



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Monetary Economics

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jmoneco

The case for a positive euro area inflation target: Evidence from france, germany and italy[☆]



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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 17 December 2021

Revised 12 September 2022

Accepted 13 September 2022

Available online 16 September 2022

JEL classification:

E31

E52

Keywords:

Optimal inflation target

Micro price trends

Welfare

ABSTRACT

Using micro price data underlying the consumer price index, we estimate relative price trends over the product life cycle in France, Germany and Italy. Minimizing the welfare consequences of relative price distortions in the presence of these trends requires targeting a significantly positive inflation rate: the steady-state inflation rate jointly maximizing welfare in all three countries ranges between 1.1%–1.7%. The welfare costs of targeting an inflation rate of zero, as suggested by monetary models ignoring relative price trends, or of targeting 4% amount to several percentage points of consumption.

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1. Introduction

This paper estimates the inflation rate that minimizes the welfare costs associated with relative price and mark-up distortions in France, Germany and Italy. In stark contrast to the standard monetary policy models entertained in central banks around the world, which predict inflation rates close to zero to be optimal¹, we find that the optimal inflation rate is significantly positive.

[☆] We thank Luca Dedola, Michael Ehrmann, Mathias Hoffmann, Peter Karadi, Geoff Kenny, Michele Lenza, Elmar Mertens, Alessandro Mistretta, Emanuel Mönch, Stefano Neri, Massimiliano Pisani, Raphael Schoenle, Oreste Tristani, Giordano Zevi and Roberta Zizza for helpful comments and suggestions. We would also like to thank Laurent Baudry, Anika Martin and Nikolaos Melissinos for research assistance. We are grateful to INSEE (France), ISTAT (Italy), the Research Data Center of the Federal Statistical Office (Germany), and the Statistical Offices of the German Federal States for providing access to the French, Italian and German micro price data, respectively. We also thank the Centre d'Accès Sécurisé Distant (CASD) for providing remote access to the French data. We are especially grateful to Alessandro Brunetti, Rosabel Ricci, Malte Kaukal and Markus Stahl for explaining to us the underlying data in great detail. Funding by the French National Research Agency (ANR) as part of the "Investissements d'Avenir" program (ANR-10-EQPX-17 - CASD) and by the German Research Foundation (DFG) through grant CRC-TR 224 (project C02) is gratefully acknowledged. The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the ECB or the Eurosystem, including the Banque de France, Banca d'Italia, and Deutsche Bundesbank.

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¹ See Schmitt-Grohé and Uribe 2010 for an overview.

Adam and Weber 2019 show that the optimal inflation rate generally differs from zero whenever there are efficient trends in the relative price of products over time. In particular, when it is efficient that the relative price of products falls over the product lifetime, positive rates of inflation become optimal in the presence of price rigidities. Adam and Weber 2020 extend this result to a setting with heterogeneous efficient price trends, develop a strategy for estimating these efficient trends, and show how they can be aggregated to arrive at a theory-consistent estimate for the optimal inflation rate.

The main contribution of the present paper is twofold. First, it leverages these insights to estimate the optimal inflation rate for France, Germany and Italy, which jointly account for close to two thirds of Euro Area GDP. To this end, it uses the micro price datasets underlying the Harmonized Index of Consumer Prices (HICP) in these countries to estimate relative price trends. The underlying data has recently become available under the Eurosystem's PRISMA (Price-setting Microdata Analysis) research network and contains more than 80 million price observations for the period 2010–2019. It also covers between 64% and 83% of the national HICP expenditure baskets, which makes the present paper the first one to analyze Euro Area micro price data with a comprehensive coverage of households' expenditure basket.² Based on the estimated relative price trends, we determine the distortion minimizing inflation rate.

As a second contribution, we provide new analytic results that allow to parsimoniously quantify the welfare costs associated with deviations from the optimal inflation rate in a setting with heterogeneous efficient price trends. We show that deviations from the optimal rate of inflation can produce consumption-equivalent welfare losses that easily reach several percentage points in present-value terms.

Our estimates for the baseline period 2015–2019 show that the optimal inflation rate ranges between 1.1% and 2.1% in France, between 1.2% and 2.0% in Germany and between 0.8% and 1.0% in Italy.³ For the three countries jointly, the optimal inflation rate ranges between 1.1% and 1.7%. The optimal inflation rates are thus all significantly above zero but also display quite some heterogeneity across countries.

In the cross-section of expenditures, we find that the positive rate for optimal inflation is exclusively driven by the presence of a downward trend in the relative price of non-energy industrial goods. Depending on the country, the relative price of these goods declines at a rate of 2.6%–5.5% per year over the product lifetime.⁴ Food and service prices show no relevant trends in relative prices over the product life, with the exception of the relative price of services in Germany, which increases at a rate close to 1% per year and thus represents a force that makes deflation optimal.

Differences across countries emerge because of important differences in the strength of relative price trends in non-energy industrial goods. Rates of relative price decline in this category are about twice as strong in France and Germany compared to Italy. This is the main reason why the optimal inflation rate in the former two countries is higher than in Italy.

At the disaggregated expenditure level (COICOP3), relative price trends display a considerable amount of positive correlation between France and Germany.⁵ Yet, Italy looks again different: relative price trends in Italy are overall weaker and covary only weakly with the ones in Germany at this level of disaggregation. We show that this is partly due to the fact that the rates of same-good price inflation in Italy are largely uncorrelated with the ones in Germany. In contrast, disaggregate inflation, which includes inflation contributions from old and new goods, comoves positively between Germany and Italy across expenditure categories.

We also investigate how the optimal inflation rate has evolved over time by comparing the baseline period (2015–2019) to an equally long period preceding the baseline period. We find that optimal inflation was either very stable over time or might have declined somewhat. This is in contrast to findings for the United Kingdom, reported in Adam and Weber 2020, which show an upward trend in the optimal inflation rate over time.

A remarkable feature of the Euro Area data is that there exists a strong positive correlation over time of the efficient trends in relative prices at the disaggregate expenditure level (COICOP3) in each of the three countries. This stability of relative price trends over time suggests that our estimates for the optimal inflation rate for the baseline period (2015–2019) are likely also relevant for the optimal inflation rate in the not too distant future, i.e., once the effects from the Covid crisis and the Russian invasion in Ukraine will have dissipated.

Beyond providing estimates of optimal inflation rates, the paper adds to the literature by quantifying the welfare costs associated with suboptimal rates of inflation. To this end it derives a new analytic result that allows computing the consumption-equivalent welfare costs of suboptimal inflation rates for a setting with heterogeneous efficient price trends across expenditure categories. This allows parsimoniously determining the present value of consumption-equivalent welfare losses in the Euro Area for a number of alternative scenarios.

The first scenario assumes that inflation stays permanently at the low average levels displayed over the period 2015–2019 in the considered countries. Aggregate welfare losses due to price distortions are then small and do not exceed 0.5% of consumption in present-value terms. The second scenario counterfactually assumes that the European Central Bank targets an inflation rate of zero percent, as would be (close to) optimal when considering standard monetary policy models that abstract from the presence of relative price trends. Aggregate welfare losses then become substantial and easily reach 4.5%

² Prior analyses of Euro Area micro price data, conducted under the Eurosystem's Inflation Persistence Network, achieved a considerably narrower coverage. The descriptive statistics reported in Dhyne et al. 2006, for instance, are based on approximately 10% of the official basket.

³ Estimates for Italy cover the period 2016–2019, as discussed in the main text.

⁴ This is the case, even though our data sample does not contain many consumer electronic goods, whose prices are collected centrally by statistical agencies. Arguably, the downward trend in relative prices over the product lifetime can be expected to be particularly pronounced in this product category.

⁵ COICOP denotes Classification of Individual Consumption by Purpose.

of consumption in present-value terms. The third and extreme scenario assumes that inflation stays permanently at the level of 4.1%, as observed in the Euro Area in October 2021. Permanent inflation of 4.1% results in a staggering welfare loss equal to 11% of consumption.

