

TAXATION, INVESTMENT, AND FINANCE

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Empirical Evidence on Tax Incentives and Investment

1. Neoclassical Accelerator (closely linked to user cost derivation – yields an optimal capital stock but optimal adjustment path comes from ad hoc assumptions)

- Classical treatment beginning with Jorgenson (1963) but empirical roots are much deeper
- After-tax Profits:

$$(1 - \tau_{c,t})[F(K_t, L_t) - w_t L_t] - (1 - \tau_{c,t} z_t - ITC_t) p_t I_t$$

z_t = present discounted value of depreciation allowances in place at time t

$\tau_{c,t}$ = corporate tax rate at time t

ITC_t = investment tax credit rate at time t

- Capital Stock Equation of Motion:

$$\dot{K}_t = I_t - \delta K_t \quad \left(\dot{K}_t = dK_t / dt \right)$$

$V = \max$

- $\{L_t, I_t, K_t\}$

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-\rho t} \{ (1 - \tau_{c,t}) [F(K_t, L_t) - w_t L_t] - (1 - \tau_{c,t} z_t - ITC_t) p_t I_t - \lambda_t (\dot{K}_t - I_t + \delta K_t) \} dt$$

- $\frac{\partial V}{\partial K} : -e^{-\rho t} (1 - \tau_{c,t} z_t - ITC_t) p_t + \lambda_t = 0$

- $\frac{\partial V}{\partial K} - \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial \dot{K}} \right) = e^{-\rho t} \left[(1 - \tau_{c,t}) F_K(K_t, L_t) - \delta \right] + \dot{\lambda}_t = 0$

- From the first FOC we can find $\dot{\lambda}_t$:

$$\dot{\lambda}_t = -\rho \lambda_t - e^{-\rho t} p_t \left[(\tau_{c,t} z_t) + ITC_t \right] + e^{-\rho t} (1 - \tau_{c,t} z_t - ITC_t) \dot{p}_t$$

- Special case: if $\tau_{c,t}, ITC_t, p_t$ are all constant then

$$\dot{\lambda}_t = -\rho \lambda_t \text{ and}$$

- $e^{-\rho t} \left[(1 - \tau_{c,t}) F_K(K_t, L_t) - \lambda_t \delta \right] - \rho \lambda_t = 0.$

- These expressions imply

- $e^{-\rho t} (1 - \tau_{c,t}) F_K(K_t, L_t) - (\delta e^{-\rho t} + \rho) \lambda_t = 0$
- $e^{-\rho t} (1 - \tau_{c,t}) F_K(K_t, L_t) - (\delta e^{-\rho t} + \rho) e^{-\rho t} (1 - \tau_{c,t} z_t - ITC_t) p_t = 0$

- Now we evaluate this expression at $t=0$:

$$(1 - \tau_{c,0}) F_K(K_0, L_0) - (\delta + \rho) (1 - \tau_{c,0} z_0 - ITC_0) p_0 = 0$$

- Rewrite this expression to obtain:

$$F_K(K_0, L_0) = \frac{(\rho + \delta)(1 - \tau_{c,0} z_0 - ITC_0)}{1 - \tau_{c,0}} = c$$

- This is the standard user cost of capital expression.
- Note that when there are changes in the net-of-tax price of investment goods from changes in p , τ_c , z , or ITC, the user cost becomes

$$F_K(K_0, L_0) = \frac{\left(\rho + \delta + \frac{(\tau_{c,0} z_0) + ITC_0}{1 - \tau_{c,0} z_0 - ITC_0} - \frac{\dot{p}_0}{p_0} \right) (1 - \tau_0 z_0 - ITC_0) p_0}{1 - \tau_{c,0}}$$

- Rising investment good prices reduce the cost of capital, rising tax subsidies (z , ITC) raise the cost of capital.
- This expression is an implicit expression for K_0^* , the optimal capital stock at time zero.
- With Cobb-Douglas production technology, optimal capital stock $K^* = \alpha Y/c$ where Y = output and c = cost of capital
- Assume that I is a simple function of difference between optimal and existing capital stock: example would be $I_t = \omega(K_t^* - (1-\delta)K_{t-1})$ (is ω a structural parameter? It will determine shape of distributed lag)
- Empirical challenges:
 - Effects of Y and c are linked together – but we would like to know effect of tax parameters on I through c
 - Y is endogenous (simple $Y = C+I+G$ analysis!)

