LI-Paper

Individual Rights and the Fight Against “Tax Evasion”

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Foreword

Our time is full of paradoxes, and more often than not, these paradoxes arise from government arbitrariness. So governments claim to implement competition policies in order to impose competition on private producers. Yet competition is nothing more than the freedom to act, the freedom to do things differently from others. It is therefore paradoxical to want to impose freedom! But it is even more paradoxical that the same governments will not apply to themselves the rules that they claim to impose on others. They wage war against tax competition, pretending that tax competition is “harmful” – a term used by the OECD, regardless of the neutrality that such an organization should practice, not to mention the most elementary sense of honesty. How could the freedom to act and to decide by oneself and for oneself harm others?

Admittedly, when a private producer sees the arrival of a competitor likely to offer better products at lower prices he fears that he might lose clients and that this competition will be “harmful” for him. He might be tempted, against all logic and moral sense, to denounce this competition – a competition that will perhaps be called “unfair” – and call for the intervention of government coercion in order to put an end to the other producers’ freedom to produce and sell. Of course, if his complaints are heard and if the government sets the protections necessary to allow him to continue offering products that are less satisfactory for his clients than his competitors’ products, there will be victims, namely, the consumers deprived of potential gains and the other private producers deprived of their normal markets. It is therefore not competition that is harmful, but the lack thereof.

The same holds true for public policies, in particular tax policies. By trying to prevent tax competition, the OECD, the EU and other government bodies wish to deprive the world’s citizens of their freedom to choose for themselves or their activities the tax environment that they deem best. In order to achieve this goal – another paradox – governments try to form international public cartels, while they claim to be fighting private cartels. The latter, however, cannot be permanently harmful if freedom of production, that is, competition, is allowed to persist. That is why, more often than not, private cartels in a competitive environment are beneficial. They simply aim at better answering their clients’ specific needs. On the other hand, public cartels are explicitly put in place in order to prevent competition; as such, they are necessarily harmful. Since they are enforced by coercion, they are also lasting.

By restricting tax competition, for instance by trying to standardize tax policies or by fighting “tax havens”, high-tax governments deprive their citizens of one of the great benefits of competition, namely, experimentation. As Friedrich Hayek often pointed out, competition is a “discovery process”. In a purely imaginary
world of perfect knowledge, competition would surely be unnecessary, for everyone would know what the best solutions to any problem are. But we are not in a world of this kind. Yet that is precisely what the high-tax governments fighting against tax competition would like to make us believe. They assume that their tax policies are the best possible and that any competition would lead to a “race to the bottom”. But if the tax rates applied in the high-tax states – for instance for the taxation of capital – were optimal, capital would not flee. For a long time, drastic foreign exchange controls have allowed many governments to despoil capital. They cannot tolerate that their “tax slaves” can flee to more favorable areas. And yet, as this paper so opportunely underscores the whole world benefits from the existence of low-tax areas. For these areas not only lead to capital movement but also create incentives to accumulate more capital.

There may be, to be sure, an apparent contradiction between, on the one hand, the fact that human activities are becoming more and more globalized, whereas, on the other hand, tax systems remain strictly national or local. For many governments this discrepancy is not acceptable and is a further reason to call for “globalized” tax systems, which, in their opinion, means either standardization of taxes or even the creation of world (or European) taxes and, at least, extensive cooperation between tax authorities. But such claims are based on a completely wrong interpretation of what is globalization. In fact globalization can be defined as competition at the world level. Competition does not imply that activities become more similar all around the world, but quite the contrary: it induces producers to differentiate one from the other. Therefore, if one would consider that in a globalized world, taxes would also have to be “globalized”, it would imply tax competition and tax differentiation and not tax harmonization or world (or European) taxation.

Finally, any new tax, any raise in an existing tax has a double destructive effect: It destroys the taxpayers’ incentives to act and produce, and it destroys the productive incentives of the beneficiaries of government handouts. This essentially destructive aspect of taxation fully justifies to oppose without any restriction all efforts made by the OECD, the EU, and other international organizations, and the governments behind them, to limit tax competition. Tax competition is a powerful instrument to prevent excessive taxation. Instead of fighting tax “evasion”, there may be no task more urgent today than to reduce tax oppression by strengthening tax competition.

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Individual Rights and the Fight Against “Tax Evasion”

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Introduction

The financial and economic crisis that unfolded from 2008 has led many governments to intensify their efforts against what has been dubbed “tax evasion”, i.e., the protection of wealth or capital outside a citizen’s or a firm’s home country. Although initiatives against “harmful tax competition” designed to limit the role of taxation in capital flows have emerged early as a byproduct of globalization (as uncompetitive governments have sought to reduce jurisdictional competition to protect their tax base), the crisis has led to an unprecedented resolve to recover funds that governments view as theirs. In 2009, G20 governments1 enforced with the threat of sanctions new norms of information sharing around the world. An estimated 14 billion euros from over 100,000 wealthy taxpayers has been repatriated since then.2 This compares to a public debt level of approximately 15 trillion (15,000 billion) dollars in the United States and approximately 10 trillion (10,000 billion) euros in the European Union (as of October 2011).

Heavily indebted, high-tax governments have resorted to “stimulus” programs that have worsened their budgetary positions and, judging from the results of earlier such programs, are likely to have prolonged the economic crisis and led to stagnation and persistent high unemployment. In the United States, the largest public spending increase since World War II is largely recognized as having slowed recovery3, in line with the long experience of failed Keynesian stimuli either in the form of artificially low interest rates or deficit spending. In the European Union,

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1 The Group of Twenty (G20) includes the European Union, the United States, Germany, France, Italy, the United Kingdom, Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Mexico, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, South Korea, and Turkey.
2 “Global Forum delivers concrete results to the Cannes G20 Summit”, OECD news release, October 26, 2011.
governments are additionally battling to save the political construct of the euro, whose structure has created incentives for less disciplined governments to maximize deficits and monetize public debt at the expense of other member states. The outcome of the various rescue packages is still uncertain.

