is unlikely.
- ▶ “Optimal audit” strategies impractical with bounded penalties and costly audits:
  - ▶ Increase detection by using third-party reporting, P2P data, and taxpayer engagement.
  - ▶ Leverage network effects.
  - ▶ Improve public perception of the government and tax code.
- ▶ High detection rates don't always boost compliance; audits are often negotiations.
- ▶ Some noncompliance might be acceptable due to cost, redistributive effects, and limiting government growth.

# Complexity of the Tax Code

- ▶ Economic Costs:
  - ▶ Direct compliance: time spent on tax returns and info gathering
  - ▶ More avoidance opportunities
  - ▶ Unintentional errors: e.g., EITC claim mistakes from misinterpreting a “qualifying” child
- ▶ Policy Implications:
  - ▶ Penalties may not effectively address unintentional errors
  - ▶ Enhance compliance via education, customer service, and tax professionals
  - ▶ This approach has been the US policy for 15 years
  - ▶ Downside: Accounting firms (e.g., H&R Block, TurboTax) may exploit the system

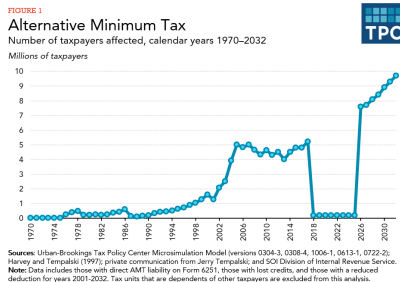
## Special treatment and rates

- ▶ Lower rate for capital gains and dividends (0%, 15% or 20%, depending on income level)
- ▶ An additional net investment income tax (3.8%) for taxpayers above \$250,000.
- ▶ 20% of business income reported on individual income tax returns (so called “pass-through” businesses - sole proprietors, S corporations, partnerships) may be deducted for some (many...) businesses as of 2018
- ▶ Reorganizing your earnings from wages to pass-through business income can be a way to pay less tax.
- ▶ And that's before we've touched illegal ways to pay less tax!



# The Alternative Minimum Tax and Claimants

- ▶ AMT introduced in 1969
- ▶ Disallows most deductions, adds back some income
- ▶ Pay the *higher* of the regular or the AMT tax liability
- ▶ Basic structure:



**Figure:** Skyrocket unlikely after One Big Beautiful Bill (Source: Tax Policy Center.)

Status	Exemption	Phase-out
Unmarried	\$88,100	\$626,350
Joint	\$137,000	\$1,252,700
Separately	\$68,650	\$626,350

**Table:** AMT Exemption Amounts and Phase-out Thresholds (2025)

# Tax Audits: Revenue Maximization and Disparate Impact

- ▶ Imagine an auditor is seeking to maximize tax revenue:
  - ▶ Two types of likely tax evaders:
    - ▶ High-income individuals with resources for legal evasion
    - ▶ Low-income individuals without such resources
  - ▶ Which group does the auditor target?
  - ▶ Targeting the wealthy involves costly legal battles
- ▶ Disparate impact of audits:
  - ▶ IRS strategies aimed to minimize non-productive audits
  - ▶ Focus on erroneously claimed EITC rates and simpler returns
  - ▶ Higher audit rates for some groups, e.g., Black taxpayers audited at 2.9 to 4.7 times rate of others (Elzayn et al. (2023))
    - ▶ No evidence of racial animus, but impact remains concerning
  - ▶ Biden EO+Inflation Reduction Act shifted focus to wealthy evaders, but DOGE/Trump cuts reduced audit capabilities

# Conclusion

- ▶ Responsiveness to taxation determines the costs associated with taxation and is key to setting optimal rates.
- ▶ Taxable income is a sufficient statistic for the cost of taxation, influenced by various margins beyond labor supply choices.
- ▶ Estimation requires (ideally exogenous) variation in rates, with non-linearities in budget constraints (kinks & notches) useful for estimating “local” tax elasticities.
- ▶ Tax evasion/fraud can exacerbate the social cost of taxation and is illegal; the government can mitigate this by increasing audit probability or penalties.
- ▶ Additional levers available to further reduce evasion.