COLORADO STATE TAX BASICS 2018
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A tax system is a set of rules and regulations that allow a government to collect the revenue needed to fund public services. The National Conference of State Legislatures (NCSL) has articulated a set of principles that help define a good tax policy structure.\(^1\) The following analysis evaluates Colorado’s tax system using the NCSL tax principles.

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**PRINCIPLE ONE: PROVIDE ADEQUATE AND TIMELY REVENUE**

### Revenue Adequacy

The purpose of a tax system is to raise adequate revenue to fund public services. Adequacy is measured by whether the system generates sufficient revenue to fund legislatively enacted priorities. These priorities typically include K-12 education, health care, human services and corrections. Inherent in this principle is the notion that the need for public services should drive the collection of tax revenue. Certain states (such as Colorado with the implementation of the Taxpayer’s Bill of Rights, or TABOR) have ignored this, flipping the principle on its head and capping funding based on a formula that attempts to define the need for public services based on a defined amount of revenue.

Unfortunately, this “reversed accounting” system has created a funding deficit that is projected to worsen in the future. A 2011 study conducted by the University of Denver states that even with a strong economic recovery from the Great Recession and sustained job growth over the next decade, Colorado will not produce adequate revenue to support Medicaid funding and public schools, let alone the other programs funded through the General Fund, such as higher education and corrections.\(^2\) The study forecasts

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\(^1\)This is a condensed summary of the principles. For a complete listing and a more in-depth discussion, please see: Snell, Ronald, “New Realities in State Finance,” *The National Conference of State Legislatures*, Washington D.C., 2004.
that over the next 15 years, the state’s annual spending on Medicaid will nearly triple and the funding required for public education will more than double. Meanwhile the General Fund will only grow 86 percent.

Adequacy is an issue for nearly every major area of the state budget. The Colorado Department of Transportation is suffering from inadequacy of state funds. CDOT estimates that the state needs to increase funding by $2.1 billion annually to accommodate growth and maintain the current transportation system.\(^3\)

Schools are facing a billion dollar shortfall in state funds as well. The Colorado School Finance Project predicts that an additional $2.9 billion dollars is needed annually to provide all Colorado students with a sufficient education (defined as 100 percent proficiency).\(^4\) This doesn’t even include maintenance and construction of school buildings and facilities. However, no increases in funding are anticipated.

**Revenue Timeliness**

A good tax system must also ensure that revenues remain adequate over time. A tax system’s revenues are inadequate when its portfolio of taxes grows at a slower rate than the cost of maintaining public services. The formula contained in Colorado’s TABOR amendment guarantees that state revenue increases more slowly than the economy by forcing rebates of revenue collected in excess of per capita inflationary increases. TABOR also promises a shortfall in revenue since the price of items purchased by state government increases faster than the Consumer Price Index ("CPI"). Traditionally, annual increases in the CPI have been below the increase in costs associated with public purchases, such as health care and education.\(^5\)

For example, since, the prices of consumer goods have grown by 64 percent, while the cost of education has increased 207 percent, the cost of healthcare increased by 122 percent and the cost of building roads has doubled. So, even if government revenue is allowed to grow by a CPI-adjusted rate each year, the state loses ground in real dollars, since what government buys grows faster in price than the goods a consumer buys. Then, when costs exceed available revenue, reductions in service levels occur.

Long-term structural changes in the economy can also reduce tax revenue. For example, the sales tax is a large source of revenue for Colorado (estimated to be just over 29 percent of General Fund revenue collections in FY 2017-18).\(^6\) However, the amount of revenue Colorado collects from the sales tax has been decreasing because of the shift in personal consumption from taxed goods to untaxed services. This means that over time, revenue collected from sales taxes will support fewer and fewer public services even with a constant sales tax rate.

The second component of adequacy over time involves revenue timeliness. This principle is important because it allows states to account for and weather the impact of cyclical economic changes.

Successful balancing strategies include a diverse

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\(^5\) BLS Statistics were used for a 15 year comparison of the Higher Education Price Index, the Employment Cost Index and the Medical Care Cost Index with the Consumer Price Index for Denver, Boulder Greeley.

tax portfolio and a budget reserve to stabilize cyclical variations.

Colorado’s state tax system relies heavily on income and capital gains taxes due primarily to the large amount of investment-dependent income in Colorado. Colorado is one of the top 10 states most heavily dependent on income tax.7 This results in greater volatility in revenue since the incomes of top earners, which comprise a large portion of state tax collections, tend to be more susceptible to economic booms or busts.

Additionally, Colorado ranks 10th highest in capital gains dependence among the 41 states with an income tax.8 Such a heavy dependence on capital gains revenue means that shocks to the stock market can have devastatingly volatile consequences for revenue in Colorado. This effect was evident during the economic downturn in 2001, when Colorado’s drop in tax revenue was one of the steepest in the country. A similar trend was identified in the more recent economic downturn in 2009.

One impediment to adequacy over time is the practice of designating a particular revenue source for a specific expenditure, commonly called “earmarking.” Earmarking often restricts or prevents flexible allocations of tax revenue across spending priorities.

These restrictions prevent governments from making adjustments to ensure stable revenue amidst changing economic conditions. A high-quality revenue system minimizes the use of tax earmarking.

Colorado relies on some earmarked revenue to finance public services. For example, the K-12 education system receives state funding from a special education fund that is funded by an earmark of 0.33 percent of state taxable income.9 Similarly, all revenues generated from the Colorado Lottery are earmarked to support state parks, recreation, open space, conservation education and wildlife projects.10

**PRINCIPLE TWO: DISTRIBUTE BURDENS EQUITABLY**

A successful tax system distributes the cost of public services equitably amongst taxpayers. Two fundamental principles of equitable taxation are “vertical equity” and “horizontal equity.”

**Vertical Equity**

A tax system displays vertical equity when it fairly distributes taxes among people with different incomes. One way to distribute taxes fairly is to distribute the cost of public services based on a taxpayer’s ability to pay. Another way is to require that taxpayers pay taxes proportionately, which means paying an equal percentage of taxes relative to their income.

The vertical equity (or inequity) of a tax system is characterized by the distribution of taxes among people in different circumstances. A tax system can be defined as either “progressive” or “regressive.”

A progressive tax system increases taxation as incomes increase. A regressive tax system, on the other hand, is one where low-income earners pay a greater share of their incomes in taxes than do those with high incomes.

The combined state and local tax systems of most states are regressive. State income taxes that are based on the progressive federal income tax are progressive; however, sales and excise taxes are

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Colorado's tax system is regressive, although it does have comparable regressivity to that of the average U.S. state and local tax system. In Colorado, those making the least pay a higher proportion of their income in taxes than those in the highest income groups.

**Horizontal Equity**

Horizontal equity is the distribution of taxes among people with the same income. The general principle is that those with similar circumstances should have similar tax obligations.

Colorado's tax system includes tax provisions that benefit one segment of the population and disadvantage another. One of the most prevalent of those provisions is the business personal property tax. Businesses that rely heavily on high-valued machinery and equipment pay significantly more in property taxes than businesses that require little to no capital equipment. This kind of disparity results in horizontal inequities.

**PRINCIPLE THREE: PROMOTE ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY AND GROWTH**

In general, the central purpose of collecting taxes is to raise revenue. However, tax policy is often used to promote or incentivize certain behaviors. For example, excise taxes may be used to discourage certain behaviors that create public and social costs. Using tax policy to steer economic behavior can be considered economically inefficient because a large portion of tax breaks go to people and businesses for doing what they would have done anyway.

