The Incidence of the Corporate Profits Tax Revisited: A Post Keynesian Approach

by

Anthony J. Laramie*

Working Paper No. 109

April 1994

*Merrimack College and The Jerome Levy Economics Institute of Bard College

The Incidence of the Corporate Profits Tax Revisited: A Post Keynesian Approach

Introduction

The views regarding the incidence of the corporation income tax are varied, and the economics profession has not yet reached a definite conclusion as to who bears the burden of the tax. The incidence of the corporation income tax remains one of the most controversial subjects in economics. Pechman (1987) cites a number of studies and describes the various short-run and long-run shifting mechanisms that are utilized in describing the incidence of the corporation income tax. However, Pechman does not explore the post Keynesian contributions. In this paper, the incidence of the corporate **profits** tax is explicitly considered within the Keynesian tradition. In this tradition, the economy is assumed to operate with excess supplies of labor and capacity. As a consequence, broad based tax changes impact on aggregate demand, employment and real output, and these macroeconomic effects come to bear on the incidence of corporate profits tax.

In this paper the Harbergeresque approach is considered in light of the contributions of post Keynesians; the short period and long period incidence of the corporate profits tax is

¹Taxes derived from other sources of capital income will be ignored as the incidence of these taxes, as shown by Asimakopulos and Burbidge (1974), are determined by the operation of different influences in the economy. In the neoclassical approach, taxes on income from capital (taxes on profits, dividends and interest) affect the user costs of capital and, therefore, the demand for capital. It is this theory that allows for the lumping of taxes on income from capital into the analysis of corporate tax incidence.

discussed; an analytical framework is set up for analyzing the incidence of the corporate profits tax; and some empirical observations are made. The incidence of the corporate profits tax is shown to be largely dependent upon the government's budget stance, corporate pricing decisions; corporate investment decisions and household savings decisions. These latter private sector effects, insofar as they mitigate the budget stance's impact on the incidence of the tax, are considered to be indirect and relatively weak. As a consequence, the government budget stance is the primary factor determining the incidence of the corporate profits tax. In light of these findings, the desirability of the corporate profits tax is reconsidered and some policy implications are explored.

Harbergeresque Models.

According to Gravelle and Kotlikoff (1989, p. 750), the corporation income tax model as developed by Harberger 1962 has become "remarkably influential, . . . vanquished earlier . . . analyses, and has shifted the debate from one of theory to . . . proper measurement of the model's parameters." The Harberger model assesses the corporation income tax incidence using a two sector (corporate and noncorporate) pre-Keynesian model. In this model, savings, if it takes place at all, impacts on the level of investment, and capital and labor are assumed to be fully utilized. The imposition of the corporation income tax, in the short-run, assuming profit maximization and perfect competition, reduces the after-tax rate of profits causing corporate capital to bear the full incidence of the tax. In the long run, the extent to which the corporation income tax is shifted depends upon the relative shifts in the demand for and supply of corporate "capital." The corporation income tax reduces the

demand for capital through two channels: 1) a reduction in the after tax rate of return; and 2) an increase in the relative price of goods produced in the corporate sector.² The decline in the supply of corporate capital is caused by a capital flight into the non-corporate sector. If the decline in the demand for capital is greater than the reduction in the supply of corporate capital, then corporations, in the long run, bear some, all or more than all of the increase of the corporation income tax. Gravelle and Kotlikoff (1989) modify the standard Harberger model by allowing corporate and noncorporate production in the same sector,³ and by allowing for intra-sector substitution of products and factors while maintaining the basic pre-Keynesian assumptions. As a consequence, the thrust of their conclusions are the same as Harberger's. Corporate capital fully bears the burden of the corporation income tax in the short run, and the long-run incidence depends upon factor and product elasticities of substitution and the relative elasticities of product demand, among other things. Gravelle and Kotlikoff (1989, p. 779) end their article by hoping for a "rebirth of analytical attention to the

²The corporation income tax increases the price of capital relative to labor. The increase in the relative price of capital induces a greater use of labor. The increased use of labor results in an increased marginal cost and in the corporate sector price level. See Stiglitz, 1988, pp. 567 - 571.

³According to Gravelle and Kotlikoff (1989, p. 750), the standard Harberger model allows for differential tax analysis of capital producing different products, but not for the analysis of corporate taxation, per se.

[question of] . . . what the corporation income tax precisely does."

Even though the Harbergeresque models have enjoyed great popularity and have served as the basis for a number of empirical studies, these models have been shown to be irrelevant--ignoring the central features of a capitalist economy and empirically inconsistent--incorporating ad hoc Keynesian cyclical variables into pre-Keynesian models (see Burbidge, 1976). Following the work of Kalecki (1971/1937), Asimakopulos and Burbidge (1974) show, in assessing the impact and incidence of taxation, that the aggregate demand effects must be considered following a change in any broad based tax. These aggregate demand effects are related to the government budget stance, and to the response of business pricing decisions. For example, government may increase its spending or reduce other taxes in response to an increase in the corporate profits tax, and/or corporations may increase their markups and prices in response to increases in the corporate profits tax.

In studying the incidence of taxation, post Keynesians have found it convenient to break the study up into two parts: 1) a study of short-period tax incidence; and 2) a study of long-period tax incidence. In the Harberger approaches, the short period is defined in the classical sense: as the time where the corporate sector's capital stock remains constant following a change in the corporate tax. With constant capital stock and demand conditions and with no substitution of labor for capital, marginal cost, and, thus price, remains constant following a change in the corporate tax rate.⁴ In contrast, post Keynesians, like

⁴This approach has caused others, like Musgrave and Musgrave (1989), to conclude that short-run shifting is the consequence of non profit maximizing behavior.

Asimakopulos and Burbidge (1979), define the short period as the time where investment is fixed (by past decisions) and capacity utilization varies with respect to changes in aggregate demand. Asimakopulos and Burbidge (1979, p. 71) argue that the short period, as so defined, can be measured in . . . "calendar time, for example a quarter of a year, a half of a year or even a year . . ." The long period is that time where capacity also varies—where past investment decisions impact on the present.

A Framework for Assessing Tax Incidence.

In order to analyze the incidence of the corporate profits tax, an accounting identity for corporate profits is derived from the National Income and Product Accounts (NIPA). This identity is similar to Kalecki's (1968) famous profit identity which shows the various sources of aggregate profits. The corporate profits identity utilized here was illustrated by Levy and Levy (1983). On the aggregate, profits are shown to be related to investment, the government budget surplus and personal savings, among other things. Aggregate profits are caused by investment, for example, because businesses cannot decide to earn profits but businesses can make decisions that impact on profits (see Kalecki 1968, p. 55). As Levy and Levy (1983) show, manipulation of the savings and investment identity in the NIPA yields the following expression for corporate profits (see the Appendix for the complete derivation):

Post-tax corporate profits with inventory valuation and capital consumption adjustments

- = Gross Investment
- + Government budget deficit
- + dividends
- Personal Savings

- Consumption of Fixed Capital
- Wage accruals less disbursements
- Capital grants received by the U. S. (net)
- Statistical Discrepancy

By recognizing that the consumption of fixed capital can be broken down into corporate and noncorporate components; and by adding the corporate component to both sides, and by subtracting the capital consumption and inventory valuation adjustments from both sides, and by adding corporate net interest to both sides, gross post-tax corporate profits can be written as (see the Appendix):

Gross post-tax corporate profits (=undistributed corporate profits + dividends + corporate net interest + corporate consumption of fixed capital)

- = Gross Investment
- Corporate inventory valuation adjustment
- Corporate capital consumption adjustment
- + Government budget deficit
- + dividends
- + corporate net interest
- Personal Savings
- Noncorporate capital consumption allowance with inventory valuation and capital consumption adjustments
- Wage accruals less disbursements
- Capital grants received by the U. S. (net)
- Statistical Discrepancy

This latter expression will serve as the basis for analyzing the incidence of the corporate profits tax.

Determining what post-tax corporate profits would be in the absence of a change in the corporate profits tax is more complicated than that implied by the identity: that a dollar

increase in the corporate profits tax reduces post-tax corporate profits by one dollar. The complication arises because other things are not constant with respect to the change in the corporate profits tax. Following a change in the corporate profits tax, other tax receipts and/or government purchases may change, and these changes can generate aggregate demand effects. (see Burbidge, 1976, p. 229). As a consequence, the incidence of the corporate profits tax is analyzed by considering the macroeconomic adjustments that result from a change in the tax and how these adjustment come to bear on corporate profits. As Asimakopulos and Burbidge (1979, p. 79) stress, a "causal story" is needed to explain the incidence of the corporate profits tax; and as Burbidge (1976, p. 233) stresses "macro models with micro foundations [Burbidge's emphasis] which link short period stories will provide a consistent and useful approach" for analyzing the incidence of taxation. Unfortunately, macro models have not explicitly considered the incidence question, for example see Arestis and Driver (1988) and Eichner (1979). As such, in the next section a small macro model is constructed to illustrate the short-period and long-period incidence of the corporate profits tax, but first a causal story is considered.

A causal story. To illustrate the incidence of the corporate profits tax, suppose that the latter four categories of the post-tax corporate profits identity are zero, therefore, the analysis of the incidence of the corporation profits tax can be restricted to the tax's impact on gross investment, the government budget deficit and the difference between the sum of corporate net interest and dividends and personal savings. In the short period, assuming gross investment is fixed by past decisions, the incidence of the corporate profits tax is limited to the tax's impact on the government budget deficit, and the difference between the sum of

corporate net interest and dividends and personal savings.⁵ Under a balanced budget constraint (with compensating changes in government spending),⁶ a tax change, like an increase in the corporate profits tax, that leads to an increase in aggregate demand, through a balanced budget effect, will, under competitive conditions, cause an increase in business markups and prices which will, in turn, reduce real wages and personal savings, and increase post-tax corporate profits.⁷ Under non-competitive conditions, with personal savings insensitive to changes in current income, aggregate post-tax profits will be unaffected by a change in the tax. In the long period, assuming competitive conditions, the short-period increase in profits leads to additional profits to finance investment, and, as a consequence, current investment decisions and future investment expenditures and profits increase. In contrast to the Harbergeresque models, the post Keynesian approach allows for partial, full or

⁶Competitive conditions refer to a situation where the price of wage goods rise in response to a change in aggregate demand (see Asimakopulos and Burbidge 1979, p.76), and noncompetitive conditions refers to a situation where the price of wage goods remain constant with respect to a change in aggregate demand.

⁷On the basis of this conclusion, Burbidge (1976) considered the Harbergeresque models irrelevant and inconsistent (when such models include ad hoc Keynesian cyclical variables).

⁵As Kalecki (1971/1937) showed, under some restrictive conditions and a balanced budget constraint, an increase in profits tax has no impact on the aggregate level of profits.

more than full shifting of the corporate profits tax in the short-run, even under competitive conditions; and the impact of the corporate profits tax in the long period is tied to, not independent of, the short period tax incidence. These results are expressed more formally in a simple macro model.

