Who Bears the Burden of Energy Taxes? The Role of Local Pass-Through

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October 25, 2016

Abstract

Existing estimates of energy tax incidence assume that the pass-through of taxes to final consumer prices is uniform across the affected population. I show that, in fact, variation in local market conditions drives significant heterogeneity in pass-through, and ignoring this can lead to mistaken conclusions about the distributional impacts of energy taxes. I use data from the Spanish retail automotive fuel market to estimate station-specific pass-through, focusing on the effects of competition and wealth. A novel informational mandate provides access to a national, station-daily panel of retail diesel prices and characteristics and allows me to investigate market composition at a fine level. Event study and difference-in-differences regression reveal that, while retail prices rise nearly one-for-one (100%) with taxes on average, station-specific pass-through rates range from at least 70% to 120%. Greater market power – measured by brand concentration and spatial isolation – is strongly associated with higher pass-through, even after conditioning on detailed demand-side characteristics. Furthermore, pass-through rises monotonically in area-average house prices. While a conventional estimate of the Spanish diesel tax burden suggests roughly equivalent incidence across the wealth distribution, overlaying the effect of heterogeneous pass-through reveals the tax to be unambiguously progressive.

Keywords: Incidence, Pass-Through, Energy, Market Power

JEL Codes: H22, L13, Q41

*MIT (email: sstolper@mit.edu). I would like to thank Joseph Aldy, Nathan Hendren, Erich Muehlegger, Robert Stavins, and Jim Stock for invaluable guidance and support. I also thank Todd Gerarden, Richard Sweeney, Evan Herrnstadt, Benjamin Fiegenberg, Yusuf Neggers, Eric Dodge, Harold Stolper, and Katie Rae Mulvey for helpful comments and discussion, as well as seminar participants at Harvard University. I am especially grateful to Manuel Garcia Hernández, Sergio López Pérez, Carlos Redondo López, and colleagues at the Spanish Ministry of Energy and the National Commission on Markets and Competition for generously providing me with access to the *Geoportal* data, as well as a greater understand of Spain's oil markets.

1 Introduction

Energy taxes – and related market-based policies – are attractive because they have the potential to reduce negative externalities like pollution, traffic, and accident risk in a cost-effective manner, thereby raising social welfare. But what are the distributional impacts of these policies? Researchers (Morris and Munnings 2013), politicians (Metcalf, Mathur, and Hassett 2011), and popular media (New York Times 2009) alike have long debated the economic incidence of energy taxes - for example, how much of the tax burden is borne by consumers versus suppliers, and how taxes affect households of different wealth levels. Distributional outcomes are increasingly subject to scrutiny as the demand for climate policy grows, and as the scope and scale of household energy use continue to increase.

In this paper, I provide new insight into distributional questions about energy policy by estimating the pass-through of automotive fuel taxes to final, retail prices. Pass-through – the degree to which costs physically imposed on one segment of a market are "passed through" to others – is a useful economic tool for at least two reasons. First, it is determined in equilibrium by supply, demand, and competition; thus, empirical pass-through patterns provide indirect insight into underlying market function. Second, pass-through measures the extra cost of maintaining consumption in the face of a tax hike, thereby providing *direct* insight into tax incidence. I make use of these attributes by studying how energy tax pass-through rates vary with local competition and consumer characteristics.

My focus is on the retail automotive fuel market of Spain, whose government provides access to daily gas-station prices and characteristics through a novel informational mandate issued in 2007. State-specific taxes on automotive fuel provide panel variation in tax levels. Cross-sectional variation in branding and location, as well as temporal variation in local competition generated by entry and exit of stations, allows me to estimate a relationship between tax pass-through and market power. Survey measures of population, property values, and education aid in the identification of that relationship and also facilitate a study of the relationship between pass-through and wealth.

I find that branding and location patterns in the Spanish market predict significant heterogeneity in pass-through. Moreover, pass-through exhibits a strong positive correlation with wealth, as measued by local house prices. These results challenge the wisdom of existing energy tax incidence analyses (e.g., West 2004; Bento et al. 2009; Grainger and Kolstad 2010), which consistently find that taxes on gasoline and carbon dioxide are regressive – i.e., relatively worse for poorer people than for richer ones – in industrialized countries. These analyses focus primarily on how differences in consumption (both before and after a tax change) across the wealth spectrum affect distributional equity, but they

assume away corresponding differences in prices. My own analysis suggests that the price impacts of taxation (measured by pass-through) are not only non-uniform, but also systematically related to wealth. When I account for this in my own incidence calculation, the Spanish tax appears strongly progressive.

My empirical analysis is essentially a comparison of prices before and after tax hikes, at stations of different types. I begin with an event study of tax hikes, which provides a sense of price trends at stations experiencing tax hikes relative to those not experiencing them. The results imply that "treatment" and "control" stations have parallel price trends before and after tax events. Motivated by this finding, I use difference-in-differences (DiD) regression to estimate an average pass-through rate of 95% for Spanish diesel taxes (diesel is the dominant automotive fuel in Spain). However, this average rate masks significant heterogeneity at the local level. I capture this heterogeneity by comparing prices before and after taxes among stations with (a) different brands, (b) facing different numbers and types of rivals, and (c) serving different consumer bases. Econometrically, I do this by re-estimating event study and DiD models while interacting my tax variable with characteristics of stations and their surroundings.

The results show that stations bearing the brand of a vertically-integrated refiner are associated with significantly higher tax pass-through, as are stations facing relatively less-dense spatial competition. In addition, pass-through rises in the local concentration of one's own brand. While brand and location are likely endogenous due to station owners' consideration of local demand in their decisions, the inclusion of a suite of detailed demand-side characteristics in regression analysis leaves my main estimates unchanged. Through both a branding channel and a spatial channel, market power appears to raise pass-through.

I also find that pass-through rises monotonically in area-average house prices. I cannot interpret this relationship as causal, but it is nonetheless the case that richer areas see, on average, higher price impacts of taxation, even conditional on local market structure. Together, competitive environment and local consumer characteristics predict a wide distribution of pass-through rates among Spanish gas stations, centered around 90% but ranging from approximately 70 to 115%. The existence of overfull (>100%) pass-through may seem surprising, but it has been found in other markets (Besley and Rosen 1999) and is the natural result of imperfect competition with sufficiently convex demand (Seade 1985). In Spain, 24% of gas stations have estimated pass-through rates in excess of 100% on the last day of observation in my sample period.

The combination of imperfect competition and convex demand has significant implications for tax incidence. *Perfect* competition, which is a standard assumption in energy tax incidence analysis, bounds pass-through between 0 and 100%; since empirical research shows that fuel tax pass-through is nearly 100% on average (see, e.g., Marion and Muehlegger 2011), the perfect-competition assumption implies 100% pass-through everywhere. This uniform, full pass-through rate is what is applied in nearly every incidence analysis to date. My results, in contrast, show that pass-through varies substantially across space.

Pass-through variation intimately affects distributional equity, by imposing larger price impacts on richer areas. Existing incidence analyses miss this effect by using a uniform pass-through rate. To show the consequences of this omission, I estimate the effect of a marginal tax hike on household tax burdens, before and after accounting for the relationship between pass-through and wealth. I obtain annual automotive fuel consumption totals for a sample of households from the Spanish Household Budget Survey. This quantity, multiplied by the pass-through rate, and divided by total household expenditure, gives an estimate of the marginal tax burden as a proportion of wealth. Existing analyses of this type assume a pass-through rate of 100%; replicating this assumption yields burden estimates that are roughly equivalent across wealth deciles. In contrast, using estimated pass-through rates specific to each house-price decile yields burden estimates that rise with wealth.

The conventional wisdom is that gasoline and diesel taxes are regressive in industrialized countries because the poor in those countries tend to spend a larger proportion of their wealth on energy than the rich. This presents a serious, oft-cited flaw in a policy instrument that is generally seen as good for overall social welfare. But it relies in part on an assumption of uniform pass-through that I here prove inaccurate. All else equal, a positive relationship between pass-through and wealth makes taxes more progressive. In Spain, it turns a tax with roughly flat incidence across the wealth distribution into a progressive policy. To the extent that the positive relationship between pass-through and wealth holds in other contexts, taxes on those energy products and in those locales become correspondingly more attractive from a distributional standpoint. More generally, the widespread heterogeneity that I identify due to variation in local competition and preferences suggests that analysts should not assume away cross-sectional differences in the price impacts of energy regulation. Reduced-form pass-through estimation provides a tractable way of addressing this problem.

The rest of this paper is laid out as follows: Section 2 describes what is known, in theory and in empirics, about energy tax incidence; Section 3 provides a picture of the Spanish automotive fuel

market and the relevant taxes and data; Section 4 describes my analysis of average tax pass-through; Section 5 details the corresponding estimation of local tax pass-through as a function of market structure and consumer makeup; Section 6 discusses the distributional implications of these results; and Section 7 concludes.

2 Pass-Through in the Existing Literature

The term "pass-through" refers to what Alfred Marshall (1890) described as "the diffusion throughout the community of economic changes which primarily affect some particular branch of production or consumption." Most commonly, these "economic changes" are costs, physically imposed on one part of a supply chain, and passed through to others. As Weyl and Fabinger (2013) have recently highlighted, pass-through has extraordinary potential as a tool of economic analysis. For this reason, several disciplines of economics feature the topic in research. International economists have long been concerned with exchange-rate pass-through, because of its role in explaining movements in relative prices and business cycles (Auer and Schoenle 2013). The field of industrial organization contains much research on pass-through because of the light it sheds on mergers (Jaffe and Weyl 2013) and price discrimination (Aguirre, Cowan, and Vickers 2010). In public finance, pass-through is important primarily because of its connection to tax incidence. This last application is the one on which I focus.

2.1 The use of pass-through in incidence analysis

The change in consumer surplus elicited by a rise in energy taxes is naturally divided into two components: (a) the additional cost of energy consumption maintained in the face of rising prices; and (b) the utility lost from reduced consumption (i.e., the *deadweight* loss).[1] Pass-through physically measures the former, per unit consumption. It is thus an integral part of incidence analysis, which generally focuses on estimating changes in surplus among different segments of society (e.g., consumers vs. producers, and richer vs. poorer). If the price impacts of rising taxes vary across geographic regions, firms, or individuals, then distributional welfare will vary accordingly.

Existing analyses of energy tax incidence, however, assume without exception that pass-through of taxes – whether on gasoline (West 2003; West and Williams 2004; Bento et al. 2005, 2009) or on

[1] Consumer surplus is also determined by (a) ownership of supply-side capital; (b) externalities like pollution, traffic, and vehicular safety; (c) other goods' prices that are affected by energy taxes in general equilibrium; and (d) the use of government revenues obtained through taxation. In this paper, however, I focus only on the utility derived directly from the purchase and consumption of energy. See Sterner (2012) for a fuller discussion of the various channels through which a tax affects welfare.

carbon (Metcalf 2009; Grainger and Kolstad 2010; Metcalf, Mathur, and Hasset 2011; Mathur and Morris 2012) – is uniform across the affected population. With one exception (Metcalf, Mathur, and Hasset 2011), these analyses further assume that pass-through is fully 100% (one for one).

Why is pass-through assumed or expected to be uniformly 100%? The answer is a combination of theory, intuition, and empirics. The natural starting point in public finance is of tax incidence in perfect competition. In such a model, pass-through is entirely a function of the elasticities of supply and demand. Equation 1 provides the mathematical definition (see Appendix A for the derivation):

$$\frac{dp_c}{dt} = \frac{\epsilon_S}{\epsilon_S - \epsilon_D} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\epsilon_D}{\epsilon_S}} \tag{1}$$

Pass-through of tax t to retail price p_c rises in the supply elasticity (ϵ_S) and falls in the absolute demand elasticity (ϵ_D). In the polar cases of either perfectly elastic supply ($\epsilon_S \to +\infty$) or perfectly *in*elastic demand ($\epsilon_D \to 0$), pass-through rates are identically 100%.

The consensus intuition about automotive fuel markets is that retail supply *is* very elastic – because of opportunities for storage and the ease of purchasing wholesale fuel for resale – and that retail demand *is* very inelastic – because driving is a fundamental input to so many daily activities. Empirical research suggests that at least the latter is true (Dahl 2012; Hughes, Knittel, and Sperling 2008). In perfect competition, the expected result is thus high (i.e., close to 100%) pass-through.

The empirical pass-through literature strongly supports the above intuition: estimated average pass-through rates in automotive fuel markets are consistently 100% or very nearly so (Alm, Sennoga, and Skidmore 2009; Marion and Muehlegger 2011; Bello and Contín-Pilart 2012). High pass-through has also been found for the cost of permits under the European Union Emissions Trading System (Fabra and Reguant 2014) and credits ("RINs") under the U.S. Renewable Fuel Standard (Knittel, Meiselman, and Stock 2015). Pass-through is bounded above by 100% in perfect competition, as can be seen from Equation 1; in such a model, full pass-through *on average* therefore implies full pass-through everywhere. This, perhaps, is why researchers assume the latter in incidence analysis.

