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Competing Methods for Efficiency Measurement

A Systematic Review of Direct DEA vs SFA/DFA Comparisons

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Abstract

Various authors have advised a wait and see approach in evaluating the relative precision of alternative techniques, such as data envelopment analysis (DEA) and stochastic frontier analysis (SFA), in estimating industry-average and firm-specific inefficiency. Chirikos and Sear (2000), for example, contend that "policy-makers may be well advised to wait until additional research clarifies reasons why DEA and stochastic frontier models yield divergent results" (p. 1389).

The main objective of this paper is to highlight the likely trade-offs between competing methods based on direct empirical comparisons using simulated data and to demonstrate the wealth of evidence bearing on a range of real-world applications. Whilst this systematic review indicates that a good deal of evidence is already available, evidence of a different sort may be required to identify a 'correct' approach in addressing specific policy problems. In particular, the now routine practice of cross checking should be taken one step further to include realistic simulation studies along-side real-world DEA *vs* SFA comparisons.

Competing Methods for Efficiency Measurement

A systematic Review of Direct DEA vs SFA/DFA Comparisons

Introduction

Data envelopment analysis (DEA) and stochastic frontier analysis (SFA) employ quite distinct methodologies for frontier estimation and efficiency measurement, each with associated strengths and weaknesses, such that a trade-off exists in selecting the 'correct' approach:

"...non-statistical approaches such as DEA have the disadvantage of assuming no statistical noise, but have the advantage of being non-parametric and requiring few assumptions about the underlying technology. SFA models on the other hand have the attraction of allowing for statistical noise, but have the disadvantage of requiring strong assumptions as to the form of the frontier" (Jacobs, 2000 p. 3).

Previous studies have attempted to clarify this trade-off, so that the choice of a 'correct' method is rather more clear cut in particular applications. Banker, Gahd and Gorr (1993), for example, report findings from a Monte Carlo experiment to the effect that the relative precision of DEA and SFA is context specific. DEA is favoured where measurement error is unlikely to pose much of a threat and where the assumptions of neoclassical production theory are in question. Conversely, SFA should have the advantage in coping with severe measurement error and where simple functional forms provide a close match to the properties of the underlying production technology. Gong and Sickles (1993) report findings along similar lines so that "...as mis-specification of functional form becomes more serious, DEA's appeal (vis-àvis SFA) becomes more compelling" (Gong & Sickles, 1993 p. 259).

The purpose of this article is to highlight the likely trade-offs between competing methods for frontier estimation based on a systematic literature review of direct empirical comparisons. Clearly, the set of pair-wise comparisons is steadily growing as new methods for frontier estimation and efficiency measurement arise to address the shortcomings of more traditional methods. In recognition of this fact, the review is restricted to comparisons between data envelopment analysis (DEA) and the two most commonly employed parametric alternatives: deterministic frontier analysis (DFA) and stochastic frontier analysis (SFA).

Frontier Estimation

To provide some necessary background, a brief review of the methods is provided - focusing on the general approach employed in estimating the minimum cost frontier (rather than technical details). In each case, the choice between methods impacts upon the shape, location and interpretation of the resulting frontier.

Data envelopment analysis (DEA) utilises linear programming to fit a boundary function to observational data for a sample of relatively homogeneous firms. The method is distribution free and allows the data to 'speak for themselves' (Bates, Baines & Whynes, 1996). More specifically, the DEA frontier is floated beneath observed cost-output combinations so that the functional form of the cost frontier is determined by the best extremal fit given convexity constraints and assuming free disposal of both inputs and outputs (Seiford & Thrall, 1990).

Whereas DEA allows the data to 'speak for themselves', parametric methods such as DFA and SFA assume a structure and then fit curve. Several options are available in estimating best-practice frontiers via the parametric approach. The simplest option is to 'correct' the location of the least-squares regression line so as to reflect the behavioural ideal of best-practice rather than an industry-average. An alternative tact, under the parametric approach, is to employ maximum likelihood (ML) methods to estimate the best-practice frontier. ML estimation allows efficient firms to have a greater say in the shape of the frontier, so as to capture any "structural dissimilarity between OLS and frontier technology" (Lovell, 1993 p. 22).