- This is a backward-looking framework: no allowance for positive future effects on output if investment has macro stimulative effects, no capacity to analyze prospective changes in taxes
- Open question: could adjustment lags change as a function of price incentives
- Empirical strength:
 - “accelerator” type models fit the data well
 - Can be implemented with asset-specific user costs BUT no analogue to output from specific asset classes

2. Tobin’s Q (and tax-adjusted variants)

- Forward-looking investment model: level of investment depends on the difference between current purchase price of capital goods (net of tax) and shadow value of capital to the firm
- Empirical Challenge: Measuring the shadow value of capital
- Standard assumption: Average value of capital equals marginal value (examples when clearly wrong: factor price shock like energy price change, old capital not as valuable as new capital)
- Implementation:
 $q = (\text{value of equity} + \text{debt}) / (\text{replacement cost of assets})$
- Standard Investment Specification: (derived by Summers 1981 BPEA)

$$(I_t/K_{t-1}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * [(q_t - \{1 - \tau_{\text{corp}} * Z - \text{ITC}\}) / (1 - \tau_{\text{corp}})] + \varepsilon_t$$

- Alternative specification (“trapped equity view”): multiply q_t by $(1 - \tau_{cg}) / (1 - \tau_{div})$ to reflect use of internal funds as marginal source of finance
- Q models can be implemented with aggregate or firm-level data but NOT with asset-class data (no information on firm-specific q 's)

Recent Q-Model Estimates: Desai/Goolsbee 2004
Compustat Firm-Level Data, 1962-2003

	No Tax Incentives (q)	Tax-Adjusted Q
Estimate of β_1	0.0007 (0.00002)	0.0005 (0.0001)
Adjusted R2	0.368	0.367
Sample Size	161,416	142,882

- Separating q and tax terms:

β_1 on q variable: 0.0231 (0.0011)

β_1 on $1-\tau_{\text{corp}} * Z - \text{ITC}$ for equipment: -0.8895 (0.3173)

β_1 on $1-\tau_{\text{corp}} * Z - \text{ITC}$ for structures: -0.0169 (0.0452)

Open question: why are the reactions to equipment incentives much greater than structures?

- Why the much larger coefficient on the tax variable than the average q variable? Measurement error seems likely explanation.

Let $q_t = q_t^* + v_t$ where v_t is classical measurement error
 $\text{plim}(\beta_1)$ becomes $\beta_1 * \text{Var}(q_t^*) / [\text{Var}(q_t^*) + \text{Var}(v_t)]$
 if most of the variation in q_t is noise, then coefficient estimate is badly biased toward zero

- Alternative specification (“trapped equity view”): multiply q term by $\{(1-\tau_{\text{cg}})/(1-\tau_{\text{div}})\}$ to reflect use of retained earnings as marginal source of funds – evidence supports this alternative specification
- Appeal of Q models:
 - Easy to analyze pre-announced future tax policies (phase plane diagrams)

- Conceptually well grounded: estimating first order condition from adjustment cost model
- High-frequency variation in q
- Empirical Shortcomings:
 - Empirical fit is almost always weak
 - Lagged values of q or Q often have more explanatory power than contemporaneous values (why? Time to build? Slow adjustment of expectations by managers?)

3. Cash Flow Models

- Long empirical history, cash flow had substantial predictive value for investment at the firm level but was obviously endogenous
- Fazzari-Hubbard-Petersen (BPEA 1988) rehabilitate these models by emphasizing both asymmetric information insights from corporate finance theory AND possibility of using q to control for endogeneity of cash flow
- Recognize heterogeneity across firms and stratify firms by payout behavior

Effects of q and Cash Flow on Investment (FHP 1988)

	Lowest Dividend	Middle Dividend	Highest Dividend
Tobin's Q	0.0008 (0.0004)	0.0046 (0.0009)	0.0020 (0.0003)
Cash Flow/ K	0.461 (0.027)	0.363 (0.039)	0.230 (0.010)
R^2	0.46	0.28	0.19

- Open question of interpretation: is the 0.23 coefficient for “Highest” Group a measure of misspecification?
- Large applied theory literature in corporate finance (Myers “Pecking Order Hypothesis”) suggesting internal cash flow should be less expensive for firms
- Many subsequent studies using creative identification strategies to explore effects of cash flow
 - Kaplan/Zingales comment on FHP: low dividend firms in FHP sample are actually issuing new securities so appear to have access to capital markets
 - Owen Lamont: investment decisions of multinational oil companies with chemical processing subsidiaries
 - Josh Rauh: required pension contributions under ERISA as shocks to corporate cash flow
 - Conclusion: access to internal cash flow appears to affect investment decisions

