The Effect of the Minimum Wage on Prices: A New Survey and a Meta-Analysis

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Abstract

Recent minimum-wage studies have focused on adjustment margins that may explain the limited employment response to minimum wage changes. We examine the recent literature on the price effects of minimum wage increases, updating earlier surveys conducted before quasi-experimental methods became widespread. We then conduct a meta-analysis of 199 estimates of the price elasticity of minimum wages. Our meta-estimates of this elasticity range from 0.03 to 0.11, indicating that a 10% increase in the minimum wage leads to a 0.3 to 1.1% rise in prices. Recent quasi-experimental studies across broad categories of goods tend to find smaller elasticities than older regression-based estimates. In contrast, studies focused on narrower, labor-intensive industries tend to see larger price pass-throughs of minimum wage increases.

Keywords: Minimum wages, prices, meta-analysis

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1 Introduction

The global inflation upswing following the COVID-19 pandemic prompted governments to explore tools to mitigate the loss of purchasing power among low-income households. A traditional policy to counteract real income losses is to increase the minimum wage, aiming to mitigate the negative impact of higher prices on real income. However, these proposals have raised concerns among policymakers about the potential for further price increases due to higher labor costs, as well as the possibility of "wage-price spirals," in which prices and wages rise in tandem. Significant price responses could limit the effectiveness of minimum wage increases as a redistributive tool (MaCurdy, 2015).

The effects of the minimum wage on labor markets have been widely studied. Traditionally, the literature has focused on the employment effects of the minimum wage.[1] However, the recent literature has focused on firms' responses and margins of adjustment to higher minimum wages (Clemens, 2021). In a recent handbook chapter, Dube and Lindner (2024) argue that higher prices may be one of the margins through which firms offset higher labor costs and not reduce employment in response to higher minimum wages. They also argue that we need a better understanding of these price responses.

This paper presents a comprehensive and up-to-date review of the evidence on the impact of minimum wages on prices. Several studies have tackled this question since the survey by Lemos (2008). Many of these recent studies differ from those surveyed before. Crucially, more recent studies have access to disaggregated price data, which may provide evidence on the heterogeneity in price responses to minimum wages across products. Furthermore, recent studies have shifted from aggregate time-series evidence to quasi-experimental approaches to study the effects of the minimum wage. Our paper summarizes this recent evidence, contributing to the study of margins of adjustment to the minimum wage and offering policymakers updated insights regarding its potential impact.

We conduct a systematic review of the economics literature on the effects of minimum wages on prices from 2009 to 2024. Our systematic review follows best practices from the meta-analysis and survey literature in economics (Stanley, 2001). We then summarize the findings of these

[1] See, for example, Belman and Wolfson (2014) and Manning (2021).

papers, focusing on heterogeneous responses of different goods' prices to the minimum wage and on variation across settings. For a quantitative summary, we provide meta-estimates of the elasticity of prices with respect to the minimum wage, derived from fixed- and random-effects meta-analyses (Belman and Wolfson, 2014). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first meta-analysis on the elasticity of prices to the minimum wage.[2]

Our findings indicate that, across studies, the elasticity of prices with respect to the minimum wage is positive and statistically significant, yet moderate. Our precision-weighted estimate of the average elasticity, accounting for heterogeneity in effects across studies via random-effects meta-analysis, is approximately 0.1. This estimate implies that a 10% increase in the minimum wage raises prices by 1%. Our meta-estimates of the elasticity range from 0.03 to 0.11 across different meta-analytic specifications.

We also find that more recent quasi-experimental studies are more precise and closer to a small, positive elasticity. The random-effects meta-estimate of the average elasticity from quasi-experimental studies is 0.03, approximately one-third of the overall meta-estimate. Regression approaches based on aggregate data tend to find higher estimates.

Last, we find that the effects of minimum wages on prices tend to be substantially higher for labor-intensive goods, such as restaurants and services, and smaller for other goods categories. When we restrict our analysis to non-labor-intensive industries, such as food and general goods, the elasticities of prices to the minimum wage are appreciably smaller. This heterogeneity suggests that large price responses in the labor-intensive industries drive the overall 0.1 meta-estimate of the elasticity.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows. In section 2, we provide a theoretical overview of how higher minimum wages may translate into higher prices. Then, in Section 3, we review recent studies on this effect, highlighting, for example, estimates that utilize scanner data and those for middle-income countries. In section 4, we describe our meta-analysis methodology, data, and results. We conclude in section 5.

[2] Vavřičková (2015) also performs a meta-analysis of the effects of minimum wages on prices, but does not standardize the estimates nor the dependent variables to arrive at comparable estimates of the elasticity of prices to the minimum wage across studies.

2 Why should higher minimum wages lead to higher prices?

This section provides a brief overview of the theoretical mechanisms through which higher minimum wages may lead to higher prices. We first examine supply-side mechanisms in both competitive and non-competitive product and labor markets. Then, we turn to the effects on prices coming from changes in product demand.

2.1 Supply mechanisms

We summarize how minimum wage increases may affect firm behavior, leading to changes in product supply and prices. We first study competitive labor markets and show that the pass-through of minimum wages to prices in these settings depends on the low-wage share of labor costs. We then turn to non-competitive labor markets, with particular emphasis on monopsonistic labor markets.

2.1.1 Competitive labor markets

Competitive labor and product markets. The simplest setup to study the effect of minimum wages on supply and prices is a model of firms in a competitive goods market in partial equilibrium in the long run. In such a setting, firms are price-takers and pay wages according to the marginal productivity of labor. Suppose firms hire both low-wage and high-wage workers and employ capital in production. In the absence of fixed costs, their total costs are:

$$CT = w_\ell L_\ell + w_h L_h + rK, \tag{1}$$

where w_ℓ and w_h are the wages of low-wage and high-wage workers, L_ℓ and L_h are the number of low-wage and high-wage workers, and r is the rental rate of capital K.

In a long-term competitive equilibrium, firms set prices according to their marginal cost, which equals their average cost. Therefore, the price of the good is $P = MC = AC$, where MC is the marginal cost of production and $AC = CT/Q$ is the average cost of production.

Suppose the minimum wage increases. The percentage change in prices due to a change in the minimum wage is the percentage change in average cost. Assuming that the change in minimum wage only affects the wages of low-wage workers, and using equation (1), the percent change in prices while keeping employment, capital, and the interest rate constant –such that production does not change– is:

$$\Delta\%P = \frac{\left(w'_\ell - w_\ell\right) L_\ell}{w_\ell L_\ell + w_h L_h + rK} \tag{2}$$
$$= \underbrace{\frac{\left(w'_\ell - w_\ell\right) L_\ell}{w_\ell L_\ell}}_{\substack{\text{Percent increase in} \\ \text{low-wage workers wage bill}}} \times \underbrace{\frac{w_\ell L_\ell}{w_\ell L_\ell + w_h L_h}}_{\substack{\text{Cost share of low-wage} \\ \text{workers in total labor cost}}} \times \underbrace{\frac{w_\ell L_\ell + w_h L_h}{w_\ell L_\ell + w_h L_h + rK}}_{\text{Labor cost share}}.$$

Here, w'_ℓ is the new wage for low-wage workers after the minimum wage increase. This expression highlights the mechanisms through which higher minimum pass through to prices. First, changes in minimum wages may increase the wage bill for low-wage workers if they raise the average wage firms pay them. When minimum wages are binding, and most low-wage workers earn the minimum wage, this term should be approximately equal in magnitude to the percentage change in the minimum wage.

Second, the share of low-wage workers in total labor costs determines the extent to which an increase in the firms' wage bill from these workers translates into higher total labor costs. If low-wage workers account for a small share of total labor costs, the pass-through to prices will be small. In contrast, in firms that are intensive in low-wage labor, such as those in the service industry, this share will be larger, and consequently, the pass-through to prices will be larger as well.