How a state tax system affects economic growth is an important policy consideration. When considering taxes on individuals and businesses, the usual concern is over tax policies so significant that they would cause taxpayers to move from or avoid locating in a state or that would cause them to shop across state borders. Yet, when evaluating its competitive position, a state should be aware that tax policy is only one consideration in business location decisions. The quality of publicly provided services, such as well-maintained roads...
and high-quality education systems, is often a more important consideration.

Colorado’s tax system also includes many sales tax exemptions, income tax credits and other tax expenditures valued at close to $5.5 billion annually. Many more income tax exemptions and special deductions are not reported at the state-level since they are applied to the calculation of federal taxable income. As will be discussed in detail later, Colorado’s taxable income is based on federal taxable income. Thus, federal exemptions and deductions, such as student loan interest deductions and the deduction for moving expenses, cost Colorado income tax revenue even though they are not enacted by the state.


**PRINCIPLE FOUR: BE SIMPLE AND PROFESSIONALLY ADMINISTERED**

A good tax system should be designed simply. Simplicity minimizes administrative collections costs and taxpayer compliance costs. It also reinforces confidence in the fairness of a tax system by reducing evasion.

**Certainty**

A key part of simplicity is certainty. Certainty requires that the number and types of changes made to a tax system will be kept to a minimum. Individuals and businesses should not be subject to frequent changes in tax rates or tax base because it interferes with economic choices and the ability to develop long-term financial plans. As a corollary, in states such as Colorado where changes in rates require voter approval, a large number of tax-generating initiatives will decrease political capital for achieving tax revenue adequacy.

Colorado’s tax system has remained fairly constant over time. The Taxpayer’s Bill of Rights (TABOR) amendment restricts changes in the tax system by requiring voter approval for tax increases and new taxes that generate net increases in revenue. Since TABOR’s passage in 1992, the state of Colorado has enacted only one significant tax increase — a tobacco tax increase approved in 2005.

**Tax Administration**

Our current revenue system is dependent on voluntary compliance. Voluntary compliance requires professional tax administration. Tax administration involves assessing and collecting taxes owed. Professional and uniform tax administration, both throughout the state and within individual jurisdictions, enhances the effectiveness of voluntary compliance. Tax evasion is a quantitatively significant phenomenon that affects the adequacy, equity, economic efficiency and simplicity of administration of a tax system.

The problem of tax evasion also raises challenging questions about the appropriate design of the tax compliance system. Questions include how many resources should be devoted to auditing suspected evaders and for which taxes, how these resources should be allocated across classes of taxpayers and how many resources should be devoted to taxpayer assistance versus monitoring.

**PRINCIPLE FIVE: ENSURE ACCOUNTABILITY**

**Notice and Transparency**

The essence of accountability is that tax laws should be explicit and transparent. Truth-in-taxation policies that require clearly written notices to taxpayers and hearings on tax policy changes are simple methods of providing accountability. For state governments, tax expenditure reports are another way of enhancing accountability. A tax expenditure report shows the costs, expressed in lost tax revenue, of a tax credit or exemption that is intended to benefit specific taxpayers or encourage a public policy goal. In addition to identifying the revenue lost
from certain tax preferences, tax expenditure reports may also provide data that can be used to evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of tax policies.

Accountability in a larger sense means that policymakers examine the costs and benefits of using revenue measures to put policies into effect. Since the budget process makes expenditures explicit, the ideal revenue system includes tax expenditures as a direct appropriation in the budgetary system. However, tax policy will inevitably continue to be used toward other policy objectives. Therefore, lawmakers have a responsibility to ensure that tax policies produce their intended effect and do so at a reasonable cost. Earmarked funds, tax expenditures and all other special tax preferences should be reviewed regularly to assess their efficiency and effectiveness as policy measures.

Colorado produces few resources on government accountability and transparency, although there have been improvements over the past couple of years. One major improvement is the addition of a biennial tax expenditure report and tax overview called the Colorado Tax Profile and Expenditure Report. This report, made permanent by legislation in 2014, was first produced in 2013 and will be produced every other year from now on. This report includes a listing of all tax expenditures, information on who pays taxes in the state, and other data gathered from Colorado tax returns.

Another useful resource is the State Taxpayer Accountability Report (STAR). The STAR report is produced annually by the Office of the State Controller and summarizes the fiscal operations in the state. The Colorado Department of Treasury also provides a resource for taxpayers to track where their tax dollars go based on their income.

Too often, the effects of legislative action on revenue collection or the distribution of tax responsibility are unknown or unclear. This approach to tax policy has led to an increased number of credits and exemptions and increased complexity and administration costs without a clear demonstration of the resulting benefit.

**COLORADO FISCAL INSTITUTE TAX PRINCIPLES:**

The Colorado Fiscal Institute (CFI) promotes tax and budget policies that are effective, efficient, equitable, transparent and accountable. Each year, CFI takes positions on new legislation that affects the sustainability and equity in Colorado’s state budget and tax system. The staff examines each bill using a set of principles developed from National Conference of State Legislatures guidelines that reflect our mission of sound fiscal policy that improves the well-being of individuals, communities and the state as a whole.

CFI’s principles for evaluating tax credits, deductions and exemptions:

1. **Is the tax expenditure effective?** When evaluating a new tax credit, deduction or exemption, CFI considers whether it has been proven to meet a targeted goal. CFI also considers the return on investment from the tax expenditure when compared to the benefit and cost of investing in other state priorities.

2. **Is the tax expenditure economically efficient?** CFI evaluates all tax expenditures

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13 Found here: [http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/dfp/sco/STAR/star.htm](http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/dfp/sco/STAR/star.htm)

14 Found here: [http://www.colorado.gov/taxtracks/](http://www.colorado.gov/taxtracks/)
from an economic standpoint. A good tax expenditure will produce the intended outcome without significant additional cost or disruption to public spending or the economy. CFI also considers the behavior the tax expenditure is intended to incentivize and if this behavior would occur anyway. Tax expenditures are often used to incentivize certain behaviors but should never be given to reward behavior that would have happened anyway.

3. **Is the tax expenditure equitable?** Equity in evaluating tax expenditures focuses on who benefits from the favored tax treatment proposed by the credit, deduction or exemption. All tax expenditures create winners and losers in the tax system, and CFI evaluates the impact of the expenditure in two ways. First, we consider horizontal equity, which occurs when similarly situated taxpayers are treated in a similar manner. Second, CFI assesses vertical equity, or who pays taxes in light of who currently shoulders the largest tax responsibility. CFI evaluates the equitable distribution of the tax benefit based on ability to pay and other principles of equity.

4. **Will the tax expenditure be regularly reviewed and evaluated?** Tax expenditures, just like any general fund appropriation, need regular review to evaluate whether they are working and to let taxpayers know how their money is being used. In order to determine if a tax expenditure is achieving its targeted goal and is the best use of taxpayer dollars, they must be reviewed and evaluated regularly based on a clear set of objectives. CFI always considers the measures of transparency and accountability that are included in any new tax expenditure or economic incentive.