The OECD initiative

In such a context, it is hardly surprising that politicians have turned to “tax havens”, i.e., jurisdictions with lower taxes and better financial privacy rules, not only to get more revenue from their citizens, but to shift the blame for their disastrous fiscal policies. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), a government-financed data-gathering agency analyzing the public policies of its 30 member countries, has played a key role in promoting the exchange of bank information for tax purposes. With the political backing of G20 governments, the OECD initiative (originally prompted by complaints by uncompetitive high-tax governments such as those of France and Germany) has been able to impose its norms on jurisdictions that could not voice their disagreement nor take part in their formulation. In April 2009, G20 governments threatened with economic and financial sanctions a number of countries listed on “updates” prepared by the OECD. As a result, double tax treaties must now include Article 26 of the OECD model tax convention. This article provides an obligation to exchange information for purposes of enforcing domestic tax laws of the contracting states; it further provides that a government cannot refuse a request for information because it has no domestic tax interest in the information or because the information is protected by banking secrecy laws.

Although the G20 as a body lacks democratic or legal legitimacy and is in effect a cartel of governments, there can be no doubt that its influence over worldwide policy is substantial when it comes to preserving government interests: Together, G20 member countries make up around 90% of global gross national product, 80% of world trade (including EU intra-trade) as well as two thirds of the world’s population. The G20, however, is clearly a departure from the rule of law in international affairs and replaces negotiations with political pressure under the (explicit or implicit) threat of economic and financial sanctions. It is an instance of might over right. It is all the more disquieting that the OECD, which should be a neutral facilitator of international trade, has been able to enforce its agenda against “harmful tax competition” as part of bureaucratic mission creep, i.e., an unwarranted expansion of the scope of its activities beyond its original purpose, without the ascent of its (founding) member states (such as Luxembourg and Switzerland). To monitor the implementation of its norms, the OECD has set up the Global Forum on Transparency and Exchange of Information for Tax Purposes,

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5 For a detailed analysis of the OECD’s unwarranted expansion, see Andrew P. Morriss and Lotta Moberg, “Cartelizing Taxes: Understanding the OECD’s Campaign Against ‘Harmful Tax Competition’”, University of Alabama Public Law Research Paper No. 1950627, October 2011.
which is responsible for a complex, multi-layer peer-review process. In the meantime, 105 jurisdictions have become “members” of the Forum, 32 of which have already introduced or proposed changes to their laws to implement the norms imposed internationally by the G20.

To make the G20 governments’ war against citizens protecting wealth and resources in “tax havens” more palatable, the OECD has initially argued that governments “need every tax dollar legally due to combat the world recession”\(^6\). As this argument lost its credibility as the evidence increasingly showed that Keynesian-style fiscal interventionism worsened and prolonged the crisis, the OECD now holds that tax avoidance and tax evasion mean fewer resources “for infrastructure and services such as education and health, lowering standards of living in both developed and developing economies”.\(^7\) This statement, however, contradicts all theoretical and empirical evidence, which shows that a smaller scope and size of government go hand in hand with higher economic growth and living standards. Moreover, governments spend the largest portion of their budgets on income redistribution, not services.

**United States and European Union policies**

Beside the OECD initiative backed by the G20, the United States and the European Union are expanding their own policies against banking confidentiality. In the U.S., the Foreign Tax Account Compliance Act (FATCA), due to come into force in 2014, requires international financial institutions to report directly to the U.S. tax authorities information about financial accounts held by U.S. taxpayers. International banks that fail to cooperate with the U.S. tax authorities will have to pay a 30% tax of any payments and gross proceeds from the sale of securities generating income from U.S. sources. This is not only regulatory overreach, but an incentive for many taxpayers to take drastic measures. This law, characterized as a “bureaucratic monster”, has led thousands of non-resident U.S. individuals to renounce their U.S. citizenship to avoid the reporting requirements. The United States is one of the few jurisdictions that require citizens to file a tax return with the U.S. authorities even if they are not U.S. residents.

The U.S. government’s approach appears inconsistent: One the one hand, it expects total transparency from its citizens abroad and bullies to that end “tax havens” and low-tax jurisdictions; on the other hand, the U.S. may be the biggest tax haven in the world.\(^8\) Non-resident non-nationals are not taxed on interest or capital gains, and there is no reporting regime. Moreover, federated states such as Delaware and Nevada have very attractive corporation laws that protect the privacy of non-resident non-nationals. Although in the meantime the pressure to repeal FATCA has not diminished, financial intermediaries around the world prepare for the

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\(^7\) “Fighting tax evasion”, OECD, 2011.

worst. Compliance with the new law is likely to cost far more than the tax revenues it is expected to raise, and the economic damage in terms of reduced investment in the U.S. may be significant.

The European Union, for its part, adopted a directive for the taxation of savings income as early as 2003, as part of various measures aimed at tackling “harmful tax competition” within its territory. The directive came into force on 1 July 2005 and established an automatic exchange of information between member states on interest payments by banks established in one member state to individuals resident in another. Originally all EU member states except Austria, Belgium, and Luxembourg introduced such a system of information reporting. Belgium introduced it as of 1 January 2010. Austria and Luxembourg are still entitled during an open-end transitional period to levy a withholding tax at a rate of 35% as a substitute measure for information exchange (the governments of these two countries transfer 75% of the withholding tax revenue to the depositor’s state of residence, and keep the rest for themselves). However, they are entitled to receive information from other member states. A similar withholding tax agreement was signed with other non-EU European states: Andorra, Liechtenstein, Monaco, San Marino, and Switzerland.

However, the EU Commission and the EU Council are planning to extend the scope of the current savings tax legislation. An additional directive due to enter into force by 2015 is designed to “strengthen mutual assistance and the exchange of information” and “enable the member states to better combat tax evasion and tax fraud”. According to this new text, automatic exchange of information will be extended to eight categories of income: income from employment, directors’ fees, dividends, capital gains, royalties, certain life insurance products, pensions, and ownership of and income from immovable property. The directive is supposed to extend cooperation between member states to cover taxes of any kind, allow officials of one member state to participate in administrative enquiries on the territory of another member state, and enable information exchange using standardized channels of communication.

