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● ORGANISED SECTOR

# Has inequality come down?

In the last six years, there has been a rather sticky movement in pay packets for the class earning higher incomes

GDP in nominal terms increased by around 11.5% during this period, which indicates that those paying taxes had a more robust growth in income over the national average during this period. The average income of tax assesses hence increased from ₹4.2 lakh to ₹6.2 lakh, which is a CAGR of 6.6% as against growth of per capita GDP of 10%. Therefore, income tax assesses had a lower growth in average income compared with the national average.

To gauge the level of inequality in this sample of individuals, the following is examined. The income brackets are classified as under less than ₹5 lakh, ₹5-10 lakh, ₹10-20 lakh, ₹20-50 lakh, ₹50-100 lakh, ₹1-10 crore and above ₹10 crore. The share of taxpayers in these groups are juxtaposed with the share in total income as per the returns that were filed. The two points chosen are 2012-13 and 2018-19. The matrix will then throw light on how different classes of people control the flow of income in the six-year period.

The accompanying table presents interesting results. The first is that the number of tax assesses who earn less than ₹5 lakh has come down sharply during this period and, accordingly, the share in income has gone down. This implies that there has been a good movement up the ladder as a large population that was in this bracket has witnessed improvement in income levels and moved up. It is more likely that the new entrants into the organised workforce are in this bracket. Further, several

which data is available and hence grew at a CAGR of 11.4%. The total income of all assesses increased from ₹12.14 lakh crore to ₹34.14 lakh crore, implying a CAGR of 18.8% for the six-year period.

Income group	2012-13		2018-19	
	Share in number of assesses	Share in total income	Share in number of assesses	Share in total income
Up to ₹5 lakh	80.7	45.2	63.0	32.5
₹5-10 lakh	13.8	22.0	26.7	29.4
₹10-20 lakh	3.9	12.4	7.2	15.5
₹20-50 lakh	1.3	8.5	2.3	10.6
₹50 lakh-₹1 crore	0.23	3.7	0.38	4.2
₹1-10 crore	0.12	6.1	0.17	5.8
Above ₹10 crore	.003	2.1	.01	2.1

Source: CMIE

organisations have increased their base salary, which has put employees in higher income categories.

Second, the above explanation fits well when the bracket of ₹5-10 lakh is looked at, where the share in total assesses has doubled from 13.8% to 26.7%. The share in income has been more modest by 2.7% points. This has been also the typical spending class in the economy where the younger population tends to be concentrated in the early years of the career.

Third, the next two categories of ₹10-20 lakh and ₹20-50 lakh accounted for 5.2% of assesses and 20.9% of income in 2012-13. BY 2018-19, their share was 9.5% in the former and 26.1% in income. Here too, there is reason to believe that this is more of upward mobility where the existing workforce has witnessed relatively higher pay revisions and increments, and this has increased their income. This was also the most productive class with 5-10 years' of experience.

Fourth, the next three categories, which are actually very high income groups with over ₹50 lakh income, show a contrasting picture. These are the groups that are subject to the special income tax surcharge, which goes up further once the ₹1 crore threshold is breached. For the ₹50 lakh-₹1 crore bracket, the share in both the parameters has increased from 0.23% to 0.38% in number and 3.7% to 4.2% in total income, which is modest. But for those earning above ₹1 crore, the overall share in the number of assesses has gone up from 0.123% to 0.18%, but the share in income has come down from 8.2% to 7.9%.

The shifts in the highest three brackets are indicative of the fact that in the last six years there has been a rather sticky movement in pay packets for the class earning higher incomes. This can be linked with the economic slowdown, where the corporate sector has not performed too well on the top line and has compensated for the same by controlling costs, which include compensation. Hence, while the number of people who earn above ₹1 crore has increased from 936 to 2,764, their share in the overall income has come down marginally.

Putting these numbers together, the impression we have is that for this sample of tax assesses, there is no evidence of income equality increasing, and that both of the corollaries hold. First, the people in the lower income brackets have migrated to higher levels, and with more people joining the workforce have had an increased share in the total pie. Second, those at the highest income levels have witnessed more entrants, but the share in total has reduced marginally. Part of the reason is the economic slowdown where the salary component of senior executives becomes sluggish in the upward direction while there could be compensations in the form of stock options.

However, this analysis does not hold for wealth, as income is not reflective of wealth on which comparable data is not available. The income earned here is based on the returns filed by individuals on which there would be exemptions and hence make the taxable income of a lower order. This is also not a complete picture of inequality as it does not include the poorer people, which include farmers, employed with no taxable income and, more importantly, the unemployed. But it does indicate that once people join the organised sector (defined as those that involve paying income tax), a sense of equality has built up, with there being more competitive opportunity for individuals. Also, the fact that high income earners are financially more onerous to companies has meant that there has been a preference to hire at the mid-level and provide more attractive compensations. Those at the high level will have problems in leaving their jobs even if their pay packages do not increase, as the amount earned is relatively on the upper scale. These may be considered to be the factors that have led to this phenomenon of narrowing the distance between the lower and the higher income groups.

# Should dividend distribution tax be abolished?

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**T**HE DIVIDEND DISTRIBUTION tax (DDT) has been a part of the income-tax statute for over 20 years. The primary objective behind introducing the DDT in 1997—and consequently exempting the shareholders—was to encourage investment in shares of domestic companies. Additionally, it resulted in huge administrative convenience for the government in as much as the tax on dividends could be recovered from a single source as against from several assesses.

When the DDT was introduced as an additional tax on domestic companies, one of the stated objectives was also to reward companies which invested in future growth by ploughing their retained earnings into fresh investments.