Third, the share of labor costs in total costs determines how much of the wage bill increase passes through to prices. If firms are labor-intensive, then the pass-through to prices will be larger.

Equation (2) also shows that in this competitive setting, even if the low-wage bill increases in the same proportion as the minimum wage, the percentage increase in prices will usually be smaller than the percentage increase in the minimum wage, since the share of low-wage workers in total labor costs and the labor cost share are generally smaller than one. Therefore, the elasticity of prices with respect to the minimum wage is usually less than 1. In fact, canceling out terms in equation (2) shows that the elasticity of prices to low wages is equal to the low-wage labor share of total costs:

$$\varepsilon^P_{w_\ell} \equiv \frac{\Delta\%P}{\Delta\%w_\ell} = \frac{w_\ell L_\ell}{w_\ell L_\ell + w_h L_h + rK}. \tag{3}$$

If we allow employment, capital, and production to adjust, the elasticity remains equal to the low-wage labor share of costs, because in this competitive setting, all increases in marginal/average costs pass to prices (Aaronson and French, 2007). However, allowing production and input demands to change sheds light on other adjustment margins. Low-wage labor demand decreases, and capital and high-wage labor demand may increase or decrease depending on their elasticity of substitution with respect to low-wage labor. Since the average cost is higher, the firm's supply function shifts upward. Provided that the demand function for output is downward-sloping, the firm's production decreases. Therefore, in the competitive setting, prices and low-wage employment move in opposite directions after a minimum wage increase (Aaronson and French, 2007).

Labor cost calculations such as those in equations (1) and (2) are common in the literature to provide ex-ante estimates of the effects of higher minimum wages on prices, or as a way to benchmark empirical estimates.[3]

Competitive labor markets and non-competitive product markets. Non-competitive product markets may have different price responses to minimum wage increases. In monopolistic competition settings, since firms make zero profits in equilibrium, minimum wage hikes are passed on to average costs, so the labor cost calculation remains valid (Aaronson and French, 2007).

In monopolistic and symmetric imperfect competition settings, Leung (2021) shows that pass-through to minimum wages may be smaller than the low-wage labor cost share. In monopolistic settings, pass-through is smaller than the cost share, though greater as demand is more convex. In symmetric imperfect competition settings, "pass-through is smaller if higher prices create more competitive conduct" (Leung, 2021).

In settings where firms earn positive profits in equilibrium, such as oligopolistic or monopolistic settings, firms may opt not to pass cost increases through to prices for strategic reasons and instead reduce profits. In fact, there is evidence that firms may reduce profits in reaction to minimum wage hikes (Bell and Machin, 2018; Clemens, 2021; Draca et al., 2011).

[3] Many of the papers we review engage in this kind of calculation. See, for example, Campos-Vazquez and Esquivel (2020); Calderón et al. (2023); Leung (2021); and Renkin et al. (2022).

2.1.2 Non-competitive labor markets

Monopsonistic labor markets. A traditional explanation for the modest effects of minimum wages on employment is the existence of monopsonistic labor markets (Manning, 2013, 2021). This explanation has gained traction in recent years as the literature has uncovered evidence of labor market power in more industries than previously thought, and also as new tools have been developed to study monopsony in labor markets (Azar et al., 2024; Berger et al., 2022, 2025; Yeh et al., 2022).

Aaronson and French (2007) and Aaronson et al. (2008) illustrate how minimum wage changes affect prices in a monopsonistic setting. They assume that each firm faces an upward-sloping labor supply curve for low-wage workers:

$$w_\ell = \theta L_\ell^{\frac{1}{\gamma_1}} w_{\ell,*}^{1-\frac{\gamma_2}{\gamma_1}}. \tag{4}$$

Here, $w_{\ell,*}$ is the average wage paid by other firms in the market, and θ, γ_1 and γ_2 are parameters that measure the level of labor supply and its responsiveness to the firms' own wage and to other wages, respectively.

In this setting, a sufficiently small increase in the minimum wage, one that does not exceed the competitive-equilibrium wage level, reduces the marginal cost of an additional worker, leading the firm to hire more workers. Aaronson and French (2007) show that, for such small minimum wage increases, under a CES production function and constant elasticity of product demand, the elasticity of prices to the minimum wage w_{min} is:

$$\varepsilon^P_{w_{min}} \equiv \frac{d\ln P}{d\ln w_{min}} = -\frac{s_L \gamma_2 c}{\sigma(1-s_L)+s_L\eta}. \tag{5}$$

Here, s_L is the low-wage labor share of total costs (as in equation (3)), σ is the elasticity of substitution between inputs, η is the elasticity of product demand, and c is a positive constant larger than 1. Therefore, in monopsonistic labor markets, small increases to the minimum wage lead to a *decrease* in prices, because of the reduction in the marginal cost of labor. This decrease is smaller when substitutability across inputs is greater or when product demand is more elastic. The decrease is greater for higher low-wage labor cost shares. Furthermore, if labor is the only input, an increase in the minimum wage raises output.

For larger minimum wage hikes, the effect is the same as in competitive labor markets: prices rise, and employment falls. So, in general, prices and employment should move in opposite directions. Aaronson and French (2007) argue that positive empirical estimates of the effect of minimum wages on prices are not consistent with the presence of monopsonistic labor markets, particularly in the restaurant industry. However, recent literature measuring the degree of monopsony in labor markets indicates high labor market power in both developed and developing countries (Amodio and De Roux, 2024; Azar and Marinescu, 2024; Berger et al., 2022; Yeh et al., 2022). This contradiction suggests that other mechanisms may be needed to explain the coexistence of monopsony and the positive effects of minimum wages on prices.

Other non-competitive labor market settings. Other settings of interest to study minimum wage effects on prices are search and matching models, where wages are set by bargaining between workers and firms. Such bargaining settings may lead to spillovers of the minimum wage to other wages (Flinn, 2011), and spillover effects have been observed in several settings (Autor et al., 2016; Gregory and Zierahn, 2022; Pérez Pérez, 2020). Leung (2021) shows that, in the presence of spillovers of the minimum wage to higher wages, the elasticity of prices to the minimum wage equals the labor cost share times the increase in the wage bill, which depends on the elasticities of high-wage wages to the minimum wage and the degree of labor substitution between high and low-wage workers.

In dynamic models with vacancies, the minimum wage may have additional effects. There is evidence that higher minimum wages may reduce employee turnover (Dube et al., 2016), thereby offsetting the effects of a larger wage bill through reduced turnover and training costs.

2.2 Demand mechanisms

Another channel through which minimum wages may affect prices is through demand. Higher minimum wages increase low-wage workers' incomes, thereby shifting the demand curve for goods and raising equilibrium prices. Ganapati and Weaver (2017), Leung (2021), and Renkin et al. (2022) argue that this demand-induced feedback may lead firms to raise prices in the short run. In the long run, however, in competitive settings, firm entry should offset this demand effect.

In imperfect competition settings in the goods market, demand effects may lead to permanent price increases. Leung (2021) separates these effects into two components. First, a higher minimum wage increases consumers' income, shifting the demand curve and increasing prices. Second, minimum wage increases may alter the elasticity of demand for goods, thereby altering the optimal price markup. Both effects imply that firms may raise prices in response to higher minimum wages, even in the absence of labor-cost pass-through. Such demand effects should be stronger in markets with a larger share of low-wage consumers. MaCurdy (2015) argues that the minimum wage may have a regressive role for low-wage workers, since it may lead to higher prices for the goods they have a higher propensity to consume.

2.3 Limits to minimum wage pass-through to prices

In addition to the mechanisms discussed above, several reasons exist why minimum wage increases may not result in higher prices. Firms may use other adjustment margins to respond to the minimum wage increase (Clemens, 2021), such as reducing non-wage benefits or, when possible, reducing compliance (Garnero and Lucifora, 2022). Some firms may not be able to adjust prices: for example, nationwide chains may have uniform pricing across stores and therefore may not react to local minimum wage changes. They may also adjust product quality or product size, a phenomenon recently dubbed "shrinkflation" (Chalioti and Serfes, 2024).

