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Burgstaller, Lilith; Pfeil, Katharina

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Why whistleblowing does not deter collaborative tax evasion

Freiburger Diskussionspapiere zur Ordnungsökonomik, No. 24/3

Provided in Cooperation with:

Institute for Economic Research, University of Freiburg

Suggested Citation: Burgstaller, Lilith; Pfeil, Katharina (2024): Why whistleblowing does not deter collaborative tax evasion, Freiburger Diskussionspapiere zur Ordnungsökonomik, No. 24/3, Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg, Institut für Allgemeine Wirtschaftsforschung, Abteilung für Wirtschaftspolitik und Ordnungsökonomik, Freiburg i. Br.

This Version is available at: https://hdl.handle.net/10419/305289

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Freiburger Diskussionspapiere zur Ordnungsökonomik

Freiburg Discussionpapers on Constitutional Economics

Why Whistleblowing Does Not Deter Collaborative Tax Evasion*

Lilith Burgstaller und Katharina Pfeil 24/3

Walter Eucken Institut Goethestraße 10 79100 Freiburg www.eucken.de wei-freiburg@eucken.de

universität freiburg

Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg Institut für Wirtschaftswissenschaften Abteilung Wirtschaftspolitik und Ordnungsökonomik

Why Whistleblowing Does Not Deter Collaborative Tax Evasion*

Lilith Burgstaller[†] Katharina Pfeil[‡]

Abstract: Does whistleblowing deter rule violations when such violations are believed to be common? We examine this question in an online experiment about collaborative tax evasion. We vary whether subjects can blow the whistle on their partner in crime and introduce a high-evasion environment by framing the social norm such that evasion is expected to be common. Our findings show that giving partners in crime the option to blow the whistle on their partner does not significantly deter collaborative tax evasion. Collaborative tax evasion significantly increases in a high-evasion environment compared to an unspecified norm environment, even when whistleblowing is possible. This finding underlines that the norm environment is crucial for evasion and corroborates that whistleblowing is ineffective when both partners benefit from collaborative evasion. We offer several explanations for these findings.

Keywords: Collaborative Tax Evasion, Social Norm, Peer Reporting, Whistleblowing, On-

line Experiment

JEL: H26; E26; O17; D91

This version: September 22, 2024

^{*}This project was pre-registered on OSF (https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/RM76A) and we obtained an IRB approval from the German Association for Experimental Economic Research (GfeW), No. khQLQF4P. We gratefully acknowledge the financial support from the Science Foundation of the University of Freiburg. The paper benefited from participants' comments at the IAREP 2023, GfeW 2023, Annual Conference of the NTA 2023 and Annual Meeting of the SEA 2023. We thank Matthias Kasper for his insights and Lars P. Feld for invaluable guidance on the paper. Arrita Domi provided excellent research assistance. Declaration of interest: none.

[†]Corresponding author: Walter Eucken Institute, Goethestraße 10, 79100 Freiburg, Germany; University of Freiburg, Rempartstraße 10-16, 79098 Freiburg, Germany, burgstaller@eucken.de

[‡]Walter Eucken Institute, Goethestraße 10, 79100 Freiburg, Germany, pfeil@eucken.de.

1 Introduction

Uncovering rule violations is challenging, whether it concerns individuals, firms or the authorities. Often, informants play a crucial role in getting the word out and reporting misconduct. One of the numerous examples of whistleblowers revealing wrongdoing is the Cum-Ex Case, in which a business lawyer uncovered fraudulent tax practices that led to an estimated loss of tax revenue of around 150 billion Euros worldwide (Spengel, 2021). In many cases, whistleblower programs are accompanied by leniency policies. One example is the IRS Whistleblower Program in the US, that reclaimed 6.6 billion US dollars of tax revenue between 2007 and 2022 (IRS Whistleblower Office, 2023). However, there are no one-size-fits-all solutions and the mechanisms of such programs still need to be fully understood (Butler et al., 2020). Particularly, it remains an open question whether whistleblowing is an effective policy tool to deter collaborative tax evasion, i.e., in settings where both parties are involved in wrongdoing rather than one person acting as an external bystander.

Collaborative tax evasion is compelling to explore because two parties' collusion often does not produce a verifiable paper trail (Nygård et al., 2019). Many collaborative settings are characterized by high rates of tax evasion, for example, in the construction sector (Williams et al., 2011), agriculture (Williams & Horodnic, 2018), hospitality, retail, personal services (Williams & Kayaoglu, 2020), and in household services (OECD, 2021). In such high-evasion environments, individuals may perceive and expect evasion as common and acceptable, which decreases compliance even further (Burgstaller & Pfeil, 2024). Since auditing is costly and enforcement capacities are limited, authorities can incentivize individuals to create a paper trail themselves by collecting receipts or acting as whistleblowers (e.g., Naritomi, 2019).

In light of this, our paper examines two questions. First, does whistleblowing deter collaborative tax evasion when potential whistleblowers directly participate in and benefit from evasion? Second, how effective is whistleblowing in a high-evasion environment where individuals expect evasion to be the common behavior?

The effectiveness of whistleblowing has been studied in various contexts, such as cartels (Aubert et al., 2006; Apesteguia et al., 2007), corporate fraud (Mechtenberg et al., 2020; Butler et al., 2020), organized crime (Piccolo & Immordino, 2017), corruption (Buckenmaier et al., 2020; Guerra & Zhuravleva, 2021) and tax evasion (Naritomi, 2019; Chapkovski et al., 2021; Masclet et al., 2019). It can reduce instances of undetected wrongdoing through two channels. First, additional cases of wrongdoing are detected if individuals blow the whistle. Second, the threat of whistleblowing can deter wrongdoing in general. Prior research indicates that both channels enhance compliance: The opportunity to blow

the whistle increases the fraction of uncovered misconduct. Moreover, the threat of whistle-blowing decreases misconduct through deterrence (Masclet et al., 2019; Chapkovski et al., 2021; Abbink & Wu, 2017; Schmolke & Utikal, 2018). However, it is an open question to what extent whistleblowing is also effective in high-evasion environments. Social norms are crucial for understanding the observed compliance rates and individuals' motivation to pay taxes, especially when it comes to collaborative compliance (Luttmer & Singhal, 2014; Hallsworth et al., 2017). According to Bicchieri (2006), one component of a social norm is individuals' expectation of what is common in the society. We term a setting in which individuals expect evasion to be common a high-evasion environment. Curtis et al. (2021) have studied this expectation of evasion and attitudes of whistleblowing. They show that high-evasion environments makes individuals more critical towards whistleblowers and more forgiving when judging wrongdoers. There is no evidence, however, on the effectiveness of whistleblowing in detecting and deterring collaborative evasion when evasion is expected.

Experimental studies are particularly suitable to study whistleblowing as they can construct clean counterfactuals in which rule violations can also be measured when whistleblowing is not in place (Butler et al., 2020). Therefore, we implement a collaborative tax evasion game in which a seller and a buyer jointly decide whether to evade a transaction. Seller and buyer can communicate in a chat before they decide whether to declare or evade. The seller then makes an offer for a transaction with or without a tax declaration that the buyer accepts or rejects. There is a random audit probability of 10%, and when pairs are found evading, both players pay a fine of twice the evaded tax payment.

We implement three treatment conditions: A condition with whistleblowing, a condition with whistleblowing in a high-evasion environment and a control treatment. In the first condition, we give subjects the possibility of reporting their partner to the tax authorities. To incentivize individuals to report misconduct, we provide whistleblowers with a tax amnesty, exempting them from both tax repayment and fines. Only if both partners report each other, there is no amnesty, and both must pay a fine. This incentive structure is similar to a prisoner's dilemma: It is most beneficial to evade and then report the partner in order to receive the amnesty. However, if both players follow this reasoning, both lose the amnesty and have to pay the fine. Participants may avoid or opt out of the dilemma by declaring the transaction. In the second condition, in addition to the option of whistleblowing, we create a high-evasion environment by giving subjects information that the majority of participants chose to evade the transaction in a similar study. In such a norm environment, subjects should expect evasion to be common. In the control treatment, subjects make decisions in the evasion game described above. They cannot blow the whistle, nor do we inform them that evasion is common.

Our results show that the possibility of whistleblowing does not affect collaborative evasion, neither directly through instances of whistleblowing nor indirectly through enhanced deterrence. Post-experimental questions reveal mechanisms behind this striking result: Many individuals are not afraid of being reported when evading and trust that their partner will not report them. The fraction of individuals feeling this way is higher for individuals in the high-evasion environment. This supports our second main finding: When subjects believe evasion is prevalent, the fraction of evaded transactions is significantly higher (+ 11 percentage points) than without information about the high-evasion environment despite the possibility of whistleblowing.

Our study contributes to three strands of literature. First, we contribute to studies on whistleblowing as a means to uncover and deter tax evasion. We show that in collaborative tax evasion, the possibility of whistleblowing does not significantly aid in either exposing or preventing evasion. These results are in contrast to findings in the individual tax evasion literature, which show that whistleblowing is an effective deterrence instrument (Masclet et al., 2019; Naritomi, 2019; Bazart et al., 2020; Dwenger & Treber, 2022). Opposed to previous studies that often place individuals in larger groups acting as bystanders who observe wrongdoing and decide whether to report their peers (see, e.g., Schmolke & Utikal, 2018, for an overview on 'traiterous' versus 'watchdog' whistleblowing), whistleblowers are directly involved in the transaction in our study and can also report each other (bilateral or symmetric whistleblowing).

Experiments by Abbink & Wu (2017) and Buckenmaier et al. (2020) include collaboration between individuals but focus on corruption rather than tax evasion. Implementing a setting where taxpayers can bribe tax officers to evade taxes, Buckenmaier et al. (2020) find that unilateral whistleblowing reduces tax evasion and corruption. Abbink & Wu (2017) find that bilateral whistleblowing deters corruption of an importer bribing a public official to overlook imported goods. In contrast to our collaborative tax evasion game, there is more scope for distrust in this setting as the public official may betray the briber and decide to report the goods after collecting the bribe. Additionally, we are curious about a norm environment specific to collaborative tax evasion across various sectors: the awareness that numerous other individuals evade their taxes.

The second strand of the literature we add to is the sparse research on the impact of social norms and expectations that shape the decision environment for whistleblowing (Waytz et al., 2013; Curtis et al., 2021). The high prevalence and commonness of collaborative tax evasion in many sectors may limit the effectiveness of whistleblowing. Experiments have shown that information about the acceptance or occurrence of tax evasion significantly affects collaborative compliance (Abraham et al., 2017; Burgstaller & Pfeil, 2024). We find that whistleblowing is ineffective when individuals believe that evasion occurs frequently.