Efficiency Measurement

The preceding discussion implies that DEA, DFA and SFA frontiers deliver quite different benchmarks describing best-practice. Note, however, that estimating a frontier or benchmark completes only half the job. The next step requires a comparison between actual and frontier production costs to provide a measure of relative efficiency.

Deterministic methods, such as DEA and DFA, characterise deviations from best-practice as entirely due to technical or allocative inefficiency. Inefficient firms are assumed to be capable of producing on the best-practice frontier simply by adopting efficient production methods and all variation in observed cost-output combinations is assumed to be within the control of the firm. More formally, the economic efficiency of a the j^{th} firm (e_j) is equal to the ratio of actual (C_j) to frontier (C^*) production cost: $e_j = C^* / C_j$ where $e_j \in (0,1)$ and $C_j = C^* + e_j$. In short, measurement error and random variation are simply assumed away and deviations from the frontier are attributed solely to inefficiency.

The value of the stochastic methods such as SFA lies in the assumption that the actual performance of each evaluated firm reflects a range of factors that relate to good fortune as well as to good practice. "Observed hospital costs may deviate from an efficient cost frontier due to events that are both within and outside of the hospital's control" (Zuckerman, Hadley and lezzoni, 1994 p. 274). More formally, the stochastic frontier approach treats deviations (e_j) from best-practice as 'composed residuals' comprising two components: a one-sided inefficiency term (u_j) reflecting managerial competence; and a symmetric random error (v_j) reflecting omitted variables, measurement error and stochastic elements beyond managerial control. Comparisons between the stochastic frontier ($C^* + v_j$), actual production cost (C_j), and the deterministic frontier (C^*), reflect the share of excess production cost attributable to random error and inefficiency. More precisely, the economic efficiency of the j "firm is given as: $u_j = (C^* + v_j) / C_j$ where $u_j \in (0,1)$, $C_j = C^* + e_j$, and $e_j = v_j + u_j$.

Competing Paradigms?

It should be obvious from the above discussion that DFA provides an unhappy compromise between DEA and SFA (at least at a conceptual level). Whereas DFA and SFA adopt a similar approach to frontier estimation; DEA and DFA have much in common when it comes to efficiency measurement. In short, DFA "combines the bad features of the econometric and programming approaches to frontier construction: it is deterministic *and* parametric" (Lovell, 1993 p. 21). Note, however, that pairwise comparisons involving DFA should isolate the differences along one of two relevant dimensions: **deterministic vs stochastic efficiency measurement or non-parametric vs parametric frontier estimation**. In contrast, DEA and SFA efficiency scores are expected to differ due to both dimensions.

Recall that previous studies have attempted to clarify the trade-off between competing paradigms so that the choice of a 'correct' method is rather more clear-cut in certain applications. DEA is favoured where measurement error is unlikely to pose much of a threat and where the assumptions of neoclassical production theory are in question. Conversely, SFA should have the advantage in coping with measurement error and where simple functional forms provide a close match to the properties of the underlying production technology. Unfortunately, neither DEA nor SFA is ideally suited across all applications. In estimating hospital efficiency, for example, both measurement error and functional form are likely to cause problems. In short, the analysis of hospital efficiency really requires a hybrid approach that copes well with random variation and measurement error; but that is also flexible in modelling both the underlying production technology and the objectives and conduct of individual hospitals. Some progress has been made towards making DEA stochastic (see Sengupta, 1987; 1998) and SFA more flexible (see Lovell, 1993). In the meantime, the relative precision and policy value of alternative measures of hospital efficiency remains an empirical question and it is not possible to install a 'gold standard' based solely on a priori deliberation.

Search Strategy

The review of empirical comparison that follows is based on literature identified from an initial search of citation databases, together with supplementary searches of the authors own citation databases, review article bibliographies, and web-based resources. The initial search included:

ISI Web of Science

- Science Citation Index (SCI-X) Expanded, 1981- April 2002: 25 records
- Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), 1981- April 2002: 51 records

OVID

- Pre-MEDLINE & MEDLINE, 1966- April 2002: 2 records
- Journals@Ovid Full Text, April 2002 edition: 1 record

Searches were conducted using the following search terms: ("STOCHASTIC FRONTIER" OR "FRONTIER ESTIMATION" OR "DETERMINISTIC FRONTIER") AND ("DATA ENVELOPMENT ANALYSIS"), yielding just over 100 articles after removal of duplicates. Articles published in a language other than English were excluded from the review. Abstracts (and, if necessary, articles) were then scanned to identify 51 articles and unpublished papers reporting at least one pair-wise empirical comparison between DFA, DEA and SFA.