3 Recent estimates of the effect of minimum wages on prices

In this section, we summarize the recent literature on the pass-through of minimum wages to prices, focusing on studies published since the survey by Lemos (2008). Recent studies have several advantages over previous work: they use more disaggregated data, enabling the study of heterogeneous effects across products, and many employ quasi-experimental designs.

Studies using scanner data in the US. A branch of studies uses scanner data and cross-state variation in minimum wages in the United States to study the pass-through of state-level minimum wage increases into local prices. Scanner data has an advantage over analyses using aggregate price indices. It provides fine disaggregation at both the geographical and product levels, enabling designs to compare prices across small geographic areas and to study heterogeneous effects across narrow product categories.

Leung (2021) uses Nielsen retail scanner data from 2006 to 2015, covering a wide range of local minimum wage changes. To estimate the elasticity of prices with respect to the minimum wage, it builds store-level price indexes, separating stores into three categories: grocery, drug, and merchandise stores. It then regresses the price indexes on the logarithm of the minimum wage applicable to each store, using a two-way fixed-effects (TWFE) model that controls for store and time fixed effects. Its main estimates indicate an elasticity of grocery prices of between 0.06 and 0.08, which, they argue, is both economically and statistically significant. On the other hand, their estimates of the effect of drug and merchandise stores on prices are not statistically significant. Their robustness analyses rule out several potential threats to identification, such as anticipatory effects, county-level confounders, and differences in the "bite" of the minimum wage across places.

Two interesting findings from Leung's (2021) study are the null effect on drug and merchandise store prices and the size of the impact on grocery store prices compared to those implied by labor cost increases. They argue that drug and merchandise stores do not respond to local minimum wage changes because of nationwide pricing strategies that preclude local price adjustments. Using the formulas of pass-through of the minimum wage increase to prices from labor costs outlined in Section 2 and under selected values of the parameters, they find that the theoretical labor cost pass-through for groceries is smaller than the empirical estimates. These findings suggest that demand mechanisms may play a role in the larger-than-expected price response.

In a similar paper, Ganapati and Weaver (2017) examined minimum wage pass-through using the same scanner data but found no significant effects on prices. Key differences exist between their study and that of Leung. They do not construct store-level price indexes: instead, they use transaction-level data and regress prices per county on the relevant minimum wage. In some of their analyses, they employ a "contiguous-counties" design as in Dube et al. (2010), comparing prices in counties that straddle a state border when minimum wages change in one state but not in the other. This design amounts to including county-pair-by-time fixed effects in TWFE models to control for product and time. Both Leung (2021) and Ganapati and Weaver (2017) argue that the methodological differences may be behind the different empirical findings. Importantly, Ganapati and Weaver (2017) also state that the labor cost pass-through should be small.

Renkin et al. (2022) use Symphony RI scanner data from 2001 to 2012 at the store level. Their baseline estimates follow the same strategy as in Leung (2021). Still, they also estimate effects using price differences between stores in low-wage counties (expected to be more affected by minimum wage increases) and high-wage counties (expected to be less affected). They also examine potential anticipatory effects, beginning with the announcement of the minimum wage increase before its implementation. Their mainline estimate is an elasticity of 0.036 for grocery prices, smaller than the mainline estimate from Leung (2021). Unlike Leung (2021), since their estimated elasticity is smaller, they argue that this degree of pass-through is entirely consistent with labor cost pass-through and rule out demand effects. They also find null effects on drug store prices.

Restaurant prices. Several studies have focused on prices in the restaurant and fast-food industries. Since they tend to be intensive in minimum-wage labor, the price effects in these industries should be more prominent.

Among the first more recent studies after Lemos's (2008) review, Fougère et al. (2010) examined the effect of nationwide increases in the minimum wage in France on restaurant prices. They find positive effects, with elasticities ranging from 0.1 to 0.15, depending on the type of restaurant. They hypothesize that price adjustments can be delayed and provide evidence that they take 24 months to fully materialize. The delayed response is consistent with findings from Campolieti (2018), who find more substantial price adjustments in response to the minimum wage in Canada when considering adjustment periods longer than a year.

For the United States, Powers (2009) conducts a case study comparing fast-food establishments in Illinois to those in Indiana following a minimum wage increase in Illinois, using data from an original survey. They find positive effects on the prices of some fast-food items. Basker and Khan (2016) study this question by regressing price quotes from McDonald's and price indexes for several fast-food items from the CPI on contemporaneous and lagged minimum wages at the city level. They find positive, precise effects on burger prices, but noisy or null effects on other items. Ashenfelter and Jurajda (2022) also find positive elasticities of "Big Mac" prices to the minimum wage, on the order of 0.2. Unlike Basker and Khan (2016), their findings are based on a contiguous-county design (Dube et al., 2010).

Allegretto and Reich (2018) and Crain (2018) use internet menus to examine the effect on restaurant prices. Allegretto and Reich (2018) examine the effect of a city-level minimum wage increase in San Jose, California, in 2013. For a 25% minimum wage increase, they found that prices on internet restaurant menus increased by an average of 1.45%. They argue that the price increase is consistent with a complete pass-through of the labor cost increase to prices, but that the labor cost does not increase as much as predicted by standard formulas because of reduced turnover among restaurant employees.

Services and housing rents. A few studies have examined the effects of minimum wage rises on other service industries besides restaurants, such as hairdressing (Kunaschk, 2024). For such a labor-intensive sector, they find high elasticities of around 0.7 and a high pass-through of labor costs. Other studies have examined the effect on housing rents. Borg et al. (2022) find an elasticity of rents to minimum wages in the US of 0.07. Yamagishi (2021) finds an elasticity of rents to minimum wages in Japan of 0.25 to 0.45.

Other countries. In an influential paper, Harasztosi and Lindner (2019) examine the effects of a substantial minimum wage increase in Hungary from 2000 to 2002. They argue that the minor employment effects they observed were due to the substantial pass-through of the minimum wage increase to prices, with about three-quarters of the increase passed on to consumers. They also found a decrease in profits due to firms absorbing a fraction of the minimum wage rise, as well as larger employment effects in industries where it was more difficult to adjust prices. Bicerli and Kocaman (2019) also analyze the impact of this minimum wage change in Turkey on prices using a time-series model and Granger causality tests, finding a Granger-causal relationship between the minimum wage and prices.

In Germany, Link (2024) finds substantial price increases following the introduction of Germany's national minimum wage in 2015, and finds that employment and price responses are negatively related at the firm level.

For Mexico, Campos-Vazquez and Esquivel (2020) and Calderón et al. (2023) study the effect of a 100% increase in the minimum wage in 2019 for municipalities on the border with the US, which occurred simultaneously with a reduction in the VAT rate from 16% to 8%. Campos-Vazquez and Esquivel (2020) do not find effects on prices or inflation for non-VAT goods, and argue that this small effect is due to a small labor share for Mexican firms. Calderón et al. (2023) study the impact on the prices of VAT goods by comparing their prices in industries more affected by the minimum wage increase relative to those less affected. They find positive and statistically significant effects, indicating that prices in VAT-goods industries with large shares of minimum-wage workers did not decrease despite the VAT rate reduction. They also find null effects for non-VAT goods, which, they argue, is due to a large share of informal labor in non-VAT goods industries.

4 Systematic review and meta-analysis

4.1 Review of estimates

We follow a systematic approach to review the literature on the effects of minimum wages on prices, following best practices from the meta-analysis literature in economics (Stanley, 2001). First, we conduct searches of the economic literature using keywords related to the effect of minimum wages on prices across a set of scholarly databases of economics articles. We restrict our search to articles published between 2009 and 2024, in both English and Spanish. We also restrict our analysis to studies of minimum wage increases and exclude studies that examine the effects of introducing a minimum wage where none previously existed.[4] Table A1 in the Appendix shows the search terms used in each database. Notably, we include keywords related to minimum-wage pass-through and its effects on inflation.