Collaborative tax evasion is more prevalent than when individuals are unaware of others' actions, even when they can blow the whistle.

Third, we contribute to the literature that finds that leniency policies do not deter cartel formation or stability if there is free-form communication (Andres et al., 2021; Dijkstra et al., 2021). Our findings support and extend these findings for subjects colluding to evade taxes. The predominant fraction of individuals in our experiment does not feel obliged to report their partner when evading taxes. In general, subjects feel more loyal to their partner in crime than they feel obliged to report wrongdoing to be fair to society. Apart from free-floating communication which can explain high levels of trust among study participants, the type of leniency may also shed light on these results. Diverse types of leniency programs and amnesties to increase tax disclosure have long been discussed in the literature (see Hoopes et al., 2023; Gil et al., 2023, for recent overviews). Financial incentives to report the partner in collaborative evasion may need to be stronger or more certain than implemented in our setting, not crowding out an intrinsic motivation to pay taxes at the same time (Blaufus et al., 2017; Feld & Frey, 2010).

Our findings highlight that policymakers need to consider whether tax evasion is committed individually or collaboratively when implementing whistleblowing as a cost-effective additional deterrence instrument. The effectiveness of whistleblowing in deterring individual tax evasion does not translate to collaborative tax evasion. Whether individuals believe that noncompliance is common in a high-evasion environment or are unaware of the norm environment, implementing whistleblowing is ineffective in reducing or detecting evasion. Incentives to encourage whistleblowing in collaborative decisions should be carefully set and policymakers should bear in mind that due to the collusive nature of such transactions, trust between partners may be high enough to discourage whistleblowing even in one-time transactions.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, we explain the experiment including treatments, theoretical considerations and implementation. In Section 3, we describe the results. In Section 4, we discuss the results and mechanisms and Section 5 concludes and develops policy implications.

2 The experiment

We use an online experiment to examine whether whistleblowing affects the propensity of collaborative tax evasion. In the following, we describe the flow of the experiment,

¹For instance, voluntary public disclosure programs have been intensely researched in various countries such as the US (Johannesen et al., 2020; Langenmayr, 2017), Norway (Alstadsæter et al., 2022), Pakistan (Slemrod et al., 2022) and Colombia (Londoño-Vélez & Ávila-Mahecha, 2021).

followed by the treatment conditions, theoretical insights and the detailed implementation on MTurk.

2.1 Flow of the experiment and incentives

In a one-shot experiment, we observe pairs of two subjects deciding on the declaration of a transaction. The experiment is as short as possible to avoid dropouts because participants' attention spans are lower in online experiments (Chandler et al., 2014; Zhou & Fishbach, 2016). By only playing for one round, we also ensure that our treatment with additional information about the majority's evasion behavior is not neglected over multiple rounds. The game comprises up to nine stages, depending on the treatment condition and decision that partners take. Figure 1 visualizes the experimental procedure. The instructions and selected screens are available in Appendix A.

All subjects first enter a lobby stage where they are matched into pairs on a first-come-first-served basis. We inform subjects that it can take up to three minutes to be matched with a partner. If they are not matched after three minutes, they can stay in the lobby or leave the experiment. Once they are successfully matched, subjects receive further information on their roles and incentives. Sellers receive the information that they are providing a service, and buyers are informed that they are looking for a service.

There is a separate stage for the subjects in WhistleT and WhistleExpectationT (see Section 2.2 for a detailed explanation). In this stage, they receive information about the possibility of whistleblowing and the financial consequences. Whistleblowing leads to a certain audit. Subjects in WhistleExpectationT additionally receive information about the majority's evasion behavior in a similar study. Note that we randomly vary the order of the information about the possibility of whistleblowing and the information that evasion is common to avoid order effects in WhistleExpectationT. Subjects in ControlT do not receive any information and skip these stages.

Next, there is a stage with a chatbox in which partners can communicate for up to 2.5 minutes and discuss whether to declare the transaction. After chatting, the seller is asked to make an offer with or without tax declaration. The offer is then sent to the buyer, who accepts or rejects the offer. If subjects in WhistleT or WhistleExpectationT agree to transact without declaring taxes, they are asked if they want to report their partner in the next stage. In the final stage, transactions are audited, and information about payoffs and audits is displayed. Note that an audit stems from either a random audit generator that determines whether a pair is audited with a probability of 10% or from the partner blowing the whistle in treatments WhistleT and WhistleExpectationT. When a pair is audited, the tax authority detects the entire amount of evaded tax payments.

We explicitly frame the instructions with terms such as tax rate, audit rate or penalty to place our experiment in the tax context we want to investigate. The two roles and the transaction are described in broad terms such as seller, buyer and transaction, so we obtain generalizable results for all types of goods and sectors. For simplification reasons and since previous results on the type of redistribution or financing of public goods remain inconclusive (Masclet et al., 2013; Doerrenberg, 2015), there is no redistribution of the tax payment. The instructions inform subjects about the tax, audit rates and payoffs. We make the consequences of decisions very salient by displaying tables showing all possible payoffs in the instructions and on the chat stage.

| | ControlT | WhistleT | WhistleExpectationT |
|---|---|-------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1 | Matching into pairs | | |
| 2 | Description of roles and setting | | |
| 3 | | Description of whistleblowing | |
| 4 | | Evasion expectation | |
| 5 | Chat | | |
| 6 | Seller decides on offer with or without tax declaration | | |
| 7 | Buyer decides to accept or reject offer | | |
| 8 | | If evasion: Possibility | to blow the whistle |
| 9 | Information about tax audit and payoff | | |

Figure 1: Experimental procedure

Notes: The highlighted stages are only displayed to subjects in WhistleT or WhistleExpectationT. We randomly vary the order of the third stage and the fourth stage in WhistleExpectationT to avoid order effects. Order effects imply that the possibility of whistleblowing predominates the evasion decision for subjects reading the whistleblowing information first, and vice versa.

In addition to a fixed show-up fee of 0.50 US dollars (USD) for participation in our study, we fully incentivize the decisions in the experiment. Participants can receive an additional bonus payment between 1.20 and 2.10 USD, depending on their decision. We align the incentives for both roles to reach the same monetary outcomes in each possible final decision. Therefore, we do not expect any differences in behavior between the roles, and if we find evidence for differences, pecuniary motives do not drive them. During the experiment, the monetary value of transactions and payoffs is indicated in experimental currency units (ECU) and converted to USD at an exchange rate of 0.003.

At the beginning of the experiment, every subject receives a fixed endowment (400 ECU). There are four possible monetary outcomes from our experiment.

- With declaration: If a pair agrees to declare the transaction, both subjects receive a total payoff of 610 ECU (1.83 USD). The buyer's endowment (400 ECU) increases by the value of the transaction (600 ECU) minus the price (390 ECU). In turn, the seller's endowment (400 ECU) increases by the price (390 ECU), but the seller pays taxes and other fees such as social security contributions to the authorities (180 ECU). Taxes and fees comprise the buyer's share (90 ECU) and the seller's share (90 ECU).
- With evasion and without audit: If a pair agrees on a transaction without declaration and is not audited, both subjects receive 700 ECU (2.10 USD). The price for the transaction is lower (300 ECU) as it does not include taxes or fees.
- With evasion and audit: If a pair agrees on a transaction without declaration and evasion is detected in a tax audit, the payoff is 520 ECU (1.56 USD). Both partners are fined, and each subject's payoff from evasion decreases by the fine of twice the evaded tax payment (180 ECU).
- **Rejection:** If the buyer rejects the seller's offer, the payoff from the experiment corresponds to the initial endowment of 400 ECU (1.20 USD) for both subjects.

Note, that an outcome under auditing can be reached in two ways: Either through the random audit probability of 10% or when auditing is triggered through one or both partners blowing the whistle. In the latter case, the incentives are asymmetric: While the whistleblower receives the amnesty and thereby the payoff described in the second option, the person that was reported pays the fine as described in the third option. In Section 2.2 we describe whistleblowing outcomes in more detail.

2.2 Treatments

To examine the effect of whistleblowing on collaborative tax evasion, we randomly assign subjects to one of three conditions as displayed in Table 1. Subjects in *ControlT* make decisions in the collaborative tax evasion game.

In WhistleT, we add the possibility of whistleblowing to the basic setup. Disclosure of tax information, whether self-disclosed or reporting others, can create publicity and increased social control (e.g., Bø et al., 2015). However, in our experiment, the whistleblowing mechanism is not connected to public awareness. Since we do not publish information revealed by whistleblowers, public shaming, social comparison and social control do not play

a role. Instead, on a separate screen in the instructions, we inform subjects that they can blow the whistle on their partner if they agree on a transaction without declaration. They report the information directly to the tax authority and remain completely anonymous. We inform them about a leniency policy that grants them tax amnesty if they report their partner and their partner does not report them (Figure 7 in Appendix A). Note that the possibility of whistleblowing is announced before the pairs agree to evade. However, the stage on which subjects can decide to report their partner only appears if they have agreed to evade. Subjects who decide on a transaction with declaration or who do not agree to transact do not have the option to blow the whistle.

In WhistleExpectationT, subjects also make decisions in the collaborative tax evasion game with the possibility to report their partner. To examine the effectiveness of whistle-blowing in a high-evasion environment, we additionally inform subjects of the majority's evasion behavior and thereby create an empirical expectation of evasion. Note that empirical expectations are considered one component of a social norm. They refer to beliefs about what others do. Normative expectations on the other hand are beliefs about what others approve or disapprove of (see, e.g., Bicchieri, 2006). In our case, an empirical expectation of evasion creates a norm environment in which people should believe that it is common to evade. We manipulate the norm environment by displaying the following sentence after the instructions: "In a similar study, the majority of participants evaded the transaction." Previous evidence shows that this additional sentence successfully manipulates subjects' evasion expectations (Burgstaller & Pfeil, 2024). The empirical foundation for this particular sentence stems from pilot data in a similar setup. With this approach, we follow a growing strand in the literature on conditional preferences and social information (Bicchieri et al., 2023; Bicchieri & Dimant, 2019).

| Treatments | Variation relative to ControlT | N |
|------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----|
| ControlT | / | 162 |
| WhistleT | Whistleblowing | 156 |
| Whist le Expectation T | Whistleblowing + evasion expectation | 158 |

Table 1: Treatment overview

Note: The collaborative tax evasion game is the basic framework for subjects' decisions in all treatments.