2.2 The logic of heterogeneous pass-through

Once the assumption of perfect competition is set aside, full pass-through on average no longer guarantees full pass-through locally. In *im*perfect competition, pass-through varies with not just the

first derivative (elasticity), but also the second (convexity). Consider the formula for pass-through in monopoly with constant marginal costs c:

$$\frac{dp_m}{dt} = \frac{\frac{\partial p(q_m)}{\partial q_m}}{2\frac{\partial p(q_m)}{\partial q_m} + q_m \frac{\partial^2 p(q_m)}{\partial q_m^2}} \tag{2}$$

The shape of demand – described by $\frac{\partial p(q_m)}{\partial q_m}$ and $\frac{\partial^2 p(q_m)}{\partial q_m^2}$ – is integral to the magnitude of monopoly pass-through. In oligopoly, the same holds true: tax pass-through depends on first and second derivatives of demand with respect to both one's own prices *and* the prices of its competitors (again, see Appendix A for the derivation of pass-through in imperfect competition).

Anything that affects the shape of demand causes a change in the level of pass-through. For example, greater market power at some gas station i, due to either larger market shares or greater spatial isolation, could reduce the magnitude of $\frac{\partial q(p_i)}{\partial p_i}$; this would, in turn, lead to a different pass-through rate than at other stations. Along these lines, Doyle and Samphantharak (2008) find that pass-through of U.S. sales taxes into retail gasoline prices is lowest in areas with the lowest brand concentration.[2] At the same time, consumer preferences or budget constraints could also affect the shape of demand. Though the direct relationship between pass-through and wealth is undocumented, it is nonetheless clear that demand could be more or less elastic in richer areas, relative to poorer ones. Such variation would, in turn, drive differences in pass-through.[3]

One important observation from Equation 2 is that the sign of the relationship between pass-through and (absolute) demand elasticity is theoretically ambiguous. If demand is linear, the second derivative of demand is zero, and monopoly pass-through collapses to 50% regardless of the slope of demand. If demand is concave, then pass-through is below 50%, and more inelastic demand leads to lower pass-through, all else equal. If demand is convex, then pass-through is above 50%, and more inelastic demand leads to *higher* pass-through, all else equal. With prior knowledge of the second derivative of demand, this ambiguity is resolved. Without it, the relationship between market power and pass-through, or wealth and pass-through, becomes an empirical question.

[2]Miller, Osborne, and Sheu (2015) investigate the effect of spatial isolation on fuel cost pass-through in the U.S. cement market. They find that increasing distance to competitors raises *own*-cost pass-through but reduces *rival*-cost pass-through; the two channels cancel each other out, so that pass-through is empirically insensitive to spatial competition.

[3]The shape of the supply curve is similarly relevant, though I assume it to be flat in Equation 2. Marion and Muehlegger (2011) identify a positive relationship between tax pass-through and the elasticity of supply in retail automotive fuel markets.

2.3 Overfull pass-through

In certain circumstances, pass-through can even exceed 100% (Seade 1985). To see this point, consider the graphical depiction of (excise) tax pass-through in Figure 1. The two panels denote identical settings of linear supply, isoelastic demand, and a tax hike dt that shifts supply upwards from S_0 to S_1. $(P_1 - P_0)$ is thus the change in price due to the tax hike. There is only one difference between the two panels: in Panel A, competition is perfect, while in Panel B, supply is a monopoly. Panel A prices are simply set at the intersection of D and S. Panel B prices, in contrast, are set according to the marginal revenue curve MR. The monopolist first finds its optimal quantity at the intersection of MR and D, and then maps this quantity back to price using the demand curve.

Pass-through in Panel A is 100% because supply is perfectly elastic (i.e., flat); in Panel B, however, pass-through is *greater* than 100% ($dp > dt$). This "overfull" pass-through is a result of the interaction between market power and sufficiently convex demand. Market power shifts the relevant quantity range, and demand convexity causes the slope of demand to be steeper over this new range. The slope is so steep that the resulting jump in prices exceeds the rise in taxes.

Overfull pass-through has been found in a variety of markets (see, e.g., Besley and Rosen 1999), but in automotive fuel markets it has only been found in certain situations of abnormally high supply elasticity (Marion and Muehlegger 2011). To the extent that overfull pass-through is observed in energy markets, one plausible explanation is differential consumer search. If a fraction of consumers in a market are price-insensitive and always patronize the same gas station, while a fraction shop around much more, then demand may have the required convex shape. More generally, demand could be convex if those with the highest willingness to pay for energy are relatively richer, and if richer individuals are less price-sensitive than poorer ones. This latter pattern is a common result estimated in structural models of demand for a variety of goods (including, most relevantly, Houde 2012 for retail gasoline).

The preceding discussion serves to highlight the divergence between energy tax incidence analysis and its theoretical foundations. Pass-through need not be exactly 100%, and it can vary substantially at a local level due to the shape of demand and supply and the toughness of competition. In the next section, I introduce the data that I use to identify this *local* pass-through.

3 Background on Spain's Oil Markets

The Spanish retail automotive fuel market is an ideal setting for a study of the determinants of energy tax incidence: it appears highly imperfectly competitive;[4] it features panel variation in state-level taxes; and the government records very detailed price data in it. Three companies (Repsol, Cepsa, and BP) own the nine oil refineries operating in Spain (imports account for only 10% of refined diesel), and together they own a majority stake in the national pipeline distribution network. Most importantly, they are heavily forward-integrated into the retail market: 60% of retail gas stations in Spain bear the brand of a refiner. Not surprisingly, these companies face significant scrutiny from government and popular media alike, on the grounds of alleged collusion and some of the highest estimated retail margins in all of Europe (see, for example, El País 2015).

One result of such scrutiny has been very close monitoring of pricing by gas stations. A government mandate which went into effect in January 2007 requires all stations across the country (more than 10,000 today) to send in their fuel prices to the Ministry of Energy whenever they change, and weekly regardless of any changes. These prices are then posted by the Ministry to a web page - called *Geoportal* - that is streamlined for consumer use; Figure 2 provides a representative screenshot. The objective of *Geoportal* is to help consumers optimize their choices of when and where to purchase automotive fuel, but it also provides rich data for analysis of retail fuel markets. I thus obtain daily price data for retail diesel (which has a 67% share of the retail automotive fuel market), as well as the location, amenities, brand, and wholesale contract type at all Spanish gas stations from January 2007 to June 2013. While my price data are therefore quite detailed, corresponding quantity (consumption) data are not collected with a frequency sufficient for use in my study of station-specific pass-through.[5]

For each individual station, I calculate the overall concentration of stations in its vicinity, as well as brand-specific concentrations. My competition measures are an improvement over traditional indicators because they rely on driving times rather than administrative borders or straight-line distance. To start with, I compute the travel time by car between pairs of stations and define a station's competitors as all other stations within 5 minutes' drive. From the set of competitors within each each station's 5-minute radius, I calculate two values. First, I tally the overall count of rival stations, weighted by inverse travel time. Second, I calculate the proportion of local stations within

[4]For background on the evolution of Spain's oil markets, see Contín-Pilart, Correljé, and Palacios (2009) and Perdiguero and Borrell (2007).

[5]The government collects county-month consumption totals, but the county is too large a geographic area to be useful here. Station-year totals are also available, but many stations are missing values, so I do not use these data, either.

that radius that are under the same ownership as the reference station.[6] These values capture market power through a spatial channel and a branding channel, respectively. Neither of these measures is perfect; in particular, they do not take into account the driving patterns of consumers, which are often a function of unobservables like place of work (Houde 2012). I cannot integrate commuting data into my analysis because no such dataset exists at the national level in Spain.

To these station-level data, I add information on a per-unit retail state diesel tax for 16 of the 17 Spanish states.[7] This tax, colloquially known as the 'centimo sanitario' ("public health" tax), has as its stated purpose the generation of revenues to be used for public health improvements. In my sample time period, it varies from 0 to 4.8 Eurocents/liter across states and discretely rises 14 times over my seven-year time period. This variation is plotted in Figure 3 . While my data begin in January 2007, no state increases its diesel tax until early 2010. State-specific taxes are additional to federal excise taxes on retail diesel, which sum to 30.2 c/L at the start of my sample and increase once, to 33.1 c/L in June 2009. The total mean specific tax on diesel rises from just under 31 c/L at the start of my sample time period to to above 37 c/L at the end.[8]

Geographic and socioeconomic proxies for the demand side round out the list of variables which I use in my primary analysis. From the Spanish Statistical Institute, I collect annual population totals at all municipalities (there are 8,117 of these) and cross-sectional indicators of education level at 1-km^2 grid-squares (there are 79,858 of these). From the Spanish Ministry of Public Works, I obtain average house prices at the municipality-quarter level, for all municipalities with greater than 25,000 residents.

I calculate population density at the municipality-year level in order to proxy for the size of the consumption base and also the extent of public transit infrastructure (an alternative to driving which likely affects the elasticity of demand for diesel). Meanwhile, house-price data are useful as indicators of average lifetime wealth, an important determinant of automotive fuel demand that likely varies with brand and location choices. By the same token, education levels may be predictive of wealth and/or preferences for fuel consumption. All of these variables are doubly important: they allow me to better assess the causal link between competition and pass-through in their capacity as detailed

[6] I define two stations with the same brand as also being under the same *ownership* if each of them is (a) owned by that brand, or (b) operated either directly by that brand or under a "commission" contract, which ensures that the branded firm captures most of the profit from retailing.

[7] I was unable to obtain data on tax levels for the Canary Islands and for the two Spanish territories, Ceuta and Melilla. Stations in these areas are dropped from analysis.

[8] There is additionally a national sales tax of 21% that applies to retail diesel sales. I remove the contribution of this tax from retail prices in all analyses.

proxies for the demand side; and they provide their own evidence of heterogeneity in pass-through, through non-competition channels.

The raw *Geoportal* data contain 9,911 stations as of June 2013 (the end of my sample period). The total drops to 9,457 when I remove stations from the three areas with unknown tax levels. From this number, I select for analysis only those stations with non-missing demand-side indicators. The importance of these indicators to my empirical strategy justifies this cut. As I discuss below in Section 4, branding and location variables are endogenous - they are very likely determined with some knowledge of local wealth and driving preferences. Proxies for these characteristics are therefore integral to establishing a causal link between competition and pass-through. Moreover, given my intent to assess the degree of heterogeneity in pass-through, it is important to capture variation in both the toughness of competition and the makeup of the consumer base.

Because of the limited scope of house price measurement, as well as incomplete coverage by the survey on education, the effect of this sample restriction is to drop rural areas. In these areas, spatial competition is likely governed not by the local indicators that I am able to measure but by inter-city driving patterns. Indeed, a great many gas stations in Spain are situated along inter-city highways in unpopulated areas. Figure 4 illustrates exactly this fact, by mapping all stations and highlighting (with large dots) the stations in areas with non-missing demand-side characteristics. This "urban subsample" covers 26% of all Spanish gas stations (2,553 out of a possible 9,911) and will be my analytical sample for the remainder of the paper.[9]

The price and non-price characteristics of the stations in my analysis sample are summarized in Table 1. The average, pre-sales-tax, retail diesel price is nearly 99 Eurocents per liter (c/L) during the sample period; this corresponds to a price of 4.70 $/gallon at the end-of-sample exchange rate. While this mean price shows how much more expensive automotive fuel is in Spain relative to the U.S., it says nothing about the variation in prices over time and across space. Figure 5 gives a sense of this variation, by plotting time series of retail prices within and across counties of Andalucia state. I choose Andalucia arbitrarily because it is first alphabetically among Spanish states, but it is also the most populous state. The top panel of Figure 5 plots prices over time in the most expensive and least expensive counties of Andalucia (Málaga and Almería, respectively); there is essentially no difference in these county-average prices. The bottom panel, in contrast, plots prices at the most and least expensive municipalities *within* each of these counties. The cross-municipality range of prices is

[9] I do, however, show results using these rural stations in the ensuing tables as a robustness check.

as much as 8 c/L (or $\sim$ 38 U.S. cents/gallon, as of June 2013) in a given week. This fact provides suggestive evidence that market conditions at the municipality level or finer do, in fact, matter for pricing decisions.

The rest of the statistics in Table 1, as well as those of Table 2, describe some of the factors that may contribute to the variation seen in Figure 5. Stations (and their retail fuel products) are differentiated by their brands, their contracts, their amenities, and their location with respect to rivals, allies, and consumers. As noted above, there are three companies in Spain that refine oil, sell wholesale refined fuel to retail operators, *and* own and/or operate retail stations themselves. Among the 2,553 stations in my analysis sample, 58% of them bear the brand of one of these three companies, referred to henceforth simply as 'refiners'. There are also 24 companies that engage only in wholesaling and retailing; 27% of stations bear one of these 'wholesaler' brands. The remaining 'independents' have no long-term contract (or branding agreement) with any of these companies, interacting with them only to purchase wholesale fuel on the spot market.

Any station that bears the brand of a refiner or wholesaler is further differentiated by its contractual arrangement, which describes the degree of vertical integration between the station and its upstream supplier. There are a number of different contract classifications observed in Spain. For conciseness, I divide them into three categories. Company-owned, company-operated (COCO) stations are fully vertically integrated; the "company" is the upstream refiner or wholesaler. Commission-contracted stations are those in which the operator of the station does not buy wholesale fuel but rather sells it on behalf of the supplier, earning a commission. Finally, stations with firm-sale contracts physically purchase wholesale fuel and keep all profits from retailing.[10] These contracts are ordered from most to least vertically integrated. COCO and commission-contracted stations each account for 30% of all stations in my sample, while another 19% operate with firm-sale contracts. Unclassifiable contracts ('Other', in the data) account for the remainder of the 85% fraction of the sample that is branded.