A Corporate Tax Incidence Model

To begin, the profits identity is rewritten as:

(1)
$$P = I + X - (Tn-G) + D - Sp - Z$$
;

where P = gross post-tax corporate profits; I = gross private domestic investment less the inventory valuation adjustment; <math>X = net foreign investment; Tn = net (of transfer payments) government receipts; G = government purchases; D = the sum of corporate net interest and dividends; <math>Sp = personal savings; and Z = the sum of noncorporate consumption of fixed capital, wage accruals less disbursements, capital grants received by the U. S. and the statistical discrepancy.

In order to determine the incidence of the corporate profits tax, the structural determinants of the variables on the right hand side of the identity are briefly considered. For the sake of simplicity, net foreign investment and the sum of wage accruals less disbursements, capital grants to the U. S. and the statistical discrepancy are treated as exogenous variables.

Gross private Investment. Gross private investment, by definition, is the sum of gross fixed investment, residential construction and changes in business inventories. To

simplify the analysis, the determinants of business fixed investment will be considered, and the other categories will be ignored.

Following Kalecki (1968 and 1971/1968) fixed investment is expressed as a function of the past level of entrepreneurial savings, changes in a past level of profits; i.e.:

(2)
$$I_t = I(SE_{t-\tau}, \Delta P_{t-\tau});$$

where SE = entrepreneurial savings (the internal savings of the corporation plus the personal savings of controlling group (see Kalecki, 1968, p. 97)); and τ = the time lag necessary for investment decisions to be translated into investment expenditures. According to Kalecki (1968), firms will be induced to undertake new investment following a change in the economic environment. A change in the economic environment occurs when businesses accumulate savings out of profits and when the rate of profits change. The latter term in equation 2 largely determines the change in the rate of profits. Since no precise measure controlling group's personal savings exists, it assumed to be a function of corporate profits and it is written as:

(3)
$$SE = SE(P)$$
.

Thus equation 2 is rewritten as:

(2')
$$I_t = I(P_{t-T}, \Delta P_{t-T}).$$

Government purchases. Government purchases are assumed to be dependent upon net tax receipts and the purchases of the previous period; i.e.:

(4)
$$G_t = G(Tn_t, G_{t-1}).$$

This equation is used to judge the short-period government budget stance, and any long-

period dynamic relationship between government purchases and net tax receipts is ignored.8

Net Government Receipts. Net government receipts by definition equal gross government receipts less transfer payments. Here transfer payments are broadly defined as government expenditures less government purchases of final goods and services. As such, net tax receipts are written as:

(5) Tn = Tp + Tc + Ti + Tcsi - GTP

where Tn = net tax receipts, Tp = personal tax receipts; Tc= corporate profit tax receipts (accruals); Ti = indirect business tax receipts; Tcsi = contributions to social insurance; and GTP = government transfer payments. As a first approximation, expressions for the right hand side of 5 are found.

Total personal taxes are written as a function of personal income; i.e.:

(6) Tp = Tp(Yp);

where Yp = personal income. In a similar manner, the corporate profits tax is written as a function of the pre-tax corporate profits and the corporate profits tax rate; i.e.:

(7) Tc = Tc(tc, Pg);

where tc = corporate profits tax rate; and Pg = pre-tax net corporate profits. The remaining variables in net tax receipts are combined and simply expressed as a function of aggregate

⁸The presence of a long period (dynamic) relationship between government spending and taxation has been described by Peacock and Wiseman (1961). Although this has not yet been considered, their theory of public sector growth has relevance for the analysis of tax incidence.

income; i.e.:

(8)
$$T' = T'(Y)$$
;

where T' = the sum of indirect business taxes, contributions for social insurance less government transfer payments; and Y = aggregate income.

Corporate Net Interest and Dividends. As a first approximation, the sum of corporate net interest and dividends is simply expressed as a function of gross post tax profits; i.e.:

(9) D = D(P).

Personal Savings. Personal savings is represented simply as a function of disposable personal income and a past level of personal savings. Thus personal savings is expressed as:

(10) $Sp_t = Sp(Yd_t, Sp_{t-1});$

Aggregate Income. Aggregate income, like in Kalecki's 1968 model, is expressed as a function of a distribution parameter, the wage share, which may vary with respect to the change in corporate profits tax (see Laramie and Mair 1993), and the aggregate level of pretax corporate profits; i.e.:

(11)
$$Y = Y(\alpha, Pg)$$
;

where Yd = disposable personal income.

According to Kalecki (1968, p. 61), "national income . . . is pushed up to a point at which profits out of it are determined by the distribution factors."

⁹Kalecki (1968) illustrated this relationship by writing the wage and salary share as: $V/Y = B/Y + \alpha$; where V = the pre-tax wage and salary bill; B = pre-tax salaries. By defining V = Y - Pg and collecting terms: $Y = [B + Pg]/(1-\alpha)$.

where $oldsymbol{o}$ = the wage share; and the wage share can be written as:

(12)
$$\alpha = \alpha(tc)$$
.

To complete the model, disposable personal income, pre-tax net profits and disposable personal income are respectively defined. To simplify the analysis we assume that disposable income can be written as:

(13) Yd, = Y, - NCCAo - T' - Tp -
$$(Pg - D)^{10}$$

where NCCAo = the noncorporate consumption of fixed capital (assumed to be exogenous).

Pre-tax corporate profits gross of corporate consumption of fixed capital is defined as:

(14)
$$Pg = P + Tc$$
;

and personal income is defined as:

(15)
$$Yp = Yd + Tp$$
.

Within this framework, both the short-period and long-period tax incidence is discussed. In particular, two cases are considered: a) fixed government purchases, i.e. dG/dT = 0; and b) a balanced budget constraint, i.e dG/dT = 1.

Fixed Government Purchases. In this case, assuming the increase in the corporate

¹⁰The National Income and Product Account definition of disposable personal income is: Y + (RFI - PFI) - NCCAo - T' - SD - (Pg - D) + IPCB - BTPF - WAD -Tp; where RFI = receipts of factor income from the rest of the world; PFI= payments of factor income to the rest of the world; SD = statistical discrepancy; IPCB = interest paid by consumers to businesses; BTPF = business transfer payments to foreigners; and WAD = wage accruals less disbursements.

profits tax rate results in an increase in government tax revenues, corporate post-tax profits fall. To illustrate, consider the case where all profits are retained by businesses and the only tax is the corporate profits tax. Given that investment is exogenous in the short period, an increase in the corporate profits tax has no impact on aggregate demand, aggregate income, disposable personal income and personal savings. The decline in corporate profits is attributable to the decline in the government budget deficit. This decline in corporate profits is dampened, if corporations increase their markups with respect to the increase in corporate profits tax rate and if the increase in markups reduces personal savings. The increase in the corporate profits tax rate, via a change in corporate markups, reduces the distribution parameter and aggregate demand, which, in turn, reduces the levels of income and personal savings. It is through the decline in personal savings that the corporate profits tax is shifted in this contractionary budget stance. These results are expressed formally in the Appendix

¹¹The increase in the corporate tax has no impact on disposable personal income because pretax profits, which are removed from aggregate income in deriving disposable personal income, is unaffected by the increase in the corporate profits tax.

¹²In an open economy, assuming import substitution, the ability of domestic corporations to change raise markups with respect to an increase in the corporate profits tax is limited by the degree of international competition. An increase in imports diminishes the extent to which the corporate profits tax is shifted.

for the model outlined above.

In the long period, investment may respond to these changes. Insofar as the increase in the profits tax rate has reduced the level of profits, future investment will decline. This decline in investment will increase corporation's tax burden over the long period, as investment is a source of profits.

If businesses increase their markups and, hence, personal savings declines, the level of profits may be restored, but the resulting fall in the aggregate levels of demand and income may discourage future investment and, thus, increase the long-period tax burden.

A Balanced Budget Constraint. In the short period, with constant markups, the change in the corporate profits tax still has a negative impact on level of profits, but this negative impact is less than in the previous case. The increase in the corporate profits tax, insofar as it results in additional profit tax revenues, will increase the level of gross profits, via the balanced budget effect, and, given the distribution parameter, increase the aggregate and disposable levels of income. The rise in disposable personal income increases personal savings and reduces after tax profits. In this case, a sufficient condition, but not a necessary condition for post-tax profits to remain constant is for personal savings to remain unchanged with respect to the increase in disposable income.¹³ Again, if corporations alter their

In this case, the associated rise in personal savings further reduces post tax profits. The

¹³An implication derived from this result is that government would have to increases its deficit with respect to the increase in the corporate profits tax in order for post tax profits to remain constant. Also, you might consider the special case where the marginal propensity to save is approximately one (like in Friedman's permanent income hypothesis).

markups in response to the change in the corporate profits tax rate, then the effect described in the previous case applies.¹⁴ Corporations regain some of their profits but at the expense of the aggregate level of income. Again these results are formally expressed in the Appendix for the model outlined above.

The extent to which the long period tax burden changes depends upon the effects mentioned above. The rise in the corporate profits tax may inhibit further investment and increase the long-period burden of the tax.

Again if corporations alter markups in response to the tax change, the results of the previous case again hold.

Corporate Tax Changes and Profit Changes: A Look at the Data.

As indicated above, the short-period incidence of the corporation profits tax is widely influenced by two factors: 1) the government budget stance; and 2) the reaction of personal savings to a change in the corporate profits tax. An examination of annual corporate profits

incidence of the tax lies somewhere between the constant government purchase case and the balanced budget case when $0 \le MPS \le 1$.

¹⁴Damania and Mair (1992), in the Kaleckain tradition, have argued, that under conditions of oligopoly, the markup may actually fall during an increase in aggregate demand. Conceivably this kind of aggregate demand pressure may swamp any pressure to increase markups following an increase in the corporate profits tax.

data, as published in the NIPA, suggests that conditions have been such so as to climinate some of the effects the corporate profits tax has had on post-tax profits (the data is presented in Table 1A in the Appendix). These offsetting effects are not only reflected in changes in the government budget deficit and personal savings but also in changes in gross investment (which, in the short period, may represent a hangover effect). In assessing the impact of the corporate profit's tax on corporate profits, the overall trend in gross pre-tax profits, gross after-tax profits and the corporate profit tax shares of GDP are examined; and four corporate tax changes are considered: a) the increase in the corporate profits tax during the Korean war; b) the imposition of a surtax on corporate profits during the Viet Nam War (1968 and 1969); c) the increase in corporate profits tax following the 1986 Tax Reform Act; and d) the reduction in the corporate profits tax following the Economic Recovery Act of 1981. To illustrate, each of the sources of profits were deflated using the GDP deflator instead of their own particular deflator. This convention was adopted to insure that the right hand side of the profits identity added up to the left hand side--profits.¹⁵

Overall, during the period 1947 to 1991, the gross post-tax corporate profit share of

¹⁵Kalecki (1968, p. 119) assumed that the price index to deflate investment goods was identical with the gross product deflator. Ideally profits should be deflated according to some weighted index of consumer goods and capital goods that are purchased with profits. However no such index exists (see Toporowski, 1992). Moreover, if each of the variables were deflated according to their own price index, there is no guarantee that the deflated sum of sources on the right hand side of the identity would add up to the deflated value of profits.