Overall, the three scenarios show how the welfare costs quickly rise with the deviation from the optimal target and how the normative prescription coming out of standard sticky price models (zero inflation) gives rise to severely suboptimal outcomes, as would permanently higher levels of inflation of the magnitude currently experienced in the Euro Area.

In general, the optimal inflation rate in standard models can slightly deviate from zero due to a range of considerations that go beyond relative price and mark-up concerns. These include the desire to minimize cash distortions (Khan, King and Wolman 2003), the existence of a lower bound constraint on nominal rates (Adam and Billi 2007; 2006, Coibion, Gorodnichenko and Wieland 2012, L’Huillier and Schoenle 2020), or the (downward) rigidity of nominal wages (Kim and Ruge-Murcia 2009). While the present paper abstracts from these considerations, they typically generate only quantitatively small effects under (Ramsey) optimal monetary policy.

Section 2 explains how we estimate the optimal inflation target and derives our new welfare result. Section 3 describes the underlying micro price data and explains in detail the specification of the estimation approach. The main results on the optimal target estimates are presented in Section 4. Section discusses the quantitative welfare implications of suboptimal inflation rates. Section takes a closer look at the underlying heterogeneity in relative price trends. A conclusion briefly summarizes our main findings and provides an outlook on future work.

2. The optimal target and the welfare costs of suboptimal inflation

This section briefly explains how one can estimate the optimal inflation target from micro price data. It also presents a new closed-form result that allows quantifying the welfare costs of suboptimal inflation rates.

Consider a setting with $z = 1, \dots, Z$ expenditure categories as in Adam and Weber 2020. Each category has expenditure weight $\psi_z > 0$ in the consumption basket, with $\sum_z \psi_z = 1$. Efficient (gross real) expenditures grow at rate γ_z^e and the efficient (gross real) growth rate of overall expenditures is γ^e . Letting b_z denote the efficient rate of relative price decline of products in expenditure category z , the optimal (gross) inflation rate Π^* is given (to a first-order approximation) by

$$\Pi^* = \sum_{z=1}^Z \psi_z \cdot \frac{\gamma_z^e}{\gamma^e} \cdot b_z. \tag{1}$$

Adam and Weber 2020 show that this holds true independently of whether price-setting frictions are time-dependent or state-dependent. As will become clear below, we have $b_z > 1$ ($b_z < 1$) whenever the efficient relative price of products declines (increases) over time in category z . Eq. (1) shows that relative price trends pertaining to expenditure categories with a high expenditure weight (ψ_z) or a high relative growth rate (γ_z^e/γ^e) have a larger impact on the optimal inflation target, as distortions in such categories affect economic welfare relatively more.

Adam and Weber 2020 also show that one can estimate the efficient rates of relative price decline b_z using linear panel regressions of the form

$$\ln \frac{P_{jzt}}{P_{zt}} = f_{jz} - \ln(b_z) \cdot s_{jzt} + u_{jzt}, \tag{2}$$

where P_{jzt} denotes the price of product j in expenditure category z at time t , P_{zt} the price index in category z , f_{jz} a product and category-specific intercept term, s_{jzt} the in-sample age of the product (normalized to zero at the date of product entry), and u_{jzt} a mean-zero residual potentially displaying serial and cross-sectional dependence.

We shall use Eqs. (1) and (2) to determine country-level optimal inflation targets, using the HICP expenditure weights for ψ_z and using estimates for the relative growth rates γ_z^e/γ^e . Given the linear structure embedded in Eq. (1), one can aggregate the nationally optimal inflation targets further to the level of a currency union, using country-level expenditure weights and expenditure growth rates. We shall do so using France, Germany and Italy jointly as proxy for the Euro Area.

Using our estimates, we also determine the welfare costs associated with suboptimal inflation. The proposition below states our main result for the setup with time-dependent pricing considered in Adam and Weber 2020. Welfare costs turn out to depend on a small number of parameters only. Specifically, $\phi \geq 1$ denotes the inverse of the labor share in production; $\theta > 1$ the elasticity of substitution between goods within an expenditure category; $\alpha_z \in (0, 1)$ the Calvo stickiness parameter in category z ; $\delta_z \in (0, 1)$ the rate at which individual products enter and exit category z ; and $\beta(\gamma^e)^{1-\sigma} < 1$ the steady-state discount factor, where β captures time discounting and $\sigma > 0$ denotes the coefficient of relative risk aversion. We then have the following result:

Proposition 1. *Suppose the output subsidy/tax satisfies $1 + \tau \in (0, \theta/(\theta - 1)]$ and consider the limit $\beta(\gamma^e)^{1-\sigma} \rightarrow 1$. The per-period consumption-equivalent welfare loss associated with a deviation of the (gross) steady-state inflation rate Π from its optimal rate Π^* is*

$$\frac{c(\Pi) - c(\Pi^*)}{c(\Pi^*)} = -\frac{1}{2} \phi \frac{\mu''(\Pi)}{\mu(\Pi)} \Big|_{\Pi=\Pi^*} (\Pi - \Pi^*)^2 + O(3), \tag{3}$$

where $O(3)$ denotes a third-order approximation error and $\mu''(\Pi)/\mu(\Pi)$ captures the convexity of the aggregate mark-up μ with respect to the inflation rate. Evaluating the latter delivers

$$\left. \frac{\mu''(\Pi)}{\mu(\Pi)} \right|_{\Pi=\Pi^*} = \frac{\theta \tilde{\alpha}(\Pi^*)^{\theta-3}}{\left(1 - \tilde{\alpha}(\Pi^*)^{\theta-1}\right)\left(1 - \tilde{\alpha}(\Pi^*)^{\theta-1}\right)}, \tag{4}$$

where the welfare-equivalent consumption loss in equation (3) is approximated at a point where $b_z \frac{\gamma_z^e}{\gamma^e}$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_z \equiv \alpha_z(1 - \delta_z)(\gamma^e/\gamma_z^e)^{\theta-1}$ are constant across expenditure categories $z = 1, \dots, Z$. The approximation is valid for first-order variations in both of these variables across categories z .

Proof. See appendix A. \square

Proposition 1 contains the first closed-form expression available in the literature determining the welfare losses of sub-optimal inflation in an economy featuring heterogeneous efficient trends in relative prices.

The conditions regarding the output subsidy and the discount factor in Proposition 1 are identical to the ones required to insure that the optimal inflation target Π^* is given by Eq. (1). These conditions are rather weak, as they do not require that the subsidy eliminates the effects of monopolistic competition. The condition on the discount factor $\beta(\gamma^e)^{1-\sigma}$ insures that mark-up and price distortions are proportional to each other. Minimizing the welfare consequences of relative price distortions is then equivalent to minimizing the welfare consequences of mark-up distortions and we can use price and mark-up distortions interchangeably.⁶

Proposition 1 shows that the steady-state welfare losses are a quadratic function of the deviation of inflation Π from its optimal level Π^* .⁷ The factors pre-multiplying the squared inflation deviation depend positively on the inverse of the labor share in production (ϕ) and positively on the convexity of the aggregate mark-up with respect to aggregate inflation, as captured by the term $\mu''(\Pi^*)/\mu(\Pi^*)$.

Intuitively, when labor is the only input in production ($\phi = 1$), price and mark-up distortions affect adversely only the allocation of labor across goods and expenditure categories. When capital is also a production factor ($\phi > 1$), then price and mark-up distortions also adversely affect the steady-state capital to labor ratio. This latter effect amplifies the welfare implications of price and mark-up distortions.