In both treatments that incorporate whistleblowing, evaders may receive a tax amnesty if they blow the whistle on their partner. The amnesty exempts whistleblowers from paying a fine and repaying their tax liability. This is similar to whistleblower rewards that serve

as incentives to report tax evasion, both in individual as well as in collaborative settings (IRS Whistleblower Office, 2023). In contrast to most whistleblower rewards, however, individuals cannot be sure that they will receive the reward as there is uncertainty about the partner's decision in our setting.

Note that there are four possibilities of how whistleblowing affects outcomes when a pair decides to evade. Figure 2 captures the four scenarios in a decision tree. First, if both players decide not to blow the whistle on each other, they are subject to a random audit probability of 10%. Second, one of the partners can blow the whistle unilaterally so that the seller reports the buyer but the buyer does not report them or vice versa. In this case, the whistleblower will receive the amnesty, while the reported partner pays the fine of twice the evaded tax payment. In the last case, both partners report each other and both have to pay the fine.

The expected reward from whistleblowing depends on the probability that a player assigns to their partner blowing the whistle on them. If they perceive this probability to be zero, their expected reward from whistleblowing corresponds to the gains from the tax amnesty such as exemption from a fine and tax repayment. However, if they expect their partner to report them, the reward from whistleblowing is zero and they have to pay the fine even if they decide to report their partner as well.

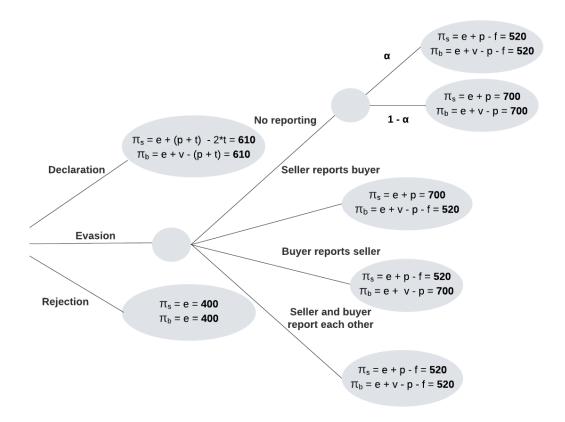


Figure 2: Overview of payoffs with whistleblowing

Notes: The figure displays the possible payoffs for the game with whistleblowing for the seller (π_s) and buyer (π_b) in experimental currency units (ECU). In ControlT, only the "no reporting" outcome applies in the case of evasion. e is the endowment every individual receives in the beginning of the game (400 ECU). p is the price of the transaction (300 ECU), v is the value of the transaction for the buyer (600 ECU), t is the amount of taxes due (90 ECU), t is the fine of twice the evaded tax payment that needs to be paid if evasion is detected (180 ECU). t corresponds to the audit probability of 10%.

Note that the option to choose evasion and report the partner is only marginally more attractive than to evade without reporting the partner (700 ECU vs. 682 ECU in expected values). This design feature is due to the low audit probability and due to the reward from whistleblowing not exceeding the benefits from undetected evasion. Still, the incentives in our experiment are larger than in the field. The audit probabilities are extremely low, e.g., 0.38% in 2022 in the United States (TRAC, 2023) with collaborative tax evasion being even less likely to trace. Moreover, the rewards for whistleblowing are usually much lower, e.g., 0.15% of the evaded amount in the United States (IRS Whistleblower Office, 2023). Therefore, we likely overemphasize the attractiveness of whistleblowing to examine how it

2.3 Theoretical considerations and hypotheses

Theoretically, the possibility of whistleblowing may affect tax compliance through two channels.² First, there is a direct effect on detection probabilities and revenue through individuals that blow the whistle on their partners who then have to repay taxes and fines. Second, through the fear of being reported by a partner, whistleblowing may indirectly discourage collaborative evasion, leading to higher tax compliance irrespective of actual whistleblowing.

Regarding the direct effect of whistleblowing, the more individuals blow the whistle on the partner, the greater the increase in tax revenues through detection. Previous literature has identified monetary and non-monetary incentives that individuals consider when contemplating on whistleblowing (Butler et al., 2020). Monetary incentives have been proven to effectively encourage whistleblowing in some studies (Butler et al., 2020; Schmolke & Utikal, 2018; Nyreröd & Spagnolo, 2021). Incentives include legal immunity or amnesty with reduced repayments, interests or penalties to encourage taxpayers to report previously undisclosed liability or assets (see Le Borgne & Baer, 2008; Gil et al., 2023, for overviews).

In our experiment, the incentives to report the partner are set as follows: The amnesty is granted only if individuals report their partner unilaterally. However, they both have to pay the fine if they report each other bilaterally, i.e., if both partners report each other. The setup of the whistleblowing incentives is akin to a prisoners' dilemma with three (pure) strategy Nash equilibria (Table 2): First, the seller reporting the buyer, while the buyer does not report the seller. Second, the buyer reporting the seller, while the seller does not report the buyer. Third, both partners reporting each other. For each individual, it is most beneficial to evade and report the partner and receive amnesty as long as the partner refrains from reporting them. However, if both follow this consideration, it will result in both players losing the amnesty and having to pay the fine.

Given this incentive structure, the decision to blow the whistle is not straightforward but depends on individuals' expectations of their partner's behavior. If an individual is convinced that their partner will not report them, it is most beneficial for them to report their partner as they will receive the tax amnesty. If an individual expects to be reported by their partner, their own payoff is independent of whether they report their partner as well as they will pay the fine in both cases. Therefore, decisions to blow the whistle when expecting to be reported must be motivated by non-monetary factors. Such factors may

²Our conceptualization is similar to the twofold effect of leniency programs on cartel stability and formation (Clemens & Rau, 2019). In this context, the first effect is inducing admissions of wrongdoing within a cartel, whereas the second effect is discouraging the creation of new cartels.

include ostracism (Curtis et al., 2021; Reuben & Stephenson, 2013) as well as retaliation against whistleblowers (Eisenstadt & Pacella, 2018). This suggests that individuals might perceive an urge to take revenge. In that case they should report their partner to make them pay a fine as well. Second, the possibility of whistleblowing introduces a "loyalty-fairness trade-off" (Butler et al., 2020; Waytz et al., 2013). In a collaborative setting, subjects weigh the social consequences of reporting evasion to the authorities against the consequences for their partner. They may be loyal to their partner by not reporting them or fair towards society by blowing the whistle. If individuals expect their partner to report them, their loyalty towards them is likely less pronounced giving rise to the fairness dimension that suggest that individuals should blow the whistle on their partner.

| | Seller does not report | Seller reports |
|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------|
| Buyer does not report | B: 682; S: 682 | B: 520; S:700 |
| | 1,364 | 1,220 |
| Buyer reports | B:700; S: 520 | B: 520; S: 520 |
| | 1,220 | 1,040 |

Table 2: Overview of whistleblowing incentives – Expected values

Note: This table displays individual payoffs as expected values in experimental currency units (ECU) for the buyer (B) and seller (S), as well as the sum of expected payoffs for the pair below.

Besides the direct effect of whistleblowing on tax revenue by uncovering evaded transactions, the threat of whistleblowing may indirectly deter evasion decisions and increase compliance. There is evidence of such a deterrent effect of whistleblowing across various domains (Masclet et al., 2019; Chapkovski et al., 2021; Nyreröd & Spagnolo, 2021; Reuben & Stephenson, 2013; Bazart et al., 2020; Antinyan et al., 2020).

Individuals' decision to evade or declare the transaction depends on their expectations about whether their partners will report then. In our setup, there are four outcomes. First, if an individual has no intention to report their partner and does not expect their partner to report them, their behavior should be similar to a scenario without whistleblowing. Second, if an individual has no intention to report their partner and expects their partner to report them, they should not evade. This way, they will achieve a higher payoff by declaring the transaction than if they were fined for evasion. Third, if an individual intends to report their partner and does not expect their partner to report them, they should evade. This way, individuals secure the amnesty for themselves while the partner pays the fine. Fourth, if an individual intends to report their partner and also expects their partner to report them, they should not evade. This way, both avoid fine payments.

Recall from the incentive structure above that when choosing evasion, at least one of the partners is expected to blow the whistle. Therefore, individuals should expect their partner to report them. If this is the case, single individuals should not agree to evade a transaction. Recall, that the decision requires mutual consent and that coordination before making the decision is possible in the chat. If one individual opposes to evade the transaction, the second-highest payoff comes from declaration. We therefore expect pairs to declare the transaction as soon as one individual expects their partner to blow the whistle on them. Literature on endogenous group formation in prisoners' dilemmas supports these considerations: Some individuals seem to avoid entering prisoners' dilemmas if an outside option exists. This holds even when this outside option provides a lower payoff (Wilson & Wu, 2017; Keser & Montmarquette, 2011). In our case, the outside options to avoid the whistleblowing dilemma are declaration or not transacting at all (rejection). Since the payoff from declaration surpasses that of not transacting and a pair may reach an agreement in the chat, we expect a general deterrent effect from the possibility of whistleblowing.

Hypothesis 1: If there is a possibility to blow the whistle on the partner, compliance increases compared to when whistleblowing is not possible.

This paper's second main research interest is whether whistleblowing is an effective policy tool to increase compliance in a high-evasion environment. We create this environment by giving information that the majority evaded in a similar context. Thus, we manipulate subjects' empirical expectations so that they believe evasion to be common. In contrast to normative expectations about what individuals should do, empirical expectations are beliefs about what individuals actually do. Both together constitute a social norm (Bicchieri, 2006). While unconditional individuals would either always be compliant or non-compliant when making decisions, the preferences of conditional norm-following individuals depend on social norms (Bicchieri et al., 2023; Bicchieri & Xiao, 2009). Hence, when we give information about the majority's evasion behavior, it should affect conditional norm-followers' behavior by making them aware of a particular empirical expectation.