Our object of interest is the elasticity of prices to the minimum wage. Therefore, we only include studies from which we can extract an elasticity estimate and its standard error.[5] Some studies report elasticity estimates directly, while others report semi-elasticities or overall impacts of the minimum wage increase on prices and the percentage increase in the minimum wage. We calculated elasticity estimates and their standard error in those cases.

Our final database includes 20 studies, listed in Table 1. From these studies, we extract 199 elasticity estimates. We discard robustness estimates intended to be statistically insignificant, such as "placebo" estimates. We classify the remaining estimates into three categories: (i) main esti-

[4] Importantly, this restriction excludes analyses of the introduction of Germany's minimum wage in 2015. Because a national minimum wage did not exist previously, it is difficult to obtain estimates of the elasticity of prices to minimum wages in this setting. For a survey of the effects of Germany's minimum wage reform and for an analysis of its effects on prices, see Caliendo et al. (2019) and Link (2024).

[5] Some studies do not report a standard error estimate or a confidence interval, but do report a level of statistical significance. In those cases, we compute the minimum and maximum possible standard errors that would yield the reported significance level, and impute the standard error at the midpoint of these values. This procedure assumes the absence of publication bias in these cases.

mates, which are the centerpiece of the analysis as stated by each article, (ii) additional estimates, which refer to results reported under alternative specifications or those that explore heterogeneous effects, and (iii) robustness estimates, meant to show robustness of the main analyses. We also categorize the studies into those with quasi-experimental designs and those using regression-based designs with aggregate data.[6] Following Ahlfeldt and Pietrostefani (2019), we collect information on the attributes of each study and estimate related to the econometric methods and the study's context. We list these attributes in table 2.

[6]Table A2 in the Appendix includes additional details about each study, such as the change in the minimum wage, and the average and median elasticity estimates for each study. We do not include simulation-based estimates, as we consider them not comparable to estimates from empirical approaches. Table A3 in the Appendix lists the excluded studies.

Table 1: List of Included Studies

Serie	Study	Observations
1	Are Local Minimun Wages Absorbed by Price Increases? Estimates from Internet-Based Restaurant Menus, Allegretto and Reich (2018)	33
2	Minimum Wages, Wages, and Price Pass-Through: The Case of McDonald's Restaurants, Ashenfelter and Jurajda (2022)	4
3	Does the Minimum Wage Bite into Fast-Food Prices?, Basker and Khan (2016)	10
4	Disentangling the Effects of Large Minimum Wage and VAT Changes on Prices: Evidence from Mexico, Calderón et al. (2023)	12
5	The Effect of Doubling the Minimum Wage and Decreasing Taxes on Inflation in Mexico, Campos-Vazquez and Esquivel (2020)	5
6	Effects of Minimum Wages on Employment Dynamics and Prices in the Restaurant Sector, Campolieti (2018)	24
7	Restaurant Prices and the Minimum Wage, Fougère et al. (2010)	4
8	The Effects of Minimum Wages on Employment and Prices—Evidence from the Hairdressing sector, Kunaschk (2024)	2
9	The Impact of Minimum-Wage Increases: Evidence from Fast-food Establishments in Illinois and Indiana, Powers (2009)	8
10	The Pass-Through of Minimum Wages into U.S. Retail Prices: Evidence from Supermarket Scanner Data, Renkin et al. (2022)	15
11	Minimum Wage and Real Wage Inequality: Evidence from Pass-Through to Retail Prices, Leung (2021)	36
12	Who Pays for the Minimum Wage?, Harasztosi and Lindner (2019)	8
13	The Impact of Minimum Wage on Unemployment, Prices and Growth: Multivariate analysis for Turkey, Bicerli and Kocaman (2019)	1
14	Do Minimum Wage Increases Cause Inflation? Evidence from Vietnam, Cuong (2011)	18
15	How Do Restaurants Pay for the Minimum Wage?, Brummund (2017)	1
16	Price and Quality Responses of the Restaurant Industry to Increases in the Minimum Wage, Crain (2018)	8
17	Minimum Wage and Retail Price Pass-through: Evidence and Estimates from Consumption Data, Ganapati and Weaver (2017)	3
18	Minimum Wages and Housing Rents: Theory and Evidence, Yamagishi (2021)	4
19	Fast Food Prices, Obesity and the Minimum Wage, Cotti and Tefft (2013)	2
20	The Effect of Minimum Wage on Firm Markup: Evidence from China, Du and Wang (2020)	1

Table 2: Collected attributes from each estimate

Attribute	Description
Country and area of study	Areas for case studies of a specific state or city.
Treated and control groups	"Treated" area or group and "control" area or group.
Data structure	Cross-sectional, panel, or time series.
Units of observation	Goods, items, or firms.
Data source	Source of the information used in the study.
Dependent variable	Prices in levels, logs, percentage changes, price indexes, or other measures.
Price sources: restaurants, grocery stores, or all prices.	
Minimum wage change	Percentage change in the minimum wage.
Effect direction	Positive, negative, or null.
Standard errors	Conventional, heteroskedasticity-robust with clustering, or heteroskedasticity-robust and clustered.
Price category	Goods, services, food, manufacturing, etc.
Citations	Number of citations as reported by Google Scholar.
Sample size	Number of observations in the study.

4.2 Meta-analysis results

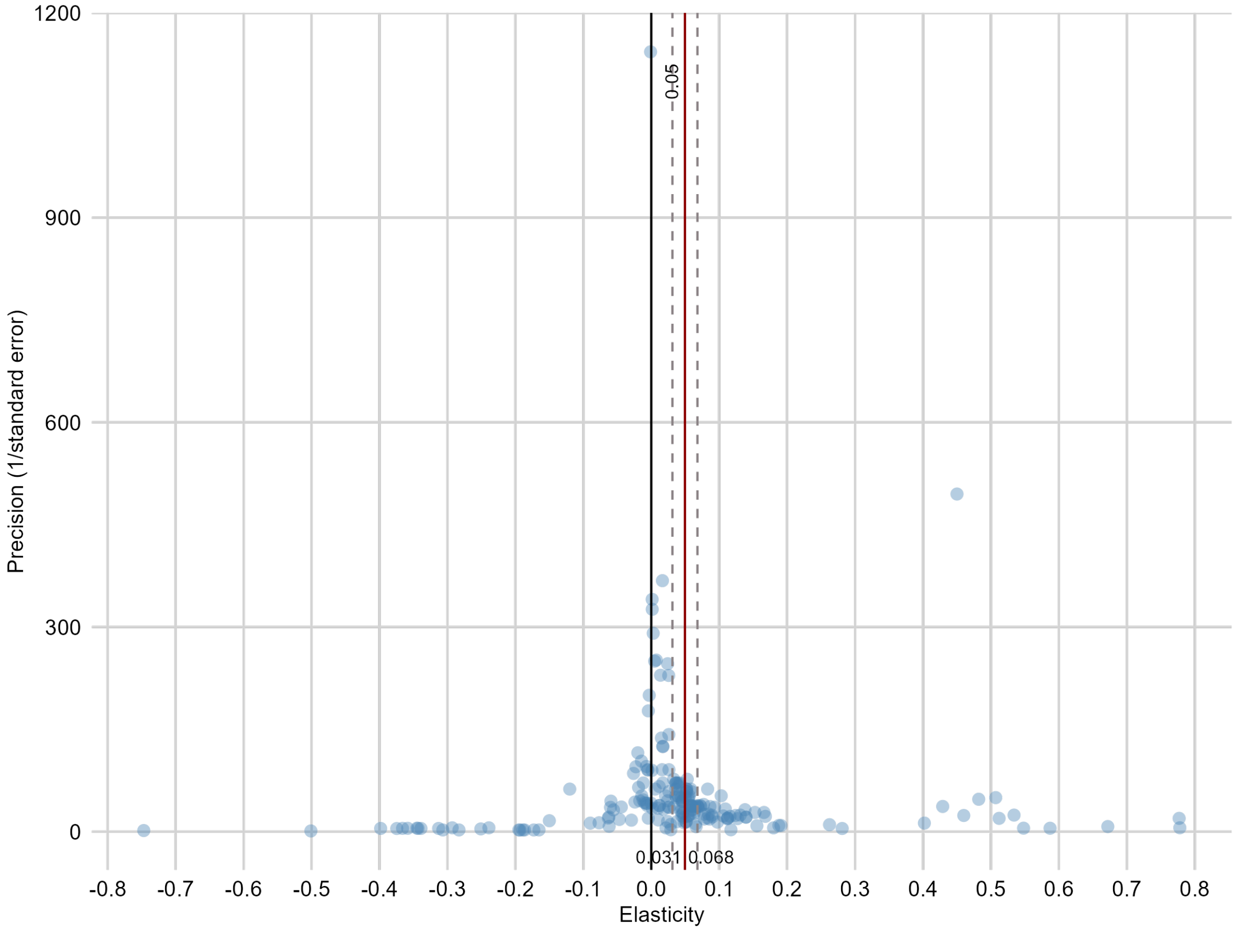
To provide a quantitative summary of the evidence, we conduct a meta-analysis of the elasticity estimates (Belman and Wolfson, 2014; Stanley, 2001). Figure 1 shows a funnel plot of the elasticity estimates. There is substantial heterogeneity in the estimates, with most positive and ranging from 0 to 0.2.