5. **Will the tax expenditure lift up the middle class?** The middle class in Colorado is still struggling to recover from the recent recession. Tax expenditures can impact this recovery by either supporting targeted middle-class growth, or by shifting support to other priorities. CFI considers whether a credit supports middle-class families and an economy that works for everyone.
CHAPTER 2: COLORADO’S TAX SYSTEM

TAX COLLECTIONS IN COLORADO

The Colorado Joint Budget Committee estimates that the state of Colorado will collect $11.064 billion in tax revenue in FY2017-18.15

The chart below shows a 10-year history of tax collections in Colorado. Colorado’s tax collections have largely tracked federal tax collections. One exception occurred after the 2001 recession, when declining capital gains and tax reductions implemented by the Colorado General Assembly led to a steep drop in state tax revenue. Since that time, Colorado’s tax collections per $1,000 of personal income gradually increased with economic growth until 2009, when tax collections decreased more than 25 percent with recession. This decline was 10 percent greater than the average decline in tax collections in the United States.16

The chart (below) shows the change in Colorado taxes per $1,000 of income between FY 1998-99 to FY 2015-16. Colorado’s decrease in tax revenue has been fairly uniform across all the types of taxes that the state collects, with the exception of sales and use tax and tobacco tax.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>15-Year Comparison of Tax Collections in Colorado</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FY 1998-99</td>
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<td>------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Individual Income</td>
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<td>Sales and Use</td>
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<td>Motor Fuel</td>
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<td>Alcohol</td>
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<td>Tobacco</td>
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CFI analysis of data from the U.S. Census and Bureau of Economic Analysis

15 Budget in Brief, Colorado General Assembly Joint Budget Committee, FY 2017-18.

The largest decrease in taxes paid per $1,000 of income is in motor fuels tax collection (47 percent).

Colorado collects taxes to fund basic government programs through the General Fund. Individual and corporate income taxes and sales and use taxes make up more than 97 percent of General Fund revenue. Currently, individual income taxes make up the largest portion of General Fund revenues (66 percent).^{17}

Income taxes have not always played such an important role in financing public services in Colorado. While the general portfolio of taxes has remained the same, in 1975, individual income tax only made up 38 percent of the General Fund. Several reasons account for this shift. First, sales tax collections have decreased as a result of many sales tax exemptions that were enacted in the late 1970s and early 1980s when the state had significant budget surpluses. These exemptions were never repealed, unlike the many income tax reductions enacted in the late 1970s and early 1980s that were largely repealed to help the state’s budget during the recession. A second reason for the shift is that federal tax reform broadened the tax base upon which individual income taxes are levied. Since Colorado uses federal taxable income as its starting point for the calculation of Colorado’s income tax base (discussed later in more detail), the broadening of the federal tax base increased the state’s reliance on individual income taxes.

**HOW COLORADO TAXES RANK IN COMPARISON TO OTHER STATES**

There are two primary ways of comparing states in terms of revenues. The first is the per capita measure, which is derived by dividing total government revenue by total population. The second method relates revenue to total personal income (wages, salaries, dividends, interest, etc.). The most prevalent rankings measure taxes per $1,000 of income.

Measuring revenue relative to personal income shows taxes relative to wealth. By contrast, measuring revenue on a per capita basis does not take into account ability to pay. The “per $1,000 of

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17 *Budget in Brief, Colorado General Assembly Joint Budget Committee, FY 2017-18.*
income” approach allocates taxes to those who pay them, in proportion to how much is paid. A “taxes per capita” approach spreads total taxes across the entire population (including children, institutionalized populations and other non-taxpayers) and assumes equal distribution of taxes for all individuals. The personal income calculation generally results in a lower ranking for Colorado than the per capita calculation.

By any measure, though, taxes are low in Colorado. Colorado’s total state taxes, per $1,000 of income, rank sixth from the bottom (45th) in the nation. North Dakota has the highest and New Hampshire has the lowest.

The chart below shows tax rankings for all types of taxes:

### WHO PAYS COLORADO TAXES?

Examining how the state ranks in comparison to other states is one method of analyzing our tax system. Another way to evaluate is by analyzing the percentage of income paid in taxes by individuals in various income brackets. The Institute of Taxation and Economic Policy (ITEP) produces a report that analyzes the amount of each type of tax paid by income quintile. The results show that the highest share of income paid in taxes (8.7 percent) is paid by those in the lowest income brackets — those making less than $42,000 per year — while the top 1 percent of all Colorado taxpayers pay the lowest percentage of their income in taxes.

The combined state and local tax rate for the top 1 percent of Colorado families — with average incomes of $1.8 million — is 5.6 percent, before accounting for the tax savings from federal itemized deductions. After the federal offset, the effective tax rate is only 4.6 percent. The average tax rate on families in the middle of the income distribution — those earning between $42,000 and $62,000 — is 8.5 percent before the federal offset and 8.1 percent after. This is nearly double the effective rate that the richest Coloradans pay. The tax rate on the poorest Colorado families — those in the bottom two quintiles, earning less than $42,000 — is the

### Table 2

| How Selected State Taxes in Colorado Compare per $1,000 of Income (FY 2015-16) |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
|                  | Rank | Tax Level | High | Low | Average |
| Total State Taxes | 45 of 50 | $44.41 | $98.84 | $25.24 | $60.24 |
| Sales and Use    | 44 of 45 | $17.00 | $59.99 | $0.00 | $28.63 |
| Individual       | 27 of 43 | $22.51 | $41.38 | $0.00 | $19.75 |
| Corporate        | 34 of 46 | $2.17  | $9.38  | $0.00  | $2.87  |
| Motor Fuel       | 39 of 50 | $2.32  | $5.91  | $1.01  | $3.11  |
| Alcohol          | 45 of 50 | $0.15  | $1.11  | $0.06  | $0.44  |
| Tobacco          | 42 of 50 | $0.70  | $3.03  | $0.14  | $1.36  |
| Motor Vehicle License Fees | 24 of 50 | $1.75 | $17.84 | $0.02 | $3.50 |

Source: U.S. Census Bureau and Bureau of Economic Analysis

19 The Federal Deduction Offset accounts for the exporting of a taxpayers state taxes to their federal tax burden through an itemized deduction.
highest of all. At 8.7 percent, it is twice the effective rate on the very wealthy.

The ITEP report also reveals the regressivity inherent in Colorado’s tax system. While income taxes are slightly progressive because they are based on a progressive federal income tax, property tax and sales taxes are regressive and result in those with the lowest incomes paying more in taxes than those with higher incomes. This is an example of vertical inequity.

However, Colorado is not the most regressive of all states. In fact, despite the fact that Colorado’s tax system is regressive overall, Colorado allows large federal deductions and exemptions, making Colorado’s flat-rate income tax structure more progressive than other states with a similar tax structure. Even “low tax” states can be highly regressive — the determining factor is the amount of tax on the lowest income brackets in relation to the highest.

It should be noted though, that while the lowest-income Coloradans pay the highest percentage of their income in taxes, the highest-income Coloradans pay the largest bulk of taxes overall. Colorado taxpayers with income of more than $100,000 pay more than 52 percent of all of the taxes collected in the state.20

**Tax Rates**

Another important component of the Colorado tax system is the tax rate. There are two different ways to define the tax rate. The “nominal” or “marginal” tax rate is the rate that is multiplied by the tax base to yield the amount of tax. Essentially, the nominal tax rate is the stated tax rate. In

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20 CFI analysis of Colorado Tax Profile and Expenditure Report 2016
Colorado, the nominal tax rate is 4.63 percent for income taxes and 2.9 percent for sales and use taxes.