In light of these policy developments in Europe and elsewhere, this paper reevaluates the economic impact of public spending, the role of tax competition, and assesses the moral case for a strong protection of financial privacy and individual property rights for human dignity and freedom. It finally examines the standing of Switzerland as the world’s largest offshore center for private wealth management and the future of its famed banking secrecy legislation under international pressure – will it soon be a mere fiction for James Bond movies?

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Harmful government spending

As a justification for its current campaign, the OECD has alleged that “tax avoidance and tax evasion threaten government revenues” and mean “fewer resources for infrastructure and services such as education and health, lowering standards of living in both developed and developing economies”. Yet this assertion is incorrect in more than one way. First, the OECD seems to ignore the spending structures of most countries. Currently, expenditures on unreformed income redistribution systems (such as pensions) make up over half of all public spending in many OECD states and more than one quarter of GDP (31% in France and 27.3% in Germany in 2010, for instance). By contrast, public spending on education amounts on average to 5.7% of GDP in the OECD (6% in France and 4.7% in Germany), i.e., four times less than welfare spending. Second, the OECD argument is economically flawed in assuming that less government spending is detrimental to standards of living. The costs of the lack of welfare state reforms are widely acknowledged as a time bomb, and there is no evidence that public spending on infrastructure, education or health is more efficient than market solutions, given the high extracting and indirect costs of government expenditure.

The economic case for less taxes and expenditure

The most extensive research surveying the empirical evidence on the economic growth impact of market incentives, on the one hand, and government activism for infrastructure and services, on the other, finds that “the surest way to increase economic growth is to reduce government spending and taxation”. Capital subsidies have practically no effect on growth. There is strong evidence, however, that taxation depresses growth. These findings are in line with an increasing body of literature, including vast international comparisons over long periods of time (given that in the short term many factors may influence a country’s economic performance, including trade liberalization, monetary policy, etc., such comparisons only make sense with a representative set of countries over time). By comparing real GDP growth rates of all 30 OECD member countries from 1960 to 2005, the negative correlation between public spending and economic prosperity is clearly apparent (see graph on next page).

11 Source: OECD Database, 2011.
Real GDP growth and government spending in the OECD
(1960-2005, % of GDP)

Source: Mulally (2006)

More specifically, the experience of advanced countries shows that in a period of government expansion, the negative impact on growth may be more significant; once the burden of government is stabilized, markets become more resilient, but the economy is held back by slower growth. An overweight government still allows a market economy to grow, but at a much lower pace, which may lead to other secondary effects beyond lower living standards, such as high levels of unemployment or inferior life expectancy. The research finds that a large and expansionary government sector leads systematically to less prosperity. Of course this does not imply a monotonous relation meaning that a government spending level of zero would be the most favorable for economic growth. But even admitting that government can play a positive role, in particular in the protection of individual property rights, the administration of justice or the provision of security, it is obvious that as soon as its functions and the scope of its activities extend beyond a minimal point, government spending soon translates into slower economic growth and lower living standards.

It might be useful to consider why this is so and to ponder the logic behind the empirical evidence. First, all government spending evidently must be financed in one way or another. Any expenditure therefore entails extraction costs that will

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reduce equivalent resources from the private sector. In every case this capital will no longer be available for private investment over the shorter or longer term. Administrative compliance with taxes and regulations is another source of economic loss in connection with government spending. Regulations in general are an additional form of taxation, in that governments impose specific uses of resources that would not be chosen in the marketplace. Taxation is the most pervasive form of government financing, but public debt, which is in effect differed taxes, also imposes extracting costs on the productive economy. Interest expenses add a financial burden; crowding out effects on capital markets may further reduce private investment. In addition to these costs the expansive monetary policies pursued to finance or devalue public debt and avoid government bankruptcy (particularly in the current context of overspending) is likely to lead to higher inflation, an implicit tax on cash balances and other assets.

The indirect costs of public expenditure

On top of the obvious extraction costs of public expenditure, government activities entail many indirect costs, the first of which is inefficiency. At first sight the public sector seems able to provide an unlimited quantity of services financed with the resources extracted from the private sector, yet these expenditures can never reach the efficiency level of private sector production. Without the signal of prices and the measure of profit, government production amounts to “groping in the dark”. This does not imply that decision-makers in the private sector never make mistakes, but private sector decisions can be checked by economic calculation, whereas government spending is bound by laws and regulations that may make no economic sense at all.\(^\text{15}\) Without information on consumers’ preferences through prices, it is impossible for government agents to know what services to produce, and in which quantity. By preventing supply from adjusting to demand, which is only possible through free markets, governments cause substantial inefficiency in the sectors where they intervene. Government spending is essentially based on political and bureaucratic decision-making, and decision-makers may be more inclined to increase spending for votes, power, prestige, or simply to exhaust their allocated budgets.\(^\text{16}\)

Government regulations also impose costs and unintended consequences that may be more severe than the problems they purport to solve. This phenomenon is one further aspect of the “negative multiplier effect” of government in that the operational costs of government bureaucracies enforcing the regulations may be relatively small, but economic opportunity costs may be significant: unemployment and lower wages in the case of labor market regulations, loss of competitiveness and lower purchasing power in the case of protective tariffs, the illusion of security


and the loss of integrity in overregulated markets (such as the financial markets), or artificially high living costs in the case of energy, housing or food overregulation. Of course rules are necessary for markets to operate, but these rules can be better enforced by contracts, industries, and firms, in line with changing market conditions, and not primarily by governments.

Another weakness of government spending is the crowding out of private solutions. These substitution costs overshadow the possibilities of the market economy and the nonprofit private sector, where even the most eccentric demands and preferences can be financed voluntarily. Government spending also inhibits innovation, given that laws and regulations cannot be adjusted as rapidly to changing conditions as market processes. Many laws often apply long after their initial objective has become obsolete. Last but not least, the disincentives to production and wealth creation caused by the extraction and redistribution costs of government spending, especially welfare spending, may be large. All these costs tend to depress economic growth and living standards.

These cost factors usually explain why in many countries past government activities, such as telecommunication services, have been liberalized or privatized in recent decades, and why there is a chronic need for “reform” in most welfare states that overtax and overspend. Current levels of government spending are unsustainable, and it is likely that in the future, new market and civil society solutions will emerge in sectors that most people today believe belong to the public sector.