4. “Nonparametric” Investment Models

- Focus on investment decisions by asset category (aircraft, computers, general industrial machines, etc.)
- Difficult to use any of previous models at the asset-specific level (how to map cash flow, or q , or sales to particular assets)
- Focus on “reduced form” models of investment, and either an asset-specific measure of $\{\tau_{\text{corp}} * Z - \text{ITC}\}$ or something similar (bonus depreciation in case of House/Shapiro AER 2008 study).
- Illustration using bonus depreciation analysis

- Conceptual Framework Recognizes that Price of Investment Goods is Endogenous: $p_{i,t} = (I_{i,t})^\eta$
- Bonus Depreciation Allows Expensing for Some Assets that Would Otherwise be Depreciated (let $b =$ bonus depreciation share)
- After-tax price of investment goods:

$$p_{\text{after-tax}} = \{1 - (1 - \tau_{\text{corp}})(b + (1-b)z)\}p(b)$$
 since p is endogenous and depends on b
- Note $dp_{\text{after-tax},i,t}/db = \tau_{\text{corp}}(1-z_{i,t})p_{i,t}(b)$; starting from $b=0$ the percentage change in the after-tax price is:

$$dp_{\text{after-tax},i,t}/p_{\text{after-tax},i,t} = \tau_{\text{corp}}(1-z)*b/(1 - \tau_{\text{corp}}*z)$$
- Inelastic Supply of Capital Goods: changes in $p_{i,t}(b)$ could offset most of the impact of b on after-tax price
- Regression specification: construct forecast errors from reduced form investment models - Cummins/Hassett/Hubbard strategy
- Let $(p_{i,t}, \varepsilon_{I,i,t})$ denote pair of forecast errors for the price of investment goods and the level of investment
- Use data before tax policy change to estimate model for predicting investment and prices during tax policy regime change, THEN regress forecast errors on bonus depreciation rate
- Estimate “forecasting” models using quarterly aggregate data 1965:1-2000:4, project through period 2001:1-2006:4

Forecasting Model/Controls in Error Eqn.	Investment Effects		Price Effects	
	OLS	WLS	OLS	WLS
Contemporaneous aggregates / aggregate cons	4.61 (2.53)	6.13 (1.79)	-0.48 (1.78)	-0.56 (1.69)
Contemp aggregates / time dummies	9.60 (3.39)	13.21 (2.96)	-0.83 (21.5)	-0.97 (1.87)

- Finding suggest substantial investment effects of bonus depreciation effect

5. Effects of Investment Incentives on Asset Prices

- Widely recognized that tax incentives may be capitalized into prices of fixed factors
- Application to ITC: Do Producers Just Raise Pre-tax Prices? (Goolsbee QJE 1998 study – suggests 10% ITC raises equipment prices between 3.5 and 7%)
- Simple specification: regress capital goods deflators from Bureau of Economic Analysis (annual, 1959-1988) on fixed asset effect, time trend (but NOT year effects!), rate of asset-specific investment tax credit; 22 asset categories

Example results

Furniture	0.0243 (0.1370)
Engines	0.6637 (0.2479)
Tractors	0.7101 (0.1328)
Agricultural Machinery	0.9762 (0.1954)
Office / Computers	-0.7607 (0.4924)
Aircraft	1.010 (0.1836)
Instruments	-0.3491 (0.1718)

- Further analysis of effects of concentration measures on degree of price change – some support
- More recent study: Edgerton 2009 (MIT Ph.D.): looks at prices of USED assets (asset price theory offers strong predictions about capitalization of tax incentives into prices of used assets)
- Much less evidence of price reaction – focus is on tractors and trucks, arguably markets with large international component during early 2000s