By contrast, the “effective” tax rate is the amount of tax paid as a percentage of a taxpayer’s total tax responsibility. This is considered a more accurate measure for comparing taxes because it takes into account the differing tax bases of different taxpayers. Effective tax rates are typically lower than marginal rates because most tax systems have some forms of deductions, exclusions, credits and other adjustments that are taken into account when using this measure of taxes. The chart (right) from the Colorado Department of Revenue shows Colorado’s effective tax rates in 2014.²¹

**WHAT DOESN’T GET PAID—THE EFFECT OF TAX EXPENDITURES**

Tax expenditures are revenues foregone because a provision of the tax code permits certain taxpayers to pay less tax than they would pay under a baseline tax system. They include deductions and exclusions from tax liability, reduced tax rates, tax credits, tax deferrals, tax exemptions and tax refunds.

Tax expenditures are tools that policymakers use to align public finance with social and economic goals. They are often utilized to address market failures and to promote social equity. While tax expenditures can prove useful for promoting certain economic outcomes, the resulting increase in the complexity of tax laws often means higher administrative and compliance costs, and market distortions.

Tax expenditures also reduce the tax base. As a result, government revenues may need to be raised from other sources and/or tax rates may need to increase in order to provide substitute revenues to finance government services. For instance, in Colorado in 2015, annual sales tax expenditures reduced revenues by $4.1 billion.\(^{22}\) In comparison, total sales tax collections were $2.5 billion.\(^{23}\) The amount of money that is given away in tax expenditures directly reduces the revenues available for public investments.

The pie chart (above) shows what happens if tax expenditures were added to total General Fund appropriations for 2015. The amount of revenue spent on tax expenditures would be equal to 36 percent of the total General Fund. It would almost equal the amount of revenue appropriated for all health and human services and would be greater than spending for corrections and higher education combined.

\(^{22}\) Colorado Tax Profile & Expenditure Report 2016.  
\(^{23}\) Colorado Department of Revenue 2016 Annual Report.
The income tax is the largest tax source that funds Colorado’s state government. In 2017-18, income tax is anticipated to make up 66 percent of total tax collections.24

History of the Income Tax in Colorado

Now the state’s largest revenue source, the personal income tax was originally adopted by the voters via a constitutional referendum in 1936. This was more than two decades after the 16th Amendment to the federal constitution that authorized a national income tax. At the end of the 1930s, income tax receipts were small in terms of total tax collections. Motor fuel, sales and use and liquor taxes each accounted for more state tax revenue than income taxes.

In the first full-year of collections, slightly more than three-fifths of the $2.8 million in total collections was from individual income tax. Corporate income taxes accounted for the other $1.8 million. The legislature allocated 65 percent of the tax revenues to the state General Fund for the first two years. Since this time in 1947, all income tax collections have been allocated to the General Fund.

In 1937, income tax rates ranged from 1 percent on the first $1,000 of income to 6 percent on income more than $10,000. The top rate was increased in 1947 to 10 percent for incomes over $11,000. In 1960, the rates were increased to 3 percent for the first $1,000 but reduced to 9 percent for income over $10,000.

The income tax system in Colorado was designed by the legislature until the early 1960s. In 1962, voters adopted a constitutional amendment that allowed the legislature to define income tax law by reference to federal tax law. The Colorado Income Tax Act of 1964 made the federal adjusted gross income the basis for determining Colorado income. Specific modifications and exemptions were incorporated into legislation between 1964 and 1987. In that year, 1987, as a response to federal tax changes, a new income tax act was adopted by the General Assembly. That act established a single tax rate of 5 percent for individuals and corporations, as well as simplification in terms of tax preparation. The Taxpayer’s Bill of Rights (TABOR) amendment, adopted in 1992, codified the requirement that the same rate apply to both individuals and corporations.

The income tax rate was subsequently reduced to 4.75 percent in 1999 and 4.63 percent in 2000. This is the current tax rate. Referendum C, adopted by the voters in 2005, allows the income tax rate to decline to 4.5 percent under specified circumstances after 2010.

Income Tax “Coupling”

Colorado’s income tax system is “coupled” with the federal income tax system. This means Colorado taxpayers begin with federal taxable income, as determined on their federal tax return, when calculating how much tax is owed on their Colorado state tax return. As such, Colorado’s income tax system automatically incorporates all federal tax provisions that occur “above the line” or before the calculation of federal taxable income.

24 Budget in Brief, Colorado General Assembly Joint Budget Committee, FY 2017-18.
Colorado is one of only seven states that is coupled to federal taxable income. Most states calculate their taxes owed beginning with federal adjusted gross income, which is determined before above-the-line deductions. While Colorado’s coupled system contributes to the simplicity of the state income tax system, it also can result in reduced state revenue based solely on congressional tax policy changes. The considerations of federal tax policymakers are often different or in conflict with Colorado’s needs. Federal tax policy is not specifically tailored to unique state conditions.

Furthermore, Colorado experiences full and immediate impacts from federal changes. This is because Colorado has "rolling conformity" with federal tax laws, which means that federal impacts apply immediately. The majority of other states that begin with federal taxable income have "static conformity," which means that state tax codes are fixed to the federal tax code as of a specific point in time, such as January 1, 2015, for Idaho.

Colorado, along with all other states, has the option to insulate portions of its internal tax code from federal income tax changes by “decoupling.” Decoupling simply means state tax provisions do not follow the federal tax code without active adoption by the state legislature. To date, Colorado has not decoupled from any portions of the federal tax code.

**Individual Income Taxes**

Colorado currently has a flat tax rate of 4.63 percent. Ten other states also have a flat (or single) individual income tax rates, as opposed to graduated rates. Thirty-three states have graduated individual income tax rates that range from 0.36 percent to 13.3 percent. Seven states have no individual income tax and two states tax only dividends and interest income at a flat rate.26

Colorado's individual income tax is anticipated to generate $7.3 billion in FY2017-18.27 The individual income tax share of the General Fund has grown over time. In 1975, individual income taxes made up 39 percent of the General Fund, while in 2017, individual income taxes are estimated to account for 66 percent of the General Fund.28

Colorado ranks 27th out of 43 states for individual income taxes when measured by $1,000 of personal income. Colorado’s total income tax amount per $1,000 of income ($22.51) was higher than the national average of $19.75 for the 43 states with an individual income tax.29 Even with a flat rate, Colorado’s individual income tax remains fairly progressive since it is tied to the progressive federal tax code. Income earners who make less than $22,000 per year pay 0.7 percent of their income in individual income taxes while the top 1 percent of Colorado earners (those making $567,000 or more) pay an average of 3.4 percent.30 However, those making more than $100,000 annually pay 52 percent of total taxes in the state and only make up about 19 percent of all taxpayers.31

**Corporate Income Taxes**

Colorado’s corporate income tax rate is 4.63 percent, the same as the individual income tax rate. Thirty-two states, including Colorado, have a flat corporate income tax rate. Colorado is the third lowest behind North Carolina and Kansas, while Pennsylvania is the highest. Twelve states have a graduated corporate income tax. The lowest rate of any bracket is 1 percent and the highest is 12 percent. Four states have no corporate income tax and two states have alternative corporate tax systems.32

To determine the amount of money taxed at the state level, Colorado business returns begin with federal taxable income. At the federal level, a business subtracts its federal deductions from its gross receipts to calculate federal taxable income. Federal taxable...