Empirical Evidence

Both DEA and SFA have the potential to deliver biased estimates of inefficiency due to specification errors of one sort or another. Biases in opposite directions raise the possibility of fairly substantial divergence between DEA-, DFA- and SFA-based estimates. In such circumstances, correspondence between real-world DEA, DFA and SFA efficiency scores provides some reassurance that competing methods are accessing similar latent variables. Note, however, that correspondence alone provides no guarantee that competing methods are accessing the 'target' construct and might simply reflect biases in the same direction. Fortunately, the use of simulated data delivers a criterion against which to quantify potential errors and biases under a wide range of different conditions. The simulation studies reviewed below include all

possible pair-wise comparisons¹ across the two relevant dimensions: non-parametric *vs* parametric frontier estimation and deterministic *vs* stochastic efficiency measurement.

Accuracy: Simulation Studies

For the most part, well-established variants of alternative frontier estimation techniques provide a fairly accurate picture of the relative efficiency of individual production units. Banker, Chang & Cooper (1996), for example, reported mean absolute deviations between DEA-/DFA-based estimates of output-oriented technical efficiency and 'actual' efficiency scores that ranged from 0.006 to 0.054 efficiency points (depending on sample size and returns to scale). Banker, Charnes, Cooper & Maindiratta (1987) found a similar correspondence (mean absolute deviations of between 0.003 and 0.049) between DEA-/DFA-based estimates and actual efficiency scores. Note, however, that mean absolute deviations between DEA- and DFA-based estimates (rather than between estimates and actual scores) might be somewhat larger if competing methods diverge in opposite directions. Moreover, the above findings are based on simulated data in which deviations between the efficient frontier and observed production points really are *entirely* due to inefficiency.

In real-world applications, measurement error is the rule rather than the exception. Inclusion of measurement error to simulate 'noisy' data would therefore seem an obvious step in making simulated production environments more realistic. Findings from Banker, Gadh & Gorr (1993) suggest that choice of the 'correct' or 'best' estimation method is likely to be much more important in the presence of measurement error. At low levels of measurement error, mean absolute deviations between DEA-/SFA-based estimates and 'actual' efficiency scores varied between 0.03 and 0.11 efficiency points (depending on sample size, technology, and the distributions of inefficiency and measurement error). At higher levels of measurement error, the gap between estimates and 'actual' efficiency scores widened, with mean absolute deviations of between 0.08 and 0.40. In short, "neither method performed satisfactorily for high measurement errors" (Banker, Gahd & Gorr, 1993 p. 332).

In contrast, Yu (1998) estimated DEA-/SFA-based efficiency scores against a background of fairly high levels of measurement error and, for lower values of exogenous variables, found mean absolute deviations between estimated and actual scores no higher than 0.161 and correlations ranging from 0.62 to 0.89. Similarly, Resti (2000) estimated DEA-/SFA-based scores for overall economic efficiency in the presence of 'low', 'medium' and 'high' levels of noise. Resti reported mean absolute deviations from actual scores ranging from 0.004 to 0.063, and correlations between estimated and actual scores of between 0.63 and 1.00. In short, "all the 'classic' techniques performed rather satisfactorily in measuring the amount of inefficiency, although their performance can worsen in some specific situations" (Resti, 2000 p. 568).

Under relatively benign conditions, frontier methods also manage to get reasonably close to the mark in characterising the properties of the underlying production technology. Banker, Chang & Cooper (1996) correctly identified returns to scale properties in up to 87.9% of observations for some DEA-based estimates (but the proportion misclassified reached 38.33% for some DFA-based estimates). Banker, Charnes, Cooper & Maindiratta (1987) reported mean absolute

In particular: SFA vs SDEA (Resti, 2000), DFA vs DEA (Banker, Chang & Cooper, 1996; Banker, Charnes, Cooper & Maindiratta, 1987), SFA vs DEA (Banker, Gadh & Gorr, 1993; Bojanic, Caudill & Ford, 1998; Gong & Sickles, 1992; Resti; 2000; Yu, 1998), and SFA vs DFA (Ruggerio, 1999).

deviations between DEA-based estimates and actual rates of technical substitution as low as 0.085 (but as high as 0.24 for some DFA-based estimates). Similarly, the proportion of observations misclassified with respect to scale effects was as low as 6.4% for some DEA-based estimates (but as high as 40.4% for some DFA-based estimates).