Panel A of Table 2 provides a sense of the spatial and brand patterns in the Spanish retail automotive fuel market. Many stations have no competitors whatsoever within a five-minute drive, but some have quite a few - the maximum weighted rival count of 2.13 comes from a station with 22 competitors closer than five minutes away. However, the mean value of 0.47 indicates substantial skewing towards the bottom of the distribution. Most stations only have one or two neighbors,

[10]Stations are additionally classified as company-owned, dealer-operated (CODO) and dealer-owned, dealer-operated (DODO) - where 'dealer' denotes a non-wholesaling entity - but I deem these classifications less important than the commission/firm-sale distinction. This conclusion is borne out by regression analysis, in which the type of sale has a larger and more statistically significant predictive effect on pass-through than the ownership-operation arrangement.

situated at least a minute away by car. For stations that do have nearby neighbors, the own-firm proportion indicator measures ownership concentration. The average station has shared ownership with 40% of other stations in its vicinity. The variable takes values of nearly 0 and identically 1 with some frequency, however, because some markets have almost no multi-station owners (own-firm proportion≈0) and others are effective monopolies (own-firm proportion==1).

The final set of important variables is composed of demand-side characteristics: population density, house prices, and education levels summarized in Panel B of Table 2. The first of these variables exhibits an undeniably wide range of observed values. The sample average population density in this study is 2,890 people per square kilometer; the municipality of Jumilla in Murcia state has a mere 30 residents per km^2, while Hospital L'lobregat – a section of Barcelona – has 20,560. Municipal-average house prices, meanwhile, vary around a mean of 1,990 Euros/m^2 from 830 at the cheapest to 3,860 at the most expensive. Finally, in the average neighborhood surveyed in the 2011 Census, 11% of residents' have some high school experience but did not graduate; 46% of residents have graduated high school and/or obtained a professional/technical degree; and 17% have baccalaureate, master's, or doctoral degrees. Spanish communities are thus characterized by sizeable variation in wealth, education, and urbanization – three characteristics of consumers that are likely to be closely related to driving preferences.

4 Average Pass-Through of the Spanish Diesel Tax

I begin my empirical analysis with a study of *average* diesel tax pass-through. Focusing on average pass-through allows me to explore the timing and location of tax variation in isolation, before moving on to a consideration of taxes and local market conditions jointly. Moreover, my estimates of this outcome are a logic test: if they differ substantially from the consensus of nearly 100% pass-through in the existing literature, then there must be some aspect of either my methods or my setting that explains this discrepancy.

Because I do not observe quantities sold by stations, I cannot estimate a demand curve structurally. Instead, I use a reduced-form model to linearly approximate prices at retail gas stations:[11]

$$P_{it} = \rho_{ii} C_{it} + \sum_{j \neq i} \rho_{ij} C_{jt} + X_{it}^{'} \gamma + \lambda_i + \sigma_t + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{3}$$

[11]Miller, Osborne, and Sheu (2015) start with the same model in their context of fuel cost pass-through by cement plants.

In this formulation, P_{it} is the after-tax (but gross of sales tax) price of retail diesel at station i and week t, C_{it} is station-specific costs, and X_{it} is a vector of observable demand and supply shifters. λ_i and σ_t are station and week fixed effects, respectively, and ε_{it} is a pricing residual that captures unobservable demand and cost conditions.

The cost terms illustrate the fact that prices are a function of both a station's own costs and its rivals' costs. Thus, pass-through can be divided into two channels: own-cost pass-through and rival-cost pass-through. I do not observe the C_{it} fully, so I cannot estimate these two parameters separately.[12] However, because my focus is on state-wide taxes, I am primarily interested in the aggregation of own- and rival-cost pass-through - what is called "industry cost" pass-through in the literature. I therefore replace the C_{it} with Tax_{it}, which measures the state-wide retail diesel tax. This yields the following estimating equation, common to most reduced-form pass-through analyses in the literature:

$$P_{it} = \alpha + \beta Tax_{it} + \delta \mathbf{X}_{it} + \lambda_i + \sigma_t + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{4}$$

$\mathbf{X}_{it}$ includes the panel-varying competition indicators and demand-side characteristics summarized in Table 2: number of rival stations and own-firm proportion (both defined for a five-minute radius); and population density and average house prices per unit area (both defined for a municipality). The week fixed effects σ_t capture national shocks to supply and demand in each week – such as changes in the price of crude oil or national weather trends that affect preferences for driving. The station fixed effects λ_i, meanwhile, capture permanent characteristics of stations – such as a negotiated price of wholesale fuel stipulated in a long-term supply contract, or the average income of a station's consumer base.

Equation 4 only identifies an average causal impact of taxes on retail prices if tax hikes are uncorrelated with unobservable determinants of prices (the ε_{it}) after conditioning on the $\mathbf{X}_{it}$ and station and week fixed effects. This, however, is far from obvious *ex ante*. According to correspondence with the Ministry of Industry, Energy, and Tourism, the state-level taxes in question have been raised in order to collect more revenue. States with relatively greater need for revenue may have systematically

[12] It is possible that state borders could be leveraged to separate the two channels; a tax hike in one state affects a station in that state via the own-cost channel, while it affects a competitor across the border via the rival-cost channel.

different price trends from other states; this is one example of how pass-through estimation via the above equation could be invalidated. Moreover, even if treated states exhibit trends that are parallel to untreated ones, my analysis could be compromised if I do not account for potential anticipatory market responses to tax hikes. Coglianese et al. (2015) show that U.S. consumers adjust their consumption of gasoline upwards one month in advance of tax hikes and downwards in the first month of the new tax level. While they fail to find corresponding adjustments in retail prices, the fact remains that tax hikes are anticipated.

4.1 Event study

To explore the viability of Equation 4 in identification of pass-through, I first estimate an event study model of price trends in the vicinity of tax changes. Event study provides a sense of pre-existing pricing patterns in locations experiencing a tax change, as well as the timing of a market's response to such a tax change. Its purpose is thus diagnostic - I use it only to assess the potential for endogeneity and anticipation, not to quantify pass-through.

4.1.1 Model

A natural starting point for event study of diesel tax hikes in Spain is the following model:

$$P_{it} = \alpha + \sum_{j=a}^{b} \pi^j D_{it}^j + \delta \mathbf{X}_{it} + \lambda_i + \sigma_t + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{5}$$

This equation is identical to Equation 4 except that it parametrizes the role of taxes differently. Whereas before price was a function of taxes only in the current period, now price is allowed to move in advance of or in belated response to a change in taxes, through the set of terms D_{it}^j. The index j denotes a time period *relative* to the event of interest - a tax hike. D_{it}^j is thus a binary variable equalling one if an observation is both (a) in a state experiencing a tax hike and (b) j periods after (or before) that tax hike, where $j \in [a, b]$. Equation 5 is a conventional event study model, allowing prices to respond to an event flexibly over time. If prices respond either prematurely or with a lag relative to a tax hike, that response will be captured by the coefficients π^j.

Several implementation details should be noted. First, and as suggested earlier, I choose the station-week as my baseline observation. Taxes themselves vary only at the state level; however,

competition is a much more local phenomenon in retail automotive fuel markets. Meanwhile, the week level balances high resolution of analysis with computational tractability. Second, I choose $[a, b]$ to be equal to $[-12, 12]$, which is an observation window of 6 months, and omit the term $\pi^0 D^0_{it}$ so that the price impact in the week of the tax hike is normalized to zero. Third, I use all weeks from January 2007 through June 2013, regardless of their temporal proximity to tax hikes; this helps pin down my time fixed effects but necessitates the creation and inclusion of two dummy variables: one for an observation being from a period $j < -12$, and one for an observation being from a period $j > 12$. Fourth, I use all states, regardless of whether they are "treated" (with a tax hike) or "untreated".[13] Fifth, and finally, I cluster standard errors at the state level.

4.1.2 Findings

Figure 6 graphically depicts the results of the event study estimation of Equation 5. Each plotted y-value is the average value of $\left(\frac{\pi^j D^j_{it}}{EventSize^j_{it}}\right)$, which is the price predicted in a location i that has been (or is going to be) subject to a tax hike in period $t + j$. The y-value in week 0 is normalized to zero, so every other plotted point represents the predicted price relative to that initial week of the tax hike.

If there were observable trends or movements in the predicted price *before* tax changes take effect, these would raise concerns about the exogeneity of the tax changes. That is not the case here. Figure 6 exhibits extremely flat trends in prices both before and after the tax event. The only time period with any slope at all is a three-week period surrounding the tax event. Most of the price jump occurs in week 0 itself - right when the tax changes; however, there are rises in the week prior and the week after as well. I interpret these movements as evidence that the market anticipates tax hikes by one week and takes one additional week after the hike itself to fully re-equilibrate.

The evidence strongly suggests that the retail price response to a tax hike is a mean shift. This observation, in turn, motivates a fixed effects regression model to identify the actual pass-through rate. Of course, Figure 6 does strongly hint at what this rate is: a comparison of the plotted price levels before the event with price levels after the event suggests a gap of at least 0.9 – i.e., average retail price rises 0.9 c/L for every 1 c/L of a tax hike – which translates directly to a pass-through rate of at least 90%. This estimate, as well as the pre- and post-trends estimated, is robust to a variety of specifications. The results hold for alternative event study models;[14] they hold at several different

[13] Estimation is also possible using *only* treated states, but this requires an additional parametric assumption (see McCrary 2007).

[14] Equation 5 is, to my knowledge, consistent with all other published event studies in the economics literature, in that it parameterizes the event of interest as a dummy variable. This is equivalent to modeling only the extensive margin

levels of observation;[15] and they hold with sample restrictions that exclude observations from outside of the six-month window of a local tax hike.

4.2 Difference-in-Difference Regression

Armed with the evidence provided by event study, I now return to Equation 4, reprinted below:

$$P_{it} = \alpha + \beta Tax_{it} + \delta \mathbf{X}_{it} + \lambda_i + \sigma_t + \varepsilon_{it}$$

Equation 4 identifies the average overall pass-through rate of diesel taxes in Spain. Single differences across time and across locations are captured by the corresponding fixed effects; the coefficient β then captures the difference-in-difference impact of a tax change. In estimating this equation, I make the exact same implementation choices as described above in Section 4.1 for the event study.

4.2.1 Results

Table 3 displays the results of estimating Equation 4. Column 1 reflects the most sparse specification, in which prices are regressed on taxes and fixed effects only ($\mathbf{X_{it}}$ is empty); average pass-through here amounts to approximately 95%. Column 2 adds controls for my two local competition indicators, while column 3 adds the two panel-varying demand shifters – population density and house prices. Columns 4 through 6 test the robustness to three different adjustments: the addition of state-year fixed effects, the use of first (i.e., one-week) differences instead of fixed effects, and the inclusion of rural-station observations, respectively.

The estimated average pass-through rate is very robust to the specification adjustments in columns 2 through 6: the minimum estimate is 93.9% and the maximum is 95.2%. Importantly, none of these point estimates is statistically different from 100% at conventional (5%) significance levels. These results are very much in line with existing estimates of average pass-through; Chouinard and Perloff (2004), Alm, Sennoga, and Skidmore (2009), and Marion and Muehlegger (2011) all fail to reject the null hypothesis that state-level automotive fuel tax pass-through is fully 100%. The evidence in Table 3 thus corroborates the pattern of high pass-through in the existing literature.

of the event. As a robustness check, I also estimate a model that captures the intensive margin, through a set of terms $\sum_{j=a}^{b} \left(\theta^j D_{it}^j * EventSize_{it}^j \right)$, as well as a model that captures both margins.

[15] I run event study regressions at the cross-sectional levels of station, municipality, and state, as well as the temporal units of week and month.

5 Local Pass-Through

Having estimated the magnitude of average pass-through, I now investigate how applicable that average rate is to individual stations and communities. Is there even a reason to believe that pass-through varies at a local level? The mathematical and graphical examples of section **??** (and the derivations of Appendix A) imply that there is, but the empirical literatures on both pass-through and welfare impacts of energy taxes abstract away from the possibility. To assess the extent of heterogeneity in pass-through across stations of different types, I return to Equations 4 and 5 and add interaction terms between the key tax variable(s) and my indicators of local competition and preferences. As in Section 4, I begin with an event study.

5.1 Event study

I augment Equation 5 by creating interaction terms between the event study variables and the competition indicators in $\mathbf{X}_{it}$. Adding these terms, either separately or simultaneously, yields the following event study model:

$$P_{it} = \alpha + \sum_{j=a}^{b} \pi_0^j D_{it}^j + \delta \mathbf{X}_{it} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \left[\sum_{j=a}^{b} \left(\pi_k^j D_{it}^j * X_{it}^k \right) \right] + \lambda_i + \sigma_t + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{6}$$

where k indexes the K variables in $\mathbf{X}_{it}$. The coefficient π_0^j predicts the price response at relative period j in the omitted group. The coefficient π_k^j, meanwhile, predicts the *differential* price response in period j given a one-unit increase in variable X_{it}^k.