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27 Budget in Brief, Colorado General Assembly Joint Budget Committee, FY 2017-18.
28 Ibid.
29 CFI analysis of data from the U.S. Census and Bureau of Economic Analysis.30 Who Pays? A Distributional Analysis of the Tax Systems of all 50 States.
31 Colorado Tax Profile and Expenditure Report 2016
income is then “apportioned”—or allocated—among the states in which the business operates to determine a business’s tax liability in states where business income is generated.

States use a variety of methods to apportion income. In 2008, the Colorado Legislature voted to make Colorado a single-sales factor apportionment state. This means when a business is apportioning its federal taxable income among states, it assigns to Colorado the share of its federal taxable income that is proportionate to the percentage of total sales made in the state. Other states use factors such as property owned in the state, number of employees in the state and actual presence in the state to determine state tax liability. Federal taxable income is apportioned to Colorado entirely based on the amount of sales a business has in the state.

Corporate income tax collections are expected to yield $621 million in FY2017-18. Corporate income tax revenue makes up 0.8 percent of total income tax collections and 5.7 percent of General Fund revenue collections in Colorado.

Colorado ranks 34th out of 46 states for corporate income taxes per $1,000 of income. The national average amount of sales tax paid by all states is $28.63 per $1,000 of income. Colorado taxpayers pay $17.00.

Sales and use taxes are the most regressive form of taxes in the Colorado tax system. The lowest quintile of taxpayers pays 5.3 percent of their income in sales tax while the highest 1 percent of earners pays only 0.7 percent. One of the reasons for the disparity is the fact that lower-income taxpayers are more likely to spend all of their income each month, and therefore be subject to more sales taxes, than those with a higher income who save more. Lower-income families also tend to purchase more taxable goods and fewer untaxed services than higher-income individuals.

History of Sales and Use Tax in Colorado

Following the national trend, Colorado increased its reliance on excise taxes in the 20th Century. Preceded by a “privilege” tax on insurance companies (1883), an inheritance tax (1901), and

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33 Budget in Brief, Colorado General Assembly Joint Budget Committee, FY 2017-18.
34 Ibid.
35 CFI analysis of data from the U.S. Census and Bureau of Economic Analysis.
36 Budget in Brief, Colorado General Assembly Joint Budget Committee, FY 2016-17.
37 Ibid.
38 CFI analysis of data from the U.S. Census and Bureau of Economic Analysis.
39 Who Pays? A Distributional Analysis of the Tax Systems of all 50 States.
a motor fuel tax (1919), the state’s first general sales tax law was enacted as the “Emergency Retail Sales Tax Act of 1935,” which levied the first excise tax on general retail sales of tangible personal property. Although the act was scheduled to expire in 1937, the Old Age Pension Amendment, initiated in 1936, earmarked 85 percent of the proceeds of the sales tax and rendered the new temporary tax permanent. When the 1935 law was enacted, a service tax was also imposed on professional and personal services, but increasing opposition from professional groups led to its repeal in 1945.

To prevent circumvention of the sales tax, a use tax was also added in 1937, imposing a 2 percent levy on tangible personal property purchased outside Colorado and brought into the state for storage, use or consumption. The use tax rate in Colorado is the same as the sales tax rate.

Sales Tax Rate

The 1935 act imposed a tax rate of 2 percent on the sales price of tangible personal property, unless the property became a component part of a manufactured product. Gasoline and special fuels were also exempt. The rate was raised to 3 percent in 1965, and for 15 months during 1983 and 1984, was temporarily raised to 3.5 percent due to a budgetary shortfall. The rate then reverted back to 3 percent on Aug. 1, 1984.

Effective Jan. 1, 2001, the rate was lowered to 2.9 percent due to the state repeatedly collecting more revenue than was allowed under the Taxpayer’s Bill of Rights (TABOR). This was viewed as an alternative to a general refund, allowing a direct benefit to those who specifically paid the sales or use tax in proportion to the amount paid, rather than refunding the same amount to everyone in the state.

Sales Tax Base

The sales tax base is defined as taxable sales of tangible personal property, plus telephone/telegraph services, gas and electric service for commercial consumption, prepared food or drink and lodging accommodations. There are a variety of sales that are not taxable because the transaction is exempt from the tax, to promote either parity within an industry, social equity or a desirable behavior. The four largest exemptions from state sales and use tax are the exemptions for component parts used in manufacturing, food for domestic consumption, gasoline and livestock.40

Taxing Services

Since the enactment of the state sales tax on goods, much of consumer spending has shifted as the service industry has grown rapidly in Colorado and across the country. There is now
more money spent on services than goods in Colorado. The chart (above) from Colorado Legislative Council shows that in 1963, just more than 65 percent of Colorado’s economic output was attributable to non-taxable services compared to 2014, when services comprised almost 70 percent of state output.

Colorado’s sales tax base includes only 14 services. According to Colorado Legislative Council, all other states include more services than Colorado in their sales tax mix, with the highest number of services taxed being in Hawaii at 166. The most commonly taxed services by all states are: tuxedo rentals; photcopying/ photofinishing; printing; software; event admissions; cellular and intrastate telephone utilities; and leases and rentals.

If Colorado extended its sales tax base to include personal services, even the most conservative estimates show that sales tax revenue would increase by 18 to 29 percent and would continue to increase between 19 and 33 percent annually.

**Sales Tax Exemption**

There were a total of 82 exemptions from state sales and use taxes in Colorado in 2015, accounting for $4.1 billion in revenue. The four most expensive exemptions from state sales and use tax are the exemptions for component parts used in manufacturing, food for domestic consumption, gasoline and livestock.

**Vendor Credit**

In Colorado, vendors (retail businesses) are required to collect sales tax from customers and remit it to the Department of Revenue. If a vendor properly complies with this requirement, they are eligible for a tax credit against some of the tax they were required to remit.

Colorado has one of the most generous vendor credits in the country because it is not subject to any ceiling. In 2008, Colorado lost more than $68.5 million in revenue as a result of the vendor credit. Thirteen percent of that lost revenue went to just one retailer: Walmart.

In 2009, the vendor tax credit was temporarily suspended as a budget-balancing measure. The suspension was estimated to increase revenue by more than $71 million dollars in FY 2010-11. The suspension expired at the end of 2011.

The vendor credit was reinstated by the General Assembly for 2012. It was reinstated at 2.2 percent and has now been increased to 3.3 percent.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Services Commonly Taxed in Other States and Subject to Colorado State Sales Tax</th>
<th>Number of States Currently Taxing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotels, Motels, Lodging Houses</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rental of Video Tapes for Home Use</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo Finishing</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cellular Telephone Services - Residential Use</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrastate Telephone - Industrial Use</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrastate Telephone - Residential Use</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Term Automobile Lease</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuxedo Rental</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Contracts Sold at the Time of Sale</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welding Labor (Fabrication and Repair)</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Software - Modifications to Canned Program</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trailer Parks - Overnight Rentals</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Federation of Tax Administrators
Internet Sales Tax

In recent years, internet sales have become a growing source of lost revenue for Colorado and other states with sales taxes. Current law says that states may only require the collection of sales taxes by businesses with a physical presence, or “nexus” in the state. In practice, this means that internet retailers without warehouses, offices or stores in Colorado are not required to collect Colorado sales taxes on sales to people in the state. As more and more Coloradans shop online, this loophole becomes a bigger and bigger problem for the state budget.