GDP appears to move inversely with the corporate tax share of GDP--see Figure 1. As shown in Figure 1, the gross post-tax corporate profit share of GDP appears to increase on a long-run trend, and the corporate profits tax share of GDP appears to decrease on a long-run trend. If the two series are combined, then the gross pre-tax profits share of GDP appears to exhibit a zero trend. This evidence suggest that corporations have been able to increase their share of GDP primarily through reductions in the corporate tax liability and that the incidence of the corporate profits tax, over the long period, by and large falls upon corporations (in the sense that corporations are able to capture the reduction in the corporate tax share of GDP). The evidence also suggests that changes in the corporate tax code have altered economic incidence of the profits tax.

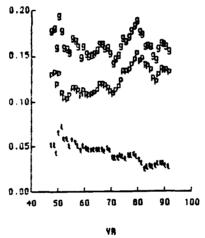


Figure 1. Gross Pre-Tax Profits Share of GDP (top); Gross After-Tax Profits Share of GDP (middle); Corporate Profits Tax Share of GDP (bottom) from 1947 to 1991.

Following the outbreak of the Korean war in 1950, an excess profits tax was placed on corporate profits and the corporate profits tax rate increased from 42% in 1950 to 50.75% in 1951 (see Pechman, 1987). In 1950, the real corporate profit tax liability jumped by about

73%, and real profits increased by about 20.2%. Moreover, in 1950, the corporate profit tax and profit shares of GDP increased respectively by 2.3 and 1.2 percentage points. In 1951 some of these effects were offset. The real corporate tax liability increased by about 20% while corporate profits fell by 9%; the corporate profit tax share increased by .6 of a percentage point and the profit share fell by 2.2 percentage points. If 1950 and 1951 are combined, then the 2.9 percentage point increase in the corporate profit tax share can be compared to a 1 percentage point decrease in the corporate profit share. These relative movements in the respective shares suggest some shifting of the corporate profits tax.

It is interesting to consider the sources of changes in corporate profits during these years. In 1950 the increase in corporate profits occurred during an investment rebound, with gross fixed investment increasing 53.8% over the previous year. Fixed, inventory and residential construction jumped significantly during 1950. However both public and private savings rose significantly. The real government deficit in 1949 of \$16.6 billion was transformed into a real government budget surplus of \$35.1 billion in 1950, while real personal savings rose by \$25.7 billion or by 73%. Moreover personal savings minus the sum of corporate net interest and dividends increased by about \$19.3 billion or by 1830%. In 1951, real gross investment continued to grow and the government budget surplus declined,

¹⁶The difference between the sum of net interest and dividends and personal savings is akin to Kalecki's (1968) measures of the difference between capitalist consumption and worker savings. A rise in worker savings relative to capitalist consumption reduces the level of profits.

but real personal savings increased relative to the sum net interest and dividends. The \$21 billion increase in personal savings relative to the sum of net interest and dividends accounts for much of the decline in profits.

The effects of the surtax on corporate profits during the Viet Nam War are somewhat similar. A surtax during the years 1968 and 1969 increased the corporate tax rate from 48% to 52.8% and the investment tax credit was suspended during the latter part of 1969 (see Pechman, 1987). The surtax was reduced and the corporate tax rate fell to 49.2% in 1970. It was eliminated in 1971. In 1968, the real corporate profits tax liability jumped by about 15% as real corporate profits increased by 1.5%. The real corporate profit tax share of real GDP increased by .4 of a percentage point while the corporate profit share fell by .3 of a percentage point. As in 1950, the increase in profits can be attributed, in part, to an increase in investment, as the government deficit fell. Gross investment increased by about 4.5%. Moreover, real personal savings declined by about 8.7%, and the difference between personal savings and the sum of corporate net interest and dividends decreased by about \$17.6 billion or by about 30%. In 1969, real corporate profit taxes decreased by 4.1% and corporate profits declined by 1.2% as real gross investment rose by 6.6%. The decline in corporate profits can be attributed to the increase in the real government budget surplus offsetting the combined effects of the fall in the difference between real personal savings and the sum of corporate net interest and dividends and the rise in gross investment. In this year, both the real profit and the tax shares of GDP fell. Overall during the period, the corporate profits tax share increased by .1 of a percentage point while the profit share declined by .7 of a percentage point.

In 1986, following the Tax Reform Act, where depreciation rates were reduced and the investment tax credit was eliminated, the definition of taxable income was broadened and the corporate tax rate was decreased from 46% to 32%, the real corporate profits tax liability increased respectively by 7.5% and 15.6% in 1986 and 1987. In 1986, real corporate profits fell by 1% while real gross investment declined by 5.9%. This fall in investment accounts for a large part of the decline in profits as the real government deficit increased and the difference between real personal savings and the sum of corporate net interest and dividends declined. In 1987, real profits recovered as investment increased and the deficit contracted. The increase in profits in this year can be, by and large, attributed to a 26.6% reduction in personal savings (as the sum of corporate net interest and dividends remained roughly constant) and to the 4.4% increase in gross investment. In 1986, the corporate profits tax share remained roughly constant while the profit share declined by about .5 of a percentage point. In 1987 both shares increased. If both 1986 and 1987 are combined, the profit and tax shares both increased by .4 of a percentage point.

Following the Economic Recovery Act of 1981, which accelerated the depreciation rates and liberalized the investment tax credit, the real corporate tax liability fell by about 26.7% in 1982 and then increased by 17.9% in 1983. In 1982 corporate profits fell by about 6.2% as real gross investment decreased by about 19.4%. The 238% increase in the government budget deficit reduced the fall in profits. In this year, both the profit tax and profit shares decreased respectively by .7 and .6 of a percentage point. In 1983 profits increased by 3% as gross investment declined by 6.7%, because the government budget deficit increased by 23.9% and personal savings relative to the sum of corporate net interest

and dividends fell by 23.6%. For 1982-1983 combined, the corporate tax and profit shares declined respectively .4 and .7 of a percentage point.

Table 1 below summarizes the movements in the real corporate profits tax, real post-tax corporate profits, profits share of GDP and the tax share of GDP for the above mentioned years. The less than or equal sign between the last two columns indicates whether the change in the profit share was less than, greater than or equal to the change in the tax share.

Year(s)	Corporate Profits Tax	Post-Tax Corporate Profits	Profits Share of GDP		Tax Share of GDP
1950-51	+	-	-	<	+
1968-1969	+	-	-	>	+
1982-83	-	+	-	>	-
1986-87	+	+	+	=	+

Table 1. The Movement in Post-tax Profits Immediately Following Major Corporate Tax Changes.

The evidence suggests that the impact of changes in the corporation profits tax on corporate post-tax profits was mitigated by changes in other factors despite the contractionary government budget stances in some years. In particular, when corporate tax rates were increased, and the government surplus increased, either increases in gross investment, perhaps due to a hangover effect, or a reduction in personal savings relative to the sum of net corporate interest and dividends offset, to some extent, the decline in profits. The important question, as stated above, is how are the factors on the right side of the profits identity related to each other and to the corporate profits tax. To determine this, the structural parameters of

the model have to be estimated. It is beyond the scope of this paper to estimate the structural parameters of a complete macro model. However, some key relationships will be examined.

A Statistical Illustration

In order to statistically illustrate the incidence of the corporate profits tax, specific expressions for post-tax corporate profits, gross investment, government purchases, personal savings, and aggregate income are examined. The shifting of the corporate profits tax is channelled through the profits equation and is affected by the behavior of gross investment, government purchases, personal savings, and the aggregate level of income, among other things.

The expression for corporate profits estimated is derived by assuming that the sum of dividends and net corporate interest can be written as:

(16)
$$D_1 = Do + d_1(Pt) + d_2D_{t-1};$$

and by plugging this expression in to 1 and by collecting terms which yields:

(17)
$$P_t = Do/(1-d_1) + (I+X + G - Tn - Sp - Zo)_t/(1-d_1) + [d_2/(1-d_1)]D_{t-1};$$

where $Do/(1-d_1) > 0$, $1/(1-d_1) > 0$, and $d_2/(1-d_1) > 0$.

Recall that fixed investment changes in response to a change in the economic environment as determined by the level of entrepreneurial savings and the change in the rate of profits (influenced largely by changes in the level of profits). Thus fixed investment is written as:

(18)
$$I_t = b_1 + b_2(P_{t-t}) + b_3(\Delta P_{t-t});$$

where $b_1 > 0$, $b_2 > 0$, $b_3 > 0$.

The government purchase equation is written as a linear function of net tax receipts and government purchases of the past period: i.e:

(19)
$$G_t = ho + h_1(Tn_t) + h_2(G_{t-1});$$

where ho > 0, h1 >=< 0 (depending upon the government budget stance).

Personal savings is expressed as a linear function of last period's level of savings and the current level of disposable income; i.e.:

(20)
$$Sp_t = Spo + s_1(Yd) + s_2(Sp_{t-1});$$

where Spo > 0; $0 < s_1 < 1$, and $s_2 > 0$.

Following Kalecki (1968), aggregate income can be written as a function of profits, by first specifying the wage and salary (gross of taxes) share as:

(21)
$$V/Y = B(1/Y) + a$$
;

where V = wage and salary bill; B = the salary bill and α = the wage share of aggregate income. By defining V = Y - π , where π = pre-tax corporate profits + indirect business taxes + other incomes,¹⁷ and by substituting this expression into 21 and collecting terms, aggregate income can be written as:

(22)
$$Y = (1/1-\alpha)[B + Pg + Ti + OIo];$$

where Ti = indirect business taxes; and OIo = other incomes (assumed to be autonomous).

By assuming that the wage bill's share can be written as a function of the tax bill share of

¹⁷The other incomes include, for example, rental income, proprietors income, and net interest, which are assumed to be autonomous.

corporate cost in a previous period, through, for example, the corporate markup; i.e.:¹⁸
(23) $\alpha = \alpha o + \alpha_1 [(TC/Yc-P)_{t,v}];$

where Yc = the corporate domestic product, v = a previous period, 1 - 4, $\alpha o > 0$; and $\alpha_1 > = < 0$, depending upon the pricing behavior of firms, the aggregate level of income can be written as:

(24)
$$Y_t = B'/(1 - \alpha o - ti) + Pg/(1 - \alpha o - ti) + \alpha_1[(Y_t)(TC/Yc-P)_{t-v}]/(1 - \alpha o - ti);$$
 assuming $Ti = Tio + ti(Y)$; and where $B' = B + Tio + OIo$.