I estimate Equation 6 using the exact same implementation choices as described in Section 4.1. For conciseness, I limit my main graphical analysis to two primary indicators: the weighted count of nearby rivals, and the own-firm proportion variable. The former measures market power through spatial isolation, while the latter measures market power through ownership concentration. Figure 7 plots the same predicted price responses to taxes as Figure 6, except that trends are shown separately for stations with different values of the two competition variables. I provide event-study results for other supply- and demand-side characteristics in Appendix A.2.

To calculate the data points in Figure 7, I compute the value of $\frac{\pi_0^j D_{it}^j + \pi_k^j D_{it}^j X_{it}^k}{EventSize_{it}^j}$ given $X_{it}^k = 0$ and $X_{it}^k = 1$, for each station-week observation. From these predictions, I calculate mean values in each relative week j and plot them against j. The solid line denotes price trends given $X_{it}^k = 0$, while

the dashed line pertains to $X_{it}^k = 1$. A comparison of these two lines tests whether a gas station's temporal response to taxes varies with its local competitive environment.

Figure 7 shows that pre- and post-trends are flat. Stations of different types do not seem to respond differentially over time to tax hikes. Rather, both panels show two trends moving in striking parallel. Figure 7 does not, on its own, prove the exogeneity of brand and location, as these may still be cross-sectionally correlated with unobserved determinants of pass-through. However, it is clear that the mean shift categorization of average pass-through in Figure 7 holds across different competitive environments. I therefore deem a fixed-effects specification suitable for quantifying the difference in pass-through rates predicted by competition indicators.

The plotted trends do, however, provide early indication of a relationship between pass-through and local competition. The gap between trends at a station with no rivals and a station with weighted rival count equal to one narrows. Meanwhile, the gap between the zero-concentration trend and the effective-monopoly trend widens immediately after tax hikes. Both trends suggest a positive relationship between market power and pass-through; I use fixed effects to quantify that relationship.

5.2 Difference-in-Difference Regression

5.2.1 Model and threats to identification

I modify Equation 4 to capture heterogeneity in pass-through:

$$P_{it} = \alpha + \beta Tax_{it} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \left(\gamma_k Tax_{it} * X_{it}^k \right) + \delta \mathbf{X}_{it} + \lambda_i + \sigma_t + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{7}$$

The γ_k provide an estimate of the association between pass-through and a one-unit increase in X_{it}^k. However, interacting Tax_{it} with X_{it}^k introduces significant risk of endogeneity. Consider branding and location. These characteristics are not randomly assigned in space; rather, the choice of where to locate a gas station and what brand to sell is likely made by considering potential profits and thus local demand and supply characteristics, some of which are unobservable. Station fixed effects control for the average effect of omitted variables on prices but not on *pass-through*. If would-be station owners choose spatial and branding characteristics based on local wealth or, more generally, local preferences for diesel, then I run the risk of conflating the effect of competition with those preferences.

In the case of station location, correlation with unobservable determinants of demand would most likely bias estimates of γ_k in Equation 7 upwards. This is because station owners presumably prefer, all else equal, to locate in areas with more inelastic demand, which itself drives pass-through upwards. The prediction for endogenous brand (and contract) choice is less clear, as it depends on the strategy of each specific brand. If, for example, a certain brand likes to concentrate in areas with more inelastic demand, then parameter estimates corresponding to that brand's concentration may be biased upwards. However, if *all* brands would like to locate in these areas, then it is not clear which precise branding pattern emerges, and the potential bias is difficult to sign.

The demand attributes faced by specific stations are inherently difficult to measure, especially because consumers sort into stations based on commuting patterns and willingness to price-shop. However, controlling for group-average observables has the potential to absorb much of the selection of my competition "treatments" on unobservables (Altonji and Mansfield 2015). I therefore compare results of estimation of Equation 7 using just competition interactions versus additionally including interactions with my observable proxies of demand: population density, house prices, and education levels. House prices act as a city-level proxy for wealth; robustness to their inclusion would suggest my competition results are not being driven by the average wealth of a station's municipality. Similarly, insofar as population density is a proxy for infrastructure investments like public transit, robustness to the inclusion of an interaction between it and the tax would suggest that my results are not driven by certain stations locating in areas with fewer transportation alternatives. Finally, interactions between the tax and indicators of educational attainment allow a robustness test using a very different level of variation – the educational indicators that I use are cross-sectional (from 2011), but they are also disaggregated to the 1-km^2 geographic level. Thus, if stations choose brands and/or locations based on the preferences of the population living in the immediate vicinity, then I can control for the part of those preferences that is correlated with education. More generally, my underlying logic is that, even if house prices, population density, and education do not fully absorb selection on unobservables, they remain useful as a guide to the degree to which remaining selection might affect my estimates (Altonji, Elder, and Taber 2005). If one assumes that the effect of *un*observable aspects of demand is bounded above by the effect of observable aspects, then the change in point estimates brought about by inclusion of observables is equal to that upper bound.

5.2.2 Results

Table 4 provides point estimates on each interaction of interest separately. In column 1, branding is the characteristic in focus; in column 2, it is the number and proximity of rival stations; in column 3, it is the proportion of nearby stations under the same ownership as the reference station; and in column 4, it is the average house price of a municipality.

Each indicator (except for the wholesaler-brand dummy) is a statistically significant predictor of pass-through when examined separately. All are significant at the 5% level, while three of the four are significant at the 1% level. The refiner-brand point estimate has the following interpretation: switching from being unbranded to bearing the brand of a refiner is associated, on average, with a rise in pass-through of 13.8 percentage points. Meanwhile, pass-through *drops* an average of 11.7 percentage points per each one-unit increase in weighted rival count. Since the latter variable runs from 0 to ~ 2 in the data, the implication is that concentrated spatial competition can potentially reduce pass-through by as much as ~ 23.4 percentage points. Concentrated ownership also is associated with higher pass-through: a local monopoly (own-firm proportion=1) is associated with a pass-through rate 17 percentage points higher than a station with negligible concentration (own-firm proportion$\rightarrow$0). Finally, a one-unit rise in average house prices predicts a 22 percentage-point rise in pass-through.

The column 1 result suggests that something about refiner brands – whether it is market power generated by brand loyalty, the degree of vertical integration, or some other factor – drives pass-through upwards. Columns 2 and 3 indicate possible effects of market power through spatial isolation (column 2) and ownership concentration (column 3). Column 4 shows that areas with higher property values are, for one reason or another, places with larger price impacts of taxation. These coefficients are strong motivation for continued study of local pass-through patterns, but they are also estimated in isolation. For simultaneous estimation, I move on to Table 5.

Column 1 of Table 5 shows the results of simultaneous estimation of three competition variables in 5. Each coefficient is reduced in magnitude to some degree, but all remain statistically significant. In particular, the refiner-brand indicator and the rival count variable retain their statistical significance at the 1% level and imply predictive effects of over 10 percentage points on pass-through for a one-unit change in their values. The coefficient on own-firm proportion, meanwhile, drops from 0.17 to 0.11 but is still significant at the 5% level.

Columns 2 through 4 successively add other observable indicators of both the supply side and

the demand side. Column 2 includes interaction terms between the tax and four station amenities: carwash services, tire and fluid services, convenience store, and cafeteria. The inclusion of these variables shows whether the results for my primary competition indicators are driven by differences in the services provided by each station. The point estimates in column 2 suggest that this is not the case; conditional on the effect of station amenities, pass-through is still strongly associated with a gas station's brand, its spatial isolation, and the extent of shared ownership in its vicinity. The same can be said after including indicators of local refiner-brand and wholesaler-brand proportions and a Herfindahl Hirschman Index, as is done in column 3. The addition of these variables is motivated by the significance of the own-brand market power measures; if, e.g., one's own connection to a refiner brand is important, then perhaps the connection of other nearby stations is also important. In that case, the coefficient on own-firm proportion could be driven not by shared ownership generally but by the intensity of refiner-brand activity specifically. Column 3 suggests that even conditional on local refiner-brand proportion, own-firm proportion remains statistically significant.

Column 4, however, is the truest test of the robustness of my measured competition effects. In this column I include interactions between the tax and my three demand-side characteristics: average house prices, population density, and educational attainment. These are, of course, mere proxies for the wealth, consumption base, and public transit infrastructure that more directly affect demand; I am unable to completely control for the effect of the demand side on pass-through. Robustness of my competition results to the inclusion of these demand shifters is therefore not a sufficient condition for a causal interpretation. However, it *is* a necessary condition. Furthermore, the degree to which my point estimates and their significance drop in response to the new demand-side variables provides a guide to the remaining bias due to omitted variables.

Observable characteristics of local consumers do not, according to column 4, affect the size or significance of competition effects in a meaningful way. The coefficients on refiner brand and rival count drop approximately two percentage points but still imply economically significant 9-9.5 percentage-point impacts in pass-through per unit change. The coefficient on own-firm proportion actually rises in significance, from the 10% level to the 5% level. The fact that refiner brand, rival count, and own-firm proportion move only minimally while retaining high economic and statistical significance suggests that the effect of unobservable market conditions would have to be a good deal larger than the effect of observable ones in order to negate such significance. The evidence supporting a causal impact of local competition is therefore strong.

In the case of refiner branding, it is difficult to explain the precise mechanism of the pass-through impact. Two possible explanations are that customers have brand loyalty that creates market power for larger brands (60% of Spanish stations are refiner-branded), and that vertical integration by a retail gas station and an upstream refiner changes either the cost structure or the retail pricing strategy employed. In the case of own-firm proportion and rival-station count, the identified impacts are most easily explained by traditional market power stories. A firm owning multiple stations in the same area may have a stronger incentive to raise prices in response to a cost shock, because the sales lost from these price hikes at any one of its stations will partially be recouped by its other stations. Meanwhile, a lack of spatial competition may have a similar incentive effect, because consumers have fewer options for switching away from their usual station when its prices rise. Through both both of these channels – branding patterns and spatial isolation – market power thus appears to raise pass-through.

Two further specifications, whose results are shown in columns 5 and 6 of Table 5, provide additional robustness checks. Column 5 displays results of estimation with state-year fixed effects. All three key competition indicators remain significant, though their relative importance changes slightly – the own-firm proportion coefficient becomes significant at the 1% level, while the rival-count coefficient drops in magnitude to a 5.4 percentage-point effect and is significant at only the 5% level. Column 6, in contrast, uses the whole of Spain in estimation. To run this regression, I must omit two of my demand shifters (house prices and education levels), but the results are nonetheless informative. The three key competition indicators remain statistically significant, while, as suggested in Section 3, the point estimates on variables corresponding to gas stations' surroundings are much noisier. Interestingly, *all* of the competition indicators examined in this table are significant when the full national panel is used.

Lastly, but not least importantly, the interaction between the diesel tax and municipal-average house prices is very significant, both economically and statistically, according to my preferred specification in column 4. A one-unit change in the house-price variable corresponds to a 1,000 Euro/m^{2}rise, in a measure whose standard deviation is 640 Euro/m^2 (as shown in Table 2). This one-unit change is associated with a 19.5 percentage-point increase in pass-through which is statistically significant at the 1% level. I do not make any claim on causality here; many things are correlated with house prices. However, insofar as house prices are a proxy for lifetime wealth, my result has significant implications for the joint distribution of wealth and the price impacts of taxation. I return

to this idea in detail in Section 6.

5.3 The empirical distribution of pass-through

Regardless of whether the effects identified in Table 5 have a causal interpretation, they provide strong evidence that pass-through is heterogeneous. Ultimately, the point of this research is to show that pass-through varies from location to location; distributional analyses that assume away this heterogeneity run the risk of yielding inaccurate results. How significant could this innacuracy be? To begin answering this question, I use my estimated coefficients to calculate station-specific pass-through rates and graph them to explore their overall distribution.

I calculate station-specific price impacts as the linear combination of the predictive effects of all tax terms – $\beta Tax_{it} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \left(\gamma_k Tax_{it} * X_{it}^k \right)$ in Equation 7 above. I divide this value by Tax_{it} to yield an estimate of pass-through $\frac{dp_{it}}{dt_{st}}$ for each station i in week t. In Figure 8, I plot these rates on the last day of observation for each station, using a kernel density estimator. Not surprisingly, the central tendency is 91% pass-through. However, the full range of observed pass-through rates ranges from 50% to 150%. 95% of these rates fall between 72% and 115%.

It is natural to ask how much of the pass-through distribution's spread is due simply to noise. To answer this question, I calculate the empirical variance of the pass-through rates used in Figure 8 and subtract off an estimate of noise. To estimate noise, I compute the standard error of each station's pass-through estimate, square it, and take the average across all stations. As the top-right corner of Figure 8 indicates, removing noise drops the standard deviation of the station pass-through rate from a raw value of 13.2 to an adjusted value of 12.3. That change corresponds to a contraction in the 95% confidence range of about 4 percentage points[16].

Pass-through patterns provide indirect insight into the nature of demand for automotive fuel. 24% of retail gas stations pass-through more than 100% of taxes to end consumers; this fact is inconsistent with both perfect competition and linear demand, both of which are common assumptions in the energy tax incidence literature. The most plausible explanation for rates above 100% is a setting of imperfect competition and sufficiently convex demand (like the isoelastic demand curve plotted in Figure 1). Other possible explanations – such as a lack of salience of taxes that drives consumers to under-respond to tax movement (Chetty, Looney, and Kroft 2009) – are less likely to be relevant, given the tax-inclusive nature of posted prices.