In 2010, the Colorado legislature attempted to mitigate the problem of lost sales tax revenue from internet sales. Effective March 1, 2010, House Bill 10-1193 stipulated that any retailer not collecting sales tax in Colorado must inform Colorado customers that, while sales tax is not being collected by the retailer, use taxes may still be owed on their purchases. Specifically, the law requires a non-collecting internet retailer to: (1) inform customers of their use tax obligation at the time of purchase, (2) provide customers with a year-end summary of purchases for use tax purposes and (3) supply a similar report showing an annual total to the Colorado Department of Revenue.

Since its passage, Colorado’s internet sales tax law has been debated in court. The Direct Marketers Association, whose membership includes internet giants like Amazon and eBay, filed a lawsuit claiming that the 2010 law violated constitutional prohibitions against imposing an “undue burden” on businesses. But after years of battling in federal and state courts, in December of 2016, the U.S. Supreme Court declined to hear an appeal to the most recent ruling by the 10th Circuit Court of Appeals. This results in a binding decision allowing the law to be upheld.

Since this time, Colorado’s internet sales tax law has been adopted as the model law for other states by the Multistate Tax Commission. Several other states are looking to Colorado as they create similar laws in their local jurisdictions.

Severance Taxes

Colorado’s severance tax was created in 1977 with the intent to recapture portions of the state’s “wealth endowment” that was lost due to the excavation and extraction of nonrenewable resources. Revenue collected was to be held in a trust to help offset the cost of mitigating negative impacts from nonrenewable resource development.

Severance tax revenue is divided evenly between the Department of Natural Resources and the Department of Local Affairs. Each department uses funding from severance taxes differently. The Department of Natural Resources uses the funding for water projects, for natural resources-related programs and for low-income energy assistance. The Department of Local Affairs distributes its funding to local governments to offset the impact of natural resource extraction.

Colorado’s severance tax is levied on the value of extracted natural resources. More than 81 percent of the severance tax revenue comes from natural gas. The remaining severance tax revenue is from oil, coal and other minerals. Colorado’s severance tax also incorporates a tax credit to offset taxes paid on resources at the local level. Since producers pay a local property tax on extracted resources, the state allows 87.5 percent of local property taxes paid to be credited against severance tax liability.

50 Ibid.
Severance tax collections in FY2017-18 are anticipated to be $150 million. This is equal to 4.7 percent of cash fund collections.\(^{52}\)

Colorado ranks 16\(^{\text{th}}\) in severance tax of the 34 states that collect.\(^{53}\) Sixteen states don’t collect severance tax.

**Motor Fuels Tax**

A motor fuels tax was enacted in 1919 as part of the Colorado Constitution. Gasoline, gas blends and special fuels such as diesel, bio-diesel, kerosene, liquefied petroleum gases and natural gas are all taxable under this article of the constitution. The tax rate on motor fuels and special fuels has not increased since 1991 and 1992, respectively.

Colorado charges two motor fuels taxes and motor vehicle registration fees. The combination of these sources is estimated to raise $1.2 billion for transportation services in FY2017-18.\(^{54}\) The funds collected go primarily into the Highway Users Tax Fund, although they are essentially cash funds. Transportation-related taxes and fees are estimated to make up 39 percent of the total 2017-18 cash fund collections.\(^{55}\)

Colorado ranks 39\(^{\text{th}}\) out of 50 states in fuel taxes. Coloradans pay $2.32 per $1,000 of income on motor fuel taxes. The national average is $3.11.\(^{56}\)

**Cigarette and Tobacco Taxes**

Cigarette taxes were enacted in 1964 as part of the Colorado Constitution. The tax rate was last increased in 2004 to 84 cents per 20 cigarettes with the passage of Amendment 35, which earmarked the revenue as follows:

- 46 percent to increase access to health insurance for children and working families
- 19 percent to support community clinics that provide primary health care services to low-income, uninsured patients
- 16 percent to fund comprehensive tobacco education, prevention and cessation programs
- 16 percent to support prevention, detection and treatment programs for cancer, chronic pulmonary disease and cardiovascular disease
- 3 percent to the General Fund to support the Old-Age Pension fund and municipal and county governments for health-related expenses.\(^{57}\)

In comparison with other states, Colorado has a relatively low rank of 42\(^{\text{nd}}\) in the nation in cigarette tax collections per $1,000 of income. The national average is $1.36 and Coloradans pay $0.70.\(^{58}\) In FY2017-18, approximately $58 million will be collected by the state as a result of this tax levy.\(^{59}\)

**Alcohol Taxes**

Shortly after the repeal of prohibition, Colorado enacted a statute imposing a liquor tax. Colorado has one of the lowest liquor tax rates in the country. Per $1,000 of income, liquor tax collections in Colorado rank 45\(^{\text{th}}\) nationally. Coloradans pay $0.15 per $1,000 of income in alcohol taxes, while the national average is $0.44.\(^{60}\) Tax rates on liquor vary based on the type of beverage, from 8 cents per gallon on beer to 60.26 cents per liter on spirits. This tax levy will bring in roughly $46.5 million in tax

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\(^{52}\) Budget in Brief, Colorado General Assembly Joint Budget Committee, FY 2017-18.

\(^{53}\) CFI analysis of data from the U.S. Census and Bureau of Economic Analysis.

\(^{54}\) Budget in Brief, Colorado General Assembly Joint Budget Committee, FY 2016-17.

\(^{55}\) Ibid.

\(^{56}\) Ibid.


\(^{58}\) CFI analysis of data from the U.S. Census and Bureau of Economic Analysis.

\(^{59}\) Budget in Brief, Colorado General Assembly Joint Budget Committee, FY 2017-18.

\(^{60}\) CFI analysis of data from the U.S. Census and Bureau of Economic Analysis.
collections for the state in FY2017-18.61

Marijuana Taxes

In 2000, Colorado voters passed Amendment 20 to the Colorado Constitution, which established a caregiver-patient system for medical marijuana and permitted qualifying patients or caregivers to possess six marijuana plants or two ounces of useable marijuana for medical purposes. In 2007, a Denver district judge ruled that this violated state law. In response, the Colorado General Assembly passed HB 10-1284, which established a framework for medical marijuana centers (dispensaries), cultivation facilities and manufacturers of edible marijuana products.

In 2012, voters in Colorado and Washington were the first to approve measures allowing recreational cultivation and use of marijuana among adults 21 years of age or older within each state.

Both medical marijuana and recreational marijuana are taxed in Colorado, but at different rates. Medical marijuana is typically taxed at a much lower rate than recreational because medical marijuana is subject to just state and local sales taxes. Recreational marijuana is subject to state and local sales tax and also to a 15 percent excise tax and a special state sales tax rate of 10 percent. Additionally, each city can apply higher tax rates to recreational marijuana.62 For example, the Denver sales tax rate is 3.65 percent for medical marijuana and 7.15 percent for recreational marijuana.63

As of November, marijuana taxes, licenses and fees have generated more than $205 million in 2017.64

In November of 2015, voters passed Proposition BB. This allows the state to retain and spend tax dollars generated by marijuana sales that were subject to a TABOR refund because of a rule in TABOR surrounding tax estimates by Legislative Council. The money that is retained by the state will be spent on school construction and other state programs.

STATE TAXES: OTHER TAXES

While the taxes listed above generate the most significant amount of revenue for the state, there are several other taxes that complete the Colorado state tax portfolio.