**The OECD’s double talk**

The economic ignorance (or intellectual dishonesty) of the OECD’s Committee on Fiscal Affairs acting on behalf of high-tax, high-spending G20 governments is paradoxically further substantiated by the OECD’s own research on the link between prosperity and government expenditure. OECD economists recognize that empirical research suggests “a connection between a large government sector – as measured, for example, by expenditures or taxes as a percent of GDP – and lower economic growth”.\(^{17}\) By examining 21 countries on a period ranging from 1970 to 1998, the OECD’s economists also find that a rise in the tax share reduces the level of wealth production, and that the size of government, as measured by taxes or public spending, exerts a negative impact on private capital accumulation, “both directly and indirectly”, i.e., both by the taxes that it implies and by the disincentives it creates.\(^{18}\)

In fact, the OECD is known for spreading diametrically opposite lines of argument about tax competition, for which it has been described as a

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\(^{17}\) OECD Economic Outlook, 1998, p. 159.

On the one hand, its Committee on Fiscal Affairs as part of its mission creep supports policies hindering capital movement from high-tax to low-tax countries and encourages high taxes and excessive welfare policies. On the other, OECD economists recognize that tax competition is a liberating force in the global economy: “The ability to choose the location of economic activity offsets shortcomings in government budgeting processes, limiting a tendency to spend and tax excessively”. The OECD even finds that “the root of the [tax avoidance] problem appears in many cases to be high tax rates”.

The lack of legitimacy of the OECD’s fight against “harmful tax competition” and “tax evasion” has been obvious since the start. The OECD’s mission was never supposed to serve specific tax objectives of particular states, but, according to the 1960 founding Convention, to promote policies designed “to achieve the highest sustainable economic growth and employment and a rising standard of living in member countries”. The OECD has been ever since its founding a promoter of liberalization and reforms facilitating the free operation of markets. It is therefore arresting that in tax matters, it presents as one element of identification of a harmful tax system a level of taxation lower in one country than in others and protects the interests of high-tax governments – a policy which clearly contradicts its economic objectives.

It appears that the OECD maintains an inconsistent political message, in line with the expectations of the governments that finance it and in contradiction with its own economic research. The goal of the Committee on Fiscal Affairs, composed mainly of lawyers from the member states’ tax administrations, appears to be mostly to offer a justification for the high-tax, high-spending governments’ fiscal protectionism, based on the arbitrariness and bias inherent of tax legalism, in full ignorance of or indifference to economic reality.

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21 Ibid., p. 157.
22 The OECD now mainly uses the term “harmful tax practices”.
23 OECD financing by governments is proportional to the relative size of their economies, so that the G20 governments dominate the OECD. Germany and France finance together 14.8% of the OECD’s budget, the United States 22.2%, while Switzerland only 1.6% and Luxembourg only 0.3%, for instance. Source: OECD Member Countries’ Budget Contributions for 2011.
The importance of tax competition

The OECD’s fight against “tax evasion” and tax avoidance started with its first report on “harmful tax competition” in 1998, following a request, two years earlier, by high-tax governments. These governments’ goal was explicitly to reduce the freedom of movement of capital by restricting the role of tax competition “on investment and financing decisions and the consequences for national tax bases”. Following this report, the OECD adopted a recommendation on the “fight against harmful tax practices”, on which two founding members of the organization, Luxembourg and Switzerland, abstained. In an appended statement the Swiss authorities, without much effect, noted bluntly that tax competition actually “discourages governments from adopting confiscatory regimes that hamper entrepreneurial spirit and hurt the economy, and it prevents alignment of tax burdens at the highest level.”

Tax competition is a traditional feature of the peaceful rivalry between jurisdictions to promote and attract productive activity. Often this rivalry is merely implicit; tax competition is simply the freedom for a jurisdiction to set lower taxes or put in place a different tax system. Small countries are usually more competitive than large ones, as openness and attractiveness compensate for a small internal market. Less competitive governments have tried to compete by subsidizing “national champions”, yet such policies have generally translated into inefficiency, waste, and economic decline for the reasons discussed above. In the last three decades, tax and regulatory competition has increased substantially as trade barriers and capital controls were falling. This has also led governments of large countries to lower top tax rates, leading to a “tax cut revolution” encompassing individual income, individual capital gains, dividends, wealth, corporate income, corporate capital gains, and cross-border investment. As a result, the most penalizing levies on work and accumulated capital have been gradually eliminated. The situation for each kind of tax still varies to a large degree depending on the jurisdiction, however, and the government sector as a share of GDP has rarely gone down, as enhanced economic performance has generated more tax revenues.

The impact of tax competition is also evidenced by the spread of “flat tax” or proportional tax systems around Europe. A proportional taxation system has been applied on the Channel Island of Jersey since 1940, in Hong Kong since 1948, and in Guernsey since 1960. Yet such a system seemed a peculiarity up until the 1990s. In continental Europe, Estonia led the way with the adoption of a flat tax system in 1994, and was followed by ten former communist countries since then, with rates

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varying from 10% to 25%.26 In 2007 the Swiss canton of Obwalden became the first
Western European jurisdiction on the continent to adopt a proportional system, with
an effective tax rate of 12%; the reform was approved by 90% of the voters in a
referendum. Proportional taxation was widely applied in nineteenth-century Europe,
when direct taxes on income became commonplace and before progressive
taxation replaced them in parallel to the expansion of the welfare state.

An economic imperative

By restricting government’s capacity to indefinitely raise the tax burden, the
diversity of jurisdictions and systems unquestionably contributes to greater
prosperity. The most obvious consequence of tax competition is its beneficial
impact on saving, since lower taxes encourage capital accumulation. This in turn
leads to more investment, more jobs and more economic welfare. But beyond its
effects on prosperity by limiting the tax burden, tax diversity enables the
implementation of new practices and innovative institutional ideas. This advantage
of competition is all the more important in a world that increasingly transcends
national boundaries: The need for individual, temporary and customized solutions is
increasing, while the need for coercive measures applying equally to all is
decreasing. Tax diversity takes into account this evolution arising from societal and
technological progress. There are no “economies of scale” in tax matters: The
closer political decisions are taken, the easier it is for residents to move to another
jurisdiction near their current location, the more public policies will match the
residents’ actual needs and preferences.