The mark-up term ($\mu''(\Pi^*)/\mu(\Pi^*)$) shows up as a pre-multiplying factor in Eq. (3) because it captures the welfare costs of suboptimal inflation in a setting in which there are no first-order costs: since the optimal inflation rate Π^* defined in Eq. (1) minimizes the aggregate welfare consequences of mark-up (and relative price) distortions, we have $\mu'(\Pi^*) = 0$, so that deviations of inflation generate only second-order costs. The mark-up term depends itself on a small number of structural parameters, as shown by Eq. (4). Provided the optimal (gross) inflation rate is not too different from one ($\Pi^* \approx 1$), the welfare costs are approximately proportional to the price elasticity of demand (θ). This is so because any given amount of price distortion causes larger quantity distortions the more elastic demand reacts to relative price distortions. Similarly and perhaps not surprisingly, the welfare costs also increase in the parameter $\tilde{\alpha}$, which captures the effective degree of price stickiness at the point of approximation.⁸

The remainder of the paper will use micro price data to estimate the optimal inflation rate for France, Germany and Italy, using Eqs. (1) and (2), and will quantify the welfare implications of suboptimal inflation rates in the Euro Area using Proposition 1.

3. Micro price data for france, germany and italy

This section describes the underlying data set, which consists of micro price data for the period 2010–2019 used in the construction of the Harmonized Index of Consumer Prices (HICP) in France, Germany and Italy. Data access has been provided to us via the Eurosystem’s PRISMA (Price-setting Microdata Analysis) research network.

Euro Area micro price data has previously been analyzed in a period covering the inception of the Euro Area. In particular, Dhyne et al. 2006 document a number of key descriptive statistics for a common sample of 50 goods and services over the period 1998–2003. Their data for France, Germany and Italy covered only around 10% of the official basket (see Gautier et al. 2021), which required performing cross-country comparisons on a relatively small share of the total basket. We are in the fortunate position that the data cover a much larger share of the basket, i.e., 83.3% for Germany, 64% for Italy and 67.2% for France. The coverage is still incomplete because our data does not include most of the so-called centrally collected prices and - for the case of France and Italy - excludes rent prices. Like Dhyne et al. 2006, we make a significant effort to harmonize the data preparation and the empirical approach across countries, see appendix B for details.

⁶ See lemma 2 in Adam and Weber 2020. While this proportionality simplifies the analytic derivations, it is not of quantitative relevance for our findings.

⁷ The aggregate inflation rate Π is the expenditure-weighted average of the category-specific inflation rates Π_z , i.e., $\ln \Pi = \sum_z \psi_z \ln \Pi_z$.

⁸ If all sectors grow at approximately the same rate ($\gamma_z^e \approx \gamma^e$), we have $\tilde{\alpha} \approx \alpha_z(1 - \delta_z)$, where α_z is the Calvo stickiness parameter and $(1 - \delta_z)$ the probability that the product survives into the next period. The effective degree of price stickiness $\tilde{\alpha}$ depends negatively on the product turnover rate δ_z because the prices for new products can be chosen freely.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics (2015/6–2019, country-specific sample).

	France	Germany	Italy
Total number of price observations	8.0m	30.1m	11.6m
Number of COICOP5 expenditure categories	223	234	168
Covered expenditure share (of total HICP basket)	67.2%	83.3%	64.0%
Number of price observations per COICOP5			
Mean	36.1k	128.8k	69.1k
Median	15.4k	55.7k	42.2k
Number of products per COICOP5			
Mean	3.3k	10.1k	3.9k
Median	1.0k	2.2k	1.8k

The data is collected on a monthly basis and contains product-level price information for goods and services purchased by private households. For most products, price collectors visit different types of outlets and shops, or request price information in a decentralized manner. For some products, price collection is centralized and based on publicly available sources on the internet. The data also contains survey-based information on the average expenditure shares at the national level on which official weights are based.

Our analysis considers all price observations that enter the computation of the national CPI and also includes information on quality adjustments performed by statistical agencies. We omit all price observations that are not originally sampled, i.e., we exclude all interpolated and imputed prices for seasonal products and for products that are out of stock. We do so because interpolation at the product level is often performed in a way that it does not alter the dynamics of elementary price indices and hence the aggregate CPI. This, however, can severely affect price trajectories at the product level and thereby bias estimates of relative price trends towards zero.

We also refine the product definition originally provided to us by national statistical institutes to avoid lumping products together over time that are effectively different. In particular, we split the price trajectories of the product time series, whenever (1) price observations are missing for more than one month, (2) comparable or non-comparable product substitutions occur, and (3) when there are changes in either the product quality or the product quantity.

3.1. The considered sample periods

Our baseline sample period uses data for the five-year period from January 2015 to December 2019. For France, since data ends in September 2019, we use the period starting in October 2014 and ending in September 2019. To simplify the exposition, we refer to the French baseline sample also as covering the years 2015–2019. For Italy, we consider data from January 2016 to December 2019. We use a 4-year period because there has been a classification break for products in December 2015.⁹ All in all, the baseline sample periods are quite comparable across countries and strike a balance between maximizing the sample length for each country and harmonization across countries.

We also consider an earlier sample period for the three countries. For Germany, this is the 5-year period from January 2010 to December 2014. For France, the earlier sample period comprises data from October 2009 to September 2014, so as to avoid overlap with the baseline sample period. Following similar conventions as for the baseline sample, we refer to the French sample as the 2010–2014 sample. To achieve comparability over time in Italy, we consider the 4-year sample period covering January 2012 to December 2015.

3.2. Sample construction and descriptive statistics

Starting from all prices in the national CPI sample, we first eliminate all imputed and interpolated prices, as explained before. The fraction of imputed prices differs considerably across countries. For the baseline sample period (2015/6–2019), the share of imputed prices is 11.5% in France, 4.2% in Germany and 8.0% in Italy. This significant variation suggests that imputation procedures are far from being fully harmonized across the countries, which provides an additional reason for excluding imputed prices from our analysis.

Table 1 reports a number of descriptive statistics for the baseline sample period (2015/6–2019), after excluding imputed prices.¹⁰ The reported statistics highlight considerable differences across countries.

The German sample is the most comprehensive one in terms of number of price observations, number of COICOP5 expenditure categories and the percentage of the expenditure share covered. The French sample contains nearly the same number of COICOP5 categories as the German sample, but significantly fewer price observations. This reflects different sampling strategies across the two countries, which might partly be due to the Federal structure of data collection in Germany, where samples are collected to be informative at the level of federal states (Länder). The Italian sample covers the smallest

⁹ This break makes it impossible to trace product prices from December 2015 to January 2016 and prevents us from estimating relative price trends over the turn of the year 2015/2016, see appendix B3 for details.

¹⁰ Corresponding numbers for the earlier samples are reported in appendix D.

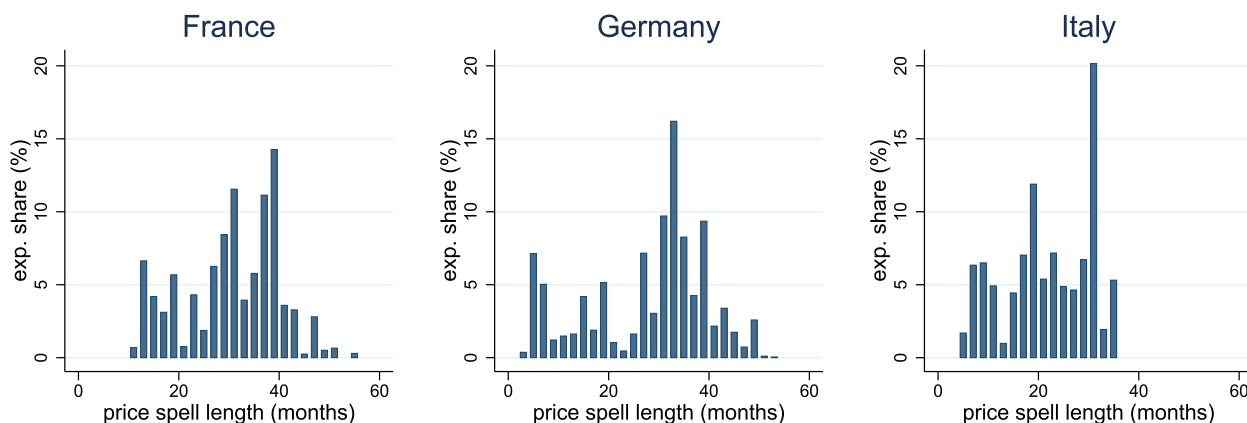


Fig. 1. Average number of price observations per product at COICOP5 level (2015/6–2019, harmonized sample, expenditure-weighted distribution).

number of COICOP5 categories. In terms of the number of price observations, it is located between Germany and France, especially when taking into account that the sample period is one year shorter.