Empirical expectations have been shown to significantly affect individual and joint tax compliance (Hallsworth et al., 2017; Burgstaller & Pfeil, 2024). Broadly, there are three mechanisms why empirical expectations have a strong effect on compliance behavior. First, empirical expectations may highlight a widespread standard of dishonesty that shapes tax-payers' perceptions of normal behavior (Bicchieri et al., 2022b). This may in turn affect normative expectations and individuals' perception of what others sanction (Bicchieri et al., 2023). Second, empirical expectations may impact how taxpayers rationalize their actions. Recognizing that others engage in evasion offers a rationale for their own dishonest

behavior (Bicchieri et al., 2023). Third, the manipulation of expectations can alter individuals' expectations of their partners. When evasion appears to be the predominant behavior, individuals may believe it is more likely that their partner will also consider evasion acceptable and assume their partner's readiness to engage in evasion, which may diminish internal obstacles, such as concerns over tarnished reputation (Besley et al., 2023).

So, how do whistleblowing and the high-evasion environment interact and affect compliance? First, as individuals receive information on others' non-compliance, they may have lower psychological costs of evasion, crowding out their intrinsic motivation to comply (Blaufus et al., 2017; Alm et al., 2017; Koch & Müller, 2024; Feld & Frey, 2002; Torgler & Schaltegger, 2005). Second, the amnesty might be a signal of weak enforcement capacities on the tax authority's side if it is implemented in a high-evasion setting as authorities feel the need to involve citizens in the enforcement process. If this is the case, the subjective perception of the audit probability might be lower than in a setting without an empirical evasion expectation.

Third, the belief that it is common to evade may affect the "loyalty-fairness trade-off." Because of the perceived commonness of evasion, individuals may expect their partners to intend and accept evasion. This may foster loyalty towards the partner when committing evasion. Conversely, concerns about societal fairness might justify evasion, if evasion is prevalent in society and individuals define the fairness norm self-servingly in this context to avoid being the sole last taxpayer (Feld & Frey, 2010). Suppose individuals believe that their partner will not report them based on the empirical expectation. In that case, the effectiveness of whistleblowing in reducing the fraction of evaded transactions may be significantly attenuated or even exhausted.

Hypothesis 2: The compliance-increasing effect of whistleblowing diminishes in a highevasion environment.

The previous hypotheses address the indirect effect of whistleblowing on tax compliance. We predict that knowing that there is a possibility to be reported by the partner increases average compliance through a deterrent effect. However, we assume that this effect diminishes in a high-evasion environment, when evasion is believed to be common.

Since we also measure individuals' decisions to blow the whistle, we can additionally observe the direct effect of whistleblowing on detected evasion. This includes to what extent individuals report their partner and, thereby, if whistleblowing increases tax revenues directly by uncovering unpaid taxes. This does not per se increase compliance, but it increases revenues from fines. As established above, when a pair agrees on evasion, each individual could either blow the whistle on the partner or not. Regardless the environ-

ment, it is rational to always blow the whistle once evasion is agreed upon so that the tax amnesty can potentially be secured. However, in a high-evasion environment, individuals are likely motivated primarily by loyalty to their partner and a reluctance to collaborate with an enforcement agency that might be perceived as ineffective. Therefore and in line with the second hypothesis, we expect that the empirical expectation also decreases the fraction of whistleblowers.

Hypothesis 3: In a high-evasion environment, the willingness to blow the whistle decreases.

2.4 Implementation

We implement our experiment on Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) and use CloudResearch to recruit high-ranked workers, which ensures that our data is of high quality (Litman et al., 2017). MTurk is a frequently used online labor market (Aguinis et al., 2021; Huff & Tingley, 2015). We conduct multiple sessions per treatment and run each session as a human intelligence task (HIT) on MTurk, posted online for 30 minutes to 1 hour. The study is programmed with *LIONESS Lab*, an online platform developed especially for interactive experiments (Giamattei et al., 2020).

To determine the minimum required number of observations for analyzing a given effect size, we conduct a power analysis with G*Power (Faul et al., 2007). We assume a small to medium-sized effect (Cohen's d = 0.4) (Cohen, 1977). For a power level of $(1 - \beta) = 0.8$ and a significance level of 0.05, we planned to collect observations from 105 individuals per treatment. Note that our final sample size allows us also to identify smaller effect sizes.

Besides the experiment, which we describe in detail in Section 2.1, participants are required to fill in two questionnaires. The first questionnaire is completed before the experiment and contains sociodemographic questions. The second set of questions is implemented after the experiment. This post-experimental survey includes manipulation checks and questions on attitudes and experiences towards whistleblowing and social norms. Appendix B includes an overview of all pre- and post-experimental variables.

There is a debate in the literature concerning the validity of data from online experiments and whether a more diverse and experienced subject pool over-weighs the lower level of control online. As Prissé & Jorrat (2022) show, there are no significant differences when comparing subjects' decisions online and in a controlled laboratory environment. However, due to the difficulty of observing subjects online, bots or less attentive subjects likely enter the experiment (Hauser et al., 2019). Moreover, dropouts can be more frequent in online experiments, as subjects enter and exit studies quickly and at lower costs than in a lab. A

high attrition rate reduces internal validity when dropouts are treatment-specific (Zhou & Fishbach, 2016).

We use several strategies to ensure sufficient data quality and to limit attrition. First, as is standard in the literature (Arechar et al., 2018; Peer et al., 2014), we restrict our sample to individuals in the US and have an approval rate of at least 95% with more than 500 completed HITs. We choose US residents because they constitute the largest share of workers on MTurk (Difallah et al., 2018), facilitating our matching procedure. Second, we implement a captcha test to stop nonhuman subjects from entering the experiment. In addition to that, we test subjects' understanding of the experiment with control questions after subjects have read the instructions. Among the questions, we use an attention check similar to the Eckel Grossmann task (Schneider & Mill, 2022; Eckel & Grossman, 2002). In this attention check, participants read a short text and are required to select the third option of a multiple-choice question. Subjects who do not answer the control questions and the attention check correctly in two attempts are excluded from the experiment. Furthermore, we block duplicate participation as subjects who participate more than once can seriously affect the validity of our results. Third, we provoke early attrition and manage participants' expectations by informing them about the experiment to reduce treatmentspecific dropouts (Zhou & Fishbach, 2016). Our HIT description informs participants that they will participate in a decision-making task with a partner. Finally, we provide extensive information about the procedure and tasks to ensure that participants do not drop out in the interactive part of the experiment (Section A.1 and Figure 6 in Appendix A).

Since we observe decisions in pairs, we need to exclude subjects from further participation when their partner leaves the experiment. In these cases, participants only earn the fixed participation fee of 0.50 USD, which may be less than expected. Alternatively, we could have used computer-generated random decisions in such a case. However, this may impair internal validity and lead to deception if we do not inform participants of this approach in advance (Arechar et al., 2018; Giamattei et al., 2020).

3 Results

In the following, we present the results of our experiment. We describe the sample, analyze treatment effects and explain the mechanisms behind our findings by examining the post-experimental survey.

3.1 Sample characteristics

In total, 883 individuals click on the link to enter the experiment. Of these, 407 (46%) do not complete the experiment. This dropout rate is comparable to other experiments on MTurk (Aguinis et al., 2021). In the majority of cases, dropouts occur in response to quality controls and the collaborative nature of the experiment (Figure 8 in Appendix B). 33% of dropouts occur during the control questions. A third of these are excluded because of inattentiveness. Another 23% of dropouts occur because a partner leaves the experiment during the interactive stages.

We check whether dropouts are related to specific treatments, stages or sociodemographic characteristics (Table 7 in Appendix B). Using a Mann-Whitney U (MWU) test, we find no evidence that the dropout rates in the treatments are significantly different from the dropout rate in ControlT (all p > 0.169). However, significantly more dropouts occur in WhistleT compared to WhistleExpectationT (MWU, p = 0.048). Therefore, we check whether dropouts vary by specific stages between treatments, but do not find any statistically significant differences (MWU, all p > 0.562). In addition, an attrition analysis shows no relationship between any sociodemographic characteristic and the probability of dropping out of the experiment.

Our final dataset comprises of data from 476 subjects in three treatments. On average, subjects complete the experiment in 8 minutes. The average earning, including the fixed participation fee, is 2.05 USD, which is equivalent to an hourly wage of 14.73 USD. Participants in our experiment are, on average, 41 years old and spend 13 hours per week on MTurk or similar online platforms. 51% of the sample are female, 68% have at least a bachelor's degree and 58% are employed full-time. Regarding household income, 16% report that their household income was below 20,000 USD in 2022.

3.2 The effects of whistleblowing on collaborative tax evasion

We first focus on the fraction of evaded transactions as a measure of the deterrent effect of whistleblowing on tax evasion. For this fraction, we divide the number of transactions without declaration by the sum of all transactions (transactions with and without declaration as well as rejections). We include rejections in the denominator as we want to examine the frequency of evasion in the case of all possible transactions and not only the transactions on which a pair agreed. Our results do not considerably change when we conduct the analyses with a smaller denominator of only successful transactions. As a second outcome variable, we analyze the fraction of whistleblowers by dividing the number of actual whistleblowers by all potential whistleblowers, i.e., the number of subjects who choose to transact without

declaration. This variable examines the direct effect of the possibility of whistleblowing. Note that each pair jointly decides whether to declare a transaction so that we observe one outcome per pair. However, we control for sociodemographic characteristics on the individual level.

Regarding the fraction of evaded transactions, we observe the following pattern on the aggregate: 58% of pairs agree on a transaction with declaration. 34% of pairs choose a transaction without declaration, and in 8% of cases, the buyer rejects the seller's offer. Most rejections occur when sellers offer a transaction without declaration (63%). Rejections do not vary significantly by treatment (MWU, all p > 0.635). This implies that the possibility of whistleblowing does not affect economic activity as the level of transactions remains the same irrespective of the treatment.

Regarding the deterrent effect of whistleblowing on evasion, we find that 36% of transactions are agreed upon without declaration in ControlT (Table 3). This fraction decreases by 8 percentage points in WhistleT, but the difference is not statistically significant (MWU, p = 0.147), showing that whistleblowing does not have a significant deterrent effect in our setting.

Result 1: The null hypothesis that the possibility of whistleblowing does not increase compliance cannot be rejected.

Comparing WhistleT to WhistleExpectationT allows us to study the effectiveness of whistle-blowing when implemented in a high-evasion environment. WhistleExpectationT significantly increases the fraction of evaded transactions by 11 percentage points compared to WhistleT (MWU, p=0.039). This finding shows that bringing the majority's evasion behavior to the subjects' awareness increases collaborative evasion despite whistleblowing being possible. Whistleblowing remains ineffective in deterring evasion in a high-evasion environment.