Empirical Estimates

Equations 17, 18, 19, 20 and 24 were estimated using quarterly data for four periods:

1947 - 1960; 1961 - 1972; 1973 -1980; 1981 - 1993:Q1. Each of the variables were deflated using the GDP deflator for the reason mentioned above. The method of estimation was either ordinary least squares or Beach and McKinnon's maximum likelihood method or the Corchrane and Orcutt's technique. Investment was regressed using lags ranging from two to six quarters. Only a sample of these results are presented. The regression results are

¹⁸I am grateful to Wynne Godley for suggesting the use of the ratio of corporate taxes to corporate costs.

¹⁹Ideally two or three-stage least squares should be used to estimate the structural parameters in a simultaneous equation system. The above techniques were utilized because a complete macro model was not specified, and the purpose of this analysis is strictly illustrative.

summarized in Table 2 below and the regression output is provided in the Appendix.

Table 2. Sample Regression Results (t-statistics in parenthesis).

1947:Q3 to 1960:Q420

²⁰The investment equation was estimated for the period 1947:Q3 to 1960:Q4, and the GDP equation was estimated for the period 1947:Q4 to 1960:Q4.

1973:Q1 to 1980:Q4

$$P_t = -12.59 + 1.06(I+X + G - Tn - Sp - Zo)_t + .927D_{t-1}$$
 $R2 = .99 DW = 1.83$ $(-1.68) (45.48)$ (16.74)

$$I_t = 226.73 + .422P_{t-5} - .096(P_{t-5}-P_{t-6})$$
 $R2 = .70 \text{ DW} = 1.17$ (3.37) (3.02) (-.602)

$$G_t = 2.49 + .030Tn_t + .972G_{t-1}$$
 $R2 = .95 DW = 1.78$ (.089) (1.53) (21.65)

$$Sp_t = 10.69 + .0122Yd_t + .792Sp_{t-1}$$
 $R2 = .55 DW = 1.94$ (.166) (.613) (5.05)

1981:Q4 to 1993:Q1

$$P_t = 30.28 + .977(I+X + G - Tn - Sp - Zo)_t + .904D_{t-1}$$
 $R2 = .99 DW = 1.97$ (1.68) (22.26) (16.11)

$$I_{t} = 331.40 + .288P_{t-2} - .012(P_{t-2} - P_{t-3})$$
 $R2 = .81 \text{ DW} = 1.12$ (3.63) (1.87) (-.084)

$$G_t = 21.78 + .012Tn_t + .969G_{t-1}$$
 $R2 = .99 DW = 2.06$ $(1.69) (.446) (39.40)$

$$Sp_t = 213.85 - .0389Yd_t + .529Sp_{t-1}$$
 $R2 = .58 DW = 2.09$ (2.85) (-2.56) (4.07)

For the period 1947:O3 to 1960:O4, the estimates suggest that very little tax shifting was occurring. Consider the latter three equations for this period. First, the relationship between the change in government purchases and the change in net tax receipts is relatively small at .1271. This coefficient suggests that government took a somewhat contractionary budget stance. Second, the coefficient on the latter term on the income equation is positive and statistically significant. This positive term indicates that the distribution parameter and the aggregate level of income moved in the same direction as the change in corporate profits tax's share of total costs (lagged two quarters). Insofar as this higher level of income encouraged additional savings, the level of profits is reduced, and the incidence of the tax on corporations is heightened. The extent to which the corporation profits tax incidence is heightened is relatively small though, given that the marginal propensity to save is small. For example, with the aggregate income to aggregate corporate cost (lagged two quarters) ratio equal to 2.30 (standard deviation = .12), the change in aggregate income given a dollar change in corporate profits taxes is 1.00 (2.30 times .438); and the change in personal savings given a change in corporate profits taxes is .058 (.058 times 1.00), ceteris paribus. If the government purchases and savings effects are combined, then the evidence implies that corporations shifted some, albeit a small portion, of the corporate profits tax during this period. This result can be formally represented by differentiating the profit equation with respect to a change in the corporate profits tax, TC, assuming that a dollar change in corporate profit taxes equals a dollar change in net tax receipts and that a dollar change in

disposable personal income equals a dollar change in aggregate income; i.e.:21

(26)
$$dP/dTc = 1/(1-d_1)[h_1-1-s_1(\alpha_1(Y_t)/(Yc-P)_{t-v} + 1/(1-\alpha o-ti))]/$$

 $\{1 + [1/(1-d_1)](s_1)[1/(1-\alpha o-ti)]\};$

or given the parameter estimates:

$$(26') dP = -.974(dTc);$$

The investment equation did not perform very well for this period. The profit level coefficient was statistically significant at the 90 percent confidence interval and the change in profit coefficient was statistically insignificant. Dynamic tax incidence effects, through business fixed investment are, therefore, expected to be relatively weak during this period.

For the period 1961:Q1 to 1972:Q4 similar results were obtained. However, no statistical relationship was found between net tax receipts and government purchases, and the marginal propensity to save and the tax coefficient in the aggregate income equation increased (the latter being statistically insignificant). Given that no statistical relationship was found between government purchases and net tax receipts, during a time when aggregate government deficits first became chronic (and somewhat erratic), it could be ventured that

²¹Given the above assumptions, the change in post tax profits given a change in corporate profits tax is:

 $dP/dTC = (\partial P/\partial G)(\partial G/\partial TC) + \partial P/\partial TC + (\partial P/\partial Sp)(\partial Sp/\partial Y)[(\partial Y/\partial Pg)(\partial Pg/\partial TC) + \partial Y/\partial TC]$ $/ [1 - (\partial P/\partial Sp)(\partial Sp/\partial Y)(\partial Y/\partial Pg)(\partial Pg/\partial P)].$

government purchases arise independently from corporate profits tax receipts.²² As a conservative guess, any tax shifting through the government's budget stance and the aggregate income equation is ignored; i.e. $h1 = \alpha_1 = 0$. Thus the change in profits given a dollar change in the corporate profits tax is: dP = -1.03(dTc).

The investment equation estimates suggest that dynamic tax incidence effects were present during this sample period. Both the profits coefficient and the change in profits

²²Whether government would have substituted another form of taxation in the absence of the corporate profits tax is not known. However, if the government substituted the personal income tax for the corporate profits tax, the results would be quite similar. The increase in the personal income tax reduces disposable income, consumption and savings. The extent to which the rise in the personal income tax reduces corporate profits depends upon the difference between the rise in net tax receipts and the fall in personal savings. For example, in this period, a dollar increase in personal taxes reduces corporate profits by approximately \$.95 (1 - .048; where MPS = .048). If a personal tax were levied on specific types of households, with MPSs varying from the aggregate, then incidence of the tax would vary accordingly. In regard to the budget stance, in the process of aggregation, some important relationships may have been lost. For example, most of the states in the United States have balanced budget requirements. Under this law, states may determine their spending requirements then raise taxes accordingly. The state budget process (coupled with the deductibility of the state corporate profits tax at the Federal level) may thus generate an economic incidence of state corporate profits tax that is quite distinct from the economic incidence of the federal corporate profits tax.

coefficient are statistically different from zero.

However, the change in profits coefficient did not have the expected positive sign. Nonetheless, these results do suggest that corporations' incidence of the profits tax is heightened by the relationship between investment and profits. If, for example, a dollar decrease in the profits tax increases corporate profits by \$1.03, then investment and corporate profits would increase by \$.510 two quarters hence.²³

For the period 1973:Q1 to 1980:Q4 similar results were obtained. However, the marginal propensity to save was not statistically different from zero. With a statistically insignificant MPS and a statistically insignificant tax coefficient in the aggregate income equation, corporations' short-period incidence of the corporate profit tax is: $dP = [-1/(1-d_1)]dTc = -1.06(dTc)$.

The investment equation estimates are very similar to those in the previous period and, again, suggests that dynamic tax incidence effects are present. Given the relationship of investment to the change in profits, a dollar reduction in corporate profit taxes increases investment and corporate profits by \$.447 (\$1.06 times .422) five quarters hence.

The period 1981:Q4 to 1993:Q1 bears some interesting results because the estimated marginal propensity to save is negative and statistically different from zero. This result indicates that the growth in income's impact on corporate profits is heightened by the behavior of savings. As a consequence, given the positive tax coefficient in the aggregate

$$I_t = -25.0 + (1.030 - .520)P_{t-2} + .520P_{t-3}$$
.

²³The profit equation can be rewritten as:

income equation (which is statistically different from zero at the 90% confidence interval), the corporate burden of the tax is less than the legal burden; i.e dP = -.940(dTc); where the average ratio of real GDP to corporate costs (lagged two periods) equals 2.140 and its standard deviation is .054.

The estimates of the investment equation suggest that dynamic tax incidence effects are present although weak. The profits coefficient is statistically different from zero at the 90% confidence interval. These effects, again, will heighten corporations' burden of the tax in the long period.

Conclusions.

The purpose of this paper was to consider the factors that impact on the economic incidence of the corporate profits tax. If the market clearing/full employment assumption is dropped, then the incidence of the corporate profits tax can be analyzed using a Keynesian (macroeconomic) model. Within such a model the incidence of the corporate profits tax is determined by two sets of effects: 1) a public sector effect which depends upon the government's budget stance; and 2) a private sector effect which depends upon: a) the reaction of personal savings to the tax; b) the reaction of investment to the tax in the long period; and c) the change in corporate markups with respect to the tax. As shown, a dollar increase in the corporate profits tax, holding other things constant, results in a dollar reduction in post-tax corporate profits, but this effect is mitigated depending upon the public and the private sector effects. If the government spends the corporate profit tax receipts on final goods and services, corporations' incidence of the profits tax is reduced depending upon the

reaction of personal savings to the resultant change in aggregate income. Moreover, if corporations respond to the tax by altering markups, then the economic incidence of the tax may further vary from the legal incidence. These various effects impact on future investment, through profits, which may lead to cumulative incidence effects.

In determining the economic incidence of the corporate profits tax the relative strengths of these various effects must be considered. The government's budget stance is a policy decision and little a priori can be said about that. However, some speculation can be made about the relative strengths of the private sector effects. The private sector effects are expected to be relatively weak. First, consider the behavior of savings. If the marginal propensity to save is small, as the evidence suggests, then any change in personal disposable income given a change in the corporate profits tax is likely to have a small impact on post-tax corporate profits. Second, the degree to which corporations are able to shift the corporate profits tax through changes in corporate markups and the extent to which changes in profit margins impact on aggregate post tax profits is diluted by a number of factors. As stressed by Pechman (1987), businesses only know their tax liability ex post, and, therefore, the immediate shifting of the profits tax through markup changes is unlikely; and inter-firm rivalry may inhibit the degree to which the tax is shifted forward or backward. These sentiments are also expressed by Sylos-Labini (1979) in that nondirect costs may not be passed along due to "interfirm" differences.24 However given data on the U. K., Coutts,

²⁴Ed Slattery has pointed out to me that the corporate profits tax is not either a direct cost or an overhead cost. It is not a direct cost because it is not known at the time of production. It is not an overhead costs because, in all likelihood, it varies with production.