Table 1 shows that the underlying micro price data covers a large part of the total HICP basket of consumption expenditures in each country. The covered expenditure share is highest in Germany because it includes, unlike in other countries, information on rent payments. Table 1 also shows that the mean and median number of price observations at the COICOP5 level is sufficiently large in all countries to allow us to reliably estimate relative price trends. There is also a large mean and median number of products at the COICOP5 level.

While the country-specific samples in Table 1 are the ones most representative at the level of each country, they are not comparable across countries. Therefore, to obtain meaningful cross-country comparisons, our baseline approach considers only COICOP5 expenditure categories that are present in all three countries. We will refer to this selection of the data sample as the ‘harmonized sample’. This rules out that country differences are driven purely by differences in the coverage of the underlying expenditure categories in national samples. We analyze the full country-specific samples in robustness exercises.

Table 2 reports the same descriptive statistics as Table 1 for the sample harmonized across countries. This sample covers 145 common COICOP5 expenditure categories. For Italy, the total number of price observations drops by merely 9% as a result of harmonization, but the drop is more pronounced in France (24%) and Germany (18%), as the national data sets for these countries contain a significantly larger number of COICOP5 categories. There is a corresponding drop in the expenditure weights vis-a-vis the full samples available to us. Again, this effect is least pronounced for the Italian sample.

Interestingly, the mean and median number of price observations per COICOP5 category rises as a result of harmonization. The same holds true for the mean and median number of products per expenditure category. This shows that the harmonized sample mainly leaves out expenditure categories containing relatively few price observations and products.

Since we wish to estimate relative price trends over the product lifetime in a large number of expenditure categories, we also analyze for how long products are present on average in these categories within the harmonized baseline sample and using our refined product definition. Fig. 1 reports the average number of months for which products are present, for each of the 145 COICOP5 categories. For the vast majority of COICOP5 categories, the average sample length of products is longer than 10 months, with average values (across categories) slightly above 20 months for Italy and close to 30 months for France and Germany. Given this, we conclude that one can reliably estimate (relative) price trends at the product level.

Table 2
Descriptive statistics (2015/6–2019, harmonized sample).

	France	Germany	Italy
Total number of price observations	6.1m	24.6m	10.6m
Number of COICOP5 expenditure categories	145	145	145
Covered expenditure share (of country-specific sample)	68.2%	51.0%	87.9%
Number of price observations per COICOP5			
Mean	41.8k	169.6k	72.8k
Median	24.7k	104.0k	49.7k
Number of products per COICOP5			
Mean	3.4k	14.2k	4.2k
Median	1.7k	3.6k	2.1k

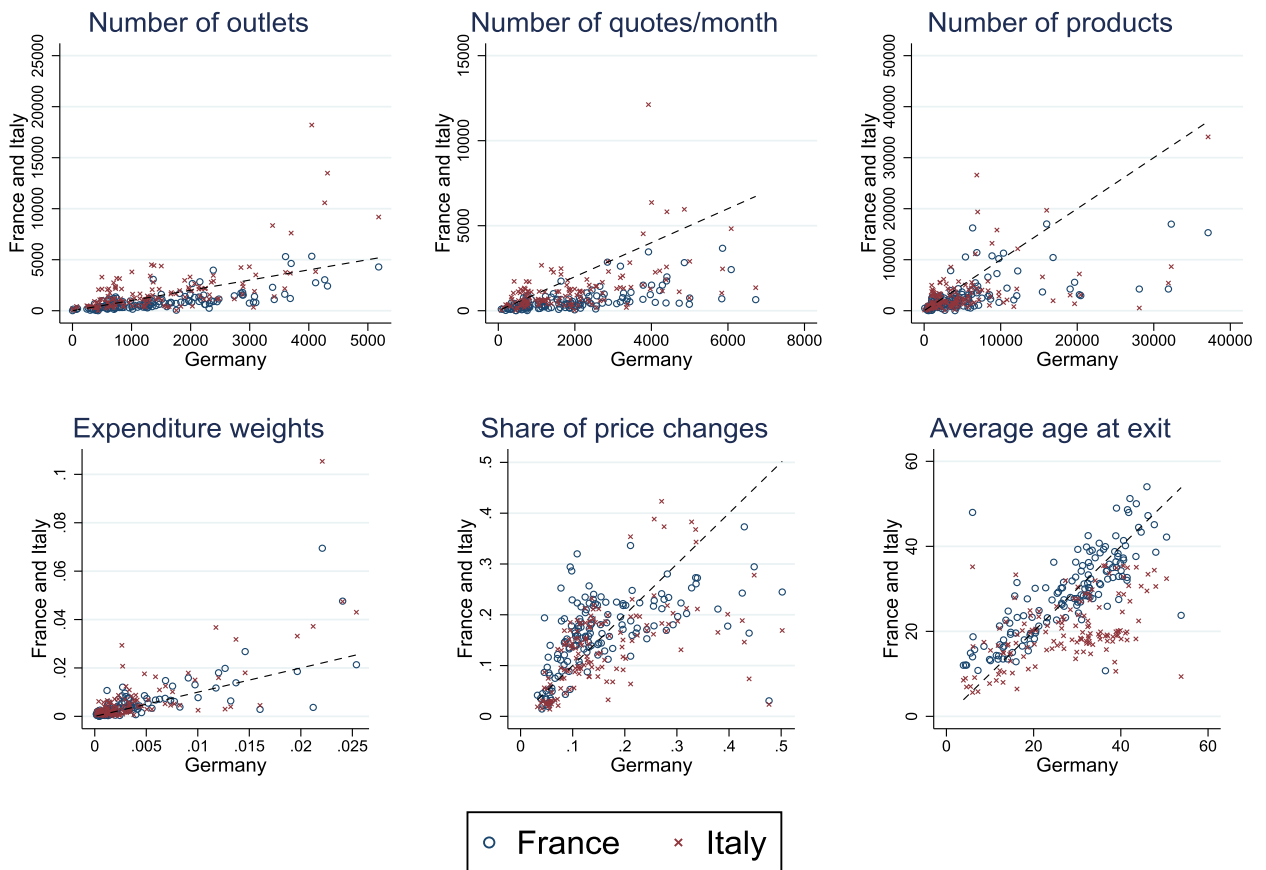


Fig. 2. Descriptive joint distributions at the COICOP5 level (harmonized sample, 2015/16–2019).

Fig. 2 reports a number of descriptive joint distributions for France and Italy vis-a-vis Germany at the COICOP5 level.¹¹ Each point in the figure represents a COICOP5 expenditure category and the dashed line is the 45° line. The panel on the top left of the figure shows that there is a strong positive correlation in the number of outlets that statistical agencies sample at the COICOP5 level and that all three countries sample approximately the same number of outlets. The center and right panels in the top row of Fig. 2 illustrate that there is also a strong positive correlation in the number of price quotes per months, and the number of products sampled, across COICOP5 categories, even if the German sample generally contains more price observations and in some cases a significantly larger number of products. The left panel in the bottom row of Fig. 2 shows that expenditure weights across COICOP5 categories correlate strongly across countries and are centered around the 45° line.¹² The same holds true for the price adjustment frequencies (center panel in the bottom row) and the average product age at the time of exit from the sample (right panel in the bottom row).¹³ Overall, the panels in Fig. 2 show that the micro price samples of the three countries share many features and thus allow us to make meaningful cross-country comparisons.