Result 2: There is support for Hypothesis 2 that the possibility of blowing the whistle on the partner enhances compliance less in a high-evasion environment than in an unspecified norm environment. Evasion increases significantly in a high-evasion environment even when whistleblowing is possible.

Besides the indirect effect on compliance, we measure the direct effect of whistleblowing as the fraction of individuals that blow the whistle on their partner when the pair decided to evade. Strikingly, this direct effect does not exist in WhistleT: there is not a single individual that blows the whistle on their partner. In comparison, 10% of evading

individuals act as whistleblowers in WhistleExpectation T (MWU, p = 0.035, Table 3). In absolute terms, this fraction amounts to six individuals. This finding suggests that subjects who expect evasion to be common blow the whistle significantly more often than subjects who have no information about what behavior is common.

Result 3: When subjects expect evasion to be common, the willingness to blow the whistle increases, although the overall fraction of whistleblowers is extremely low. Therefore, the hypothesis that whistleblowing decreases in a high-evasion environment is rejected.

There are two possible explanations for this finding: First, as shown above, the empirical expectation of evasion increases the fraction of evaded transactions compared to a setting without an expectation of evasion. Since individuals can blow the whistle only if they evaded the transaction, the increased occurrence of whistleblowing in WhistleExpectation T may in part be a result of more evaded transactions when evasion expectations are present. Second, the information about the empirical expectation may shape individuals' expectation of their partners' whistleblowing behavior. If, due to the expectation of evasion, individuals expect their partner not to report them, it is rational for them to report their partner. This way, they can secure the tax amnesty while the partner has to pay the fine. However, these considerations should be treated with caution as the difference in the propensity to blow the whistle is driven by very few subjects.

Another measure of the effectiveness of whistleblowing is to examine whether the additional tax revenues generated from fines offset tax payments lost to evasion. Examining the sum of tax revenues excluding fines by treatment (Table 3), it is the highest in WhistleT, where the fraction of evaded transactions is the smallest, and the lowest in WhistleExpectationT, where evasion is the most pronounced. Total revenues from fines are higher in ControlT and WhistleExpectationT than in WhistleT. Similarly, total tax payments lost to evasion are more considerable in ControlT and WhistleExpectationT than in WhistleT. This means that the possibility of whistleblowing in WhistleT significantly increases tax revenues and decreases tax losses compared to the other treatments. However, the sum of lost tax payments is still higher than the sum of revenues from fines. Moreover, total tax revenues including fines are the highest in ControlT when whistleblowing is not possible, indicating that neither the direct effect of whistleblowing via auditing and collecting more fines, nor the indirect effect of increasing compliance improves total revenues in our setting.

Furthermore, we can conduct a simple back-of-the-envelope cost-benefit-calculation of whistleblowing by weighing the forgone tax revenues due to tax amnesties against additional revenues from fines that were only collected due to whistleblowing. We observe that two partners bilaterally blew the whistle, whereas in four cases only one person reported their respective partner. The costs for giving four individuals amnesty amount to 720 ECU, and the benefits of additional tax revenues amount to 1,080 ECU. Hence, in our setting with very infrequent occurrences of whistleblowing, the benefits outweigh the costs of whistleblowing.

| | ControlT | WhistleT | WhistleExpectationT | Total |
|---|----------|----------|---------------------|-------|
| Fraction of successful transactions | 0.93 | 0.92 | 0.91 | 0.92 |
| Indirect effect Fraction of evaded transactions | 0.36 | 0.28 | 0.39 | 0.34 |
| Direct effect Fraction of whistleblowers | | 0.00 | 0.10 | 0.06 |
| Fraction of whistleblowers (buyer) | | 0.00 | 0.06 | 0.04 |
| Total tax revenues (in ECU) | 8,280 | 9,000 | 7,380 | 8,217 |
| Total revenues from fines (in ECU) | 2,160 | 1,080 | 2,520 | 1,926 |
| Total tax loss due to evasion (in ECU) | 5,310 | 3,960 | 5,580 | 4,957 |

Table 3: Summary statistics of the main outcomes by treatment

Notes: The fractions of successful transactions, evaded transactions and whistleblowers are defined in Section 3.2. The fraction of whistleblowers (buyer) denotes the number of whistleblowers in the role of the buyer conditional on having evaded. The total tax revenue is the sum of tax payments in each treatment if declaration is chosen, excluding the revenue of fines. The total revenue from fines is the extra tax revenue collected in each treatment when individuals are caught evading; the total tax loss is the sum of tax payments that are lost because of evasion.

We further check whether our results change when we include sociodemographic characteristics in a probit model (Table 4). We can confirm the non-parametric results. When we regress sociodemographic characteristics on the treatment dummies, there is no significant effect of WhistleT on the probability of evasion compared to ControlT (Model 1). In this model, we find that being female significantly reduces the probability of evading a transaction by 14 percentage points. This aligns with a large strand of the tax evasion literature that finds that women are more compliant (Alm & Malézieux, 2020; D'Attoma et al., 2020).

In Model (2), we use WhistleT as a reference category to investigate the effectiveness of whistleblowing in a high-evasion environment. WhistleExpectationT increases the probability of evading a transaction by 11 percentage points. This difference is significant at

the 5 percent level and supports the descriptive results. Moreover, obtaining a low income significantly increases the probability of evasion by 15 percentage points in this model.

| | Probit (ME)–Evaded Transaction | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------|
| | (1) | (2) |
| WhistleT | -0.060 | |
| | (0.051) | |
| ${\bf Whistle Expectation T}$ | | 0.114* |
| | | (0.052) |
| Age | -0.004 | -0.002 |
| | (0.002) | (0.002) |
| Female | -0.135* | -0.015 |
| | (0.051) | (0.055) |
| Bachelor's Degree | -0.003 | -0.061 |
| | (0.059) | (0.058) |
| Full-time Employment | -0.003 | 0.074 |
| | (0.057) | (0.061) |
| Low Income | 0.065 | 0.147* |
| | (0.041) | (0.067) |
| Experience Mturk | 0.002 | -0.001 |
| | (0.002) | (0.003) |
| Observations | 318 | 314 |
| Pseudo R^2 | 0.045 | 0.036 |

Table 4: Multivariate analysis of evaded transactions

Notes: The dependent variable is the fraction of evaded transactions. Whistle T and Whistle-Expectation T are treatment indicators. The reference group is Control T in Model (1) and Whistle T in Model (2). Coefficients are marginal effects; standard errors are in parentheses. The results do not change when we define the denominator of the outcome variable as only successful transactions.

3.3 Explaining the mechanisms behind the effectiveness of whistleblowing

To investigate the mechanisms associated with the effectiveness of whistleblowing as a deterrence instrument, we enquire about subjects' perceptions of the possibility of whistleblowing and potential motivations to report their partner. We first ask all subjects in WhistleT and WhistleExpectationT to evaluate how each of the following considerations

^{***} p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, and * p < 0.05.

applies to their decision-making process to declare or evade the transaction on a five-point Likert scale: 1) fear that their partner would report them, 2) trust in their partner that they would not report them and 3) decision-making principles (e.g., always choosing transactions with declaration).³

Figure 3 plots the responses over the two whistleblowing treatments. In WhistleT, 56% of participants report that their choice was affected by the fear that their partner would report them. This fraction is 11 percentage points lower for individuals in Whistle-ExpectationT. Moreover, over both whistleblowing treatments, it is 38 percentage points lower among individuals that evaded than individuals that declared the transaction. This suggests that a high-evasion environment affects expectations towards the partner, i.e., individuals express less fear of being reported in a high-evasion environment which may explain why whistleblowing is not compliance-enhancing in these settings.

We find a similar trend regarding individuals' trust in their partners. 26% of subjects in Whistle T state that trust in their partner to not report them influenced their decision. This fraction increases by 10 percentage points when individuals receive information about the majority's evasion behavior. It amounts to 62 percent among individuals that evade compared to 16 percent among individuals that declare the transaction.

Regarding decision-making principles, 54% of participants in WhistleT state that they decided according to their convictions. With 52%, this fraction is similar in WhistleExpectationT. A possible interpretation is that the possibility of whistleblowing does not affect the choice when subjects are sure to agree on evasion or declaration by principle. Declarers decide more often according to convictions, as the fraction of individuals reporting that they considered their convictions is 18 percentage points higher for declarers than evaders. We conclude that a considerable fraction of individuals is not afraid of being reported by their partner and expresses trust in their partner. When deciding in a high-evasion environment, these fractions increase, supporting the notion that the environment affects subjects' expectations of their partners.

³We introduce these questions as follows: "How did the possibility to report services without declaration affect your decision to make a transaction with or without declaration? Please rate how the aspects below apply to you on a scale from 'Does not apply at all' to 'Fully applies'. If you did not consider the aspect at all, please choose the point in the middle.".

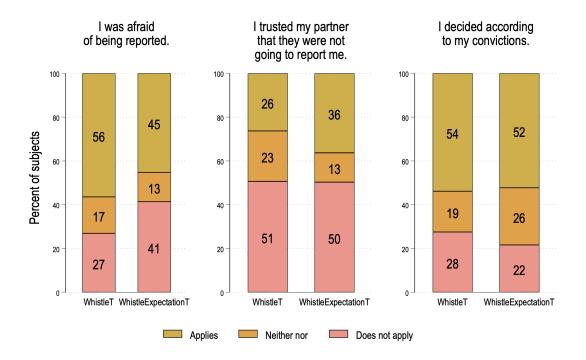


Figure 3: Considerations on how the possibility of whistleblowing affected decisions Notes: Only participants in WhistleT and WhistleExpectationT are asked (N = 314). The five-point Likert scale is transformed into three categories, indicating whether subjects think the statement applies to them, does not apply to them, or neither applies nor does not apply.

Additional post-experimental questions that we only display to individuals choosing evasion shed light on why we find a meager fraction of whistleblowers. We ask evading individuals to indicate whether their decision to blow the whistle on their partner was affected by feeling obliged to report misbehavior or trusting that their partner would not report them.⁴

A large majority of 85% indicate that they did not feel obliged to report their partner's misbehavior (Figure 4). At the same time, subjects regard this feeling as reciprocal, as 71% of subjects indicate having trusted that their partner would not report them. Theoretically, if an individual is confident their partner will not report them, they would receive a higher payoff from blowing the whistle and receiving tax amnesty. However, a lack of perceived obligation to report seems to over-weigh as only 6% of evading individuals report their

⁴We introduce these questions as follows: "How did the following aspects affect whether you reported your partner? Please rate how the aspects below apply to you on a scale from 'Does not apply at all' to 'Fully applies'. If you did not consider the aspect at all, please choose the point in the middle."

partner.