In other words, the DDT was intended to act as a deterrent to distribution of profits to the shareholders, and was capped at 10% of dividends declared. Fast forward to today, it appears that the objectives behind its introduction have been achieved, but at the double the tax cost to domestic companies—from a moderate 10% in 1997 to 20.56% currently.

Since the DDT is applicable only to domestic companies, other entity forms such as limited liability partnerships gained popularity. Of course, the recent corporate tax rate cut has partly offset the advantage in favour of limited liability partnerships, but, nevertheless, the DDT remains a sore point for companies. This issue gets further aggravated with the introduction of 10% tax on individuals earning dividends over ₹10 lakh.

According to certain estimates, the DDT collection for the government is approximately ₹60,000 crore, which is just about 5% of the total income-tax collection. Therefore, it will be interesting to see if the government decides to abolish this tax, with a hope that similar collections could be done from the shareholders. Where the shareholders are Indian resident individuals, the taxability of dividends in their hands would depend upon factors such as slab rates and availability of loss to be set off against the dividend income. Likewise, where the shareholders are non-residents, the taxability of dividends would depend upon the tax rate prescribed under the dividend article of the relevant tax treaty.

Further, individual shareholders with incomes below the basic exemption limit will be obligated to file their tax returns to offer dividend income to tax. This may result in expansion of the tax base.

It appears that the possibility of equity can also be restored if the DDT is abolished and, instead, the shareholders can be taxed on dividend income directly. To ensure the interest of the Revenue is protected, the tax deducted at source (TDS) on dividend can also be reintroduced. Since the rate of 20.56% is extremely high, taxing shareholders at a flat rate of 10% or 15% could be considered. This will not only encourage more distribution of profits by companies, but also increase the purchasing power in the hands of the shareholders.



**It appears that the objectives behind the introduction of DDT have been achieved, but at double the tax cost to domestic firms—from a moderate 10% in 1997 to 20.56% currently**

## ALUMINIUM

# The real steel

Curb aluminium scrap imports, and provide level-playing field to primary manufacturers

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imposing higher tariffs on aluminium and various restrictions on scrap imports, has meant greater dumping of aluminium into India and diversion of global scrap value chain towards India being a natural market for aluminium consumption. China has excess capacity in this sector. India cannot be a dumping ground for China-made aluminium, compromising its own economic security.

The other challenge to domestic industry comes from the import of scrap, particularly from the US and other advanced economies. Overall value addition using aluminium scrap is 4-5%, i.e. melting scrap and casting in other form/products. The primary aluminium production value chain entails 100% value addition from mining of ore to refining, smelting and further casting into various products, generating substantial employment at each



stage. There are strong output and employment multiplier effects.

Curiously, amongst major economies, India is a rare one that imposes less duty on scrap (2.5%) as compared with primary aluminium (7-20%). China has a 14% duty

on both primary aluminium and scrap. For scrap from the US, it is 25%. China is also imposing quantitative restrictions on scrap. Russia has a duty of 10% on both primary aluminium and scrap. In both cases, not only is the duty equal for scrap and primary, it is higher than the one levied on primary in India.

Of course, aluminium is a green metal and has the potential for recycling. But there must be stringent standards for what kind of scrap can be put to what use. Advanced countries recycle and utilise some of their domestic scrap and then dump the rest in emerging economies like India and China. The BIS must work on scrap because the consequences for environment and health are serious. Low quality scrap with high lead content and presence of radioactive particles is particularly dangerous in consumer durables, and can cause serious problems in electrical equipment. Needless to say, India must work on creating an appropriate system for a circular economy that uses scrap generated within the country, as opposed to 100% imports of scrap of questionable quality, which leads to foreign exchange outgo of billions of dollars.

Given our natural endowments, the size of the domestic market and future potential, a thriving primary aluminium industry can be a major contributor to manufacturing and economic growth. The economic imperative is for the government to provide it a level-playing field.

# A tale of two sectors

Making India a global hub for chemicals and textiles

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**T**HE ROAD TO \$5-trillion economy needs efforts at promoting ease of doing business to attract more investments. The upcoming Budget is an opportunity to undertake industry-specific initiatives rather than announcing a single big-bang reform and expecting a positive cascading effect on all sectors. New areas have to be identified and targeted changes instituted to boost GDP from \$3 trillion at present to the targeted \$5 trillion. Chemicals and textiles are two industries where a positive budgetary intervention will deliver considerable dividends to the economy.

FM Nirmala Sitharaman should take initiatives to make India the global hub for chemicals and textiles manufacturing sector. India's share in the global chemicals industry is 2%, and there are opportunities for companies to grow, given the right support. Cheap imports from Turkey, the US and China for products such as soda ash

stress the industry and the government may raise import duty from 7.5% to 15% to restrict imports and boost Make in India.

FTAs need to be done with care and deter dumping of cheap goods into India. Chemicals is a heavy capital-expenditure industry and would welcome some capital expenditure-based incentives to facilitate fresh investments for capacity enhancement. Likewise, textiles is one of the oldest sectors, which adds much economic value, both in the form of a 2% contribution to GDP as well as generating employment. It accounts for 7% of the total industry output in the country and adds much stimulus to imports. Thus, it works well for the government to ensure stable growth of the sector. Cut in import duties on sustainable fibres will ensure an array of eco-friendly textiles that will attract environmentally-conscious consumers. Investments are needed towards developing skills of the existing workforce and updating curricula of textile institutes so that the skill sets of the employable youth stay relevant.

Given that both short-term and long-term measures are needed, it is essential that in addressing short-term challenges the larger goals are not compromised. The Union Budget is a capable instrument that can sustain long-term goals while effectively addressing short-term challenges.