3.3. The estimation approach

This section presents our baseline approach for estimating b_z in Eq. (2). Further details are described in appendix B.

We estimate the coefficients b_z at the COICOP8 level using the monthly panel regression Eq. (2). We set ψ_z equal to the time average of the official COICOP8 expenditure weights after normalizing them to one over the considered sample period. We set the relative expenditure growth term γ_z^e/γ^e in Eq. (1) equal to Π/Π_z , which is consistent with Cobb-Douglas aggregation, and where Π_z denotes the average inflation rate in expenditure category z over the considered sample period and

¹¹ To increase readability, the panels in the top row of Fig. 2 have truncated axis.

¹² The outlier for Italy in the top right corner of this panel is COICOP 11111, "Restaurants, cafes and dancing establishments", which has a much higher expenditure weight in Italy than in Germany.

¹³ One issue with computing price adjustment frequencies in the presence of product turnover is how one takes into account new products. We treat the price associated with the entry of new product as a price adjustment.

Table 3
Optimal inflation estimates (2015/6–2019, harmonized sample, baseline approach).

	France 2015–19	Germany 2015–19	Italy 2016–19	Euro Area (FR, GER, IT)
Optimal Inflation Target	1.8%	1.8%	0.8%	1.5%
Olley-Pakes Decomposition				
$E[b_z]$	1.8%	1.4%	0.7%	-
$Z \cdot cov((\gamma_z^e/\gamma^e)\psi_z, b_z)$	0.0%	0.4%	0.1%	-

$\ln \Pi = \sum_z \psi_z \ln \Pi_z$ is the expenditure-weighted average inflation rate across categories. When reporting results at various levels of disaggregation, e.g., at the COICOP3 level, we compute these as expenditure-weighted averages of the underlying COICOP8 level results, in line with how we compute aggregate results.¹⁴

For France we need to slightly deviate from the baseline approach, as official expenditure weights are only available at the COICOP6 level. We thus estimate b_z in Eq. (2) at the elementary level and then use, in a first step, unweighted averages to obtain an average estimate at the COICOP6 level. In a second step, we aggregate average estimates further using COICOP6 official expenditure weights. Applying the French aggregation procedure to the German data produces only minor differences to estimated optimal inflation rates.¹⁵

The baseline estimation approach uses the simple unweighted average of product prices in category z at time t as the category price level P_{zt} in Eq. (2), following the approach in Adam and Weber 2020. This has the advantage that we only take non-imputed prices into account in the regressions. Yet, we also consider an alternative approach which uses the official price index for P_{zt} , as computed by the statistical agencies. For Germany and Italy, these indices are available at the COICOP8 level. For France we use price indices at COICOP5 level, as official indices are not available at finer levels of disaggregation.

4. The optimal inflation target: Main results

This section describes our main estimates of the optimal inflation targets for France, Germany and Italy and for the Euro Area (consumption-weighted three country average).

Table 3 reports the estimated optimal inflation targets using the baseline sample period and the expenditure sample harmonized across countries. The table shows that the optimal inflation target is significantly above zero in all three countries: the presence of downward sloping efficient relative price trends thus strongly affects the optimal inflation rate in the presence of nominal rigidities. There is, however, a considerable degree of heterogeneity across the three countries. While the optimal target is 0.8% for Italy, it is a full percentage point higher for France and Germany. This shows that in France and Germany the (weighted) rate of relative price decline is more than twice as strong as in Italy.

According to the underlying theory, this difference could emerge for a number of reasons. One possibility is that quality progress associated with product replacements is better accounted for in Italy by the national statistical institute. Alternatively, productivity improvements over the product lifetime could be weaker in Italy than in France and Germany. Identifying which force is actually at play is not feasible with the available price data alone but appears to be an interesting target for future research.

Given that France, Germany and Italy jointly account for about 64% of Euro Area GDP, we aggregate the nationally optimal inflation targets to obtain an estimate for the optimal Euro Area inflation target. We do so by weighting the optimal inflation rates of individual countries with their respective 2019 consumption expenditure shares.¹⁶ The optimal Euro Area inflation rate thus computed is sizable and equal to 1.5%. This shows that price stickiness and the presence of efficient trends in relative prices alone justify targeting significantly positive inflation rates in the Euro Area. Additional considerations, such as falling levels for natural interest rates and the presence of a lower bound constraint on nominal rates may move this number up even further, e.g., see Adam, Pfauti and Reinelt 2020.

Table 3 also provides an Olley-Pakes decomposition of the optimal inflation rate in Eq. (1) at the COICOP5 level. Using the fact that the sum of weights $\sum_z \frac{\gamma_z^e}{\gamma^e} \psi_z$ is very close to one, we can decompose the optimal inflation rate into the contribution from the *unweighted* mean of efficient relative price declines $E[b_z]$ and the contribution from the covariance between (growth-adjusted) expenditure weights and rates of relative price decline:

$$\Pi^* \approx E[b_z] + Z \cdot cov((\gamma_z^e/\gamma^e)\psi_z, b_z)$$

where Z denotes here the number of COICOP5 categories at which the Olley-Pakes decomposition is performed.

As Table 3 indicates, the contribution of the covariance term is relevant only in Germany, where it contributes 0.4% to the optimal inflation target. In the two other countries, the unweighted average of the rates of relative price decline delivers very

¹⁴ All optimal inflation rates are reported in annual terms and in percentage points, and have been computed by transforming the monthly regression coefficients from Eq. (2) in yearly coefficients and using annual inflation rates to determine γ_z^e/γ^e .

¹⁵ The optimal inflation target for Germany increases only slightly by fifteen basis points.

¹⁶ We use final consumption expenditure by household for the year 2019. The resulting consumption shares are 42.2% for Germany, 31.1% for France and 26.7% for Italy. Strictly speaking, the aggregation result in Eq. (1) requires also using relative consumption growth rates (γ_z^e/γ^e) . This, however, has quantitatively only negligible effects on the result.

Table 4
Optimal inflation target: alternative estimation approaches and micro price samples.

	France 2015–19	Germany 2015–19	Italy 2016–19	Euro Area Average (FR, GER, IT)
Optimal inflation target baseline estimate:	1.8%	1.8%	0.8%	1.5%
Official price index for P_{zt} in Eq. (2):	2.1%	2.0%	0.8%	1.7%
Country-specific COICOP sample:	1.1%	1.2%	0.8%	1.1%
German expenditure weights ($\psi_z \gamma_z^e / \gamma^e$)	2.1%	1.8%	1.0%	1.7%
No relative growth weights ($\gamma_z^e / \gamma^e = 1$)	1.4%	1.8%	0.8%	1.4%

similar conclusions for the optimal inflation rate as the weighted average. This is due to the fact that for France and Italy, there is virtually no covariance between the estimated efficient rates of relative price decline (b_z) and the growth-adjusted expenditure weights ($(\gamma_z^e / \gamma^e) \psi_z$).

Table 4 explores the robustness of our main findings to using alternative estimation approaches. The alternative approaches deviate significantly from our baseline approach, but nevertheless yield broadly similar conclusions.

The first alternative approach in Table 4 uses the official price indices for P_{zt} in the panel regressions (2) instead of the unweighted average product price. The way statistical agencies compute price indices differs substantially from simply averaging across prices, not least because official indices use product, shop and regional weights, in addition to using nonlinear (log-exponential) aggregation formulae in some countries and/or some expenditure categories. The official price indices also use all imputed prices, while these are excluded in our baseline approach. When using official price indices to compute relative price trends, the optimal inflation rates for France and Germany increase slightly, while the optimal rate for Italy remains largely unchanged. As a result, the optimal inflation target for the Euro Area increases slightly to 1.7%.