Our basic meta-analysis models provide simple and precision-weighted averages of the elasticity estimates β_i. To obtain the precision-weighted average, we use the precision of each estimate –the inverse of the standard error of each estimate– as a weight. Hence, the dependent variable becomes the t-statistic t_i.

$$\beta_i = \beta + \varepsilon_i, \tag{6}$$

$$t_i = \beta^w precision_i + \varepsilon_i^w.$$

Figure 1: Elasticity vs. Precision: All Estimates



Source: Author's calculations. The red vertical line shows the precision-weighted average elasticity estimate. Dashed lines show the 95% confidence interval of the precision-weighted average.

Columns 1 and 2 of Table 3 provide these estimates. The precision-weighted regression estimate is 0.047, and it is statistically significant at the 5% level.[7]

Table 3: Meta-estimates of the Elasticity of Prices to the Minimum Wage: All Estimates

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Intercept	0.038***		0.105***		0.101**	
	(0.013)		(0.009)		(0.051)	
Precision		0.047***		0.103***		0.095**
		(0.009)		(0.013)		(0.042)
Num.Obs.	199	199	199	199	199	199
R2		0.114	0.743	0.991		
Num.Studies	20	20	20	20	20	20
Study Fixed Effects			Yes	Yes		
Study Random Effects					Yes	Yes

Note: Source: Author's calculations. Standard errors in parentheses. Significance levels: * 0.10, ** 0.05, *** 0.01. The models are: (1) raw mean, (2) precision-weighted mean, (3) fixed effects, (4) precision-weighted fixed effects, (5) random effects, and (6) precision-weighted random effects. R-squared values in models (2) and (4) may be negative due to the exclusion of the intercept term.

We also estimate fixed-effects and random-effects meta-analyses to account for heterogeneity in the estimates across studies. The fixed-effects model assumes that all estimates are drawn from the same distribution, while the random-effects model allows for heterogeneity across studies.

[7]Note that the precision-weighted regression estimate from the meta-analysis is not the same as the precision-weighted average of the estimates in Figure 1. The precision-weighted average in Figure 1 is the average of the estimates weighted by the inverse of their standard errors, while the precision-weighted regression estimate in Table 3 is the estimate from a meta-regression model that uses the t-statistics as the dependent variable, which weights each estimate by the square of precision.

$$\text{Fixed effects models :} \tag{7}$$
$$\beta_i = \beta^{FE} + \mu_{s(i)} + \varepsilon_i^{FE},$$
$$t_i = \beta^{FE,w} precision_i + \mu_{s(i)} + \varepsilon_i^{FE,w},$$
$$\text{Random effects models :} \tag{8}$$
$$\beta_i = \beta^{RE} + v_i, v_i = \eta_{s(i)} + \varepsilon_i^{RE}$$
$$t_i = \beta^{RE,w} precision_i + v_i, v_i = \eta_{s(i)} precision_i + \varepsilon_i^{RE,w}.$$

Here, $\mu_{s(i)}$ are study-specific fixed effects, while $\eta_{s(i)}$ are study-specific random effects assumed to be normally distributed with mean zero and variance σ_s^2.

Table 3, columns 3 to 6, provides the estimates from these models. The simple and precision-weighted estimates from the fixed-effects model are approximately 0.1, implying that a 10% increase in the minimum wage leads to a 1% increase in prices. The random effects estimates are similar. Since our sample studies examine the impact of minimum wages on prices across goods and industries, we deem the random-effects estimates more plausible. Nevertheless, they are similar to the fixed-effects estimates.

Baseline estimates vs. additional estimates in each study. One reason for heterogeneity across studies may be a different range of specifications in each of them, or a different number of estimates in each study exploring heterogeneous effects across various products. To explore if the estimates that each study classifies as main estimates differ systematically from other estimates in each one of the studies, in Appendix Tables A4 and A5 we repeat the meta-analyses restricting the sample to the main estimates from each study, and to the main estimates plus the estimates exploring heterogeneity, but excluding robustness estimates. The results are similar to those using the full sample of estimates. The precision-weighted regression average of all main estimates is slightly larger than the precision-weighted average of all estimates, at 0.063. The fixed- and random-effects estimates are also slightly larger, at approximately 0.11. When including the heterogeneous estimates, the precision-weighted average is 0.055, whereas the fixed-effects and random-effects estimates are approximately 0.10, consistent with the overall results.

Quasi-experimental vs. regression-based estimates. Many of the studies in our sample implement quasi-experimental designs using variation in minimum wages across time and space or industries. These studies delimit treatment and control groups and use TWFE or difference-in-differences methods to estimate the effects of minimum wages on prices. The estimates from these studies may be more credible than those from regression-based designs using aggregate data, which could be more prone to omitted variable bias. Of the 20 studies in our sample, 14 use quasi-experimental designs, while six use regression-based designs with aggregate data. This difference in designs contrasts with the sample of studies surveyed by Lemos (2008), which had a larger share of regression-based designs.