The arbitrage of low-tax jurisdictions is further exemplified by the role of “tax
havens”. Tax havens typically include relatively low-tax jurisdictions, those enforcing
special rules for some operations or extensive financial privacy, or refusing to apply
the standards of other jurisdictions on their own territories for sharing information.27
Due to the territorial monopoly of states, tax rates tend in most countries to be well
above what they should be according to the residents’ needs and preferences. If
this were not the case, the emergence and use of “tax havens” would hardly be an
issue, as governments also compete on the services they provide. Experience
shows that “tax havens” do not prevent governments from providing the services
that are actually requested by their residents, but play at most a preventive or
corrective role of arbitrage in the face of excessive taxation. In general, tax
competition from “tax havens” leads to a better balance between public services
and the tax burden. It certainly does not lead to zero taxation and does not
endanger public spending as such, contrary to what its opponents sometimes
assert.

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26 Ibid., p. 61.
27 Jurisdictions such as Andorra, the Cayman Islands, Cyprus, Jersey, Liechtenstein, Mauritius, Monaco,
and, depending on the definition, Luxembourg and Switzerland are traditionally considered to be
sovereign “tax havens”. Dependent jurisdictions such as the Cayman Islands and the Channel Islands
(United Kingdom) and Delaware (United States) are also viewed as tax havens.
From an economic perspective, the use of “tax havens” facilitates capital accumulation and improves economic prosperity in the high-tax countries where the capital is eventually repatriated to be invested in factors of production. “Tax havens” therefore increase the efficiency of international capital markets and thus the efficiency of capital allocation to the most productive investments, thereby contributing to raise overall living standards. As a result, “tax havens” benefit all residents, whether they make use of them directly or not. They serve to channel capital and avoid double or even triple taxation in high-tax countries and lead to better economic performance in those countries. They are useful to limit excessive taxation of productive resources and reduce the waste and dissipation characteristic of public management, in particular in large centralized states. Despite these proven positive economic effects, high-tax governments fight tax havens because of the limits they set on their ability to get more funds, to hide the excessive price they charge for public services (often of poor quality), or to raise arbitrarily the tax burden on the most productive residents.

A condition for more liberty and justice

In addition to its positive role on prosperity and the efficiency of capital, tax diversity is an essential condition for the preservation of individual liberty. Competition tends to restrict the predatory potential of the territorial monopoly on the use of coercion (which defines government). While private sector services must meet with consumer approval, this is not true for public activities, which are mostly financed by taxes, with no freedom of choice, no inherent incentive to improve the relationship between their cost and their quality and no clear effective answer against potential abuses. Elections every few years are no substitutes for individual choice. The existence of small, open and competing jurisdictions is therefore often the best guarantee of restricting a government’s capacity to abuse its power. Even in its relatively mild versions, with separated and relatively restricted powers, government tends to ceaselessly extend its areas of intervention and hold over society. An individual’s freedom of choice and legitimate rights to the fruits of his or her labor and property are thus better protected in a world with strong tax competition. By placing limitations on excessive taxation, tax diversity better takes into account the fact that all wealth must be created through individual effort, mainly in an exchange process. The process of wealth creation necessarily implies that an individual has a primary claim on something which would not exist without his or her decision to undertake a productive activity and produce it. Hence the imperative of justice to restrict the taxing power of government.

While it is indisputable that tax competition is a powerful tool against excessive taxation, the need for further protections of individual rights should not be underestimated. Tax competition cannot be considered as fully equivalent to market competition: In the private sector, competition implies that any producer and any

consumer can trade wherever they are. This is especially true in a world in which trade costs have significantly dropped, while information is usually available in real time from anywhere. Individuals can thus exercise their freedom of choice with no restriction. In tax matters, however, citizens are still subjected to a monopolistic coercive power at their place of residence; no one can live in Belgium and choose to pay his or her taxes in Dubai. This distinction underlines once more the need for as great a number as possible of small, independent jurisdictions enabling residents to “vote with their feet”.

Historically, Europe owes its historical ascendance to the diversity and fragmentation of political power. The competition between political systems and the absence of centralization have been decisive factors for the Renaissance, the Enlightenment, the Industrial Revolution and the great prosperity that ensued. Following the fall of Rome, Europe’s political fragmentation allowed productive individuals to “vote with their feet”, taking their capital with them. With the division of authority, political dissent could develop, leading to the emergence of free cities and parliaments, curtailing predatory taxation, and bringing similar progress elsewhere by emulation. The OECD’s current efforts to curb jurisdictional competition therefore reverse the conditions that led to the West’s exceptional success in comparison with other civilizations, including those that were previously more advanced technologically.

In fact, jurisdictional competition and the advantages of smaller, open territorial monopolies controlled by governments are important ideas of the intellectual liberal tradition. Such diverse thinkers as David Hume, Adam Smith, Montesquieu, Alexis de Tocqueville, Immanuel Kant, Wilhelm von Humboldt, and Turgot insisted on the role of institutional diversity and the right to exit for individual freedom. The great Enlightenment philosopher Benjamin Constant also praised small countries for better meeting the citizens’ needs and preferences rather than seeking to expand their power. In large states, he noted, size requires an activism that often degenerates into despotism, and “the laws come from a point so far from those to whom they are supposed to apply that the inevitable effect of such distance is serious and frequent error”.

31 For instance in comparison with China; see Rosenberg and Birdzell, op. cit., pp. 137-138.
The moral case for financial privacy

The central role tax competition plays for prosperity and justice would not be complete without the protection of financial privacy. The preservation of individual rights should include protection against all sorts of oppression, including excessive taxation. In this regard, higher levels of confidentiality allow for better protection of individuals living in deficient jurisdictions where fundamental rights self-evident in a civilized society cannot be enforced. In fact, corruption, expropriation, crime, and the persecution of various minorities remain endemic risks in most of the world. In such cases, enhanced protection of financial privacy in a “tax haven” can prevent the unwarranted loss of legitimate property and even save lives. Financial privacy can be an essential safeguard for fundamental freedoms and for a right as essential as the right to live.