The second robustness exercise in Table 4 drops the requirement that consumption baskets must be comparable across countries, but instead makes use of all available micro price data in each country to estimate the optimal inflation target.¹⁷ Especially for France and Germany, this results in a significant change in the considered expenditure baskets, see Table 2. While the optimal inflation target remains unchanged for Italy, the optimal targets decline considerably in France and Germany. In Germany, this is partly due to the fact that the German data set contains information on rent prices, which display low rates of relative price decline.¹⁸ In France, the presence of fresh food, and to some extent gasoline, in the country-specific sample contributes to the decline in the optimal inflation. Overall, the Euro Area optimal inflation target drops by 0.4% to 1.1% when relying on country-specific expenditure samples.

The third robustness exercise in Table 4 again departs from the harmonized expenditure sample, but this time uses the German expenditure weights ψ_z in all countries. The optimal inflation rates in France and Italy then slightly increase by 0.3 and 0.2 percentage points, respectively, relative to the baseline outcome. This shows that differences in expenditure weights across countries have only a modest impact on country-level results.

The last robustness exercise in Table 4 eliminates the relative growth weights γ_z^e / γ^e , setting them equal to one in all countries, instead of computing them consistent with Cobb-Douglas aggregation in household preferences ($\gamma_z^e / \gamma^e = \Pi / \Pi_z$). Inflation rates differ quite substantially across different expenditure categories, especially when considering a fine level of disaggregation (COICOP8). One might thus suspect that these weights might have a rather large quantitative impact on results. Table 4 shows, however, that results are essentially unchanged for Germany and Italy. The biggest change occurs in France, where optimal inflation drops by about 0.4 percentage points, but the implied Euro Area rate drops by merely 0.1 percentage points relative to the baseline.

Taken together, the robustness exercises show that the baseline results are very stable for Italy. Furthermore, the baseline results obtained from the harmonized sample for France and Germany are roughly in the middle of the alternative approaches considered in Table 4 and so is the baseline result for the optimal Euro Area inflation target.

In appendix C, we also compare estimates of the optimal inflation target obtained from the baseline sample period (2015/6–2019) to the corresponding estimates obtained from an earlier sample period (2010–14 for France and Germany, 2012–2015 for Italy). Results suggest that the optimal inflation rate might have declined over time or could have been broadly stable. Reassuringly, however, the estimates for the earlier sample period are in the same ballpark as the estimates in the latter period, which shows that relative price trends tend to display considerable stability over time. This stability over time suggests that the baseline optimal inflation rates estimated in Table 3 bear some relevance also for what is the optimal inflation rate in the not too distant future, i.e., once the effects of the COVID-induced recession have vanished.

¹⁷ As before, we drop all imputed prices.

¹⁸ The expenditure weight on rents (normalized and time-averaged) is sizable in Germany and equal to 11.7%. At the same time, relative price trends in this expenditure category are relatively weak, justifying optimal inflation rates of just around 1.2%, which is considerably below the German baseline estimate of the optimal target.

Table 5
Welfare costs of suboptimal inflation.

	Euro Area (2015/6-2019) harmonized sample
Optimal inflation	1.5%
Present value of consumption-equivalent welfare losses:	
Actual HICP inflation (2015/6-2019)	0.5%
Zero inflation	4.5%
Permanent inflation of 4.1%	11.0%

Overall, the optimal inflation target that minimizes the welfare effects of relative price distortions in the Euro Area ranges between 1.1% and 1.7%, which is significantly larger than the zero inflation benchmark implied by monetary models that abstract from the presence of product turnover and trends in relative prices.

5. The welfare costs of suboptimal inflation in the euro area

This section evaluates the welfare costs of suboptimal inflation rates by comparing the estimated optimal inflation rate for the Euro Area with the actual inflation rates prevailing over the considered time period and with two counterfactual settings in which the central bank targets either zero inflation or an elevated inflation rate equal to its current level of 4.1 percent.

Welfare losses are computed using [Proposition 1](#), which requires specifying only three parameters of interest, namely the demand elasticity θ , the inverse labor share ϕ and the (growth-adjusted) effective degree of price stickiness $\tilde{\alpha} = (1 - \alpha_z)\delta_z(\gamma^e/\gamma_z^e)^{\theta-1}$ at the point of approximation.

Following much of the literature in monetary economics, we set $\theta = 7$ and $\phi = 3/2$. As discussed before, welfare losses are approximately proportional to the values chosen for both of these parameters. For example, setting $\theta = 3.8$, as in [Bilbiie, Chironi and Melitz 2012](#), leads to roughly half the welfare losses.

For each country, we set the effective degree of price stickiness $\tilde{\alpha}$ equal to the median value of $(1 - \alpha_z)\delta_z(\gamma^e/\gamma_z^e)^{\theta-1}$ across expenditure categories z .¹⁹ Transforming inflation rates into monthly gross rates and using the parameter values just described, one obtains consumption-equivalent welfare losses using [Eq. \(3\)](#) in [Proposition 1](#) for each of the considered countries, which we then aggregate to the Euro Area level using again the 2019 consumption weights of the three countries.

[Table 5](#) reports these welfare losses by transforming them into present discounted losses using an annual real interest rate of 1%. The reported discounted losses are expressed in percent of annual consumption and are computed using the optimal inflation targets implied by the harmonized sample in [Table 3](#). [Table 5](#) reports the welfare losses implied by the actual inflation rates experienced in each of the three countries over the baseline period²⁰ and the counterfactual losses for inflation targets equal to zero and 4.1%, respectively.

For the actually experienced inflation rates, [Table 5](#) shows that the present value of welfare losses amount to merely 0.5% of consumption. This indicates that the actual inflation outcomes implemented by the European Central Bank were nearly optimal from the perspective of minimizing relative price distortions.

[Table 5](#) also reveals that the welfare losses associated with targeting an inflation rate of zero are substantial and amount to 4.5% of consumption.²¹ For the extreme scenario that inflation permanently continues at its currently elevated level (4.1%), welfare losses increase to a staggering 11% of consumption. This shows how welfare losses quickly rise with the distance from the optimal target. Moreover, targeting an inflation rate of zero would be severely suboptimal. The same is true for targeting an inflation rate significantly above 2%.

6. A Disaggregated View on the optimal inflation targets

This section delves deeper into the underlying heterogeneities that give rise to different optimal inflation targets across countries. To be able to make meaningful cross-country comparisons, the section focuses on the harmonized sample for the baseline period (2015/6-19).

[Section 6.1](#) reports the optimal inflation rates at the level of so-called special aggregates (food, non-energy industrial goods and services) and also illustrates optimal rates for the COICOP5 categories of each special aggregate.²² It shows that

¹⁹ The resulting median values (at the monthly frequency) are 0.828 (France), 0.870 (Germany) and 0.862 (Italy) and thus quite similar across the three considered countries. Considering expenditure-weighted medians, instead, makes very little difference for our results.

²⁰ The actual HICP inflation rate was 1.25% in Germany (2015-19), 1.01% in France (2015-19), and 0.8% in Italy (2016-19).

²¹ Using the optimal Euro Area inflation rate implied by the country-specific samples (1.1%), the losses are lower but still substantial: they amount to 2.1% of consumption in present value terms.

²² Special aggregates also feature energy goods as separate expenditure category. The harmonized sample, however, has only one COICOP5 observation in this category with an expenditure weight below 0.5%. We thus do not report this category.

Table 6
Optimal inflation for special aggregates (2015/6–2019, harmonized sample).

	Food		Goods		Services	
	Π^*	Exp. Weight	Π^*	Exp. Weight	Π^*	Exp. Weight
France	0.2%	30.9%	4.9%	34.5%	0.1%	34.3%
Germany	-0.1%	26.5%	5.5%	39.3%	-0.9%	34.0%
Italy	0.0%	26.4%	2.6%	34.4%	-0.1%	38.7%

the positive inflation rates at the aggregate level are almost entirely due to the presence of relative price trends in (non-energy industrial) goods. Therefore, the subsequent section 6.2 considers the goods category in greater detail, showing that rates of relative price declines are strongest for electronic products and fashion products, but are also substantial for many other subcategories. Finally, Section 6.3 documents the degree of covariation of relative price trends, same good price inflation, and overall inflation rates across countries at the COICOP3 expenditure level. It shows that inflation rates and the rates of same good price inflation covary very strongly across countries. For relative price trends the situation is different. These trends covary strongly between France and Germany, but trends in Italy are only weakly correlated with those in the other two countries.