Godley and Nordhaus (1978), in analyzing the relationship between profit margins and corporate taxes, have indicated that little shifting occurs in the short period (a year or less), and that there is some full or more than full shifting in the medium and long runs respectively. Even if full shifting or more than full shifting is the result, then the extent to which such shifting impacts on the level of aggregate post-tax corporate profits depends upon: 1) the change in aggregate income with respect to the change in profit margins; and 2) the extent to which personal savings changes with respect to the change in aggregate income. Again if the marginal propensity to save is relatively small, the change in corporate profits with respect to a change in corporate markups is expected to be relatively small. Moreover, if the marginal propensity to save is negative, the change in corporate post tax profits with respect to the change in corporate markups is negative when shifting through the markup is present. With the private sector effects relatively minute, the incidence of the corporate profits tax depends largely upon the government budget stance, and the economic incidence of the corporation profits tax is determined politically as reflected in the government's budget stance!

The major economic policy issue associated with the corporation profits tax is whether such a tax should exist at all. One of the arguments against the corporate profits tax is that it results in the double taxation of income which distorts capital resource allocation. Clearly if the government takes an appropriate budget stance with respect to the corporate profits tax, then such double taxation of income, for the corporate sector as a whole, need not arise.

Another important issue is whether the corporate profits tax should be reduced while government is downsized as a means to end the current era of stagnation (for example, see Norton, Fortune, 9/16/93, p. 34 - 48). As implied by the discussion above, such a policy is not likely to have much impact on corporate profits, and it may actually reduce corporate profits if the government, as a result, reduces the size of its deficit. Furthermore, the process of downsizing is likely to reduce aggregate income through a balanced budget multiplier effect.

In the same context, there have been calls to reduce or replace the corporate profits tax with some other type of tax--like a value-added tax. The discussion above indicates that there may be only small benefits from doing so. Taxes, in most forms, if not accompanied by government spending have a depressing effect on corporate profits. This depressing effect may be increased if the imposition of the value-added tax results in an increase in the marginal propensity to save. However, some gains could be derived from replacing the corporate profits tax with a value-added tax. First, the introduction of the value-added tax is more likely to generate a certain private sector shifting effect --as value-added tax is more like a direct cost than is the profits tax.²⁵ As a consequence the incidence of the tax will be better understood than the incidence of the corporate profits tax. Second, the value-added tax may result in a more efficient allocation of resources within the corporate sector. A more efficient allocation of resources can come about as relatively small corporations and large corporations have the same shifting basis, and investment and financial decisions are no

²⁵I am grateful to Tom Karier for pointing this out to me.

longer based upon tax considerations but upon economic considerations. However, whether these changes would result in additional future investment and higher corporate profits remains to be seen. Moreover, the impact on aggregate income of replacing the corporate profits tax with the value added tax is unknown. As shown in equation 24, the determinants of the aggregate income multiplier include the wage share and the average indirect business tax rate. With the introduction of the value-added tax, the average indirect business tax rate will increase, raising the size of the multiplier, but the wage share will decline reducing the size of the multiplier, if business markups are insensitive to the elimination of the corporate profits tax. The relative strengths of these opposing effects determine the change in the income multiplier with respect to the introduction of the value-added tax.²⁶

Whatever the possibilities for the future, if we accept the old adage referred to by Stiglitz (1988) that "the best tax is an old tax," then the corporate profits tax is here to stay in some form. The question then is what can be done with the corporate profits tax to ensure economic growth. The realization that the economic incidence of the corporate profits tax is determined politically leads to some policy questions. For example:

²⁶To more formally illustrate this point, let $\alpha = 1/k$; where k is the markup. The markup by definition is: k = po(1+ti)/wo(N/Q); where po = the initial price level; N = units of labor; Q = units of output. Differentiating the aggregate income multiplier with respect to a change in the indirect business tax rate yields: $[1/(1-\alpha o-ti)^2][1-(po(wo)(N/Q)/(po(1+ti))^2] > 0$.

- 1) Should the government make use of the corporate profits tax to finance public projects -to build and rebuild infrastructure? If so, given a positive marginal propensity to save, how
 much of a deficit should the government run to ensure that the economic incidence of the
 corporate profits tax is zero?
- 2) Should the government use the corporate profits tax as a means to reduce poverty? If the recipients of government transfer payments have a marginal propensity to save equal to zero, then the tax incidence issues will be the same as in 1.
- 3) Should the corporate profits tax be earmarked for specific purposes--for example projects with a high degree of publicness within the corporate sector like research and development, job training and education. The private costs of these goods may be too high for individual corporations to bear. If the government makes provisions for these goods, by spending the corporate profits tax, then the economic incidence of the tax will be slight in the short run and negative in the long run as corporations benefit from the resulting productivity gains.

Finally this study has considered the determinants of the economic incidence of corporate sector as a whole and it has ignored the economic incidence of the corporate profits tax for an individual corporation. When government plays a large role in determining the economic incidence, it is the government distribution of spending and taxation across corporations that determines by and large individual corporation's tax incidence. The winners are those corporations that receive the benefits of government spending (directly or indirectly) in excess of their tax payments. The losers (and even some winners) may attempt to shift the tax through altering markups. Insofar as these individual corporations are able to adjust their markups, the corporate incidence of the profits tax may be negative. In contrast, if

government plays a passive role, where the budget process is totally ad hoc, where corporate profit taxes are unrelated to the rest of the budget, then the economic incidence of the corporate profits tax on individual corporations rest with individual corporation's ability to shift the tax through altering markups.

References

- Arestis, Philip and Driver Ciaran (1988), "The Macrodynamics of the US and UK Economies through Two Post Keynesian Models," in <u>Post Keynesian Monetary Economics</u>, ed. Philip Arestis, Aldershot: Edward Elgar Publishing, 11 40.
- Asimakopulos A., and Burbidge, J. B. (1974), "The Short-Period Incidence of Taxation." Economic Journal, 84, 267 288.
- Asimakopulos A., and Burbidge, J. B. (1979), "Harberger and Kalecki on the Incidence of Taxation: A Critical Comparison." Greek Economic Review, 70 -81.
- Burbidge, J. B. (1976), "Internally Inconsistent Mixtures of Micro- and Macrotheory in Empirical Studies of Profit Tax Incidence." Finanzarchiv, 35, 218 234.
- Coutts, K., Godley, W. and Nordhaus, W. (1978) Industrial Pricing in the United Kingdom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Damania, Richard, and Mair, Douglas (1992), "The Short-Period Incidence of Taxation Revisited," <u>Cambridge Journal of Economics</u>, 16, 2, 195 -206.
- Eichner, A. S. (1979), "A Post-Keynesian Short-Period Model," Journal of Post Keynesian Economics, 1, pp. 38 63. Reprinted in Malcolm C. Sawyer, ed. Post Keynesian Economics. England: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, 1988.
- Friedman, M. (1957) A Theory of the Consumption Function. Princeton, N. J.:

 Princeton.
- Kalecki, M. (1937), "A Theory of Commodity, Income and Capital Taxation."

 <u>Economic Journal</u>, 47, 444 -450. Reprinted in <u>Selected Essays</u>

 <u>on the Dynamics of a Capitalist Economy 1933 1970</u>. Cambridge:

 Cambridge University Press, 1971.
- Kalecki, M. (1968), "Trend and the Business Cycle." <u>Economic Journal</u>.

 Reprinted in <u>Selected Essays on the Dynamics of a Capitalist</u>

 <u>Economy,1933 1970</u>. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1971.
- Kalecki, M. (1968), Theory of Economic Dynamics. New York: Monthly

Review Press.

- Laramie, Anthony J. (1991), "Taxation and Kalecki's distribution factors,"

 Journal of Post Keynesian Economics, 4, 583-594.
- Laramie, Anthony J. and Mair, Douglas (1993), "The incidence of business rates: A post Keynesian Approach." Review of Political Economy, 5, 55 72.
- Levy, S. Jay and Levy, David A (1983) <u>Profits and the Future of American</u>
 Society. New York, New York: Harper and Row Publishers.
- The National Income and Product Accounts of the United States, 1949 1993 Statistical Tables, United States Department of Commerce, Bureau
 of Economic Analysis.
- Peacock, A. T. and Wiseman J. (1961) <u>The Growth of Public Expenditure</u> in the United Kingdom, National Bureau of Economic Research, New York.
- Pechman, Joseph A. (1987) Federal Tax Policy, Washington, D. C.: The Brookings Institution.

- Stiglitz, Joseph (1988) <u>Economics of the Public Sector</u>, second edition, New York, New York: W. W. Norton and Company.
- Sylos-Labini, P. (1979), "Industrial Pricing in the United Kingdom."
 <u>Cambridge Journal of Economics</u>, 3,153 63. Reprinted in Malcolm C.
 Sawyer, ed. <u>Post Keynesian Economics</u>. England: Edward Elgar
 Publishing Limited, 1988.
- Toporowski, Jan (1993), "Profits in the U. K.: some Kaleckian models."

 Review of Political Economy, 5, 40 54.