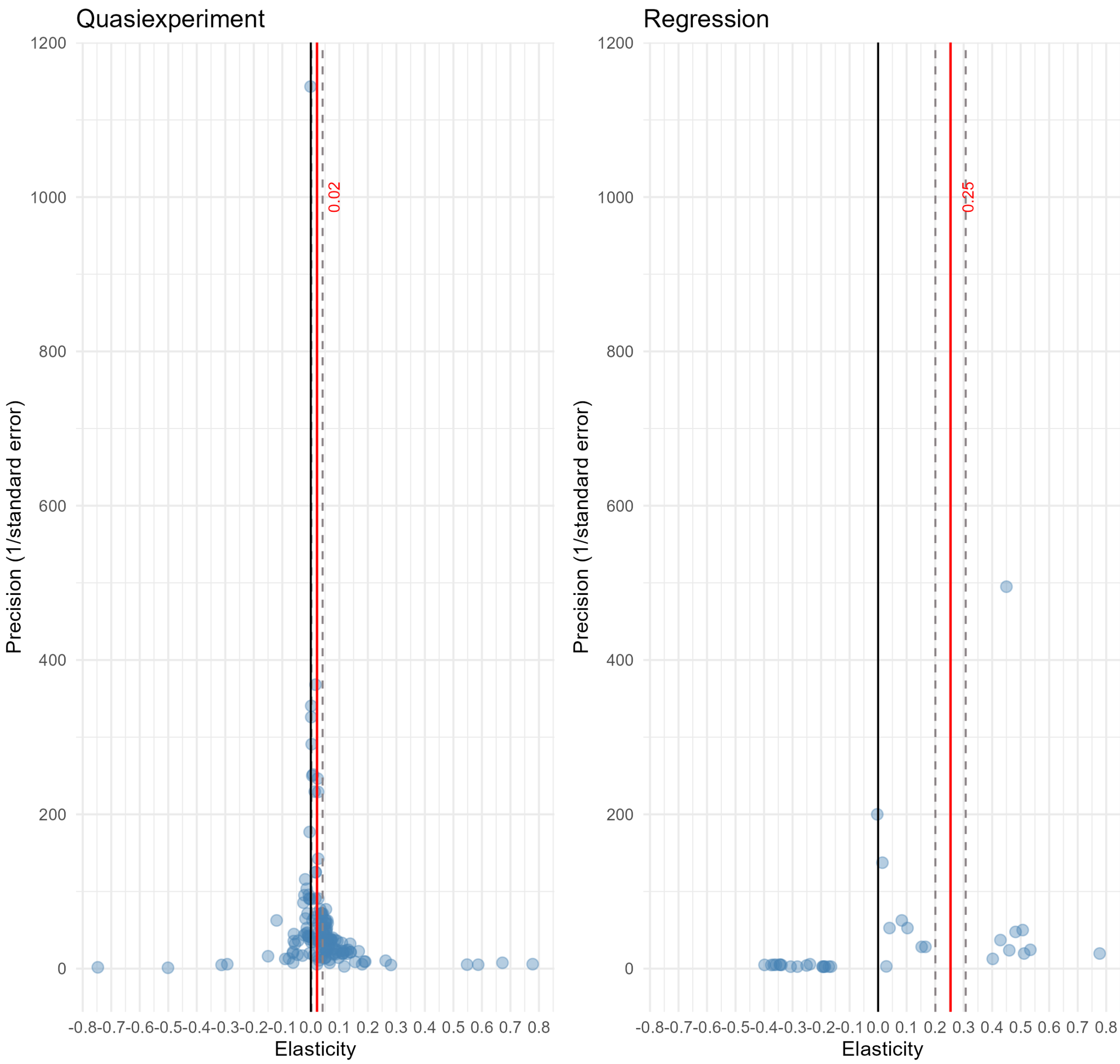
Figure 2 shows the funnel plot of the elasticity estimates from quasi-experimental and regression-based designs. Quasi-experimental estimates are generally more precise and closer to zero than regression-based estimates. Moreover, the distribution of quasi-experimental estimates is more symmetric than that of regression-based estimates, which tends to skew towards positive values.

Table 4 shows meta-analysis estimates restricted to the sample of quasi-experimental studies. In general, the precision-weighted estimates from quasi-experiments are smaller than the overall meta-estimates. While the precision-weighted regression average elasticity in column 2 is substantially smaller than the overall precision-weighted mean, the unweighted and weighted metaestimates from fixed-effects meta-analysis are only a bit smaller than the overall metaestimates. In column 4, the average elasticity is 0.087, close to its value in Table 3. The random-effects metaestimate weighted by precision is 0.032.

Publication bias. The funnel plots in Figure 2 show that, while there is no evident asymmetry in the distribution of estimates from quasi-experimental designs, there is some asymmetry in the distribution of estimates from regression-based designs. This result suggests that there may be publication bias, particularly in the sample of regression-based estimates.

To test for publication bias and account for its possible presence in the metaestimates, we include the standard error (or precision) of the estimates as a regressor in the unweighted models and include an intercept in the weighted models. This regression is analogous to Egger's test for publication bias. Table 5 shows the results. Including a control for the standard error in the unweighted model of column 1 increases the average elasticity estimate. For the estimate weighted by precision through regression in column 2, the standard form of Egger's test, the presence of an intercept has a minimal impact on the metaregression estimate compared to Table 3, and the

Figure 2: Elasticity vs. Precision: Quasi-experimental vs. Regression-Based Estimates



Source: Author's calculations. The red vertical line shows the precision-weighted average elasticity estimate. Dashed lines show the 95% confidence interval of the precision-weighted average.

Table 4: Meta-estimates of the Elasticity of Prices to the Minimum Wage: Quasiexperiment Estimates

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Intercept	0.043***		0.083***		0.080	
	(0.011)		(0.013)		(0.054)	
Precision		0.005***		0.087***		0.032***
		(0.001)		(0.017)		(0.011)
Num.Obs.	165	165	165	165	165	165
R2		−0.380	0.525	0.573		
Num.Studies	14	14	14	14	14	14
Study Fixed Effects			Yes	Yes		
Study Random Effects					Yes	Yes

Note: Source: Author's calculations. Standard errors in parentheses. Significance levels: * 0.10, ** 0.05, *** 0.01. The models are: (1) raw mean, (2) precision-weighted mean, (3) fixed effects, (4) precision-weighted fixed effects, (5) random effects, and (6) precision-weighted random effects. R-squared values in models (2) and (4) may be negative due to the exclusion of the intercept term.

intercept is not statistically significant. However, the fixed- and random-effects models do show some evidence of publication bias. The precision-weighted estimates decrease to 0.05 and 0.06 in the fixed-effects and random-effects estimates, respectively. These are substantially smaller than the overall estimates of 0.1 in the uncorrected analysis.[8]

Heterogeneity across types of goods. We also explore heterogeneity in elasticity estimates across good types. According to the theoretical mechanisms discussed in Section 2, we expect that the elasticity of prices to the minimum wage will be larger for more labor-intensive goods, such as services and restaurants.

Figure 3 shows funnel plots separating the estimates by good type. Most estimates are for food items and general goods, and we only have a few observations for other categories, such as restaurants, services, and housing rents. Nevertheless, the estimates differ substantially across industries. The estimates for food are small yet precise, whereas those for general goods are slightly noisier. The few service estimates are large, with a precision-weighted average of 0.09,

[8]We also estimate regression models where we interact the standard error with study effects. We exclude studies with fewer than two estimates in these meta-regressions, so the sample for this analysis is not strictly comparable to that used in the main analysis. Table A6 in the Appendix shows these results. The estimates are substantially noisier, but the point estimates of the average elasticities lie within the range reported in the main text.

Table 5: Meta-estimates of the Elasticity of Prices to the Minimum Wage Corrected for Publication Bias

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Intercept	0.088***	0.210	0.112***	0.983***	0.110**	0.846***
	(0.011)	(1.246)	(0.022)	(0.251)	(0.051)	(0.240)
Precision		0.046***		0.055***		0.061
		(0.011)		(0.018)		(0.047)
Standard Error	−0.708***		−0.093		−0.129	
	(0.127)		(0.278)		(0.112)	
Num.Obs.	199	199	199	199	199	199
R2	0.176	0.087	0.744	0.992		
Num.Studies	20	20	20	20	20	20
Study Fixed Effects			Yes	Yes		
Study Random Effects					Yes	Yes