Further results support this notion: When asked whether they feared being considered disloyal if they reported their partner to the tax authority, 40% of the subjects state that this affected their decision. At the same time, 43% state that this concern did not affect their decision, pointing to heterogeneous loyalty feelings towards the partner. Participants' fairness perceptions are slightly clearer. 31% of the individuals state that they considered it unfair that only their partner would have to pay a fine. However, 52% indicate that this fairness concern did not affect their decision.

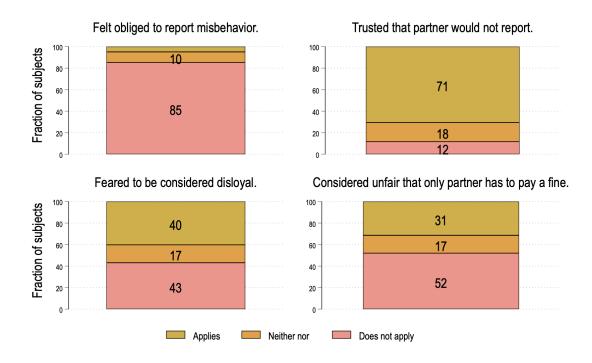


Figure 4: Considerations on whistleblowing conditional on evasion

Notes: Only participants in WhistleT and WhistleExpectationT that evaded the transaction are asked (N = 106). The five-point Likert scale is transformed into three categories, indicating whether subjects think the statement applies to them, does not apply to them, or neither applies nor does not apply.

The analysis of the chat data provides additional insight into the reasons for participants' decisions in the experiment. We analyze the chat protocols with a dictionary approach and use topic modelling to derive correlates of evaded and declared transactions in the chat data. As our bodies of text are relatively short, we rely on a manual classification of keywords into topics (Ferrario & Stantcheva, 2022). For that, we identify the

words and expressions used most frequently and construct categories that fit these texts best (Table 8 in Appendix B).

In Figure 5, we plot the frequencies of the discussed topics by whether they were mentioned by a pair that later decided to either evade or declare the transaction or not transact at all. The most discussed topic in the chat was risk, with 268 individuals (56% of the sample) talking about risk in total. While pairs who decide to declare or not transact discuss aspects of risk in 48% of cases, 72% of pairs who evade discuss risk. Although the topic of earnings is discussed to a much smaller extent, we observe that it plays a bigger role for pairs who choose evasion (23% of pairs who evade discuss earnings) than for pairs who declare or do not transact (15%). Honesty, however, is more frequently discussed in pairs who choose to declare (13%) than pairs that evade taxes (6%). Fairness topics are infrequently discussed regardless of the final decision. Communication about whistleblowing occurs to a much larger extent in pairs that evade the transaction compared to pairs that declare (16% versus 4% of pairs). This suggests that discussing whistleblowing likely entails reassuring each other that one will not blow the whistle.

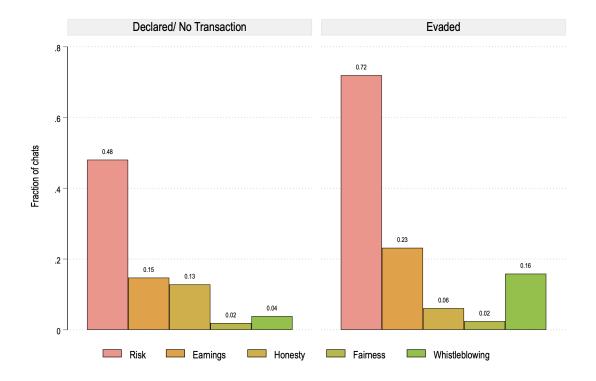


Figure 5: Frequencies of topics discussed in the chat

Note: To derive the discussed topics, we group certain expressions that subjects use into categories, see Table 8 in Appendix B.

In Table 9 in Appendix B, we regress the topics discussed in the chat on the final decision. This analysis underlines the finding that discussions about risk and whistleblowing are associated with decisions to evade rather than declare the transaction. Adding treatment dummies in Model (2) and (3) shows that WhistleExpectationT remains significant at the p < 0.05 level, increasing the probability of a transaction being evaded by 11 percentage points.

3.4 Empirical and normative expectations towards evasion

We further analyze how information about the majority's evasion behavior and one's own decision affect subjects' perceptions of what is common and acceptable.⁵ We find that information about evasion as the common behavior increases participants' empirical expectation of evasion. While in ControlT and WhistleT, subjects believe that 53% of subjects chose the transaction without declaration in the experiment, subjects in WhistleExpectationT believe 64% evaded the transaction, on average. The differences between the treatments are significant for both comparisons (MWU, all p < 0.01).

Normative expectations follow a similar pattern.⁶ Subjects' in ControlT and WhistleT believe that 50% and 51% of the participants in this study find it justifiable to choose a service without declaration, respectively. This fraction increases significantly to 60% when subjects are informed about the majority's evasion behavior (MWU, all p < 0.007). This indicates a spillover effect from empirical expectations to normative expectations, which aligns with recent evidence in the literature (Bicchieri et al., 2023). Individuals' personal normative beliefs of the acceptability of evasion (tax morale) are not affected by the information about evasion being common (MWU, all p > 0.101).

Recall that one of our main results is a significantly higher fraction of evaded transactions when subjects receive information about the majority's evasion behavior in *WhistleExpectationT*. Subjects' perceptions may stem from the information about what is commonly done or from their own behavior. We can interpret the latter as a case of self-serving justification with individuals who evade stating higher expectations to justify their behavior (Bicchieri et al., 2023).

To disentangle this channel of self-serving justifications, we concentrate on subjects' reported empirical and normative expectations in *WhistleExpectationT*. Evading subjects' empirical and normative expectations are skewed towards evasion compared to non-evading

⁵Empirical expectations are enquired as follows: "Please indicate what fraction of participants in this study you believe chose the service without declaration." [Numerical input between 0 and 100%].

⁶Normative expectations are enquired as follows: "Please indicate what fraction of participants in this study you believe find it justifiable to choose the service without declaration." [Numerical input between 0 and 100%].

subjects (+ 21 and 22 percentage points, respectively). Both differences are highly significant (MWU, both p < 0.000). While we cannot interpret this finding causally, it suggests that evading subjects interpret their decision environment self-servingly, i.e., as an environment where evasion is common and considered acceptable.

4 Discussion

Previous studies provide strong evidence that whistleblowing effectively deters individual tax evasion and other dishonest behavior (Masclet et al., 2019; Bazart et al., 2020; Butler et al., 2020). However, our experiment shows that whistleblowing is not compliance-enhancing in collaborative settings. Moreover, in environments in which evasion is common and individuals expect others to evade, tax evasion is more prevalent and whistleblowing remains ineffective.

We can reconcile our finding that whistleblowing is ineffective in deterring collaborative tax evasion with four additional strands of literature. First, our setup is similar to studies on endogenous sorting into prisoner's dilemmas. They show that cooperators rather than defectors are likely to enter a prisoners' dilemma instead of choosing the outside-option (not entering the game). Moreover, the presence of an outside-option increases cooperation (Orbell et al., 1984; Guido et al., 2019) in the game. In our setting, subjects cooperate by selecting into the whistleblowing dilemma and agreeing to evade the transaction. They collude with their partners by not reporting them to the authorities. This notion is further confirmed in our post-experimental questionnaire in which we find that subjects do not feel obliged to blow the whistle. Once they select into evading, subjects seem to be loyal to their partner rather than fair to society, which explains the ineffectiveness of whistleblowing.

Second, studies on the effectiveness of leniency policies in cartel formation find results similar to ours. Leniency policies offer cartel members incentives to report other cartel members. Recent literature suggests that such policies are ineffective in deterring cartel formation and do not destabilize cartels. This effect seems to be driven by the option to communicate openly as this allows individuals to coordinate and increase trust in their partner (Andres et al., 2021; Dijkstra et al., 2021). Note that our setting also includes a chat in which individuals can collude, discuss their options and build trust (see Section 3.3). Hence, communication between partners may explain why whistleblowing is ineffective in deterring evasion in our experiment.

Third, we can explain the missing effectiveness of whistleblowing by the lack of public knowledge about reported tax evaders in our design. Whistleblowing creates publicity when whistleblowers disseminate information to the media or the public (Hoopes et al., 2023). Whether through social control of the public, the press or targeted programs, observable

information can be used to shame tax delinquents to increase compliance (Perez-Truglia & Troiano, 2018). Bowen et al. (2010) show that whistleblowing is more effective when the media reports the case publicly. We decided to focus on private whistleblowing through the collaborating partner and not mix it with public knowledge, shaming or media. However, this might explain why whistleblowing remains ineffective.

Fourth, previous studies provide evidence of a positive effect of monetary rewards on the propensity to blow the whistle (Schmolke & Utikal, 2018; Butler et al., 2020; Nyreröd & Spagnolo, 2021). In our experiment, the low fraction of whistleblowers indicates that the amnesty does not incentivize individuals enough to report their partners. The literature on the design and effects of tax amnesties is extensive. There are four reasons why amnesties could boost compliance: (1) individual perceive the amnesty as policymakers' renewed outreach to non-compliant taxpayers (Feld & Frey, 2010), (2) amnesties reinforce the norm of compliance (Alm & Beck, 1990), (3) individuals fear public shaming if the report is made public (Alm et al., 2017; Blaufus et al., 2017), and (4) amnesties hint at stricter future enforcement (Alm & Beck, 1990). Conversely, a tax amnesty may decrease compliance if (1) taxpayers assume more leniency in future amnesties (Koch & Müller, 2024; Alm & Beck, 1990), (2) the amnesty diminishes the psychological costs of evasion and crowds out intrinsic motivation as individuals observe other taxpayers' noncompliance (Blaufus et al., 2017; Feld & Frey, 2002; Torgler & Schaltegger, 2005), or (3) the amnesty weakens the government's enforcement image (Feld & Frey, 2010; Le Borgne & Baer, 2008).