Appendix

Deriving the Corporate Profits Identity from the National Income and Product Accounts

In the National Income and Product Accounts the following relationships are defined:

GDP (expenditures) = Personal Consumption Expenditures (C)

- + Gross Private Investment (I)
- + Net Exports (XNET)
- + Government Purchases (G)

GNP = GDP

- + Receipts of factor income from the rest of the world (XSF)
- Payments of factor income to the rest of the world (MSF)

GDP = GNP

- Receipts of factor income from the rest of the world (XSF)
- + Payments of factor income to the rest of the world (MSF)

National Income (NI) = GNP

- Consumption of Fixed Capital (NCCAJ)
- Indirect Business Taxes (NBTAX)
- Business Transfer Payments (NBTRAN)
- Statistical Discrepancy (NBSTAT)
- + Subsidies less current surplus of government enterprises (NGSUB)

or:

National Income (NI) = Compensation to Employees (YLE) + Proprietors' Income (with capital consumption and inventory valuation adjustments) (YOP) + Rental Income (with capital consumption adjustment) (YRI) + Corporate Profits (with inventory valuation and capital consumption adjustments) (YCP) Corporate Profits with IVA (YCVA) Profits before tax (YCBT) Profits tax liability (YCTL) Profits after tax (YCAT) Dividends (YCAD) Undistributed Corporate Profit (YCAU) Inventory Valuation Adjustment (YCIVA) Capital Consumption Adjustment (YCCA) + Net interest (YNI)

Given these definitions, GDP is rewritten as:

or as:

(2A)
$$GDP = C + I + XNET + G$$

Setting 1A equal to 2A and by defining consumption of fixed capital as:

$$(3A)$$
 NCCAJ = BALO + SANCALO;

where BALO = corporate consumption of fixed capital; and SANCALO = noncorporate consumption of fixed capital, and by solving for the sum of after tax corporate profits with inventory valuation and capital consumption adjustments and the corporate consumption of

fixed capital, yields:

(4A) YCAT + YCIVA + YCCA + BALO = C + I + XNET + G + NGSUB - YCTL
NBTAX- SANCALO - YLE - YOP - YRI - YNI -NBTRAN - XSF + MSF

-NBSTAT

In order to derive the profit identity in the text, the following are added and subtracted on the right hand side of the equal sign in equation 4A: dividends (YCAD); personal tax receipts (GRPTX); government transfer payments (GEXTR); net interest paid by government (GNETI); dividends received by government (GDIVC); government wage accruals less disbursements (GWAGE); contributions for social insurance (GRCSI); wage accruals less disbursements (WAGE); personal transfer payments to foreigners (PTPF); capital grants received by the U. S. (net) (XG); and net corporate interest (YCNINT). This process yields: (5A) YCAT + YCIVA + YCCA + BALO = C + I + XNET - GBAL + NGSUB - YCBT - NBTAX - SANCALO - YLE - YOP - YRI - YNI -NBTRAN - XSF + MSF -NBSTAT + YCAD - YCAD + YPX + GRCSI - GEXTR - GNETI + GDIVC + GWAGE + SAWA - WAGE + PTPF - PTPF + XG - XG + YCNINT - YCNINT;

where GBAL = the government budget surplus, and it is defined as:

(6A) GBAL = (YPX + YCTL + NBTAX + GRCSI) -(G + GEXTR + GNETI + GDIVC - GSUB + GWAGE)

Given the following National Income and Product Account definitions, the expression for corporate profits can be derived.

(7A) YCAD = YCDV + GDIVC;

where YCDV = personal dividend income; and GDIVC = dividend payments to government;

(8A) SAWA = GWAGE + WAGE;

where SAWA = total wage accruals less disbursements;

(9A) NBTRAN = NBTRNP + NBTRNF;

where NBTRNP = business transfer payments to persons; and NBTRNF = business transfer payments to foreigners;

(10A) GEXTR = GEXTRP + GEXTRF;

where GEXTRP = government transfer payments to persons; and GEXTRF = government transfer payments to foreigners;

(11A) GNETI = (GIPD - GIREC) + GIPDF;

where GIPD = interest paid by government to persons and business; GIREC = interest received by government; and GIPFD = net interest paid by government to the rest of the world;

(12A) YNI = YPIN - (GIPD - GIREC) - YNICB;

where YPIN = personal net interest; and YNICB = interest paid by consumers to businesses;

(13A) YP = NI - YCP - YNI - GRCSI - SAWA + YPIN + YPDV + GEXTRP + NBTRNP;

where YP = personal income;

(14A) YPD = YP - YPX;

where YPD = disposable personal income;

(15A) YPSV = YPD - C - YNICB - PTPF;

where YPSV = personal savings;

(16A) MINET = XNET + XG + XSF - MSF - GEXTRF - PTPF - GIPDF - NBTRNF.

Combining expressions 5A through 16A yields:

To derive the expression for gross post-tax profits, the inventory valuation adjustment and the capital consumption adjustment are subtracted from both sides of 17A and corporate net interest is added to both sides of 17A; i. e.:

The Comparative Statics of Corporate Profits Tax Incidence

The model described in the text (equations 1, 2' 3 - 14) can be condensed into 5 equations:

(19A)
$$P = I(P_{t-\tau}, \delta(tc)P_{t-\tau}, \Delta P_{t-\tau}) + Xo + G(Yp,tc, Pg,Y) - Tp(Yp) - Tc(tc,Pg)$$

- $Ti(Y) + D(P) - Sp(Yd, Spt-1) - Zo;$

(20A)
$$Y = Y[\alpha(tc),Pg)];$$

(21A)
$$Yd = Y - CCAo - Ti(Y) - Tc(tc,Pg) - Tp(Yp) + P - D(P);$$

(22A)
$$Pg = P + Tc(tc,Pg)$$
;

(23A)
$$Yp = Yd + Tp(Yp)$$
.

By differentiating this system of equations with respect to a change in the corporate profits tax rate, tc, and by using Cramer's Rule, the short-run incidence of the tax can be determined; i.e.:

$$(24A) dP/dtc = {e44(e26){e55(e32(e13) - e12) - ((e12)(e35)-e15(e32))}}$$

where:

e11 = 1 -
$$\partial D/\partial P > 0$$
;
e12 = $-\partial G/\partial Y + \partial T'/\partial Y > = < 0$;
e13 = $\partial Sp/\partial Yd > 0$;
e14 = $-(\partial G/\partial Pg) + \partial Tc/\partial Pg > = < 0$;
e15 = $-\partial G/\partial Yp + \partial Tp/\partial Yp > = < 0$;
e16 = $\partial G/\partial tc - \partial Tc/\partial tc > = < 0$;
e24 = $-\partial Y/\partial Pg < 0$;
e24 = $-\partial Y/\partial Pg < 0$;
e31 = $(-\partial Yd/\partial D)(\partial D/\partial P)$;
e32 = $(-\partial Yd/\partial Y) - (\partial Yd/\partial T')(\partial T'/\partial Y) < 0$
e35 = $(-\partial Yd/\partial Tp)(\partial Tp/Yp) > 0$
e44 = 1 - $\partial Tc/\partial Pg > 0$
e46 = $\partial Tc/\partial tc > 0$
e55 = 1 - $\partial Tp/\partial Yp > 0$.

If government purchases and the distribution coefficient remain constant with respect to changes in net taxes, then e12 > 0, e14 > 0, e15 > 0, e16 < 0, and e26 = 0. Under these assumptions, the numerator is strictly negative and the denominator is strictly positive. If e26 < 0, the first term in the numerator is positive. This term shows the effect of tax shifting through changes in corporate markups as reflected in the distribution coefficient.

If government follows a balanced budget stance and the distribution coefficient remains constant with respect to changes in net taxes, then e12 = 0, e14 = 0, e15 = 0, e16 = 0, and e26 = 0. Again the numerator is strictly negative and the denominator is strictly positive. In this case the numerator reduces to -e24(e32)e46(e55)e13 < 0. If e26 < 0, then the numerator is given by: e55(e32)e13[e44(e26) - e24(e46)] >=< 0. The numerator is positive, if e44(e26) > e24(e46).

Table 1A. Real Gross Post-Tax Corporate Profits and Sources (Constant (1987 Dollars) Source: THE NATIONAL INCOME AND PRODUCT ACCOUNTS, Statistical Tables 1946 - 1992.

Year	Real Gross	Percent	Real	Percent
	Post-Tax	Change	Gross	Change
47.000 48.000 49.000 50.000 51.000 52.000 53.000 54.000 55.000 57.000 58.000 60.000 61.000 62.000 63.000 64.000 65.000 66.000 67.000 67.000 70.000 71.000 72.000 73.000 74.000 75.000 76.000	Post-Tax Corporate Profit(1) 159.358 169.000 152.764 183.663 167.136 165.116 168.636 173.874 198.690 204.661 203.279 191.165 212.109 208.462 211.407 225.651 236.765 258.123 289.789 306.463 309.901 314.465 310.778 302.557 325.337 352.442 395.157 423.451 421.951 448.566	Change . 0.061 -0.096 0.202 -0.090 -0.012 0.021 0.031 0.143 0.030 -0.007 -0.060 0.110 -0.017 0.014 0.067 0.049 0.090 0.123 0.058 0.011 0.015 -0.012 -0.026 0.075 0.083 0.121 0.072 -0.004 0.063	Gross Investment, Adjusted(2) 283.957 279.500 194.472 299.010 308.920 264.651 265.909 253.153 312.227 334.322 320.492 269.076 307.422 317.308 310.266 329.368 347.059 379.783 422.887 444.898 420.792 439.623 446.011 524.422 645.278 639.823 540.650 615.296	Change -0.016 -0.304 0.538 0.033 -0.143 0.005 -0.048 0.233 0.071 -0.041 -0.160 0.143 0.032 -0.022 0.062 0.054 0.094 0.113 0.052 -0.054 0.045 0.066 -0.053 0.073 0.102 0.230 -0.008 -0.155 0.138
			615.296 674.061	0.138 0.096
78.000	532.007	0.093	765.506	0.136
79.000	569.055	0.070	824.848	0.078
80.000	536.541	-0.057	756.346	-0.083
81.000	553.992	0.033	778.707	0.030
82.000	519.809	-0.062	627.446	-0.194
83.000	535.247	0.030	585.304	-0.067
84.000	549.835	0.027	659.934	0.128
85.000	528.496	-0.039	572.775	-0.132
86.000	523.323	-0.010	538.700	-0.059
87.000	580.700	0.110	562.200	0.044
88.000	632.177	0.089	634.104	0.128
89.000	644.015	0.019	665.746	0.050
90.000 91.000	651.015 631.691	0.019	631.509 625.404	-0.050 -0.051 -0.010

⁽¹⁾ Gross post-tax corporate profits equals the sum of after-tax corporate profits, net corporate interest and the corporate consumption of fixed capital.
(2) Gross investment adjusted equals the gross investment (business gross investment and net foreign investment) less the corporate capital consumption and inventory valuation adjustments.