Reconciling the private and public spheres

In essence, privacy cannot be separated from a person’s individuality. Individuals choose what they reveal in the public sphere, and what they keep private. Privacy allows an individual to delimitate his or her private and public spheres, an idea that is grounded in the human condition as a balance between individuality and social interaction. The distinction between the private and public spheres and its respect are traditional features of civilization. For the same reason people put curtains on their windows or wear clothes in the streets: Whether someone has something to hide or not is not the issue. Such practices are necessary lines of demarcation between one’s individuality and participation in society. In practical terms, the confidentiality due in financial affairs is akin to the professional secrecy of medical doctors or lawyers. It is intended to protect the individual against third parties, including government.

Government intervention into a citizen’s private sphere is in fact more problematic than any other instance, since as a monopoly of coercion government acts without the voluntary or explicit consent of the individuals on whom it applies its regulations. The use of data may be beyond a person’s control and there is often no effective right of recourse or withdrawal: Governments themselves define what they deem as “data protection”. Yet it is one of the great merits of the Enlightenment, and before that of the old Jewish and ancient Greek wisdom to have recognized that political leaders and government agents must submit themselves to the rule of law like any other person and that the citizen must be protected against

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34 The annual report Freedom in the World 2011, published by Freedom House, estimates that only 45% of the world’s population live in countries that can be considered free. See also Edwards and Mitchell, op. cit., pp. 177-181.
their arbitrariness. A government that transforms every taxpayer into a potential tax “evader” distances itself from the rule of law. It places its own prerogatives before the rights of the citizen, thereby giving in to authoritarian or even totalitarian leanings in cases where total transparency is demanded.

Excessive taxation also violates indirectly an individual’s private sphere in that his or her disposable income and freedom of choice are diminished. Standardized government services, such as schools and healthcare, may be also imposed in complete disregard of personal needs and preferences. Therefore financial privacy goes hand in hand with a smaller scope of government and a lower tax burden in preserving an individual’s private sphere.

**The primacy of individual property rights**

On the specific issue of “tax evasion” or tax avoidance, the refusal to subject oneself unconditionally to excessive taxation may be perfectly reasonable in states deemed “free” or “democratic”. This is especially true in a context in which welfare states generate unlimited public debts and unfinanced promises of future benefits, and cause growing parallel or underground economies. The attempt to avoid confiscatory marginal tax rates or taxes that are discriminatory and infringe on basic property rights may be lawful in any true sense of the word. Legitimate (honestly acquired) individual property rights always precede a government’s right to tax. As the German philosopher and economic moralist Peter Kolowski has argued, there is no “natural” right to excessive taxation or to progressive taxation on the part of governments, but there is a right to one’s legitimate property arising from productive activity or exchange (such as one’s own labor). It is not government that yields the right to privacy to citizens, but citizens who yield (to some extent) the right to tax to government.

As the 19th-century French economist Frédéric Bastiat brilliantly put it, “Life, faculties, production — in other words, individuality, liberty, property — this is man. And in spite of the cunning of artful political leaders, these three gifts precede all human legislation, and are superior to it. Life, liberty, and property do not exist because men have made laws. On the contrary, it was the fact that life, liberty, and property existed beforehand that caused men to make laws in the first place.” The right to financial privacy must be protected against government intervention. Only in the case of serious suspicion of crime can bank secrecy be lifted. Otherwise the government would violate the necessary balance between the public and the private spheres; it would no longer act as a subsidiary instrument to keep the peace in a civilized society, but become a threat to it.

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The balance between the private and public spheres enabled by strong financial privacy rules is also justified by the necessary prevention of envy and resentment, which motivates to a large extent the structure of tax systems (such as progressive taxation) and other public policies of income redistribution. In international relations, it follows that the avoidance of excessive progressive tax rates does not violate international private law; this implies that not all governments should prosecute it, let alone assist others in prosecuting it: There is no ethical obligation for a jurisdiction applying more stringent financial privacy rules to assist another jurisdiction in the fight against “tax evasion”, especially if the other jurisdiction violates individual property rights by means of excessive or discriminatory taxation.

The often-heard argument that citizens must comply with the tax laws, voice their dissent by participating in the political process, or move out to another country, is in fact the true offensive proposition: Governments do not own “their” citizens or the territory of their country. Political participation is costly and usually not an option, not least because the governance structure of large centralized states often resembles an oligarchy: The policy differences between the largest political parties tend to be negligible and an individual’s actual choice is insignificant. The idea that representative democracy ensures a sufficient guarantee of legitimacy for any kind of tax system is a naïve point of view that overlooks the intrinsically coercive nature of government action as well as the personal motives of its agents. Government should be nothing more than a utilitarian organization, and it is made up of human beings prone to pursuing their own electoral, financial or other interests. One of the great lessons of history is that governments as monopolies of force should not be idealized or romanticized into infallible incarnations of the “common good”: In the 20th century, the worst abuses of individual rights were committed in the name of the state, and repressive political regimes remain the main cause of human oppression around the world today. In democracies, governments may be viewed as generally benevolent, but this does not prevent them from usually supporting policies likely to keep them in power, even if those policies are known to be at the expense of freedom and prosperity. Unlimited unfunded welfare states are a typical case in point; costs are difficult to identify immediately and the burden can be shifted in part to future generations of taxpayers through unsustainable levels of public debt.

Both theory and practice suggest that the only consequence to be expected from an overall weakening of financial privacy is a rise in taxes for everyone. Total transparency toward the state, by the logic of the fight against “tax evasion”, degrades citizens by analogy to the rank of “tax prisoners” that should be prevented from evading their “tax prison”. This is far off from any humane vision of a just society that recognizes that individuals are at the origin of all wealth creation and that there can be no primary moral claim on the part of government on wealth that would not exist if it had not been for the decision of those who engaged in productive activity to create it.
The significance of Switzerland

In the controversies over tax competition, “tax havens”, and the fight against “tax evasion”, much attention has focused on Switzerland, for a number of reasons: With a worldwide market share of 27%, the Swiss financial center is by far the largest offshore center for private wealth management; its famed banking tradition originated in the 16th century, and its stability as opposed to wars and regular political, monetary, and economic mismanagement by socialist and totalitarian governments in neighboring countries such as France, Germany, and Italy has given it a historical role as a safe haven.