[16]While there is additional noise coming from the explanatory variables themselves, it is more than counteracted by attenuation of the estimates due to measurement error.

In sum, both local preferences and competition levels appear to play a significant role in determining rates of energy tax pass-through in the Spanish diesel market. The analysis suggests that, from station to station and from market to market, there can exist extremely large differences in the size of the consumer tax burden. In the next section, I explore what this means for policy design and assessment.

6 Pass-Through and the Wealth Distribution

How does pass-through heterogeneity affect who ultimately bears the burden of automotive fuel taxes? The *average* pass-through rate is most commonly used to provide insight into the consumer-producer breakdown of the tax burden, but *station-specific* rates allow me to compare burdens across different consumer groups. I focus on wealth, since regressive incidence across the wealth distribution is one of the most oft-cited properties of energy taxes.

The consensus finding in the energy tax incidence literature (described above in Section **??**) is that such taxes are regressive. This is generally due to the fact that poorer houesholds are observed to spend a greater portion of their wealth on energy, at least in the U.S. However, several factors that mitigate this regressivity have been identified. First of all, regressivity estimates are sensitive to the specification of wealth; Poterba (1991) shows that annual expenditure is a better proxy for lifetime wealth than annual income, and that using the former leads to smaller magnitudes of regressivity in the U.S. gasoline tax. Second of all, the poorest households often do not own energy capital such as automobiles; including these households in analysis can vastly reduce regressivity (Fullerton and West 2003), especially in the developing country context (Blackman, Osakwe, and Alpizar 2009). Third of all, the demand response to taxes is unlikely to be static across the wealth distribution; West (2004) and West and Williams (2004) estimate that the gasoline demand elasticity drops (in absolute magnitude) as income rises in the U.S., which makes consumer surplus impacts less regressive than when demand response is assumed to be homogeneous.

One of the primary contributions of this paper is to add a fourth-mitigating factor: pass-through heterogeneity. Just like the demand elasticity – indeed, *because* of the demand elasticity – pass-through need not be static across the wealth spectrum. In fact, pass-through heterogeneity is likely to have a much greater effect on tax incidence than corresponding heterogeneity in demand elasticity, because the welfare lost due to higher prices on maintained consumption probably dwarfs the welfare lost

from consumption foregone. In my own context, I find economically significant variation in pass-through rates across the house-price distribution. Pass-through rises in municipal wealth, and this, in turn, should make the retail diesel tax relatively less regressive (or more *pro*gressive).

Return to Figure 1 to see the direct consumer surplus impacts of a tax hike shaded in gray. I do not estimate the demand curve itself, so I am unable to calculate the deadweight loss triangle component. However, pass-through provides traction for estimation of the rectangular component, which is the welfare lost from consumption maintained in the face of the tax hike. For small changes, this rectangle is mathematically the first-order approximation of consumer surplus impacts. Given low elasticities of demand for retail energy, it is also likely the larger of the two welfare components[17]. Pass-through measures the height of the rectangle, so combining it with a measure of the width (i.e., consumption) allows for calculation of the rectangle's area – $\frac{dp}{dt}Q_1$.

In distributional welfare analysis, the goal is compare the size of consumer surplus impacts across, e.g., the wealth spectrum. In the absence of a demand curve, the most common method of assessing regressivity is a comparison of $\frac{\frac{dp}{dt}Q_1}{W}$ across quantiles of wealth W. Dividing by W converts consumer surplus changes to proportions of total wealth. Examples of this in the context of automotive fuel taxation are Poterba (1991) and Fullerton and West (2003). The Treasury Department's Office of Tax Analysis does the same for its own estimates of tax burdens (Fullerton and Metcalf 2002).

If $\frac{\frac{dp}{dt}Q_1}{W}$ rises with wealth decile, then tax t is progressive; if it falls, then t is regressive. In practice, the latter is almost always true, at least for some portion of the wealth distribution. However, implementation of the exercise has, to date, relied on an assumption of full, uniform pass-through – i.e., $\frac{dp}{dt}$ is identically 1 and does not vary with wealth. The expression then collapses to $\frac{Q_1}{W}$, which accurately captures tax *revenues* per unit consumption but is only proportion to tax burden if pass-through is uniform[18]. This is precisely the opposite of what I find empirically in Spain's retail diesel market.

To show the effect of systematic variation in pass-through with wealth, I carry out the incidence calculation both with and without the assumption of uniform pass-through, using data from the 2013 Spanish Household Budget Survey (Encuesta de Presupuestos Familiars (EPF)). I divide households' fuel consumption Q (in liters) by their overall expenditure E – a smoother proxy for wealth than

[17]Equivalently, it is likely that the first 'cost' on a car owner's mind when a tax is raised is the extra cost paid for all the gasoline that he/she will continue to purchase, rather than the utility lost from reducing purchases.

[18]Moreover, data limitations mean that implementation usually relies on expenditure of energy rather than consumption. fuel expenditure is only proportional to fuel *consumption* if prices are the same for all households, so the calculation relies on an unrealistic assumption of uniform pricing.

income (Poterba 1991) – and collapse these values into averages within each decile of overall expenditure. As is, these average values of $\frac{Q}{E}$ can be interpreted as estimates of the government revenues generated by households per unit tax hike, as a proportion of their overall wealth.

I then replicate the calculation while relaxing the assumption of uniform pass-through. This, of course, requires estimates of pass-through corresponding to wealth, of the form

$$\tau = \alpha + \beta Q_E + \varepsilon \tag{8}$$

where τ is pass-through and Q_E is a quantile (decile) of household expenditure. I do not jointly observe (τ, Q_E). Instead, I observe (τ, Q_{HP}), where Q_{HP} is the average house-price decile. The two proxies for wealth are related as follows:

$$Q_E = a + bQ_{HP} + e \tag{9}$$

I estimate pass-through as a function of house prices rather than expenditure, which is equivalent to substitution of Equation 9 into Equation 8. This yields

$$\tau = \alpha + a\beta + \beta b Q_{HP} + \varepsilon + \beta e \tag{10}$$

The coefficient on Q_{HP} underestimate the magnitude of the the rise in pass-through with wealth to the extent that $b < 1$, as would occur due to measurement error.

However, Q_{HP} is unlikely to be a valid instrument for Q_E, because house prices are additionally correlated with pass-through for unobserved reasons that have little do with income. For instance, some poorer people live in richer neighborhoods, and vice versa. The extent to which poorer individuals are forced to buy automotive fuel in richer areas is likely mitigated to some degree by sorting: some consumers like to price shop, and applications like Gas Buddy in the U.S. and Spain's own *Geoportal* target precisely those consumers. Moreover, demand estimation in the industrial organization literature nearly always finds a lower disutility of price among richer individuals (again, see Houde 2012 for an example). Still, βb may be overestimated on net due to incomplete sorting.

I nonetheless proceed with the exercise, to illustrate how large variation in local pass-through

rates can translate to welfare impacts. The regression analog of Equation 10 is below:

$$P_{it} = \alpha + \beta_1 Tax_{it} + \sum_{D=2}^{10} (\beta_D Tax_{it} * 1[HPDecile = D]_{it}) + \delta \mathbf{X}_{it} + \lambda_i + \sigma_t + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{11}$$

The coefficients β_1 and β_D provide estimated pass-through rates corresponding to each decile of the house price distribution. These rates are then used to compute $\frac{\frac{dp}{dt}Q}{E}$ at different expenditure deciles.

Figure 9 plots the proportional tax burdens with and without the pass-through adjustment. Interestingly, when pass-through is assumed full and uniform (solid line), households appear to have roughly equal fuel tax burdens as a proportion of their full budget (i.e., equal fuel-tax rates). Incidence is neither regressive nor progressive in this formulation of the exercise. This pattern runs counter to the belief that poorer households spend more of their budget on fuel than richer ones, which would yield a downward-sloping graph in Figure 9. Understanding the flat trend with respect to Spanish automotive fuel consumption is thus a subject for further research; however, the main point of Figure 9 is the effect of heterogeneous pass-through relative to this flat baseline. When pass-through heterogeneity is explicitly accounted for in analysis (dashed line), higher-expenditure households appear to have much higher effective fuel-tax rates. Incidence now looks strongly progressive.

While the magnitude of the pass-through effect on progressivity is large, it should not be surprising. Pass-through is inherently related to demand elasticity, so the pass-through/wealth relationship is inseparable from the demand elasticity/wealth relationship. Some have argued that richer people are more sensitive to fuel prices than poorer ones (Keyser 2000; Hughes, Knittel, Sperling 2008), because, for example, the rich have more "discretionary" uses of automotive fuel. A large body of research in the structural industrial organization literature, however, suggests that disutility of prices falls in income (e.g., Houde 2012), which implies *less* price sensitivity among the rich. Furthermore, the effect of variable demand elasticities is the focal point of research by West (2004) and by West and Williams (2004); they estimate that demand for gasoline is more inelastic in richer areas. My findings are consistent with this result; a question for future research is, does pass-through rise in wealth for taxes on other goods, in other markets and countries?

7 Conclusion

In this paper, I have leveraged highly detailed data from the Spanish retail automotive fuel market to investigate the price impacts of energy taxes. My primary tool for this investigation has been pass-through – the degree to which taxes physically imposed on retail gas stations are passed through to final consumers. While there are dozens of published studies of energy tax pass-through, my research uniquely focuses on competition and local preferences as determinants of the pass-through parameter. I estimate station-specific pass-through rates, which I find to vary widely around a central tendency of 90-95%, from at least 70 to 115%. On the competition side, pass-through rises significantly when a station bears the brand of a vertically-integrated refiner, when it is spatially isolated, and when it shares an owner with other stations in its vicinity. On the demand side, pass-through rises steeply with municipal-average house prices, which are a good proxy for lifetime wealth.

These results have major implications for the distributional impacts of the diesel tax in question and energy taxes more generally. Because pass-through measures the extra cost that a consumer must pay for his or her automotive fuel, per unit tax, it has great power to describe the welfare impacts of taxation. Heterogeneous pass-through, unaccounted for, will always lead to mistaken estimates (and forecasts) of these welfare impacts at a local geographic level. Since pass-through is positively correlated with wealth in Spain, ignoring pass-through heterogeneity in this context will produce estimates that are not just mistaken, but also biased. I illustrate this by estimating marginal tax burdens by the average household in each decile of the wealth distribution, both with and without an assumption of uniform pass-through. What looks like a policy with roughly flat incidence across the wealth distribution becomes a strongly progressive policy when my empirically estimated pass-through rates are factored into the calculation.

An accurate picture of the distributional impacts of energy taxes is important because of widespread reliance on these taxes across the world and the potential for even more. For instance, a recent drop in retail gasoline prices in the U.S. has precipitated calls for both a higher federal gas tax (Washington Post 2015a) and the establishment of a federal carbon tax (Washington Post 2015b). The realization of these policy recommendations hinges on their political feasibility, which is in part a function of distributional equity. Moreover, regardless of whether such policy changes are absolutely progressive or regressive, it is vital to know who bears what burden so that redistribution can accurately target those who are most adversely affected.

My analysis of pass-through has implications not just for distributional equity, but also for

economic efficiency. The evidence strongly suggests that competition in such markets is highly imperfect. Thus, the traditional notion of optimal Pigouvian tax levels being equal to the social marginal cost of the relevant externalities no longer holds. The fact of market power in markets for retail automotive fuel implies that prices are already above private marginal costs, so the optimal Pigouvian tax is now lower than the social marginal cost of consumption.

Pass-through thus has great potential as a tool of economic analysis. While a full estimation of demand and supply curves would obviate the need to focus on pass-through, the data and computational challenges of such estimation make reduced-form pass-through analysis a worthwhile endeavor. Its accurate estimation, especially at a local level, facilitates a greater understanding of optimality, distributional equity, and the way in which firms compete.