Real Government Budget Surplus	Percent Change	Real Dividends & Net Corporate	Percent Change Savings	Real Personal	Percent Change
Government Budget Surplus 77.005 47.000 -16.583 35.149 26.291 -16.279 -25.909 -32.883 12.664 22.881 3.279 -43.775 -12.109 13.846 -11.407 -10.781 5.882 -5.776 4.577 -3.061 -45.545 -14.465 29.940 -32.670 -51.752 -10.026 16.707 -9.956 -131.707 -73.231 -30.054 4.975 14.482 -49.233	Change	Dividends & Net Corporate Interest (33.690 33.500 34.171 41.584 37.559 37.209 38.182 40.090 44.105 45.763 46.721 46.988 48.438 50.769 55.894 58.364 61.765 68.592 78.169 82.653 91.749 96.226 97.605 98.011 95.418 95.373 98.547 109.735 102.642 98.470 107.692 120.564 137.957 143.236	Change Savings 1) -0.006 0.020 0.217 -0.097 -0.009 0.026 0.050 0.100 0.038 0.021 0.006 0.031 0.048 0.101 0.044 0.058 0.111 0.140 0.057 0.110 0.049 0.014 0.004 -0.026 -0.000 0.033 0.114 -0.065 -0.041 0.094 0.120 0.144 0.038	Personal 26.738 54.500 35.176 60.891 77.934 80.000 82.273 72.973 69.432 90.254 93.033 96.787 85.938 79.231 94.677 96.283 90.809 113.718 121.831 123.810 151.155 138.050 129.641 163.352 176.280 153.728 208.475 206.637 203.862 177.820 157.245 178.773 187.957 214.644	. 1.038 -0.355 0.731 0.280 0.027 0.028 -0.113 -0.049 0.300 0.031 0.040 -0.112 -0.078 0.195 0.017 -0.057 0.252 0.071 0.016 0.221 -0.087 -0.061 0.260 0.079 -0.128 0.356 -0.009 -0.128 0.356 -0.009 -0.128 0.356 -0.009 -0.128 0.356 -0.009 -0.128 0.356 -0.009 -0.128 0.356 -0.009 -0.128 0.356 -0.009 -0.128 0.356 -0.009 -0.128 -0.116 0.137 0.051 0.142
-38.403 -129.594 -160.505 -119.429 -132.733 -151.496 -111.700 -94.701 -71.363 -122.242 -166.695	-0.220 2.375 0.239 -0.256 0.111 0.141 -0.263 -0.152 -0.246 0.713 0.364	176.426 177.446 179.449 187.925 195.975 218.163 218.500 224.855 257.919 261.165 225.234	0.232 0.006 0.011 0.047 0.043 0.113 0.002 0.029 0.147 0.013	243.093 238.067 193.685 243.688 200.530 193.498 142.000 150.000 140.055 150.044 171.198	0.133 -0.021 -0.186 0.258 -0.177 -0.035 -0.266 0.056 -0.066 0.071 0.141

⁽¹⁾ The series, net corporate interest, is unrevised.

I.	Noncorporate	Percent	Corporate	Percent	Profit	Percent
	Consumption	Change	Profits	Change	Share of	Change
	of Fixed		Tax		GDP	
C	Captial		Liability			
	44.920	•	60.428	•	0.127	
	48.500	0.080	62.500	0.034	0.130	0.021
	52.764	0.088	51.256	-0.180	0.117	-0.108
	55.941	0.060	88.614	0.729	0.129	0.093
	61.033	0.091	106.103	0.197	0.107	-0.204
	64.651	0.059	90.233	-0.150	0.102	-0.058
	66.364	0.026	92.273	0.023	0.100	-0.012
	68.468	0.032	79.279	-0.141	0.104	0.037
	70.306	0.027	96.070	0.212	0.113	0.075
	74.153	0.055	93.220	-0.030	0.113	0.007
	75.410	0.017	87.705	-0.059	0.111	-0.025
	76.305	0.012	76.305	-0.130	0.105	-0.056
	76.953	0.008	92.578	0.213	0.110	0.047
	78.846	0.025	87.308	-0.057	0.106	-0.041
	79.848	0.013	86.692	-0.007	0.105	-0.010
	80.669	0.010	89.219	0.029	0.106	0.015
	82.721	0.025	96.324	0.080	0.107	0.006 0.032
	84.838	0.026	101.083	0.049	0.110 0.117	0.052
	87.676	0.033	108.803	0.076	0.117	
	90.816	0.036	114.626	0.054	0.117	-0.001 -0.015
	94.389	0.039	107.921	-0.058	0.113	-0.015
1	97.799	0.036	123.899	0.148 -0.041	0.112	-0.025
	.03.593	0.059	118.862 97.443	-0.180	0.105	-0.039
	.05.966	0.040	101.887	0.046	0.103	0.042
	.10.243 .19.794	0.040	107.455	0.055	0.114	0.032
	.24.697	0.041	119.370	0.111	0.114	0.061
	.30.752	0.041	114.602	-0.040	0.121	0.078
	.36.992	0.049	103.455	-0.040	0.131	-0.002
		0.048	122.753	0.187	0.131	0.002
	.40.727 .48.122	0.053	130.590	0.064	0.133	0.013
	.57.711	0.065	138.474	0.060	0.144	0.040
	.68.598	0.069	134.146	-0.031	0.150	0.042
		0.049	118.271	-0.118	0.142	-0.056
	.76.848 .81.242	0.025	102.788	-0.131	0.144	0.015
	.85.442	0.023	75.298	-0.267	0.138	-0.043
		0.023	88.749	0.179	0.137	-0.010
		0.005	103.293	0.164	0.137	-0.032
	87.182	0.019	102.225	-0.010	0.124	-0.074
	.90.299	0.017	109.907	0.075	0.124	-0.040
	.94.500	0.022	127.100	0.156	0.128	0.071
	.98.844	0.022	131.985	0.038	0.134	0.045
	209.945	0.056	130.110	-0.014	0.133	-0.005
		0.014	122.330	-0.060	0.133	-0.002
		0.003	110.365	-0.098	0.130	-0.024
2	100,207	0.003	110.00	3.070	3.130	

Tax Share Change of GDP 0.048 . 0.048 -0.004 0.039 -0.181 0.062 0.585 0.068 0.093 0.055 -0.186 0.055 -0.011 0.047 -0.135 0.054 0.147 0.052 -0.052 0.048 -0.076 0.042 -0.124
0.048 0.148 0.044 -0.078 0.043 -0.030 0.042 -0.021 0.043 -0.006 0.044 -0.018 0.044 -0.083 0.041 -0.066 0.034 -0.180 0.034 -0.015 0.035 0.005 0.037 0.055 0.036 -0.131 0.037 0.019 0.037 0.011 0.037 0.011 0.037 0.011 0.037 0.011 0.037 0.011 0.035 -0.055 0.031 -0.114 0.027 -0.145 0.023 0.133 0.025 0.097 0.024 -0.041 0.025 0.044 0.028 0.122 0.029 -0.037 0.025 -0.071 0.023 -0.071 0.023 -0.092

REGRESSION OUTPUT

1947:Q3 to 1960:Q4

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR
MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE
CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 2 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = -0.282055 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.132604 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = -2.12705

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL GROSS POST-TAX PROFITS

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 151.563
STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 1.72390
MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 234.158
STANDARD DEVIATION = 28.3898
R-SQUARED = 0.996452
ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.996313
DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 2.0051
F-STATISTIC(2, 51) = 7161.50
LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -104.529

ESTIMATED STANDARD

VARIABLE COEFFICIENT ERROR T-STATISTIC

C 0.3819478 1.679602 0.2274037 REAL EXPENDITURES* 1.016481 0.1966982E-01 51.67720 (Net Corp Interest+Div.)(-1) 0.9417928 0.5742398E-01 16.40069

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS =

^{*} Defined as corporate profits less the sum of net corporate interest and dividends

1948:Q1 to 1960:Q4

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 4 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.952739 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.375187E-01 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 25.3937

STATISTICS BASED ON RHO-TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL FIXED NONRESIDENTIAL INVESTMENT

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 1782.88
STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 6.03202
MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 9.28674
STANDARD DEVIATION = 7.38434
R-SQUARED = 0.389176
ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.364245
DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.5693
F-STATISTIC(2, 49) = 13.7154
LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -166.879

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS =

VARIABLE ESTIMATED STANDARD COEFFICIENT ERROR T-STATISTIC

C 123.2382 24.55139 5.019601

52

Corp. Profits(-2) 0.2070622 24.55139 5.019601 Change Corp. Profits(-2) -0.9099487E-01 0.9197517E-01 -0.9893416 FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

NOTE: Lagged dependent variable(s) present

COCHRANE-ORCUTT ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 2 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.547231 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.141500 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 3.86736

STATISTICS BASED ON RHO-TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

53

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL GOVERNMENT PURCHASES

SUM OF SOUARED RESIDUALS = 3109.99

STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 7.88668

MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 142.667

STANDARD DEVIATION = 36.2634

R-SQUARED = 0.954520

ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.952701

DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 2.1354

F-STATISTIC(2. 50) = 524.694

LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -183.114

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS =

VARIABLE EST	IMATED S COEFFICIENT	TANDARD ERROR	T-STATISTIC
C	9.643686	11.30340	0.8531672
Real Net Tax Receipts	0.1271077	0.6353034E-01	2.000739
Real Gov't Purch(-1)	0.8558099	0.6049842E-01	14.14599
RHO(-1)	0.5472314	0.1414999	3.867362

NOTE: STANDARD ERRORS ARE CONSISTENT IN THE PRESENCE OF LAGGED DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S).

METHOD OF ESTIMATION = ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES

54

NOTE: Lagged dependent variable(s) present DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL PERSONAL SAVINGS SUM OF SOUARED RESIDUALS = STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 12.8427 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 73.4187 STANDARD DEVIATION = 21.0143 R-SQUARED = 0.640602ADJUSTED R-SOUARED = 0.626508 DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 2.0494 F-STATISTIC(2. 51) = 45.4520 LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -212.929

ESTIMATED STANDARD

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS =

VARIABLE COEFFICIENT ERROR T-STATISTIC

C -23.74793 15.66487 -1.516000
Real Disposable Income 0.5826453E-01 0.1809712E-01 3.219548
Real Pers. Savings(-1) 0.4071675 0.1193095 3.412699
DURBIN(1970) T-STAT FOR AR(1) = -0.497426

1947:Q4 to 1960:Q4

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 2 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.997977 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.282666E-02 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 353.058

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL GDP

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 17047.2 STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 18.4647 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 17.9273 STANDARD DEVIATION = 21.7972 R-SQUARED = 0.622143ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.607029DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 0.9250 F-STATISTIC(2, 50) = 11.2320 LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -230.956 NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 53

	ESTIMATED STAI	NDARD	
VARIABLE	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	T-STATISTIC
C	1332.056	286.7502	4.645355
Real Pre-Tax Corp Profits	0.8412800	0.1620965	5.189994
Yt(Tc/(Yc - Pg)(-2)**	0.4388025	0.1443620	3.039598

^{**}Yt(Tc/(Yc - Pg)(-2) = GDP in time t times the ratio of the corporate tax liability to corporate cost in time t - 2.