In our experiment, considerations about future amnesties should not play a role as subjects only transact for one round. We approximate subjects' perceptions of enforcement capabilities by enquiring subjective audit probabilities after the experiment. We find no significant change in the perceived audit probability between Control and Whistle T. However, subjects perceive the audit probability to be significantly lower in Whistle Expecation T than in Whistle T. This suggests that the amnesty in combination with a high-evasion environment leads subjects to believe that authorities are less capable of enforcing tax compliance. Instead of becoming auditors for the tax authority, subjects take advantage of the perceived enforcement vacuum and increase evasion. Furthermore, the results for Whistle-Expectation T indicate that the amnesty crowded out intrinsic motivation and decreased psychological costs to evade since it signaled that noncompliance is high. Following these considerations, if anything, the amnesty appears to diminish the perceived enforcement capacity and crowds out intrinsic motivation. This is similar to a decrease in intrinsic motivation when a deterrence policy is made visible as shown by Galeotti et al. (2021). It remains an open question whether other ways of encouraging whistleblowing or differently designed amnesties with more substantial financial compensation and more certainty for being protected are more effective in encouraging compliance in collaborative settings.

Besides the amnesty, our collaborative tax evasion game has two distinct characteristics that are worth discussing and extending in future studies. First, we implement a discrete choice between declaration and evasion such that bargaining about the price of a transaction without declaration is impossible. Since the price may be an important aspect in negotiations, with a lower price of evasion increasing the willingness to evade, we likely estimate a lower bound of evasion. Future studies could explore the role of price bargaining.

Second, our experimental setup depicts transactions that are non-recurrent rather than situations in which two individuals plan to resume the transaction as our game is only played for one round. While this prevents us from measuring effects over multiple rounds it ensures that neither tiredness nor learning or anticipation distorts our results (Dezső et al., 2022; Calvet Christian & Alm, 2014). Moreover, if participants learnt over multiple rounds that whistleblowing is as infrequent as we observe it in our experiment, they could infer that the possibility of being reported is close to zero, resulting in even less fear of being reported.

5 Conclusion

Many governments around the world use whistleblowing as a means to crack down on tax evasion. Since this deterrence mechanism suffers from considerable identification challenges in the field, most research on tax evasion and whistleblowing relies on experiments. We add to this literature by extending the scope to collaborative decision-making, namely scenarios in which two partners jointly decide and profit from evading. Such situations occur, for example, in VAT fraud or when employers and employees mutually benefit from undeclared work.

We use a collaborative tax evasion game in which a seller and a buyer decide whether to agree on a transaction with or without declaring taxes. In contrast to previous studies on individual tax evasion, for collaborative tax evasion, we do not find a compliance-enhancing effect of whistleblowing. Our study further addresses the effectiveness of whistleblowing in a high-evasion environment, that is, when individuals know that evasion is common. As collaborative tax evasion is a wide-spread phenomenon across different sectors, this expectation is likely to shape joint decisions to evade a transaction (Williams et al., 2011; OECD, 2021). We show that when whistleblowing is possible in a high-evasion environment, the fraction of evaded transactions is significantly higher than when we do not give information about evasion being the common behavior.

There are several explanations for these results. First, the collaborative nature of the decision, including free-form communication, may affect individuals' propensity to report their partner due to loyalty concerns and trust. Second, the financial incentive for reporting

the partner is not as clear-cut as in settings that provide a certain reward when a bystander reports a tax evader.

Multiple avenues for further research arise from our findings. First, bystanders should be directly compared to active collaborators to better understand whistleblowers' motivations and to what extent they depend on their active involvement in a crime. Second, our experiment is one-shot and could be extended to investigate long-term effects. Modelling recurrent transactions could address how the effectiveness of whistleblowing changes when individuals get used to a certain level of whistleblowing or how compliance changes for individuals who have experienced being reported. Third, future research may concentrate on the intensive margin and study how whistleblowing affects the split of the evasion rent between sellers and buyers.

Moreover, two policy implications emerge from our findings: Our results suggest that when implementing whistleblowing in collaborative settings, policymakers should carefully set incentives for whistleblowing. Incentivizing peer reporting by granting a tax amnesty only when one individual reports their transacting partner results in close to no whistleblowing activity in our experiment. At the same time, the size of the whistleblowing incentive affects the cost of whistleblowing. If incentives are high, the cost of this policy instrument may outweigh the benefits from additionally collected tax. Policymakers should therefore carefully weigh benefits against costs and also consider alternative measures to increase tax compliance in collaborative settings. As loyalty to the partner may generally outweigh the incentive of the tax amnesty, alternative policies such as lotteries may be more successful in increasing whistleblowing and collaborative tax compliance.

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Appendix

A Instructions and screens

Appendix A includes full instructions (introduction, general instructions, control questions, and role-specific instructions) and selected experimental screens. Before entering the main experiment, the subjects complete a captcha test, consent to the study in the introduction and fill in their sociodemographic information. They receive general instructions, control questions, and an attention check. Subsequently, participants are matched in pairs that receive specific instructions regarding the setting and their role (buyer/seller).

A.1 Introduction

You will now take part in an academic study from the University of Freiburg, Germany. This survey should take about 10 minutes. You will participate in a demographic survey (Part I), a decision-making task (Part II), and a follow-up survey (Part III).

It is very important that you read the instructions carefully and that you complete the entire study once you have started. This study will contain attention checks to ensure that you fully read the instructions. If you do not pass the attention checks, you will be excluded from the experiment.

For completing the study, you will receive \$0.5. Additionally, you can earn up to \$2.10 depending on your decisions. Only after you completed the whole study, you will get the MTurk code to receive your payment. Additional payments will be distributed as a bonus payment within three days upon completion of the study.

Confidentiality: You will remain anonymous throughout the study. Results may include summary data, but you will never be identified. All data collected are for research purposes only. By continuing, you consent to the publication of study results.

Participants' rights: Your participation is voluntary. You may stop participating at any time by closing the browser window or the program to withdraw from the study. If you stop participating in this study before completing it and you do not want your data to be used, please kindly contact us at taxresearch@eucken.de. Please also contact us at taxresearch@eucken.de if you have any questions.

By clicking on "Continue", you indicate that you are at least 18 years old, have read and understood the above, and that you voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

A.2 General instructions

You will now participate in an interactive study in which you make a decision to transact with a partner. For example, think of a household which requires cleaning services. You and your partner will be randomly assigned to one of the two roles: buyer or seller. I.e., if you are assigned the buyer role, then your partner will be the seller, and vice versa.

The buyer requires the service, whereas the seller offers it. You jointly decide whether the service will be provided with declaration (paying taxes and social security contributions) or without declaration (not paying taxes). There are three stages:

- 1. Seller and buyer communicate about whether to agree on a service with or without declaration in a chat-box.
- 2. The seller decides to offer the service with or without declaration.
- 3. The buyer decides to accept or reject the offer made by the seller.

The payoff from this study depends on your decisions:

- Service with declaration: Taxes and social security contributions have to be paid by both players.
- Service without declaration: Taxes and social security contributions will not be paid, therefore the price is lower. However, there is a 10% chance that you will be audited by the tax authority. If you are audited and you decided on a service without declaration, you have to pay a fine.
- Rejection: The buyer rejects the offer, therefore no service will be provided.

A.3 Control questions

Please answer the following questions to check that you understood the instructions. You have two attempts. If you fail to answer the questions correctly, you will be excluded from the HIT.

You may review the instructions by clicking on the "Instructions" button below.

- 1. What will you jointly decide on with your partner? (Whether or not to declare the service/The working hours/The price if we do not declare the service)
- 2. Who is taxed if you declare the service? (The buyer is taxed/The seller is taxed/**Both** players are taxed)

3. Please imagine the following. You can choose between different payoffs which are related to different probabilities of winning. Option A earns a payoff of \$1.90 with a probability of 20%. Option B earns a payoff of \$1.80 with a probability of 30%. etc. To show that you have read this, please check the third option below. (Option A: Probability 20% and \$1.90/Option B: Probability 30% and \$1.80/Option C: Probability 40% and \$1.70/Option D: Probability of 50% and \$1.60)

A.4 Description of the setting (buyer)

In the following you will make a decision about your additional earnings from this study with your partner (up to \$2.10).

As a buyer the service is valuable for you. If you agree not to declare the service to the tax authorities, your endowment (= 400 ECU, \$1.20) will increase by the value of the service (= 600 ECU) minus the price paid to the seller (= 300 ECU). However, you face a 10% probability of being audited and, if so, you and the seller have to pay a fine of 180 ECU each. If you agree to declare the service to the tax authorities, you need to pay a tax of 90 ECU included in the price of the service (=390 ECU).

There are two options:

| Option 1: Service with declaration | |
|------------------------------------|----------|
| Endowment | 400 ECU |
| Value of the service | +600 ECU |
| Price (declared) | -390 ECU |
| Payoff | 610 ECU |

| Option 2: Service without declaration | |
|---------------------------------------|----------|
| Endowment | 400 ECU |
| Value of the service | +600 ECU |
| Price (undeclared) | -300 ECU |
| Payoff without audit | 700 ECU |
| Payoff in case of an audit (10%) | 520 ECU |

In the next stage, you will communicate with the seller about the offer and declaration in a chat-box. Afterwards, you will receive an offer from the seller, which you will need to accept or reject.

A.5 Description of the setting (seller)

In the following you will make a decision about your additional earnings from this study with your partner (up to \$2.10).

As a seller you are offering a service. You make an offer about providing either a service with or without declaration. If you agree not to declare the service to the tax authorities, your endowment (= 400 ECU, \$1.20) will increase by the price paid by the buyer (= 300 ECU). However, you face a 10% probability of being audited and, if so, you and the buyer have to pay a fine of 180 ECU each. If you agree to declare the service to the tax authorities, the price that you get for the service will be higher (= 390 ECU), but you need to pay taxes of 180 ECU to the tax authorities.

There are two options:

| Option 1: Service with declaration | |
|---|----------|
| Endowment | 400 ECU |
| Price (declared) | +390 ECU |
| Taxes and social security contributions | -180 ECU |
| Payoff | 610 ECU |

| Option 2: Service without declaration | |
|---------------------------------------|----------|
| Endowment | 400 ECU |
| Price (undeclared) | +300 ECU |
| Payoff without audit | 700 ECU |
| Payoff in case of an audit (10%) | 520 ECU |

In the next stage, you will communicate with the buyer about the offer and tax declaration in a chat-box. Afterwards, you will have to make an offer to the buyer.

A.6 Additional information for WhistleExpectationT

Please note:

In a similar study, a majority of participants did not declare the transaction.