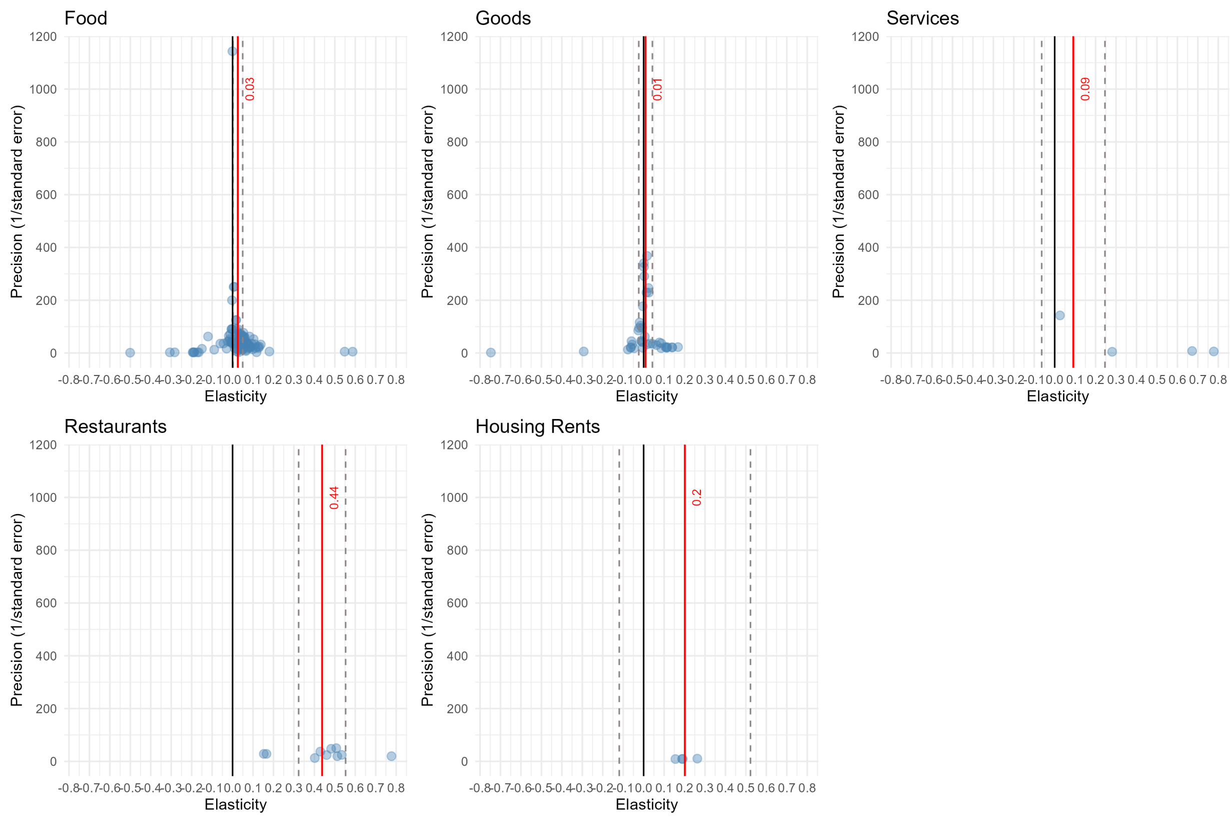
Note: Source: Author's calculations. Standard errors in parentheses. Significance levels: * 0.10, ** 0.05, *** 0.01. The models are: (1) raw mean, (2) precision-weighted mean, (3) fixed effects, (4) precision-weighted fixed effects, (5) random effects, and (6) precision-weighted random effects.

and several estimates above 0.5. For restaurants, most estimates are around 0.4, which is much larger than the effects for other types of goods.

Because there are only a few estimates for most categories, we do not conduct meta-analyses for each one. For the two categories with the largest Number of estimates –food and general goods– we report meta-estimates in Tables A7 and A8 in the Appendix. For food, the precision-weighted and random-effects precision-weighted estimates are positive and statistically significant, whereas the fixed-effects estimates are negative. The precision-weighted random-effects estimate is 0.02. For general goods, most estimates are not significant. This evidence suggests that the large overall elasticity, which includes all types of goods, is primarily driven by the estimates for services and restaurants, which are significantly larger than those for food and general goods.[9]

[9] One reason why the elasticities of food prices to the minimum wage may be small in developing countries is that food industries hire informal workers whose wages are smaller than the minimum wage or are not bound by it. Calderón et al. (2023) shows that the effects of the minimum wage on items in industries with a high degree of labor informality are smaller than those in formal industries.

Figure 3: Elasticity vs. Precision: Estimates by Type of Good



Source: Author's calculations. The red vertical line shows the precision-weighted average elasticity estimate. Dashed lines show the 95% confidence interval of the precision-weighted average.

5 Concluding remarks

We review recent studies on the effects of minimum wage increases on prices and conduct a quantitative meta-analysis of estimates of the minimum-wage elasticity of prices. Our average elasticities from the meta-analysis range from 0.03 to 0.11, indicating that a 10% minimum wage increase leads to a price rise of 0.3 to 1.1%. Quasi-experimental estimates tend to be smaller, as well as estimates for food items. On the other hand, estimates for labor-intensive sectors, such as restaurants, tend to be larger. The heterogeneity in the effects of the minimum wage across goods and contexts varies with labor share and the context in which the increase occurs.

Understanding differences across firms in the degree of pass-through to prices that do not arise from differences in labor shares would help clarify the mechanisms by which higher minimum wages and labor costs are passed through to prices. Similarly, additional quasi-experimental estimates of the price-minimum wage relationship in other service sectors would help provide a more complete picture for policymakers interested in the evolution of prices in the economy.

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Appendix

Table A1: Search Results by Query and Database

Database	Search Query	Studies identified
Google Scholar 1	the effect of minimum wage on prices	10
Google Scholar 2	the effect of minimum wage on inflation	4
Google Scholar 3	minimum wages and effect on prices	8
Google Scholar 4	minimum wages and effect on inflation	9
Google Scholar 5	minimum wage fast food prices	4
Google Scholar 6	Minimum wage price elasticity	18
Google Scholar 7	minimum wage and price pass through	1
Google Scholar 8	minimum wage prices and quantities	7
Google Scholar 9	supermarket food prices minimum wage policy	5
JSTOR 1	((ab:"minimum wage") AND (ab:"price elasticity"))	1
JSTOR 2	((minimum wage) AND (price elasticity))	9
JSTOR 3	((ti:minimum wage) AND (ti:price elasticity))	1
JSTOR 4	(((Minimum wage) AND (increases)) AND (price effects))	10
JSTOR 5	(((ti:"Minimum wage ") AND (increases)) AND (ti:"inflation"))	1
JSTOR 6	((((ti:"Minimum wage ") AND (increases)) AND (ti:"prices")) AND (effect))	2
JSTOR 7	the effect of minimum wage on prices	11
JSTOR 8	the effect of minimum wage on inflation	10
JSTOR 9	minimum wages and effect on prices	12
JSTOR 10	minimum wages and effect on inflation	7
JSTOR 11	minimum wage fast food prices	8
JSTOR 12	Minimum wage price elasticity	6
JSTOR 13	minimum wage and price pass through	9
JSTOR 14	minimum wage prices and quantities	3
JSTOR 15	supermarket food prices minimum wage policy	1
Sciendirect 1	minimum wage and price effects	5
Sciendirect 2	minimum wage and price effects	5
Sciendirect 3	minimum wage effects on inflation	6
Sciendirect 4	minimum wage effects and price elasticity	6
Sciendirect 5	the effect of minimum wage on prices	3
Sciendirect 6	the effect of minimum wage on inflation	1
Sciendirect 7	minimum wages and effect on prices	4
Sciendirect 8	minimum wages and effect on inflation	1
Sciendirect 9	minimum wage effects on prices	4
Sciendirect 10	minimum wage effects on inflation	1
Sciendirect 11	minimum wage on prices	4
Sciendirect 12	fast food prices minimum wage bite	NA
Sciendirect 13	minimum wage increases retail prices	2
Sciendirect 14	Minimum wage price elasticity	8
Sciendirect 15	local minimum wages price increases	3
Sciendirect 16	minimum wage and price pass through	5
Sciendirect 17	minimum wage prices and quantities	2
Sciendirect 18	minimum wage fast food prices	2
Sciendirect 19	supermarket food prices minimum wage policy	1
ECONLIT 1	(TX minimum wage) AND (TX effect) AND (TX price elasticity)	9