1961:Q1 t0 1972:Q4

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 1 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.196613 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.146486 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 1.34220

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 113.652
STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 1.58921
MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 231.941
STANDARD DEVIATION = 33.2370
R-SQUARED = 0.997813
ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.997716

DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.9781 F-STATISTIC(2, 45) = 10256.4

LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -88.8154 NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 48

	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	
VARIABLE	COEFFICIE	NT ERROR	T-STATISTIC
\mathbf{C}	1.940919	2.110359	0.9197102
REAL EXPENDITURES	1.018009	0.1738686E-01	58.55044
(Net Corp Interest+Div.)(-	1) 0.9424383	0.3028257E-01	31.12148

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 3 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.810949 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.824588E-01 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 9.83459

STATISTICS BASED ON RHO-TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL NONRESIDENTIAL FIXED INVESTMENT

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 1008.27
STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 4.73349
MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 54.0144
STANDARD DEVIATION = 12.2173
R-SQUARED = 0.861287
ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.855122
DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.5430
F-STATISTIC(2, 45) = 134.050
LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -141.720
NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 48

E	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	
VARIABLE	COEFFICIE	NT ERROR	T-STATISTIC
\mathbf{C}	-25.00005	17.98532	-1.390026
Corp. Profits(-2)	1.034817	0.6350072E-01	16.29615
Change Corp. Profits(-2)	-0.5203142	0.1040627	-5.000009

METHOD OF ESTIMATION = ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES NOTE: Lagged dependent variable(s) present DEPENDENT VARIABLE: **REAL GOVERNMENT PURCHASES**

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 2054.04
STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 6.75614
MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 531.683
STANDARD DEVIATION = 77.6659
R-SQUARED = 0.992755
ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.992433
DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.5294
F-STATISTIC(2, 45) = 3083.00
LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -158.262
NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 48

EST	IMATED STA	NDARD	
VARIABLE	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	T-STATISTIC
C	13.50708 6.9	27372	1.949812
Real net tax receipts	0.2721152E-01 0.4	4242011E-01	0.6414770
Real Gov't Purch(-1)	0.9564725 0.4	4016715E-01	23.81231
DURBIN(1970) T-S	TAT FOR AR(1) =	1.60378	

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

NOTE: Lagged dependent variable(s) present

COCHRANE-ORCUTT ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 12 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.586487 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.265350 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 2.21024

STATISTICS BASED ON RHO-TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL PERSONAL SAVINGS

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 5445.83

STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 11.1251

MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 55.0811

STANDARD DEVIATION = 15.6916

R-SQUARED = 0.519194

ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.497339

DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.8403

F-STATISTIC(2, 44) = 23.7565

LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -178.373

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 47

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED COEFFICIE	STANDARD NT ERRO	R T-STATISTIC
C	-68.20455	40.70181	-1.675713
Real Disposable 1	ncome 0.1016151	0.4021839E-0	1 2.526582
Real pers. savings	s(-1) 0.1031568	0.3179762	0.3244167
RHO	0.5864870	0.2653502	2.210237

NOTE: STANDARD ERRORS ARE CONSISTENT IN THE PRESENCE OF LAGGED DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S).

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 3 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.997838 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.303098E-02 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 329.213

STATISTICS BASED ON RHO-TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL GDP

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 22676.3

STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 22.4481

MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 33.1642

STANDARD DEVIATION = 24.5622

R-SQUARED = 0.682418

ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.668303

DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.3096

F-STATISTIC(2, 45) = 5.63483

LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -218.620 NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 48

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED COEFFICIE	STANDARD ENT ERROR	T-STATISTIC
C	1525.324	366.7848	4.158636
Real Pre-Tax Corp Profits	2.403477	0.3236073	7.427141
Yt(Tc/(Yc - Pg)(-4)	0.6054058	0.3843984	1.574943

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 3 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.433582 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.163016 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 2.65976

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 311.391
STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 3.27683
MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 277.718
STANDARD DEVIATION = 38.6693
R-SQUARED = 0.993289
ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.992826
DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.8252
F-STATISTIC(2, 29) = 2144.02
LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -81.9152
NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 32

VARIABLE E	STIMATED COEFFICIE	STANDARD NT ERROR	T-STATISTIC
C	-12.59136	7.484259	-1.682379
REAL EXPENDITURES	1.063203	0.2337581E-01	45.48303
(Net Corp Interest+Div.)(-1)	0.9266788	0.5524253E-01	16.77474

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 3 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.944693 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.431245E-01 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 21.9062

STATISTICS BASED ON RHO-TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL NONRESIDENTIAL FIXED INVESTMENT

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 3476.90
STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 10.9496
MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 29.8400
STANDARD DEVIATION = 19.0643
R-SQUARED = 0.697796
ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.676954
DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.1725
F-STATISTIC(2, 29) = 32.4872
LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -121.531
NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 32

	ESTIMATED S'	ΓANDARD	
VARIABLE	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	T-STATISTIC
\mathbf{C}	226.7373 6	7.23203	3.372460
Corp. Profits(-5)	0.4222344 0	.1399804	3.016381
Change Corp. Profits(-5)	-0.9599514E-01	0.1594154	-0.6021698

METHOD OF ESTIMATION = ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES

NOTE: Lagged dependent variable(s) present
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL GOVERNMENT PURCHASES

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 958.994 STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 5.75054 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 661.378 STANDARD DEVIATION = 24.9361 R-SQUARED = 0.950250ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.946819**DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC =** 1.7776 F-STATISTIC(2. 29) =276.956 LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -99.8084 NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 32

STANDARD ESTIMATED VARIABLE COEFFICIENT ERROR T-STATISTIC \mathbf{C} 0.8903857E-01 2.494827 28.01962 1.527474 0.2955210E-01 0.1934704E-01 Real net tax receipts 21.65434 Real gov't purch(-1) 0.9720210 0.4488803E-01 DURBIN(1970) T-STAT FOR AR(1) = 0.447508

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

NOTE: Lagged dependent variable(s) present

COCHRANE-ORCUTT ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 4 ITERATIONS FINAL VALUE OF RHO = -0.395115 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.203115 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = -1.94528

STATISTICS BASED ON RHO-TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL PERSONAL SAVINGS

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 13619.7

STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 22.0549

MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 267.709

STANDARD DEVIATION = 31.7634

R-SOUARED = 0.550021

ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.517879

DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.9424

F-STATISTIC(2, 28) = 17.1125

LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -138.309

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 31

TOTAL FLETT

ESTI	MATED	STANDARD	
VARIABLE	COEFFICIEN	T ERROR	T-STATISTIC
C	10.68683	64.37038	0.1660208
Real disposable income	0.1224711E-0	01 0.1998432E-01	0.6128357
Real pers. savings(-1)	0.7917941	0.1569059	5.046298
RHO	-0.3951149	0.2031151	-1.945276

COT LATE A DE

NOTE: STANDARD ERRORS ARE CONSISTENT IN THE PRESENCE OF LAGGED DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S).

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 4 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.984010 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.198014E-01 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 49.6939

STATISTICS BASED ON RHO-TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

32

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL GDP

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 23010.3

STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 28.1684

MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 89.3604

STANDARD DEVIATION = 98.4071

R-SQUARED = 0.936313

ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.931921

DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.5302

F-STATISTIC(2, 29) = 174.673

LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -152.379

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS =

	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	
VARIABLE	COEFFICIE	ENT ERROR	T-STATISTIC
C	2557.759	198.3943	12.89230
Real Pre-Tax Corp Profits	1.461619	0.2066495	7.072938
Yt(Tc/(Yc - Pg)1	0.3953789	0.2327287	1.698883

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 3 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.641827 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.108639 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 5.90788

STATISTICS BASED ON RHO-TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

49

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL GROSS POST-TAX PROFITS

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 992.129
STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 4.64414
MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 214.287
STANDARD DEVIATION = 37.2580
R-SQUARED = 0.985126
ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.984479
DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.9710
F-STATISTIC(2, 46) = 1521.68
LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -143.490

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS =

	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	
VARIABLE	COEFFICIE	NT ERROR	T-STATISTIC
C	30.27686	18.04622	1.677739
REAL EXPENDITURES	0.9766373	0.4387188E-01	22.26112
(Net Corp Interest+Div.)(-1	0.9043116	0.5611870E-01	16.11426

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 3 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.925888 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.473589E-01 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 19.5505

STATISTICS BASED ON RHO-TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL NONRESIDENTIAL FIXED INVESTMENT

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 5512.25
STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 10.9468
MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 39.9795
STANDARD DEVIATION = 24.5488
R-SQUARED = 0.810605
ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.802371
DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 1.1197
F-STATISTIC(2, 46) = 97.6983
LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -186.213
NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 49

	ESTIMATED STA	NDARD	
VARIABLE	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	T-STATISTIC
C	331.4006 91.3	4218	3.628122
Corp. Profits(-2)	0.2881899 0.15	544108	1.866384
Change Corp. Profits(-2)	-0.1118481E-01 0	.1329056	-0.8415608E-01

METHOD OF ESTIMATION = ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES

NOTE: Lagged dependent variable(s) present

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL GOVERNMENT PURCHASES

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 3419.72

STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 8.62217

MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 842.652

STANDARD DEVIATION = 80.9691

R-SQUARED = 0.989133

ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.988660

DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 2.0621

F-STATISTIC(2, 46) = 2093.49

LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -173.543

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 49

ESTIMATED STANDARD

VARIABLE COEFFICIENT ERROR T-STATISTIC

C 21.77728 12.91365 1.686377 Real net tax receipts 0.1151267E-01 0.2581629E-01 0.4459462

Real gov't purch.(-1) 0.9694887 0.2460736E-01 39.39833

DURBIN(1970) T-STAT FOR AR(1) = -0.382679

METHOD OF ESTIMATION = ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES

NOTE: Lagged dependent variable(s) present DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL PERSONAL SAVINGS

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 36448.0 STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 28,1487 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 187.725 STANDARD DEVIATION = 42.2840 R-SQUARED = 0.575302ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.556837 DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 2.0874 F-STATISTIC(2, 46) =31.1562

LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -231.518 NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 49

ESTIMATED STANDARD **VARIABLE** COEFFICIENT T-STATISTIC ERROR \mathbf{C} 213.8491 74.94920 2.853254 Real disposable income -0.3897916E-01 0.1727945E-01 -2.255811 Real pers. savings(-1) 0.5285255 0.1299062 4.068517 DURBIN(1970) T-STAT FOR AR(1) = -1.05683

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ITERATIVE TECHNIQUE

CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER 2 ITERATIONS

FINAL VALUE OF RHO = 0.997934 STANDARD ERROR OF RHO = 0.289431E-02 T-STATISTIC FOR RHO = 344.792

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REAL GDP

SUM OF SQUARED RESIDUALS = 53275.5

STANDARD ERROR OF THE REGRESSION = 34.0318

MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 38.8787

STANDARD DEVIATION = 44.3123

R-SQUARED = 0.721014

ADJUSTED R-SQUARED = 0.708884

DURBIN-WATSON STATISTIC = 0.7307

F-STATISTIC(2, 46) = 17.6901

LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -243.563

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS = 49

ES	STIMATED	STANDARD	
VARIABLE	COEFFICIEN	T ERROR	T-STATISTIC
C	3459.879	556.2708	6.219775
Real Pre-Tax Corp Profits	1.252338	0.2790415	4.488000
Yt(Tc/(Yc - Pg)(-2)	0.4608960	0.2508118	1.837617