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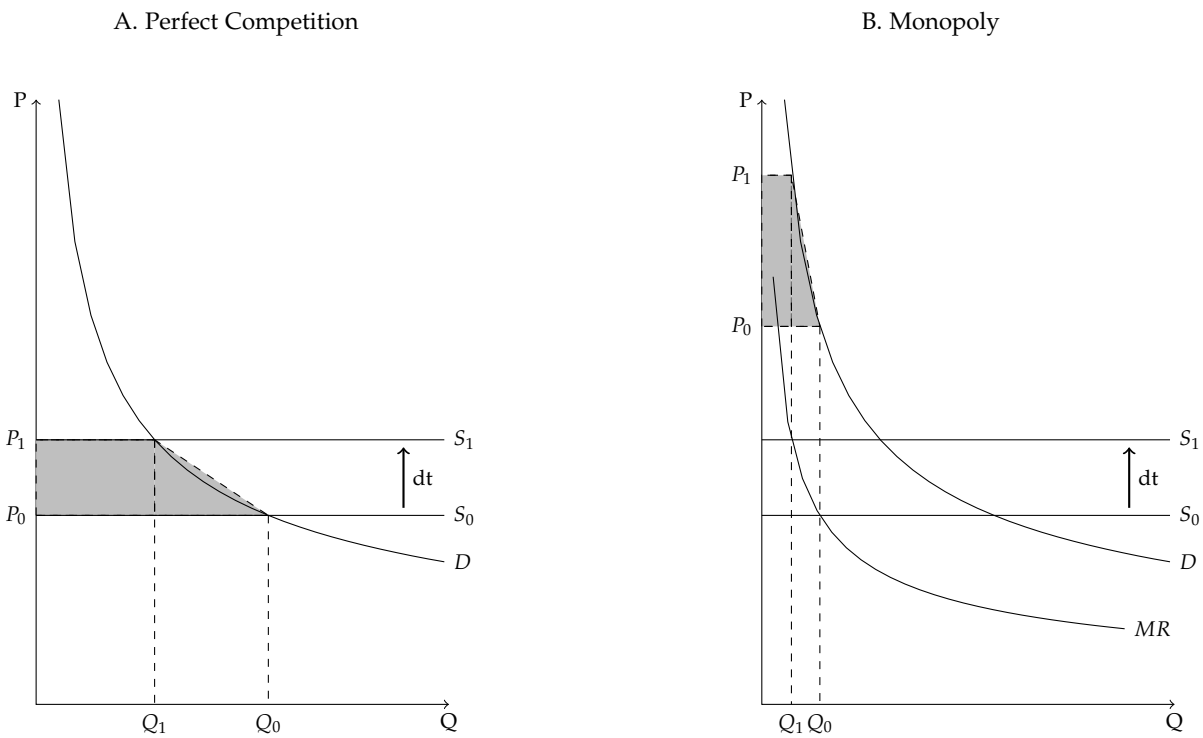
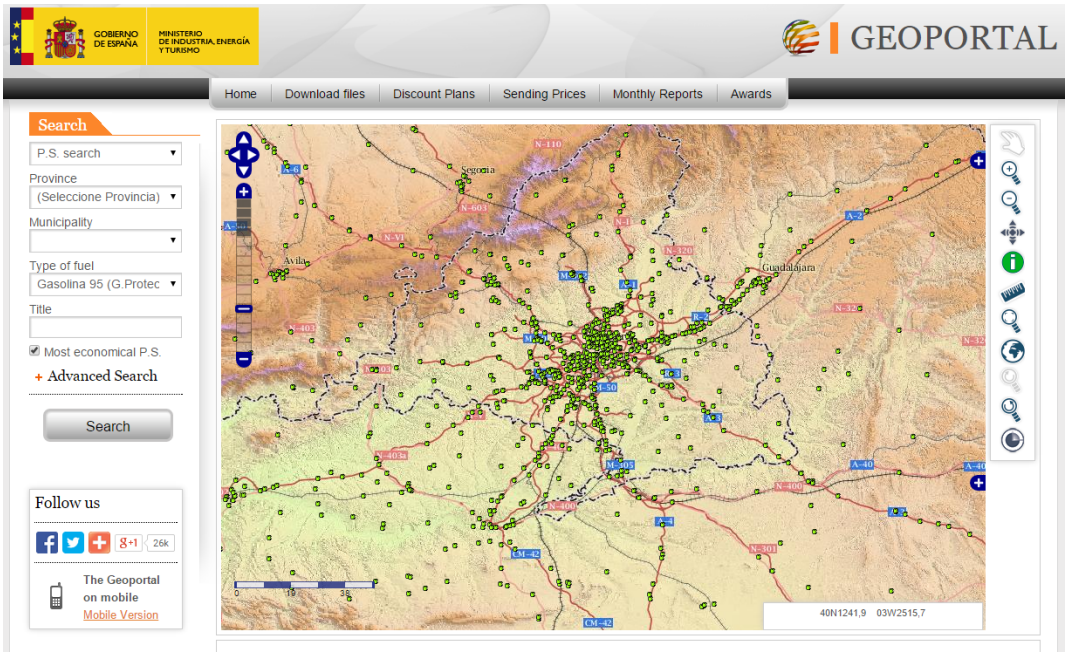
Figure 1: *Pass-Through with Isoelastic Demand*



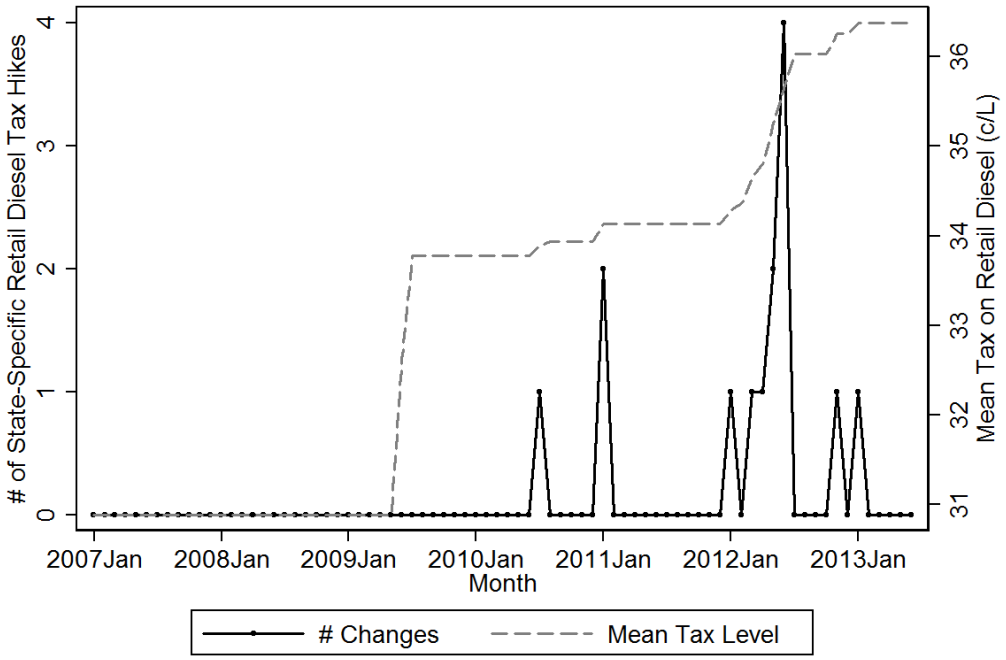
Notes: The two figures show equilibrium prices and quantities given isoelastic demand curve D and constant marginal cost curve S_0 or S_1. The subscripts 0 and 1 denote pre- and post-tax cost curves, respectively. Panel A assumes perfect competition, while Panel B assumes monopoly The shaded areas are the corresponding losses of consumer surplus due to the tax hike dt.

Figure 2: *Screenshot of* Geoportal



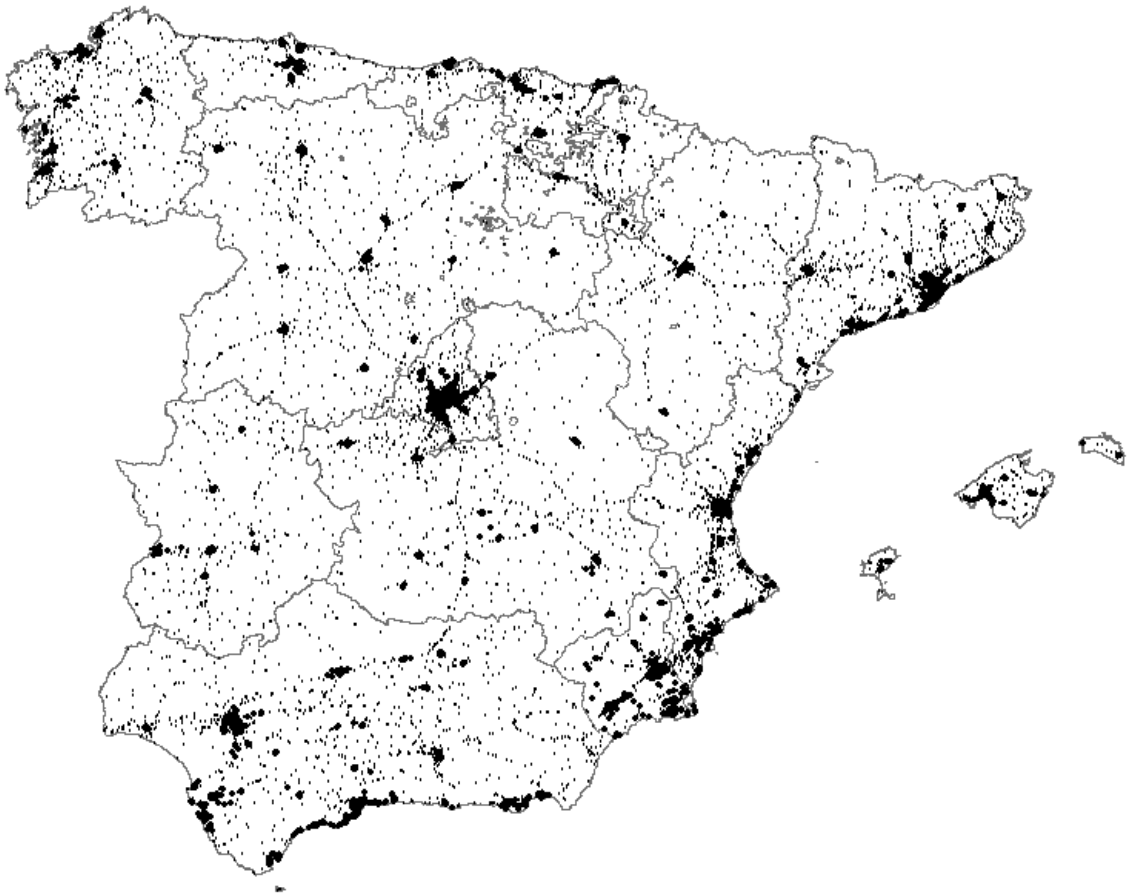
Notes: Green dots are Spanish retail diesel stations. The screenshot shows the Madrid metro area. Source: <http://geoportalgasolineras.es/>, accessed on February 15th, 2015.

Figure 3: *Tax Variation*



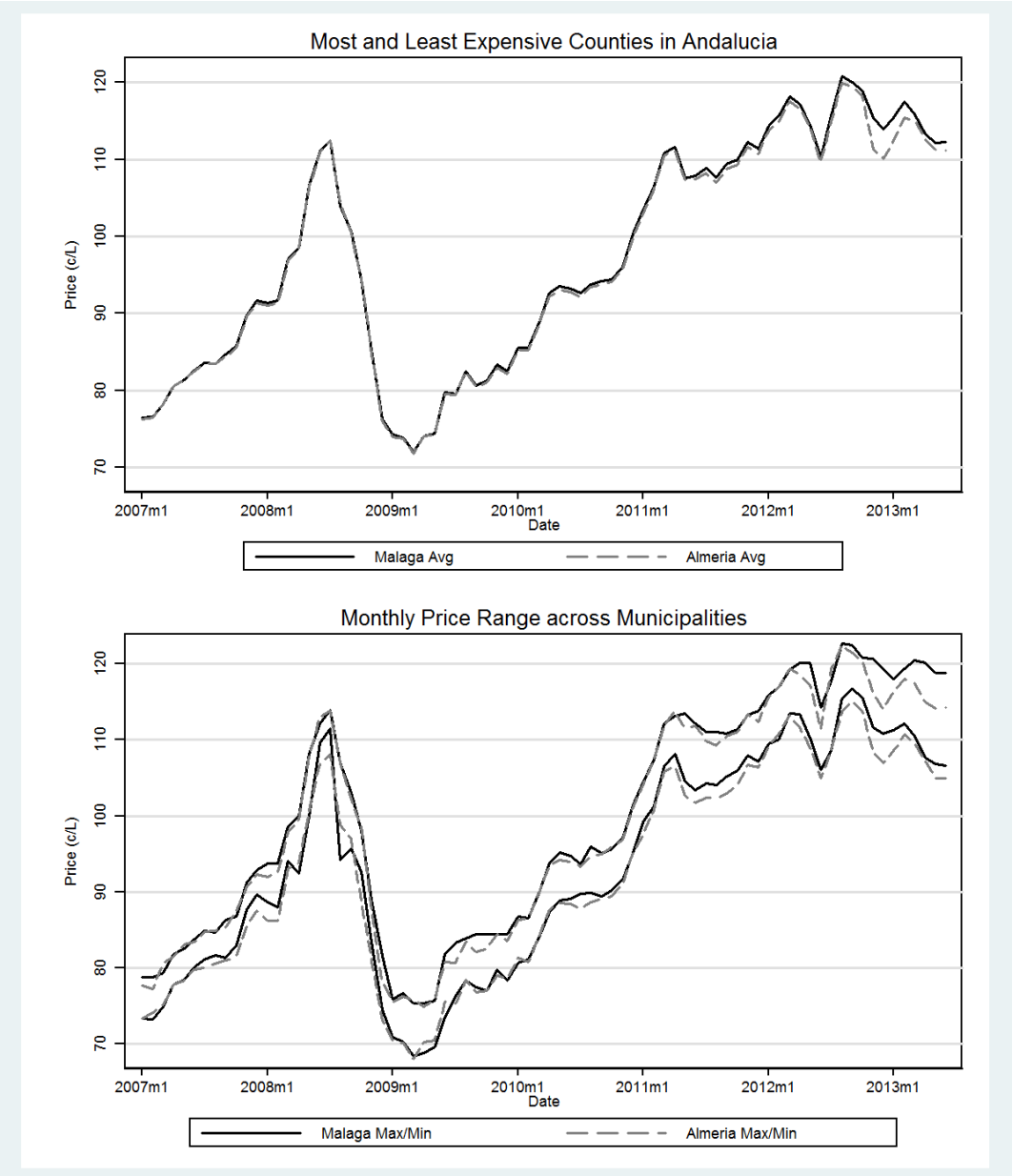
Note: The solid line plots state-specific tax hikes. The dashed line plots the national mean tax level; it rises discretely in June 2009 because the *national* component of the diesel tax rises in that month.
Source: Author's calculation using data from the Spanish Ministry of Industry, Energy, and Tourism