6.1. Breakdown into food, goods and services

Table 6 presents optimal inflation rates for food, goods and services by aggregating the underlying lower-level categories using the corresponding expenditure and relative growth weights. It shows that in all three countries, the optimal inflation rates for food and services tend to be very close to zero. The only exception is the optimal inflation rate for services in Germany, which is significantly negative and indicates that services become (in relative terms) more expensive over their lifetime. Overall, however, relative price trends tend to be rather weak in the food and service categories, especially when compared to the goods category, where optimal inflation rates are close to 5% in France and Germany and about half this rate in Italy.

Thus, Table 6 shows that the positive optimal inflation rates at the aggregate level are to a large extent driven by the behavior of goods prices. The downward trend in the efficient relative price of goods can arise due to a number of fundamental forces. For instance, learning-by-doing effects can induce productivity progress over the lifetime of the good and thereby cause the efficient relative price to fall. Alternatively, the presence of unaccounted quality progress associated with the introduction of new goods may seemingly cause the relative price of goods to fall over time. Newly introduced products are then more expensive than discontinued products so that the relative price of continuing products falls over time.²³ Finally, the usage period of products may shrink as products age, as is the case with certain seasonal products, e.g., winter boots.

The downward trends in the relative price of goods suggest that these effects are stronger for goods than services or food-related products. While perishability or shrinking usage time is also an issue for food products, the monthly frequency at which we observe prices does not allow us to observe these features as many food products cannot be stored beyond a few weeks.

Fig. 3 reports the expenditure-weighted distribution of optimal inflation rates at COICOP5 level for each of the three special aggregates in each countries considered.²⁴ The optimal inflation rates for services are tightly centered around zero in France and Italy and around a slightly negative rate in Germany. The optimal inflation rates for food show somewhat more dispersion, but most dispersion is present for goods. In France and Germany, the optimal goods price inflation is positive for almost all COICOP5 expenditure categories. The distribution in Italy looks similar to that in France and Germany but is shifted several percentage points to the left. As a result, the distribution of optimal inflation rates across all expenditure categories is considerably less dispersed in Italy than in France or Germany. The next section looks in greater detail at the different subcomponents of the goods expenditure category.

6.2. Decomposing goods expenditures

Table 7 reports the weighted average optimal inflation rates across countries for goods expenditures at the COICOP3 level, including the (unweighted) average of the expenditure weight across the three countries (expressed in terms of contribution to the goods expenditure category). The table reports all COICOP3 expenditure categories with an average expenditure share of at least 1% and sorts categories from high to low optimal inflation rates.

The table shows that the average optimal inflation rates are positive for all (except one) categories, with many rates being substantially positive. The category with the largest optimal inflation rate is "Audio-visual, photographic and information

²³ As shown in Adam and Weber 2020, our estimate for the optimal inflation rate remains correct, even in the presence of unaccounted quality progress.

²⁴ The optimal inflation rate at the level of a COICOP5 expenditure category z is equal to the estimated rate of relative price decline $\log b_z$ (appropriately weighted, annualized and expressed in net terms). The optimal inflation rate minimizes relative price and mark-up distortions in the expenditure category z .

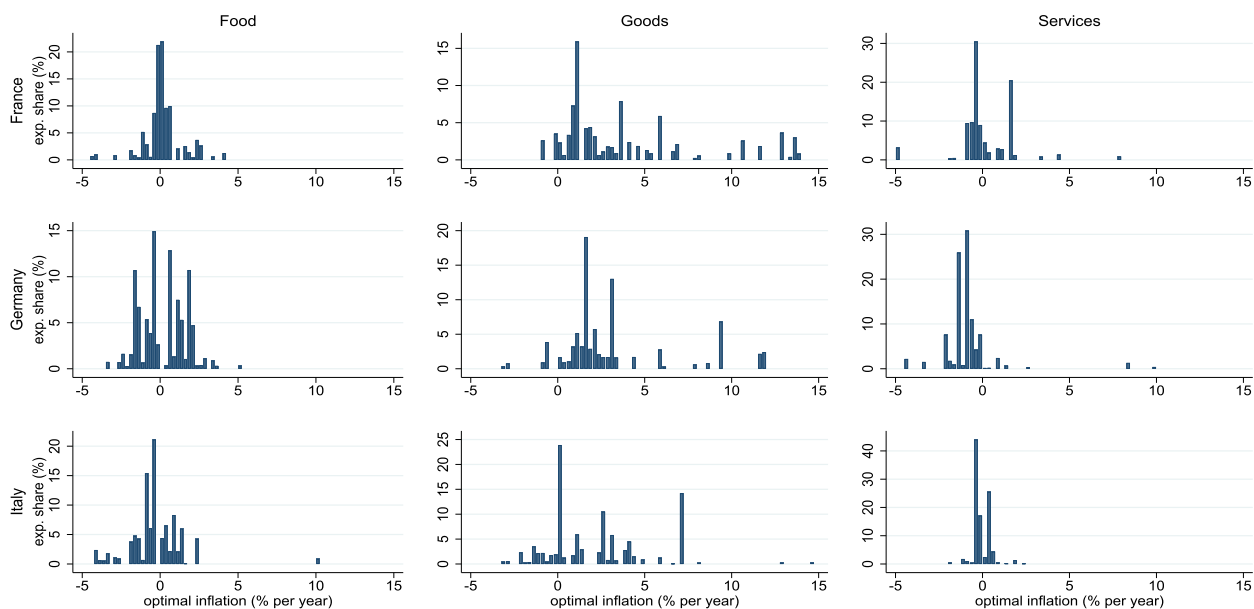


Fig. 3. Optimal inflation, COICOP5 level (2015/6–2019, harmonized sample, expenditure-weighted distribution).

Table 7

Optimal inflation for COICOP3-level expenditure categories (2015/6–2019, harmonized sample).

COICOP3 expenditure category	Exp. weight	Optimal inflation rate Π^* (%)			
		Average	FR	DE	IT
Information processing equipment	2.82	11.75	11.11	9.32	18.27
Clothing	25.31	9.58	10.91	15.49	4.58
Footwear	6.47	6.83	11.43	6.06	4.10
Household appliances	4.42	5.04	5.98	2.27	8.04
Other recreational items	10.76	2.10	3.03	1.68	1.20
Personal care	9.20	1.82	1.41	3.08	1.11
Medical products, appliances & equipment	3.74	1.77	1.13	2.72	- 0.07
Operation of personal transport equipment	3.55	1.55	2.06	3.11	- 0.02
Personal effects n.e.c.	5.82	1.47	2.35	1.82	0.31
Furniture and furnishings	11.27	1.43	3.41	1.61	- 0.02
Tools & equipment for house & garden	2.50	1.42	1.83	1.64	0.28
Household textiles	1.92	1.29	2.26	- 0.26	2.13
Maintenance & repair of dwelling	1.72	0.86	0.86	1.62	- 1.31
Goods/services for household maintenance	4.88	0.45	0.92	1.96	- 0.80
Newspapers, books & stationery	1.50	0.04	0.76	- 0.45	- 0.86
Glassware, tableware & household utensils	3.13	- 0.15	0.25	0.16	- 1.21

processing equipment” (for short, “Information processing equipment”). This category includes electronic music and video appliances, as well as computer equipment. Arguably, this is an expenditure category in which technological and quality progress is very pronounced. The next highest categories are “Clothing” and “Footwear”. They contain goods subject to “fashion effects” and goods for which technological constraints, such as outlets running into storage capacity limits at the turn of a season, affect relative price trends. Finally, “Household appliances”, which has the fourth highest rate of relative price decline, arguably also features considerable increases in product quality over time.