Table A2: List of Included Studies: Additional Information

Serie	Study	Country	Journal	% Change in MW	Industry	Statistics		
						Obs	Mean	Median
1	Allegretto and Reich 2018	United States	ILR Review	25%	Food	33	0.046	0.054
2	Ashenfelter and Jurajda 2022		Journal of Labor Economics	10%	Food	4	0.130	0.129
3	Basker and Khan 2016		Journal of Labor Research	10%	Food	10	0.044	0.046
4	Calderón, et al. 2023	Mexico	Labour Economics	83.79%	Food	1	0.007	0.007
4				100%	Food	1	0.001	0.001
4				83.79%	Goods	5	-0.001	0.001
4				100%	Goods	4	0.020	0.020
4				100%	Services	1	0.026	0.026
5	Campos-Vazquez and Esquivel 2020		Economic Letters	100%	All	2	-0.188	-0.188
5				100%	Food	1	-0.501	-0.501
5				100%	Goods	1	-0.747	-0.747
5				100%	Services	1	0.281	0.281
6	Campolieti 2018	Canada	Canadian Public Policy	3.16%	Food	24	0.081	0.046
7	Fougere, et al. 2010	France	Journal of Money, Credit and Banking	1%	Food	4	0.056	0.062
8	Kunaschk 2024	Germany	Labour Economics	6-15%	Services	2	0.725	0.725
9	Powers 2009	United States	J Labor Res	26.21%	Food	8	0.054	0.051
10	Renkin, et al. 2022		The Review of Economics and Statistics	10%	Food	15	0.034	0.036
11	Leung 2021			10%	Food	14	0.015	0.033
11				10%	Goods	22	-0.011	-0.013
12	Harasztosi and Lindner 2019	Hungary	American Economic Review	96.07%	Goods	8	0.097	0.099
13	Kocaman and Kemal 2019	Turkey	Economic Annals	1%	All	1	0.450	0.450
14	Cuong 2011	Vietnam	ASEAN Economic Bulletin	118%	All	9	-0.335	-0.345
14				118%	Food	9	-0.185	-0.189
15	Brummund 2018	United States	-	40.78%	Food	1	0.005	0.005
16	Crain 2018			10%	Restaurants	8	0.513	0.494
17	Ganapati and Weaver 2017			10%	Food	3	0.005	-0.001
18	Yamagishi 2021	Japan	Regional Science and Urban Economics	10%	Housing Rents	1	0.262	0.262
18	Yamagishi 2021			10%	Housing Rents	3	0.178	0.188
19	Cotti and Tefft 2013	United States	Economics and Human Biology	10%	Restaurants	2	0.159	0.159
20	Du and Wang 2020	China	Economic Modelling	10%	All	1	0.015	0.015

Table A3: Studies Excluded from the Meta-Analysis

Study	**Reason for Exclusion**
How Effective Is the Minimum Wage at Supporting the Poor? – MaCurdy (2015)	Excluded due to lack of a standard error or insufficient information to compute it. Also excluded because the study relies on a simulation methodology.
Efecto del cambio del salario mínimo en el precio de las comidas fuera del hogar en Colombia – Arango, et al. (2011)	Excluded due to lack of a standard error or insufficient information to compute it.

Table A4: Meta-estimates of the Elasticity of Prices to the Minimum Wage: Main Estimates

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Intercept	0.092***		0.112***		0.111*	
	(0.031)		(0.009)		(0.055)	
Precision		0.063**		0.110***		0.118**
		(0.024)		(0.018)		(0.046)
Num.Obs.	43	43	43	43	43	43
R2		0.143	0.950	0.999		
Num.Studies	18	18	18	18	18	18
Study Fixed Effects			Yes	Yes		
Study Random Effects					Yes	Yes

Note: Source: Author's calculations. Standard errors in parentheses. Significance levels: * 0.10, ** 0.05, *** 0.01. The models are: (1) raw mean, (2) precision-weighted mean, (3) fixed effects, (4) precision-weighted fixed effects, (5) random effects, and (6) precision-weighted random effects. R-squared values in models (2) and (4) may be negative due to the exclusion of the intercept term.

Table A5: Meta-estimates of the Elasticity of Prices to the Minimum Wage: Main and Heterogeneous Estimates

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Intercept	0.039**		0.106***		0.102*	
	(0.018)		(0.010)		(0.055)	
Precision		0.055***		0.107***		0.102**
		(0.013)		(0.016)		(0.044)
Num.Obs.	134	134	134	134	134	134
R2		0.125	0.814	0.994		
Num.Studies	19	19	19	19	19	19
Study Fixed Effects			Yes	Yes		
Study Random Effects					Yes	Yes

Note: Source: Author's calculations. Standard errors in parentheses. Significance levels: * 0.10, ** 0.05, *** 0.01. The models are: (1) raw mean, (2) precision-weighted mean, (3) fixed effects, (4) precision-weighted fixed effects, (5) random effects, and (6) precision-weighted random effects. R-squared values in models (2) and (4) may be negative due to the exclusion of the intercept term.

Table A6: Meta-estimates of the Elasticity of Prices to the Minimum Wage Corrected for Publication Bias: Interacting Standard Errors with Study Fixed Effects

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Intercept	0.084***	0.479	0.045	0.890**
	(0.015)	(0.915)	(0.051)	(0.403)
Precision		0.074		0.035
		(0.092)		(0.037)
Standard Error	0.096		0.277	
	(0.253)		(0.415)	
Num.Obs.	192	192	192	192
R2	0.840	0.846		
Num.Studies	20	20	15	15
Study Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes		
Study Random Effects			Yes	Yes

Note: Source: Author's calculations. Standard errors in parentheses. Significance levels: * 0.10, ** 0.05, *** 0.01. The models are: (1) fixed effects, (2) precision-weighted fixed effects, (3) random effects, and (4) precision-weighted random effects.

Table A7: Meta-estimates of the Elasticity of Prices to the Minimum Wage: Food Estimates

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Intercept	0.029***		−0.016***		−0.008	
	(0.010)		(0.004)		(0.039)	
Precision		0.004***		−0.028		0.021***
		(0.002)		(0.105)		(0.007)
Num.Obs.	128	128	128	128	128	128
R2		−0.556	0.512	0.538		
Num.Studies	13	13	13	13	13	13
Study Fixed Effects			Yes	Yes		
Study Random Effects					Yes	Yes

Note: Source: Author's calculations. Standard errors in parentheses. Significance levels: * 0.10, ** 0.05, *** 0.01. The models are: (1) raw mean, (2) precision-weighted mean, (3) fixed effects, (4) precision-weighted fixed effects, (5) random effects, and (6) precision-weighted random effects. R-squared values in models (2) and (4) may be negative due to the exclusion of the intercept term.

Table A8: Meta-estimates of the Elasticity of Prices to the Minimum Wage: Goods Estimates

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Intercept	−0.003		−0.163***		−0.159	
	(0.023)		(0.006)		(0.193)	
Precision		0.008***		−0.167		0.022
		(0.003)		(0.270)		(0.028)
Num.Obs.	40	40	40	40	40	40
R2		0.075	0.780	0.491		
Num.Studies	4	4	4	4	4	4
Study Fixed Effects			Yes	Yes		
Study Random Effects					Yes	Yes

Note: Source: Author's calculations. Standard errors in parentheses. Significance levels: * 0.10, ** 0.05, *** 0.01. The models are: (1) raw mean, (2) precision-weighted mean, (3) fixed effects, (4) precision-weighted fixed effects, (5) random effects, and (6) precision-weighted random effects. R-squared values in models (2) and (4) may be negative due to the exclusion of the intercept term.