Figure 4: *Geography of Full and Restricted Samples*



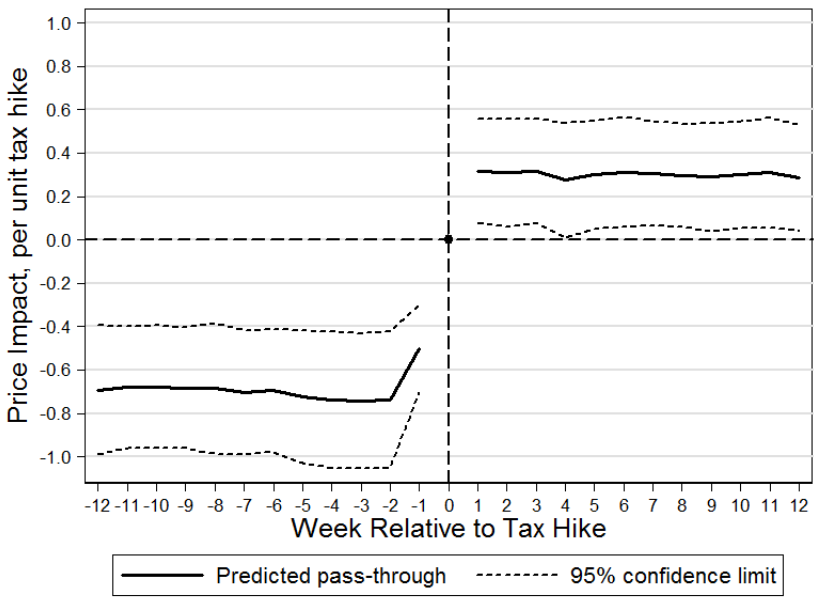
Notes: All dots are Spanish retail gasoline stations. Large dots indicate the 2,553 stations included in my main analysis sample; small dots denote the remaining 7,358 stations used only in robustness checks. The analysis sample is chosen based on the availability of demand-side characteristics (population, house prices, and education levels).
Source: Author's calculation, using data from the Ministries of Industry, Energy and Tourism (stations) and Public Works (house prices).

Figure 5: *Price Variation Across and Within Counties*



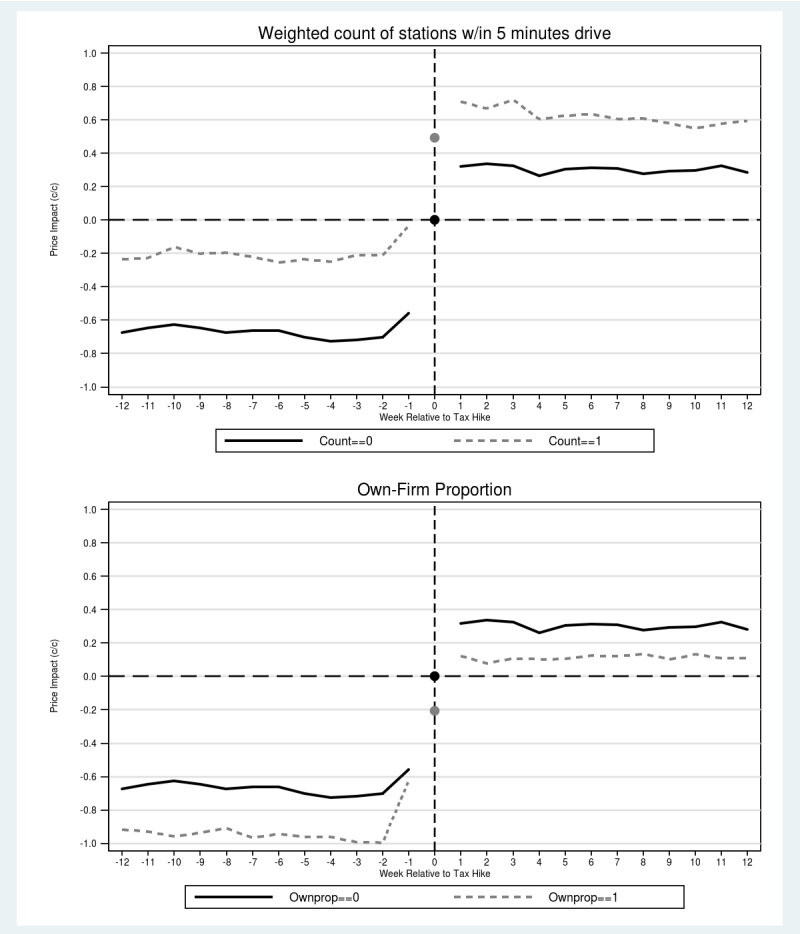
Notes: The figure displays price trends calculated only with data from the state of Andalucia. Malaga and Almeria counties are the focus in both graphs because they are the counties with the (on average) cheapest and priciest diesel in the state, respectively. All data points are weekly, county-level measures (either mean, maximum, or minimum, as indicated by the legend).
Source: Author's calculation using data from the Spanish Ministry of Industry, Energy, and Tourism.

Figure 6: *Event Study of Tax Hikes: Overall Pass-Through*



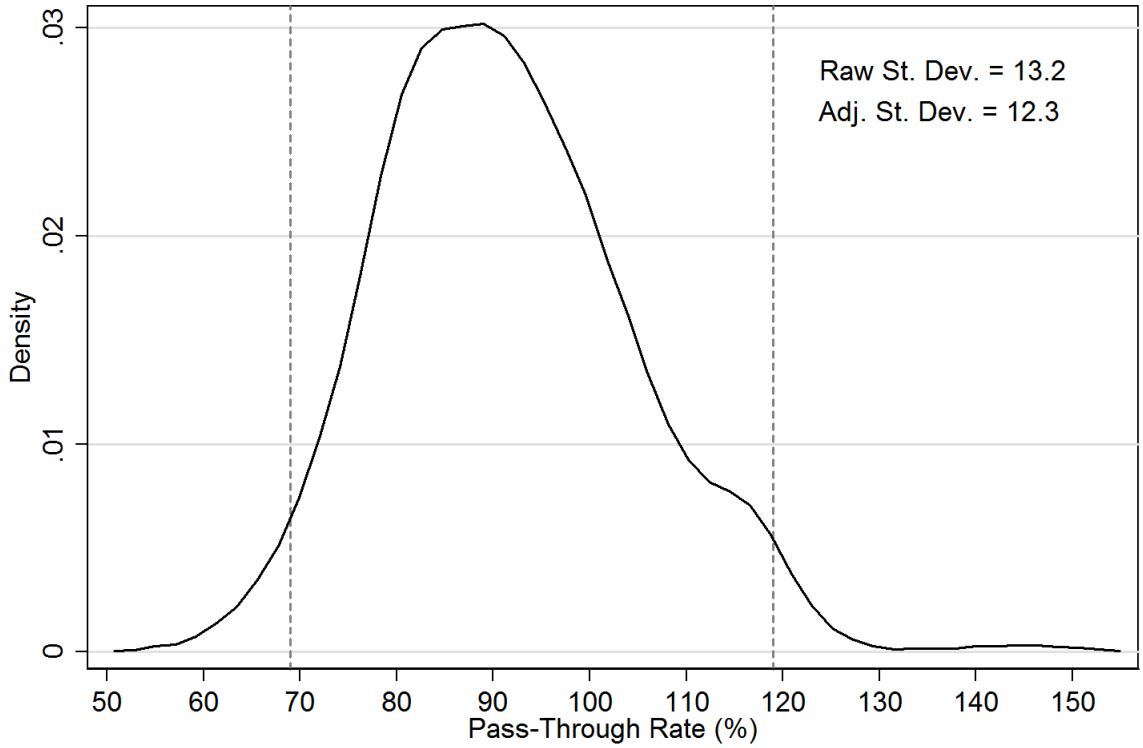
Notes: Lines are constructed from coefficients estimated using Equation 5. The y-axis measures the average price associated with a given value of x (week), relative to Week 0, which is omitted from the regression. Mathematically, $x = j$ and $y = \frac{1}{N}\sum^{i}\left(\frac{\pi^{j}D^{j}_{it}}{EventSize^{j}_{it}}\right)$, where $i = 1, ...N$ indexes a station.

Figure 7: *Event Study of Tax Hikes: Temporal Trends by Brand and Location*



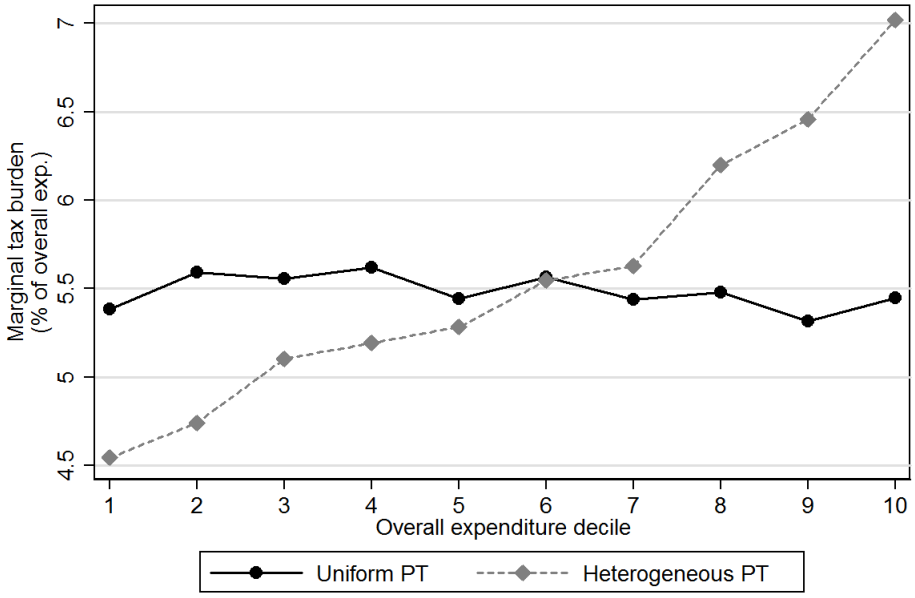
Notes: All lines are constructed from coefficients estimated simultaneously using Equation 6. The y-axis measures the average price associated with a given value of x (week), relative to Week 0, whose coefficients are omitted from the regression. In each panel, the solid line is the predicted price given a value of zero for the relevant competition variable, while the dashed line is the predicted price given a value of one.

Figure 8: *Predicted Empirical Distribution of Pass-Through*



Notes: The figure displays the empirical distribution of pass-through rates across stations using kernel density estimation. Each input data point is a pass-through rate calculated from Equation 7, according to its observable characteristics and the estimated predictive effects of those characteristics on pass-through. There is one data point for each station, corresponding to the last day of its observation in the data. Vertical dashed lines denote percentiles 2.5 and 97.5 of the empirical distribution. The raw standard deviation of this distribution is reported in the top right corner. Below it, the adjusted standard deviation of the 'shrunk' distribution is reported. This adjusted standard deviation is equal to the sample variance of pass-through rates minus noise, where I estimate noise as the average of the variances of each station-specific pass-through estimate.

Figure 9: *The Joint Distribution of Tax Burden and Wealth*



Notes: The y-axis measures estimated per-unit tax burdens as a percentage of overall household expenditure, averaged within deciles of that overall expenditure. The solid line plots this percentage unadjusted, which is parallel to the true distribution under an assumption of uniform, full pass-through. The dashed line plots this percentage adjusted by house-price-specific pass-through rates (estimated from Equation 11), which yields approximate burdens that reflect real variation in the price impacts of taxes.
Source: Expenditure data come from the 2013 Spanish Household Budget Survey; pass-through rates are the author's calculation using data from the Spanish Ministry of Industry, Energy, and Tourism.

Table 1: *Characteristics of Spanish Retail Gas Stations*

	Mean	St. Dev.	Min.	Max.
Retail price (c/L)	98.59	4.84	73.54	117.64
Retail quantity (million L)	2.47	1.91	0.02	29.55
Brand				
Refiner	0.58	0.49	0	1
Wholesaler	0.27	0.45	0	1
Contract				
COCO	0.30	0.46	0	1
Commission contracted	0.30	0.46	0	1
Firm-sale contracted	0.19	0.39	0	1
Amenities				
Carwash	0.49	0.50	0	1
Tires and fluids	0.63	0.48	0	1
Convenience store	0.67	0.47	0	1
Cafeteria	0.13	0.34	0	1
N	2,553			

Notes: All statistics are calculated from station-level observations. Price and quantity vary over time and are first collapsed to station-specific means. Brand, contract, and amenities variables are cross-sectional dummies from the time of entry into Geoportal. 'Refiner' refers to any of the three brands with refining capacity in Spain (Repsol, BP, and Cepsa). 'Wholesaler' refers to all other brands (the omitted group is unbranded independents). COCO stands for 'Company-owned, company-operated' and indicates a fully vertically-integrated station. 'Commission' indicates a contract in which the station operator does not buy the wholesale fuel and thus makes only a small percentage commission on its sales. 'Firm-sale' indicates a contract in which the station buys the wholesale fuel and becomes the residual claimant. The sum of COCO, commission, and firm-sale contracts does not equal the sum of refiner and retailer brand counts because a small percentage of brand contracts remain unclassified in the data.
Source: Author's calculation using data from the Spanish Ministries of Industry, Energy, and Tourism.