Importantly, the expenditure weight of “Information processing equipment” is comparatively small, with a weight of 2.82% in the harmonized sample. The weight is so small because most prices in this category are collected centrally and hence are not contained in our sample. This reduces the expenditure weight in our sample by approximately 50% and suggests that we might underestimate the aggregate optimal inflation rate. The effect from this expenditure category alone downward biases the optimal inflation rate by 0.07 percentage points.

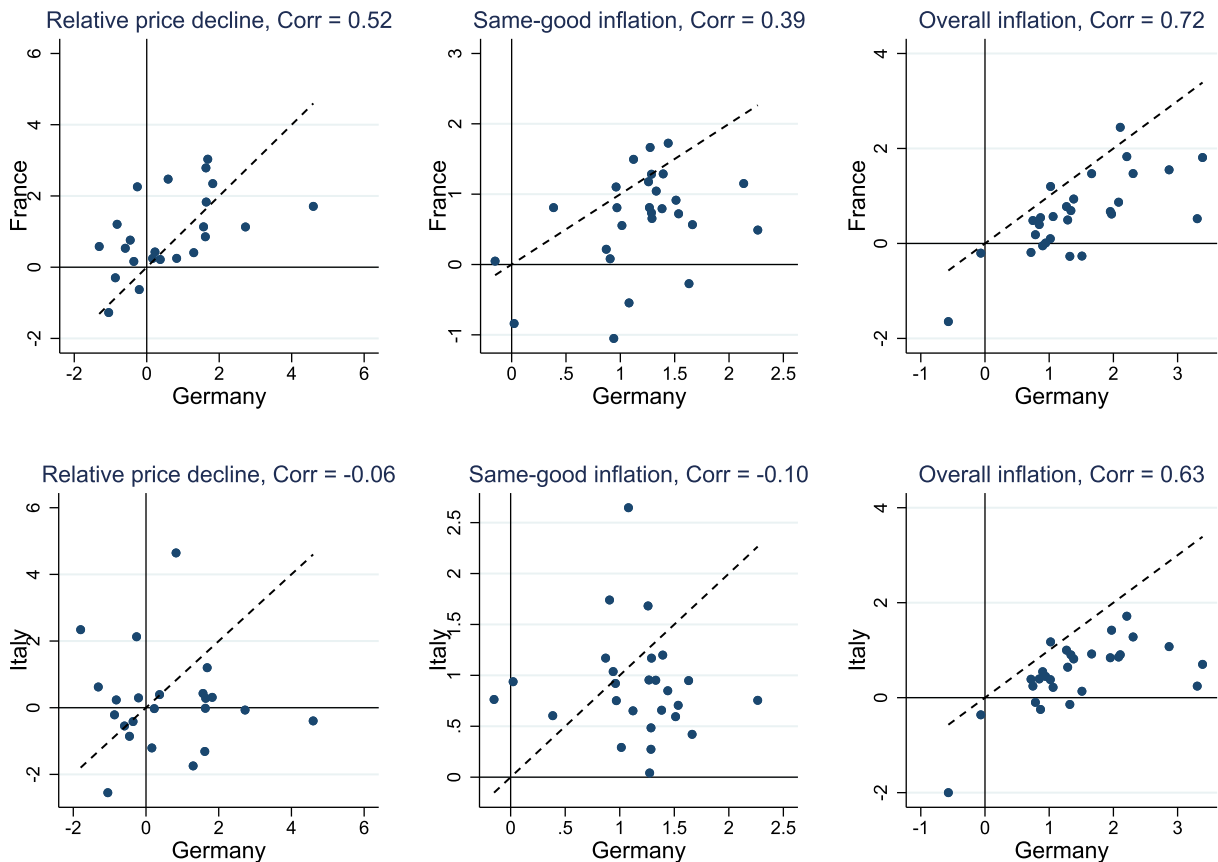


Fig. 4. Joint distributions at the COICOP3 level (2015/6–2019, harmonized sample).

6.3. the comovement of relative price trends, same good inflation and overall inflation

This section documents the extent of comovement in relative price trends, same good inflation and overall inflation across the three countries. Fig. 4 depicts joint distributions of these variables at the COICOP3 level.²⁵ The top row presents joint distributions for France and Germany and the bottom row joint distributions for Italy and Germany. Each plot also depicts the 45 ° line as a reference point for a situation with perfect alignment across countries and also reports the correlations between the variables.

The graphs in the left column of Fig. 4 depict rates of relative price decline, i.e., optimal inflation rates, at the COICOP3 level. The graphs in the center column report the rate of same good price inflation at this level of disaggregation. Same good price inflation in each country is obtained by running the panel regression

$$\ln P_{jzt} = f_{jz}^n - \ln(b_z^n) \cdot s_{jzt} + u_{jzt}^n,$$

which replaces $\ln P_{jzt}/P_{zt}$ on the left-hand side in Eq. (2) by the log nominal price.²⁶ Finally, the graphs in the right-hand side column of Fig. 4 present the average annual inflation rate at the COICOP3 level.

The top left graph in Fig. 4 illustrates that the estimated optimal inflation rates covary considerably for France and Germany and are approximately centred around the 45 ° line. The top center and right-hand graphs, however, reveal quite some differences across the two countries. While same good price inflation rates in France and Germany covary positively, most French rates are considerably lower than corresponding German rates. Optimal inflation rates in France are nevertheless similar to the ones in Germany because overall inflation, depicted on the right-hand side, is also lower in France.

The bottom row in Fig. 4 compares joint distributions for Italy and Germany. The optimal inflation rates for Italy and Germany, shown in the left column, do not covary across COICOP3 expenditure categories. This is the case because the same

²⁵ To increase readability, the support for the axis has been truncated. The non-truncated version of the figure can be found in appendix D, see figure 2.
²⁶ We run these regression at the same level of disaggregation as our relative price regressions and then aggregate the slope coefficients b_z^n to the COICOP3 level using the same approach as used to aggregate the coefficients of the relative price regressions. Monthly gross rates have been transformed into annual net rates in percentage points.

good price inflation rates, shown in the center column, do not display positive comovement across these two countries.²⁷ The graph on the right shows that the overall inflation rates in Italy covary nevertheless considerably with those in Germany, even if they are (with one exception) lower than in Germany.

Summing up, the rates of relative price decline in France and Germany are rather similar to each, but they differ from those in Italy. Understanding better the fundamental forces generating these similarities and differences across countries appears important, but requires better information about productivity and quality dynamics. Since these dynamics arise on the production side, they cannot be easily analyzed using price data alone.

7. Conclusions

In France, Germany and Italy, relative prices tend to fall over the lifetime of products. We show that this justifies targeting significantly positive rates of steady-state inflation: the optimal inflation rates minimizing the welfare effects of price and mark-up distortions range from slightly below one percent to slightly above two percent, depending on the details of the estimation approach. In all cases, they are significantly larger than zero, i.e., well above the optimal rate emerging from standard monetary policy models that abstract from product turnover.

We show that this finding is mainly due to the behavior of goods prices, for which the decline in relative prices is strongest in all three countries. In contrast, relative price trends tend to be weak or largely absent in service prices and food prices. As a result of the behavior of goods prices, price stickiness alone makes it optimal to target an inflation rate between 1.1% and 1.7% for the Euro Area. Deviations from this range either towards significantly larger inflation rates, say 4%, or towards the zero inflation reference point tend to produce large welfare costs.

The optimal inflation rate is also affected by other considerations not taken into account in the present paper, for example the presence of a lower bound constraint on nominal rates or the presence of downward rigidity in nominal wages. These may push up the optimal inflation targets further. Future work should thus explore the implications of these features in combination with relative price trends for the optimal conduct of monetary policy.

Supplementary material

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:[10.1016/j.jmoneco.2022.09.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmoneco.2022.09.002)

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²⁷ Figure 4 truncates outliers. See figure 2 in appendix D for the non-truncated version of the figure.