Gaming Taxes

Gaming is a self-contained ("cash-funded") state function that receives no tax dollars for operations or expenses. There are 40 casinos in Colorado including two tribal casinos, seven casinos in Central City, 17 casinos in Black Hawk and 14 casinos in Cripple Creek. Gaming is taxed and regulated by the Department of Revenue.

A graduated tax is imposed upon limited gaming retailers and operators. The amount of tax paid is dependent on the adjusted gross proceeds (AGP) from gaming. The AGP tax rate is between 0.25 and 20 percent of AGP. During the first 25 years of gaming in Colorado, casinos paid over $2.1 billion in gaming tax revenues to the state on $15.7 billion in adjusted gross revenues.65

Proceeds from gaming go into the Limited Gaming Fund. The Limited Gaming Fund Supports the following (determined by constitution):

- 28 percent to the State Historical Fund

61 Budget in Brief, Colorado General Assembly Joint Budget Committee, FY 2017-18.
64 Marijuana Tax Data, Department of Revenue, accessed December 6, 2017 at https://www.colorado.gov/pacific/revenue/colorado-marijuana-tax-data.
Society (used for historic preservation and restoration)
- 12 percent to Gilpin and Teller counties
- 10 percent to Cripple Creek, Central City and Black Hawk
- 50 percent to the General Fund

In 2008, Colorado voters passed Amendment 50. The measure was a citizen initiative which allowed $100 maximum bets, the addition of craps and roulette and permitted casinos to remain open 24 hours a day. The amendment also required voter approval for any increase in gaming tax rates.\(^6\)

Beginning in 2010, the proceeds from the implementation of Amendment 50 have been distributed as follows:
- 78 percent to the Colorado Community College system
- 12 percent to Gilpin and Teller Counties
- 10 percent to the towns of Cripple Creek, Central City and Black Hawk

In 2016, Amendment 50 distributions totaled $12.5 million. Community colleges received $9.8 million.\(^6\)

_Estate and Inheritance Taxes_

The Colorado estate tax, based on the federal estate tax, was phased out beginning Dec. 31, 2004, due to federal tax law changes.

Regulatory and Business Taxes

Regulatory taxes on the licensing of businesses, including sales licenses, liquor licenses, cigarette licenses and special fuels licenses and permits are expected to generate more than $73 million in FY 2017-18.\(^6\) The largest revenue generating activities in this category include an underground storage tank surcharge and PUC utility supervision fees.

**STATE TAXES: LOCAL TAXES**

Colorado is one of the most fiscally decentralized states in the nation. It is one of only four states in which the state government generates less tax revenue than the local governments.\(^6\) Revenue collections by Colorado state government rank 47th per $1,000 of income.\(^7\) However, revenue collections by state and local governments combined move Colorado to 44th.\(^7\)

This pattern of weak state government has been reinforced by various constitutional revenue limits adopted in the past two decades. TABOR’s constitutionally mandated elections on all tax rate changes and its revenue limit, which forces government spending to lose pace with the growth in the economy, has affected state finances dramatically. Local governments have had more opportunity and success in securing public support for retaining money collected above the

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\(^7\)Ibid.
Property and sales taxes are the major source of local tax revenue. According to Legislative Council, local governments’ tax collections rank 8th out of states that collect taxes locally. Local governments in every state collect property taxes, and local governments in all but 15 states collect sales taxes. In 2008, local (municipal, county, school and special districts) taxes accounted for 51 percent of combined state and local taxes.

**Property Taxes**

Colorado collects property taxes on the assessed value of both residential and commercial property. All of the revenues generated by property taxes remain at the local level. This revenue goes to pay for schools, roads, fire protection, police and other local services.

Property tax is collected on the taxable value of a property. In Colorado, the value of property that is taxed is not the market or the actual value; it is the “assessed value.” The assessed value is a percentage of the actual value that is determined by applying the “assessment rate.” The assessment rate in Colorado is 29 percent for commercial property and the residential rate is set by the legislature during odd-numbered years. The current residential rate is 7.96 percent.

Once the assessed value is determined, a “mill levy” rate is applied to calculate taxes owed. Each local entity determines what revenue is required to operate their budget. They then divide the total amount needed by the assessed value to determine their mill levies for the year. A property owner’s total mill levy is the total of their county, city, school district and any other special districts’ mill levies. The total mill levy is multiplied by assessed value to determine the total amount of property tax that is due.

**History of Colorado Property Tax**

When Colorado entered into the union in 1876, state government tax sources were limited to property taxes and some forms of excise taxes. Local governments were heavily dependent upon property taxes for revenue. Yet Colorado’s constitution limited the amount the state government could levy to four mills for general purposes and an additional one mill for buildings at state educational institutions.

The state of Colorado levied a property tax until 1964, when HB 64-1005 repealed all statutes dealing with state levied property taxation. Since that time, property tax revenues have been levied exclusively at the local level for school districts, cities, counties, special and other districts and junior college districts. TABOR precludes the ability for the state to levy a property tax. It states, “No new state real property tax or local district income tax shall be imposed.”

In a memo to the Joint Finance Committee on Jan. 13, 2000, the Colorado Division of Property Taxation outlined the history of property assessments from the time of statehood to the present. The memo presented the many attempts by the General Assembly to require specified assessment levels by county assessors in order to provide equity within and among the counties. Those attempts continued until the 1980s. According to the memo, in 1941, the total assessed value of the state was 8.6 percent less than the 1913 valuation despite an estimated 50 percent increase in actual values.

The impacts of the Great Depression along with replacement of some property taxes with income tax and specific ownership tax on motor vehicles were factors contributing to this decline. For example, there was a reduction in value due to the repeal of the property tax on intangibles and motor vehicles. However, there was also a

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72 Kirk, How Colorado Compares in State and Local Taxes.
73 Ibid.
74 Article X, section 20 of the Colorado Constitution, provision (8) (a)
replacement of this revenue with the imposition of income taxes and specific ownership taxes on vehicles. In addition, various state statutes that increased state aid for schools from counties with low values also contributed to lower assessments by county assessors. Thus, assessors were given an incentive to value property low in order to receive increased state aid for schools. In 1956, a constitutional amendment was adopted that exempted household personal property from taxation. The ‘60s and ’70s were marked by further attempts to provide for equalized values and updating assessments. The General Assembly would delay orders by the State Board of Equalization out of fear of property tax revolts taking place in various parts of the state.

Finally, in 1982, HCR 1005 changed the system of property taxation in the state. This amendment required, “appropriate consideration of cost, market and income approaches to value, with exceptions for agricultural, mine and oil and gas, and residential properties.” Agricultural land would be valued according to the earning or productive capacity of the land. Producing natural resources values would be based on the value of unprocessed material, and residential values would be determined by a cost and market approach. The Senate provision, now known as the Gallagher Amendment, required a constant ratio of property tax collections between residential and non-residential property before and after reappraisals. The maximum assessment rate for most non residential property was set at 29 percent. The maximum residential assessment rate was set at 21 percent and the rate would be allowed to float up or down in order to maintain the ratio. Following the adoption of this amendment, reassessment of property is now conducted every two years.