Switzerland’s culture of individual freedom goes back to its founding in the 13th century, which established the principle of property rights against external plundering; this history was dramatized in 1804 by the great German poet Friedrich Schiller and remains a strong inspiration for Swiss independence (as exemplified by its non-EU membership). Not incidentally, the institutional setup of Switzerland is very similar to that of the United States, where individual liberty played an equally important role in the country’s founding: In the 18th century, the republics of the old Swiss Confederation, in the midst of empires and kingdoms, provided inspiration for American revolutionaries such as Thomas Jefferson (who was strongly influenced by the writings of the Swiss legal scholar Jean-Jacques Burlamaqui); in turn, in the 19th century the Swiss Constitution was largely modeled on the American Constitution. It was adopted as most other European countries were turning to centralism and socialism. Since that time, internal jurisdictional competition among the Swiss federated states (or cantons), and direct democracy with regular referendums and initiatives have traditionally kept taxes lower and public administrations friendlier than elsewhere.

A history of wealth protection

In a relatively free economic and political environment, confidentiality is a common professional value. Similarly, Swiss banking secrecy has never been understood as a “competitive advantage” or as a business strategy for banks, but as a common-sense, necessary protection of the individual account holders’ rights to privacy and property from all kinds of violations, either by private parties (including family members) or by governments. The respect of financial privacy in Switzerland long preceded its formal codification in the federal banking law of 1934, most notably as Europeans sought to protect legitimate assets from the criminal

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37 “The Economic Significance of the Swiss Financial Centre”, Swiss Bankers Association, July 2011, p. 3.
regimes of Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy. Confidentiality, however, is hardly unique to Swiss banks: Many countries had and still have some kind of confidentiality or banking secrecy rules as a basic fundamental right, underlying its universal significance.

The decisive and distinguishing factor for the choice of Switzerland as a location for wealth protection has never been specifically banking secrecy, but the country’s political, economic, and monetary stability, including legal security and the reliability of the banking ethos that go with it: The uncompromising respect for private property sustained by the political system and a time-honored professional culture have given Swiss banking its traditional edge. The historical role of Swiss-based banks in this respect should not be underestimated. The Swiss financial center (which includes 150 non-Swiss institutes) may well be one of the least appreciated factors of post-war stability and prosperity in Europe. In the 1960s, the French finance minister Antoine Pinay recognized this as he reportedly declared following the catastrophic socialist policies of the French government in earlier decades: “Thank God for the Swiss bankers, who have saved French private assets, socialist or otherwise”\textsuperscript{39}. The European and global economies have also benefited greatly from the productiveness of Switzerland-based capital in terms of investment, job creation, and economic growth through multinational corporations or reinvestment by international depositors.

A culture of trust between citizens and government

Why all the fuss about Switzerland and “tax evasion” today, then? The Swiss legal system makes an important distinction between “tax subtraction” (which can be due to forgetting to declare some income or wealth and is an administrative offense) and “tax fraud” (which includes the forging of documents in the deliberate attempt to circumvent tax laws and is a criminal offense). This legal distinction is based on the fundamental idea that government serves the citizen, and not the other way around. The trust relationship between citizens and government implies that the criminalization of citizens for minor tax offenses must be avoided. This attitude is underscored by direct democracy, whereby citizens often vote on tax laws and tax rates.

Under the principle of double criminality, however, the Swiss authorities did not recognize mere “tax subtraction” as a crime in international cases and therefore did not provide administrative assistance to other governments in unsubstantiated cases of “tax evasion”. This had led to mounting political pressure given the importance of Switzerland as an offshore center for private wealth management and the history of government mismanagement in neighboring countries (including inflation and confiscatory taxation up to expropriation), which led many individuals to protect their assets in Swiss-based banks.

The distinction between “tax subtraction” and “tax fraud” would be difficult to lift for Swiss residents due to direct democracy (a majority of 73% of Swiss citizens supports the current system according to the latest annual survey on the issue\(^\text{40}\)). But in effect, in the face of international pressure the Swiss government has been led to make various concessions over the last years for international depositors. With the European Union adopting the automatic exchange of banking information for tax purposes as its official policy, the Swiss government implemented as of July 1, 2005 a withholding tax on savings income that is anonymously levied by banks and transferred as aggregate amounts once a year to the governments of the depositors’ countries of residence. In 2011 the Swiss government has agreed to further tax agreements with Germany and the United Kingdom: Under these agreements, residents in Germany or the U.K. can retroactively tax their existing banking relationships in Switzerland either by making a one-off tax payment or by disclosing their accounts (if they were not taxed previously, which is the taxpayer’s, not the bank’s responsibility). In addition, future investment income and capital gains of German or British clients in Switzerland will be subject to a final withholding tax, and the proceeds of this levy will be transferred to the German and British authorities by the Swiss government. In exchange, mutual market access for financial services will be improved. These agreements, due to enter into force at the start of 2013, are criticized by opponents of financial privacy for preserving the anonymity of clients toward tax authorities and undermining EU policy. However, as governments around Europe are desperate for more revenue, they are expected to be eventually implemented and serve as a model for other countries. In any case, holding untaxed accounts in Switzerland has become relatively unattractive on the basis of these new provisions (if it was at all attractive before). Above all, the agreements further strengthen the leverage of governments against citizens and make Swiss-based banks as well as the Swiss government tax collectors of other national tax authorities. This is bad news for property rights, capital accumulation and economic growth in Europe, and it is likely that more scarce capital resources will be wasted by governments as a result.