A.7 Additional information for WhistleT and WhistleEx- pectationT

Please note:

If you agree on a service without declaration, you may report your buyer/seller to the tax

authorities. If you are reporting your buyer/seller, you will not have to pay a fine. Your buyer/seller on the other hand will be audited and has to pay a fine of 180 ECU.

Please note that your buyer/seller may also report you. In this case you have to pay a fine of 180 ECU.

If you report each other, you both have to pay a fine of 180 ECU.

If none of you reports the other person, you merely face the audit probability of 10%.

A.8 Selected experimental screens

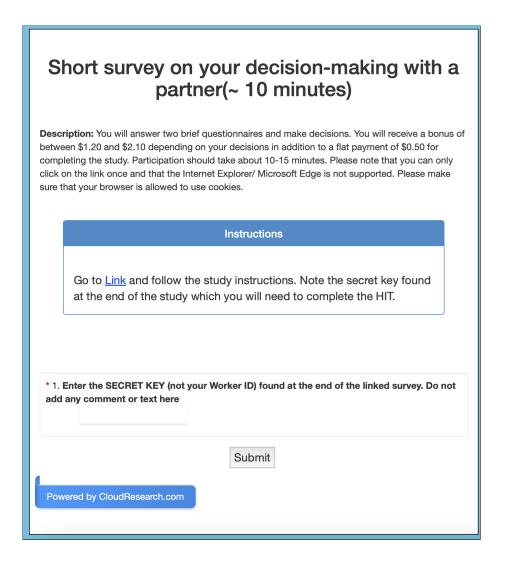


Figure 6: Description of the human intelligence task (HIT) with the link to the experiment

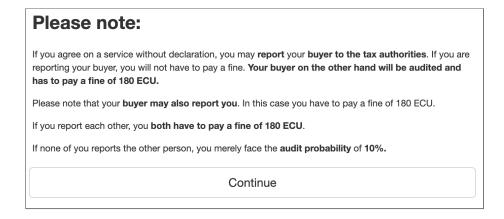


Figure 7: Information about the possibility of whistleblowing in WhistleT and WhistleExpectationT

Note: This screen is skipped in *ControlT*. For the buyer the screen is identical with "buyer" replaced by "seller" and vice versa.

B Additional figures and tables

| Pre-experimental questionnaire | | |
|--------------------------------|------|-----|
| Variable | Mean | N |
| Gender | | 476 |
| Female | 51% | |
| Male | 48% | |
| Diverse | 0.8% | |
| Prefer not to say | 0.2% | |
| Age | | 476 |
| In years (18-100) | 41 | |
| Education | | 476 |
| Less than high school | 0.4% | |
| High school | 30% | |
| Bachelor's | 49% | |
| Master's | 15% | |
| PhD | 4% | |
| Prefer not to say | 1% | |
| Employment | | 476 |
| Fulltime | 58% | |
| Part-time | 11% | |
| Self-employed/Business owner | 11% | |
| Out of work/Seeking | 7% | |
| Student | 2% | |
| Not in the labor force | 11% | |
| Prefer not to say | 1% | |
| Income | | 476 |
| 0 - 19,999 USD | 12% | |
| 20,000 - 49,999 USD | 26% | |
| 50,000 - 74,999 USD | 22% | |
| 75,000 + USD | 39% | |
| Prefer not to say | 0.8% | |
| Experience MTurk | | 476 |
| Average weekly hours on MTurk | 13 | |

Table 5: Overview of pre-experimental variables

Note: The fractions might not add up to 100% owing to rounding in some categories.

| Post-experimental questionnaire | | | |
|--|--|------|-----|
| Variable | Description | Mean | N |
| Empirical expectation | Participants' guess about other participant's eva- | 57% | 464 |
| | sion behavior | | |
| Normative expectation | Participants' guess about other participant's jus- | 54% | 464 |
| | tification of evasion | | |
| Personal normative belief | Evasion never justifiable $= 1$; always justif. $= 6$ | 2.3 | 464 |
| Perceived audit probability | | 21% | 464 |
| Risk aversion | Risk averse $= 1$; risk loving $= 6$ | 3.0 | 464 |
| Pressure to accept offer | Not pressured $= 1$; very pressured $= 6$ | 2.7 | 230 |
| Experience tax declarations | | 57% | 464 |
| Experience with household employees | | 16% | 464 |
| Whistleblowing attitudes in $WhistleT$ and | Whistle Expectation T | | 313 |
| Afraid of being reported | Does not apply at all $= 1$; fully applies $= 5$ | 3.3 | |
| Trusted my partner | Does not apply at all $= 1$; fully applies $= 5$ | 2.6 | |
| Decided according to convictions | Does not apply at all $= 1$; fully applies $= 5$ | 3.5 | |
| Whistleblowing attitudes conditional on have | ving evaded in $WhistleT$ and $WhistleExpectationT$ | | 102 |
| Considered unfair that only partner is fined | Does not apply at all $= 1$; fully applies $= 5$ | 2.6 | |
| Afraid of both being fined | Does not apply at all $= 1$; fully applies $= 5$ | 2.4 | |
| Afraid of being considered disloyal | Does not apply at all $= 1$; fully applies $= 5$ | 2.8 | |
| Trusted partner not to report | Does not apply at all $= 1$; fully applies $= 5$ | 3.9 | |
| Felt obliged to report | Does not apply at all $= 1$; fully applies $= 5$ | 1.5 | |

Table 6: Overview of post-experimental variables

Notes: The fractions might not add up to 100% owing to rounding in some categories. For 12 participants no post-experimental data is recorded.

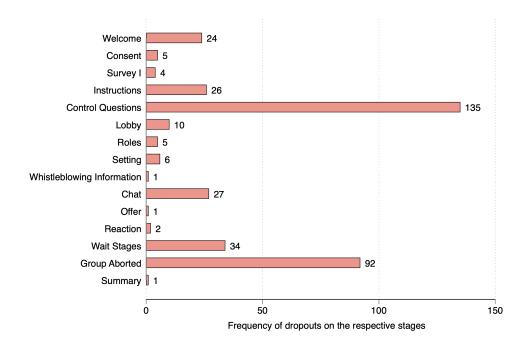


Figure 8: Dropouts by stage

Note: The total number of observations in this figure does not match the number of dropouts because for 16 clicks, there is no recorded stage.

| Age | -0.000665 (-0.47) |
|--------------------|----------------------|
| Female | 0.0292 (0.83) |
| BachelorDegree | -0.0137 (-0.37) |
| FulltimeEmployment | 0.0167 (0.44) |
| LowIncome | 0.0432 (1.73) |
| ExperienceMturk | 0.00262 (1.86) |
| Observations | 836 |

Table 7: Attrition analysis

Notes: We construct a dummy variable that indicates whether an individual dropped out of the experiment. We regress this dummy on sociodemographic characteristics surveyed before the experiment. Note that this analysis does not entail observations from individuals that dropped out before answering the sociodemographic questionnaire. Coefficients are marginal effects; standard errors are in parentheses.

^{***} p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, and * p < 0.05.

| Topic | Keywords and Example |
|----------------|---|
| Risk | Audited, worth risk, getting caught, better safe sorry, low risk, |
| | taking chance, much risk, play safe, risk penalty, odds, lets risk, |
| | audit, get caught, risk, risky, chance, chances, safe, safer, 10 |
| | Example: A: hello B: Hello. I think we should go for service with |
| | declaration, thoughts? A: I was going to choose no declaration |
| | because there is only a 10% chance of getting audited. B: That's |
| | true, I can go with that A: Great! |
| Earnings | Earnings, bonus, expensive, money, worth taking, ecu, 300, 390, |
| | 180, 90, how much, payout |
| | Example: A: Is anyone here? B: I think we should not declare and |
| | risk the audit. The choice is either 100% chance of paying 90 ECU |
| | or 10% chance of paying 180 ECU. I think we can afford taking the |
| | small risk for a larger payout. A: I agree. |
| Fairness | Reasonable tax, pay appropriate, fair, fairly |
| | Example: A: without declaration is my vote B: Hi I am willing to |
| | offer this service with declaration as it is only fair to pay our taxes |
| Honesty | Honest better, honesty best, be honest, right thing, keep everything |
| | legal, dishonest, cheat, honest, honesty, right |
| | Example: A: I believe we should declare. B: I don't feel one way or |
| | the other about it. I have done declared work and undeclared work |
| | in the past. Declared is the honest way, so yeah, let's do that. B: |
| | Should we go ahead and continue on with the study, then? A: Great. |
| | I wouldn't feel right with no declaration. A: Yes, continue. |
| Whistleblowing | Report, report don't, reporting, not reporting, report not, don't |
| | report, reported, not report |
| | Example: A: Hi! Do you want to declare the service or not? B: I |
| | will not declare taxes. A: I prefer not to declare too but I guess we |
| | should be on the same boat to do that A: Good! Thank you! B: OK. |
| | Sound great. Good luck. A: I won't report you as well B: Thanks |
| | |

Table 8: Keywords defining the topics in the topic analysis

| | Probit (M | E) – Evadeo | d Transaction |
|------------------------|-----------|-------------|---------------|
| | (1) | (2) | (3) |
| Risk | 0.200*** | 0.261*** | 0.103 |
| | (0.041) | (0.046) | (0.052) |
| Earnings | 0.044 | -0.021 | 0.099 |
| | (0.052) | (0.059) | (0.066) |
| Fairness | 0.021 | -0.180 | 0.231 |
| | (0.151) | (0.154) | (0.162) |
| Honesty | -0.194** | -0.132 | -0.247** |
| | (0.069) | (0.072) | (0.087) |
| Whistleblowing | 0.345*** | 0.344** | 0.344*** |
| | (0.074) | (0.099) | (0.071) |
| WhistleT | | -0.071 | |
| | | (0.050) | |
| Whist le Expectation T | | | 0.113* |
| | | | (0.049) |
| Observations | 476 | 318 | 314 |
| Pseudo \mathbb{R}^2 | 0.107 | 0.150 | 0.132 |
| Controls | YES | YES | YES |

Table 9: Chat analysis

Notes: The table presents marginal effects of probit specifications with an evaded transaction (binary variable) as the dependent variable. "Risk," "Earnings," "Fairness," "Honesty," and "Whistleblowing" are the categories used in the topic analysis. WhistleT and WhistleExpectationT are the treatment dummies. The reference group is ControlT for the estimation of the effect of WhistleT and WhistleT for the estimation of the effect of WhistleExpectationT. Robust standard errors are in parentheses.

^{***} p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, and * p < 0.05.

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