Increased oversight of the assessment process, together with a payback provision for under-assessed property, ultimately brought about equalization in values among the counties. The General Assembly was required to undertake a study of the assessor’s valuations to ensure compliance with the new provisions. This is still conducted through an annual statewide property assessment study under the direction of the Colorado Legislative Council. If any county is found not to be in compliance, the state Board of Equalization must issue an order of reappraisal and the county must pay back to the state any excess aid to schools or payments made to school districts, including interest. Beginning in 1983, the state Board of Equalization began issuing orders to counties to force compliance either through reappraisals or paybacks. The Gallagher Amendment of 1982 was a significant step in bringing equalization in property values and assessments up to date.

The tables (above, right) show what has happened...
in terms of actual value and assessed value. The first table (above) shows that total actual values rose from $147 billion in 1987 to $555 billion in 2006. Residential actual values jumped from $89 billion to $432 billion for that period.

Non-residential actual values jumped from $58 billion to $123 billion.

The next table (right) shows the growth in assessed values during the past 20 years. Total assessed values increased from $33 billion in 1987 to $74.5 billion in 2006. Residential assessed values rose from $16 billion to $34 billion and non residential assessed values increased from $17 billion to more than $40 billion. Non residential property is assessed primarily at 29 percent of actual value, while residential is assessed on a floating rate, which declined from 18 percent to less than 8 percent by 2006.

**Gallagher Amendment**

As mentioned previously, the Gallagher Amendment established a ratio between residential and non residential assessed values. Most non residential property assessments were fixed at 29 percent of actual value and residential properties were set at 21 percent of actual value. However, the ratio between the two was to remain roughly 55 percent to 45 percent, respectively, after each reassessment. Since implementation in 1987, the ratio has shifted slightly to 53 percent to 47 percent as a result of new residential construction. The table below shows the change in the residential assessment rate since implementation in 1987, as provided by the Department of Local Affair's Division of Property Taxation.

The Division of Property Taxation's Annual Report also provides an estimate of the shift from residential to non residential property as a result of the Gallagher Amendment’s continuous lowering of the residential assessment rate.

The estimates are based on a fixed residential assessment rate of 21 percent. The estimates show a cumulative total of $25.9 billion in cumulative total of $25.9 billion in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Residential Assessment Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prior to 1983</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983-1986</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989-90</td>
<td>15%</td>
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<tr>
<td>1991-92</td>
<td>14.34%</td>
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<td>1993-94</td>
<td>12.86%</td>
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<td>1995-96</td>
<td>10.36%</td>
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<td>1997-2000</td>
<td>9.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-02</td>
<td>9.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-16</td>
<td>7.96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>7.20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
property taxes shifted to non-residential property during the last two decades.

The following charts show how the Gallagher ratio affected residential and non-residential property. The first chart (right) shows residential and non-residential actual property values as a percentage of income. After declining at first, residential values began a rise from less than 150 percent of income to nearly 250 percent a decade later. Non residential values also declined in the beginning, but remained constant thereafter. This shows the tremendous growth in residential values compared with non residential values during that last 20 years.

To compare, the next chart (left) shows assessed value changes as a percentage of income for both residential and non residential property. Both residential and non residential assessed values declined and then remained fairly constant throughout the rest of the period. The impact of the Gallagher Amendment is clearly illustrated by the difference between residential actual values and residential assessed values.

Property Tax Collections

Property taxes are a significant revenue source for funding local public services in Colorado. In 2015, property tax collections comprised 62 percent of local government tax revenue in Colorado, totaling more than $7.5 billion.  

75 CFI analysis of United States Census Bureau data found here: http://www.census.gov/govs/local/
are regressive. Colorado families that earn less than $20,000 per year pay 2.4 percent of their income in property taxes, while those in the top 1 percent of all earners pay only 1.4 percent.76

**Business Personal Property Taxes**

Local governments also collect a business personal property tax. Business personal property is all the assets owned and used by a business. In Colorado, it includes machinery, furniture, computers and “state assessed personal property,” which is defined as cable lines, pipelines and utility lines.

Forty-one states tax at least some business personal property, however, it is very difficult to compare business personal property tax in Colorado to the tax in other states because property is taxed and valued in a large variety of ways.77

The Colorado business personal property tax is assessed on the actual value (market value) of all the assets owned and used by a business that are valued at more than $4,000. In 2009, there was $11.7 billion in personal property assessed value statewide, which represents about 11.9 percent of the state’s total assessed property value. This equates to approximately $820 million in business personal property tax revenue for local governments.78

Roughly 84,000 local businesses paid business personal property tax in 2003. Of these businesses, 1 percent of these companies paid 74 percent of the tax, and 25 percent of these companies paid 96 percent of the total business personal property tax.79

In an attempt to reduce the business personal property tax on small business, several exemptions have been adopted. Business personal property with an acquisition cost of less than $250 or a shelf life under one year is not taxed. Also, agricultural machinery and business inventory is not taxed. Businesses are not required to pay business personal property tax if the total actual value of the property is assessed at $7,000 or less (2014). This exemption, based on HB08-1225, will increase over time as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Table 7: Property Tax Exemption – Tax not imposed on property valued at less than:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prior to 2009</td>
<td>$2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009 - 2010</td>
<td>$4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011 – 2012</td>
<td>$5,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013 – 2014</td>
<td>$7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015 and later</td>
<td>Adjusted biennially to account for inflation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: General Assembly House Bill 08-1225

In the 2014 session, the General Assembly also added an income tax credit against business personal property tax paid by businesses that have $15,000 or less in business personal property tax, but are above the exempted threshold ($7,000 for 2014).

The business personal property tax funds local governments. In 2003, more than half of business personal property tax revenues went toward funding school districts. The remaining revenues were distributed between counties, cities and special districts.80

County reliance on the business personal property tax varies dramatically. For example, in Hinsdale County, the business personal property tax makes up 1.87 percent of total assessed value, while in

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76 Who Pays? A Distributional Analysis of the Tax Systems of all 50 States.
79 Ibid.
80 Ibid.
Morgan County, the tax makes up 44.16 percent. Since business personal property tax is assessed on power plants and pipelines, rural counties are generally more dependent than urban counties.\footnote{Herreid, Todd, \textit{Business Personal Property Tax}, Colorado Legislative Council Memorandum, October 13, 2010 at http://cospl.coalliance.org/fez/eserv/co:8439/ga42b962010internet.pdf.}

\textit{Sales Taxes}

Many cities and counties impose their own local sales/use tax on purchases and transactions within their boundaries. The Colorado Department of Revenue, in addition to collecting state sales and use tax, collects sales tax on behalf of many cities and counties. These jurisdictions are referred to as "state-collected." Most Colorado counties that impose sales tax are state-collected; however, Broomfield and Denver counties collect their own county sales tax.\footnote{Sales Tax, Colorado Department of Revenue, accessed January 10, 2011 at http://www.colorado.gov/cs/Satellite/Revenue/REVX/1176842266427.}

Cities which have enacted a "home-rule" charter, and which have elected to administer their own local sales and use taxes, are referred to as "self-collected" or "self-administered." Self-administered jurisdictions have the right to establish their own regulations regarding those goods and services upon which to impose their local sales and use taxes.\footnote{Ibid.}

In 2015, local sales tax revenues totaled more than $4.2 billion.\footnote{CFI analysis of United States Census Bureau data found here: http://www.census.gov/govs/local/} This amount equals 34 percent of the $12.2 billion in taxes collected at the local level annually. Colorado ranks 12\textsuperscript{th} highest out of states that collect local sales taxes (per $1,000 of income).\footnote{CFI analysis of data from the U.S. Census and Bureau of Economic Analysis.}
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