Table 2: *Characteristics of Stations' Surroundings*

	Mean	St. Dev.	Min.	Max.
Panel A. Competition measures				
# of rival stations, weighted by inverse travel time (1/s)	0.47	0.14	0	2.13
Own-firm proportion	0.40	0.26	0.07	1
Panel B. Demand-side characteristics				
Municipal population density (1000s/km^2)	2.89	3.81	0.03	20.56
Municipal mean house price (1000s of euros/m^2)	1.99	0.64	0.83	3.86
Education: Some schooling, up to high school	0.11	0.05	0	0.35
Education: High school and/or professional degree	0.46	0.08	0.11	0.75
Education: Baccalaureate, master, or doctoral degree	0.17	0.11	0	0.66
N	2,553			

Notes: All statistics are calculated from station-level observations; if a variable exhibits panel variation, then I first collapse the variable to the station level. 'Rival stations' are those with a different brand than the reference station. 'Own-firm proportion' is the proportion of stations within five minutes' drive under the same ownership as the reference station. Shared ownership requires (a) shared brand, and (b) a commission or COCO contract at the reference station as well as the comparison station. Education-variable units are proportions (of a census-block population).
Source: Author's calculation using data from the Spanish Ministries of Industry, Energy, and Tourism (competition measures) and Public Works (house prices), and the National Statistical Institute (population density and education level).

Table 3: *Overall Pass-Through*

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Mean Tax Level (c/L)	0.952***	0.952***	0.938***	0.946***	0.939***	0.940***
	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.027)	(0.039)	(0.035)
Own-firm proportion		-0.025	0.021	0.026	-0.200	-0.065
		(0.273)	(0.252)	(0.225)	(0.178)	(0.218)
# of Stations w/in 1 km		-0.398***	-0.353***	-0.276**	-0.044	-0.367**
		(0.102)	(0.108)	(0.125)	(0.202)	(0.168)
Demand shifters			X	X		
State-year FE				X		
First differences					X	
Full sample						X
R-Squared	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.780	0.995
N	730,146	730,146	730,146	730,146	415,155	2,622,632

Notes: Dependent variable is retail price (c/L), except in column (5), where it is the one-week change in that price. An observation is a station-week. 'Demand shifters' are municipal average house price and municipal population density. 'Full sample' refers to the complete national dataset, as opposed to the default urban subsample I use in analysis. All specifications are estimated via OLS with station and week fixed effects. Standard errors, clustered at the state level, are in parentheses.
Source: Author's calculation using data from the Spanish Ministry of Industry, Energy, and Tourism.

Table 4: *Pass-Through and Competition: Each Metric Separately*

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Mean Tax Level (c/L)	0.845***	0.943***	0.868***	0.598***
	(0.046)	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.076)
Mean Tax Level X	0.138***			
1[Refiner Brand]	(0.029)			
Mean Tax Level X		-0.117***		
# of Stations w/in 1 km		(0.035)		
Mean Tax Level X			0.173***	
Own-Brand Proportion			(0.045)	
Mean Tax Level X				0.220***
Avg. House Price				(0.037)
N	730,146	730,146	730,146	730,146

Notes: Dependent variable is retail price (c/L). An observation is a station-week. All specifications are estimated via OLS with station and week fixed effects and a control vector of competition and demographic indicators. Standard errors, clustered at the state level, are in parentheses.
Source: Author's calculation using data from the Spanish Ministry of Industry, Energy, and Tourism.

Table 5: *Heterogeneous Pass-Through: Full Regressions*

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Mean Tax Level (c/L)	0.814***	0.838***	0.767***	0.231	0.532***	0.772***
	(0.045)	(0.051)	(0.073)	(0.203)	(0.144)	(0.052)
Mean Tax Level X	0.124***	0.136***	0.117***	0.095***	0.100***	0.115***
1[Refiner Brand]	(0.028)	(0.030)	(0.024)	(0.023)	(0.021)	(0.017)
Mean Tax Level X	-0.114***	-0.099***	-0.106***	-0.090***	-0.054**	-0.036*
# of Stations w/in 1 km	(0.030)	(0.031)	(0.030)	(0.017)	(0.019)	(0.018)
Mean Tax Level X	0.110**	0.113**	0.079*	0.090**	0.085***	0.057*
Own-Brand Proportion	(0.043)	(0.043)	(0.039)	(0.038)	(0.028)	(0.030)
Mean Tax Level X				0.195***	0.124***	
# of Avg. House Price				(0.042)	(0.036)	
Station amenities interactions		X	X	X	X	X
Brand proportion interactions			X	X	X	X
Demand-side interactions				X	X	X
State-year fixed effects					X	
Rural subsample						X
N	730,146	730,146	730,146	730,146	730,146	2,599,966

Notes: Dependent variable is retail price (c/L). An observation is a station-week. All specifications are estimated via OLS with station and week fixed effects and a control vector of competition and demographic indicators. Tax interactions with a dummy variable for being a 'wholesaler-brand' station are included in regression but omitted from the table; the corresponding point estimates are not statistically significant. 'Station amenities interactions' are tax interactions with dummy variables for the presence of a carwash, a convenience store, a cafeteria, and tires and fluids services. 'Brand proportion interactions' are tax interactions with proportions of refiner-brand and wholesaler-brand stations, as well as the local Herfindahl Hirschman Index. 'Demand-side interactions' are tax interactions with municipal population density and census-block educational attainment. Standard errors, clustered at the state level, are in parentheses.
Source: Author's calculation using data from the Spanish Ministry of Industry, Energy, and Tourism.

Appendix A Theoretical Derivation of Pass-Through

The structural determination of pass-through depends integrally on the nature of competition. To illustrate this fact, below I derive the equation for pass-through under (a) perfect competition, (b) monopoly, and (c) Bertrand oligopoly. None of the derivations below are original. To my knowledge, the perfect competition result is due to Jenkin (1872); the monopoly result is due to Bulow and Pfleiderer (1983); and the oligopoly result is due to Anderson, de Palma, and Kreider (2001).

Perfect competition

In the special case of perfect competition, all firms are identical and there is one market price (p_c). Equilibrium is given by the meeting of aggregate demand with competitive supply, given a tax t:

$$D(p_c) = S(p_c, t)$$

Total differentiation yields an expression for pass-through $\frac{dp_c}{dt}$, which is the same for all firms:

$$\frac{dp_c}{dt} = \frac{-\frac{\partial S}{\partial t}}{\frac{\partial S}{\partial p_c} - \frac{\partial D}{\partial p_c}}$$

Finally, assuming $\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial S}{\partial p_c}$, substituting, and multiplying the numerator and denominator by p_c/q yields:

$$\frac{dp_c}{dt} = \frac{\frac{\partial S}{\partial p_c}}{\frac{\partial S}{\partial p_c} - \frac{\partial D}{\partial p_c}} * \frac{\frac{p_c}{q}}{\frac{p_c}{q}} = \frac{\epsilon_S}{\epsilon_S - \epsilon_D} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\epsilon_D}{\epsilon_S}}$$

Thus, equilibrium pass-through under perfect competition is a function only of the ratio of absolute demand elasticity (ϵ_D) to supply elasticity (ϵ_S). Importantly, pass-through need not be one-for-one (100%) in this setting; it is, however, bounded between 0 and 100%. To see this, consider the polar cases of demand: A market with perfectly inelastic consumption ($\epsilon_D = 0$) will be characterized by 100% pass-through, since suppliers will lose no sales from raising prices; on the other hand, a market with perfectly *elastic* consumption ($\epsilon_D \to -\infty$) will be characterized by 0% pass-through, since consumers will cease buying all energy if the price rises at all. Similarly, perfectly elastic supply

($\epsilon_S \to +\infty$) and perfectly inelastic supply ($\epsilon_S = 0$) produce 100% and 0% pass-through, respectively.

Monopoly

The monopolist's profit function is:

$$\pi_m(q) = qp_m(q) - c(q) - qt$$

where $c(q)$ is a total cost function. Retail gasoline supply is likely very elastic in the short run, since oil production is steady and the great majority of marginal cost in retailing is the purchase of fuel. For simplicity, I therefore proceed with the assumption that marginal costs are constant. This produces the familiar monopoly first-order condition (FOC):

$$\frac{\partial \pi_m}{\partial q_m} = p_m(q) + q\frac{\partial p_m}{\partial q} - c - t = 0$$

where the first two terms comprise marginal revenue and the last two terms comprise marginal cost. Total differentiation of this FOC with respect to t defines monopoly pass-through:

$$\frac{dp_m}{dt} = \frac{\frac{\partial p(q_m)}{\partial q_m}}{2\frac{\partial p(q_m)}{\partial q_m} + q_m\frac{\partial^2 p(q_m)}{\partial q_m^2}}$$

The monopoly price impact of a tax change thus depends most integrally on the shape of demand. If demand is linear, then the second term in the denominator drops out and pass-through is 50%. If demand is non-linear, then the second derivative of demand dictates the relative change to pass-through: concave demand produces less than 50% pass-through; convex demand produces greater than 50% pass-through and is no longer bounded above by 100%.

Oligopoly

Cost pass-through in an oligopolistic market is determined by a much more complex process. Each firm now has its own residual elasticity of demand, and it also now has incentive to respond to the pricing decisions of its neighbors. To see this, consider a model of Bertrand multi-product (-station)

competition. There is a set of stations S, indexed $i = \{1, 2, ..., N\}$, each with its own, constant marginal costs c_i. The N stations are owned by F firms, indexed $f = \{1, 2, ...F\}$, with $F \leq N$. The set of stations run by firm f is denoted S_f. Profits for firm f are given by:

$$\pi_f(\mathbf{p}) = \sum_{i \in S_f} q_i(\mathbf{p}) \left[p_i - c_i - t\right]$$

The profit maximization problem for this firm f is to choose price p_i at each station $i \in S_f$ to maximize $\pi_f(\mathbf{p})$. The resulting first-order condition for firm f, station i is:

$$\frac{\partial \pi_f}{\partial p_i} = q_i + \frac{\partial q_i}{\partial p_i}\left[p_i - c_i - t\right] + \sum_{k \neq i, k \in S_f} \frac{\partial q_k}{\partial p_i}\left[p_k - c_k - t\right] = 0$$

Totally differentiating this FOC with respect to t, and rearranging terms, produces:

$$\frac{dp_i}{dt} = \Bigg[\frac{\partial q_i}{\partial p_i} + \sum_{k \neq i, k \in S_f} \frac{\partial q_k}{\partial p_i}$$

$$- \sum_{j \neq i} \left(\frac{\partial q_i}{\partial p_j} + \frac{\partial^2 q_i}{\partial p_i \partial p_j} m_i + \sum_{k \neq i, k \in S_f} \left(\frac{\partial q_k}{\partial p_i} \frac{\partial p_k}{\partial p_j} + \frac{\partial^2 q_k}{\partial p_i \partial p_j} m_k \right) \right) \frac{dp_j}{dt} \Bigg]$$

$$\Bigg/ \left(2\frac{\partial q_i}{\partial p_i} + \frac{\partial^2 q_i}{\partial p_i^2} m_i + \sum_{k \neq i, k \in S_f} \frac{\partial^2 q_k}{\partial p_i^2} m_k \right)$$

where markup $m_i = p_i - c_i - t$.

Equation 12 expresses tax pass-through firm i as a function not just of market primitives (demand elasticities and marginal costs) but also of the j other firms' pass-through; it is difficult to simplify further without additional assumptions. If one assumes symmetry among firms in a market, then Equation 12 reduces to the following:

$$\frac{dp_i}{dt} = \frac{\frac{\partial q_i}{\partial p_i}}{2\frac{\partial q_i}{\partial p_i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{\partial q_i}{\partial p_j} + (p_i - m)\left[\frac{\partial^2 q_i}{\partial p_i^2} + \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{\partial^2 q_i}{\partial p_i \partial p_j}\right]}$$

where m is the now-homogeneous sum of marginal cost and retail tax. This structural equation is a

generalized version of Equation 12, which defines monopoly pass-through - if there were no other firms j in the market, Equation 12 would collapse back down to Equation 12. Just as in the monopoly case, both first and second derivatives of demand matter in oligopoly. However, other stations now affect the decision of station i. Its pass-through rate is now additionally a function of the cross-price elasticities $\frac{\partial q_i}{\partial p_j}$ as well the cross-price derivatives of own-price elasticities $\sum_{j \neq i} \frac{\partial^2 q_i}{\partial p_i \partial p_j}$.