More generally, following the implementation of the new international OECD standard in double tax treaties, as imposed by G20 governments as of 2009,\(^\text{41}\) the distinction between “tax subtraction” and “tax fraud” no longer applies to international clients of Swiss-based banks in cases of requests for administrative assistance on well-founded suspicion of a tax offence. Despite these concessions, the Swiss government has until now remained adamant that it would refuse any automatic exchange of information. However, without the institution of direct democracy, it is far from certain that financial privacy would still be taken as seriously as it is today in Switzerland.

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\(^{41}\) Cf. p. 8 above.
The future of Swiss banking secrecy

The instability of international policy and the pressure of high-tax countries raise the question of the sustainability of current rules of financial privacy. Banking confidentiality is of course far from being absolute. Anonymous bank accounts have long been a thing of the past. Beside international administrative and legal assistance, banks must also provide information in the case of civil proceedings, such as inheritance or divorce, debt recovery and bankruptcy proceedings, and criminal proceedings of any kind. As a self-regulation mechanism, Swiss-based banks must inform the authorities if evidence gives rise to the suspicion that the funds deposited are the proceeds of a crime.

Nevertheless, the attitude of Swiss residents remains strongly in favor of banking secrecy and against further concessions to international organizations. Nearly 70% oppose the automatic exchange of information as applied by the European Union; only 27% would accept it; the proportion of opponents is even stronger among people between 18 and 29 years: 75% oppose EU policy on information exchange42. The loss of reputation of the European Union (despite its great achievement of opening borders among its member states) as an experiment partly trapped in outdated centralist and statist thinking has become more severe in an open country such as Switzerland, where 30% of the workforce is non-Swiss and 50% of all income is generated abroad. The high levels of immigration from EU countries into Switzerland on the basis of the free movement of people (which Swiss voters endorsed at the ballot box) are also testimony of the questionable quality of current policies in EU countries, as people vote with their feet and leave.

Finally, it is important to stress that the Swiss citizens’ positive attitude toward financial privacy is not motivated by national economic advantages allegedly arising from banking secrecy, but by principle. Nearly 90% of Swiss residents view the respect of financial privacy as important for themselves in their relations with banks; again, the most convinced proponents of banking data protection are the younger generations43. Contrary to a widely held myth, banking secrecy alone is also of little relevance as a direct advantage for the Swiss banking industry or the Swiss economy: Despite the Swiss dominance in private wealth management, international private clients hold only about 15% of all managed assets by Swiss-based banks. Even assuming (speculatively) that half of these assets were originally not taxed and could potentially move out of Switzerland, the loss for the Swiss financial center would represent about a quarter of the loss that arose from write-offs and value adjustments in the latest international crisis44. As a whole the banking industry makes up one tenth of the Swiss economy. The Swiss experience shows that bank secrecy and financial privacy are first and foremost moral imperatives.

42 Ibid., p. 41.
43 Ibid., p. 44.
44 Source: Avenir Suisse, December 2010.
Conclusion and implications

Governments fighting “tax evasion” have no economic or moral case for their crusade against citizens. Both justice and prosperity are significantly enhanced by tax competition and financial privacy. At the same time it would be unreasonable to expect that governments will not seek to enforce their own tax laws. It is therefore worth pondering the possible answers to the violations of individual rights in the name of the fight against “tax evasion”. To draw inspiration from the Enlightenment, Benjamin Constant held that as long as unjust laws do not force individuals to commit inhuman acts, it is better to comply with them in order to preserve the peace with public agents.

Excessive taxation in itself is a violation of individual rights. G20 governments, with the assistance of the OECD, wage a regulatory war that is highly problematic from the standpoint of justice, given that excessively high tax rates are the primary cause of tax “evasion” or tax avoidance. Article 2 of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, dated August 26, 1789, states that: “The aim of all political association is the preservation of the natural and imprescriptible rights of man. These rights are liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression.” It would be a paradox if governments as vehicles of power would now become the main source of oppression in an Orwellian-type crusade for more tax revenue. It is discomforting that governments are putting in place increasingly invasive mechanisms for the automatic exchange of information on banking and cross-border transactions. Governments seek to institute the “transparent citizen”, yet they lack themselves transparency on the uses and impact of their excessive spending and public debt. They seek an open door to ever mounting tax burdens rather than reform their own bloated welfare states.

The enforcement of tax laws in overtaxed, overindebted and overspending countries is therefore a grey area that cannot be separated from the broader issues of reducing the tax burden and rolling back the public sector. The issue cannot simply be answered by the narrow legalistic “compliance” approach of politicians and bureaucrats waging the fight against “tax evasion”. It must take into account the moral case for the safeguard of individual rights in three areas:

- First, it is necessary to recognize financial privacy as a legitimate extension of individual property rights, to which the rule of law must be subjected to. Government, as a utilitarian human organization, should serve the citizen, not the other way round. Government derives its power to tax from the citizen, whose right to privacy takes precedence.
Second, tax competition, low-tax jurisdictions, and tax havens, far from being threats to good public governance, play an essential role in the preservation of individual liberty and exert a preventive or corrective role of arbitrage against excessive taxation. This leads to better protection of individual rights, greater prosperity, and a more positive correlation between public services and the tax burden.

Third, it is in the interest of all countries to go back to the virtuous path of limited government, reduced spending, and low taxes. The alternative of more transparency and more compliance by means of authoritarian or totalitarian methods would not bring more tax revenue in the long run, but lower living standards and weaken the protection of individual rights, with an increased potential for abuses of power. It would encourage the underground economy, informal markets and tax avoidance on an ever larger scale.

As evidenced by the successive showdowns with “tax havens”, small and open countries such as Luxembourg or Switzerland will not be able to stand up to the economic power play of G20 governments, and they would probably be forced to align themselves on any new change in international policy. It is therefore up to civil society in each country to restore better tax policy, financial privacy, and respect for property rights in the face of government waste and wealth depredation through excessive taxation. In sum, government must be put back to its rightful place: that of a humble servant subordinated to individual rights.

Europe and the United States have strong civil and democratic traditions. Their revival is the only way to avoid a continued drift toward more centralized government control over society and the market economy. The emergence of a global government cartel without any restrictions to tax and spend their citizens’ wealth would lead to a world that is less free and less prosperous. Friends of freedom have a decisive role to play in opposing and reversing that trend.
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