Taxation and Corporate Debt

1. Benchmark: Modigliani-Miller Theorem (1958)

- In a tax-free world in which investors and firms face identical debt markets, corporate debt policy has no effect on corporation value
- WHY? “Home-Made Leverage”
- Consider a firm that invests in a project that costs \$100, and that generates a payoff of \$X. Assume it is initially all-equity financed with 100 shares outstanding (one share costs \$1).
- Payoff per share: $\$X/100$
- Now imagine the firm borrows \$50 at an interest rate of r . Then it issues \$50 in equity to finance remainder of project. Payoff per \$1 of equity (now 50 shares): $\$(X - 50r)/50 = \$X/50 - r$.
- Does offering equity a payoff stream of $\$(X/50 - r)$ per dollar of equity investment lead investors to pay a different amount for the shares than when they were offered with a payoff of $\$X/100$?
- Say investor wants a payoff of $\$X/100$ but the firm has debt. Investor buys \$0.50 of equity, and \$0.50 of debt, which pays r . The payoff: $(0.50)(X/50 - r) + (0.50)r = \$X/100$. Thus by lending the investor can undo leverage; by borrowing she could create it.

2. Almost immediate response: What About Taxes? Since after-tax cost of borrowing is $(1-\tau)r$, but after-tax cost of equity is just r_{eq} (the pre-investor-tax required return on

equity – equity payouts are not tax deductible), the after-tax cost of debt seems lower.

- If the investor demands a constant required return ρ on all investments, what return must the firm earn to deliver that investor after-tax return?
- Debt: $f^*(k) = \rho / (1 - \tau_{\text{int}})$
- Equity (if pay dividends): $f^*(k) = \rho / [(1 - \tau_{\text{corp}})(1 - \tau_{\text{div}})]$
- Equity (if retain earnings & generate capital gains): $f^*(k) = \rho / [(1 - \tau_{\text{corp}})(1 - \tau_{\text{cg}})]$
- Seems like firm can maximize after-tax value of payments to investors by using debt (alternatively: cost of capital is lower for debt than equity)

3. Why are firms NOT 100% debt?

- Leverage is costly: risk of bankruptcy. If probability of bankruptcy is $\psi(D/K)$ and bankruptcy imposes a cost C , then firm trades off tax saving $(\tau_{\text{corp}})*r$ with marginal increase in bankruptcy costs $\psi'(D/K)*C/K$. This could yield an interior optimal $(D/K)^*$. This is the “static tradeoff theory.”
- Agency Costs of Higher Debt: Highly levered firms may forego some profitable projects because returns accrue to debt-holders not providers of new equity finance. (This is also a “static tradeoff.”)
- Miller (1977) Model: clientele formation makes the marginal investor in corporate debt indifferent between debt and equity. Clear illustration of separating equilibrium that is common with regard to taxation.

4. Miller Clientele analysis:

- Assume no tax on equity (could argue $\tau_{cg} \approx 0$).
- Distribution of investor tax rates $\{\tau_{int}\}$ in the population.
- Return to an investor from a corporate project: Equity delivers $f'(k) \cdot (1 - \tau_{corp})$. Debt delivers $f'(k) \cdot (1 - \tau_{int})$. Investors segregate into clienteles based on which return is higher: $\tau_{int} > \tau_{corp}$ specialize in holding equity, and vice versa.
- Generalization to case with differential risk of equity and debt is difficult: can investors find a matched portfolio of stocks and bonds that deliver the same risk attributes?

5. Empirical tests of what determines debt capacity

- Studies of firms that “exchange” one security for another: event study analysis of share price changes
- Issuing debt tends to raise value – issuing equity reduces it (puzzle: why do firms do things that reduces equity value? Maybe they are forced to...)
- Estimates of bankruptcy cost: Warner on railroads (5% of value of enterprise); Cutler-Summers on Texaco-Pennzoil

Company	Value Change from Litigation	Value Change from Settlement
Texaco	-4.1B	+2.0B
Pennzoil	+1.1B	+0.3B
Total	-3.0B	+2.3B

- Cross-sectional studies of decisions to issue securities: do “static tradeoff variables” seem to work?
- Mackie-Mason, 1990 Journal of Finance: probit models for issuing debt versus equity

Tax Loss Carryforward	-9.36 (prob. derivative)
Bankruptcy Predictor	Negative, not statistically significant
Variance of earnings	-31.5
R&D intensity	-6.9

6. Open Question: What are the Social Externalities of Debt Issue?

- Financial Crisis Raises New Questions: Does Borrowing at one firm impose externalities on the system?
- Zingales analysis of “Paulson’s Gift”: Government Transfer to Bond-holders
- Future policy: leveling tax burdens on debt and equity? “ACE” system (Allowance for Corporate Equity) – firm deducts $\theta \cdot MVEQ$ in addition to interest payments

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