Pair-wise Comparisons: Simulation Studies

Recall that comparisons between DEA and DFA isolate differences due to parametric *vs* non-parametric frontier estimation. Banker, Charnes & Cooper (1996) conclude that 'DEA generally shows superior performance' (p. 233) with variable returns to scale (VRTS) DEA models dominating DFA-based alternatives under all conditions. Note, however, that DFA was often 'closer to the mark' than constant returns to scale (CRTS) DEA models and it is not possible to specify a 'best' model for all conditions. Under a more restricted set of conditions Banker, Charnes, Cooper & Maindiratta (1988) found DEA-based estimates of output-oriented technical efficiency to be more accurate and more stable than their DFA-based counterparts. In short, comparisons between DEA and deterministic variants of the parametric approach simply confirm what was already suspected: the move from DEA to DFA comes at the cost of reduced flexibility in modelling the production environment and offers nothing by way of compensation.

In assuming an environment characterised by measurement errors and stochastic variation, SFA appears (at least at the conceptual level) less of a straw man. Even so, results drawn from Banker, Gahd & Gorr's (1993) DEA *vs* SFA comparison "show DEA to produce more accurate efficiency estimates ...even with remarkably high measurement errors present" (p. 341). SFA only gains the upper hand when measurement errors reach a threshold of between ±17% to 45% of observed output values (depending on sample size, technology, and the distribution of inefficiency). Results also suggest that SFA is more accurate whenever sample size reaches a threshold of 50 units and distributional *assumptions* mirror 'actual' distributions of noise and inefficiency². In other words, the expected trade-off applies with relatively few caveats: SFA has the advantage in coping with *severe* measurement error or when the distributional assumptions required in separating measurement error from inefficiency accurately reflect the properties of the underlying production environment.

More recent studies have sought to generalise decision-rules to more realistic production environments. Yu (1998), for example, simulated the impact of exogenous factors (beyond managerial control) with varying degrees of influence over output. One-step, two-step and first-stage SFA-based estimates of technical efficiency were generally more accurate than any of the DEA-based alternatives. Within the SFA camp, the one-step procedure strictly dominates two-step and first-stage options in accounting for the impact of exogenous variables. Within the DEA camp, first-stage and two-step options are preferred whenever the impact of exogenous factors is relatively minor. As the influence of exogenous factors on observed performance increases, the Banker and Morey (1986) one-step procedure edges in front of the DEA-based competition. In every case, the one-step SFA procedure yields lower mean absolute deviations and higher rank correlations between estimated and actual scores than the next best option.

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Results also suggest that, for small sample sizes and small measurement errors, DEA and SFA are biased in *opposite* directions. As such, "...a combination frontier may be more accurate than either estimate by themselves" (Banker, Gahd & Gorr, p. 341).

In a similar vein, Resti (2000) generated simulated production units that mimicked the scale and scope of production, concentration of market power, and various other features of a real-world banking sector. Results suggest that SFA-based estimates of overall economic efficiency are always more accurate for the large sample size of 500 units and, as expected, the relative advantage of the stochastic frontier approach increases with the amount of noise in the data. Even for Resti's small sample size of 50 units, SFA occasionally edges out the DEA-based competition (depending on the form of the frontier, the magnitude of between-unit differences in actual efficiency scores and the amount of noise in the composed residuals). For the small sample size, DEA is most accurate and most likely to outstrip SFA when RTS assumptions mirror RTS properties of the simulated production technology (Resti, 2000).

Impact of Specification Error: Simulation Studies

Specification error is expected to have two effects: firstly, it should weaken the correspondence between estimates and true values and secondly, certain sorts of errors should favour one or other of the competing approaches. More specifically:

DEA is usually thought to be less accurate and more erratic at 'corner points' where few, if any, observations are available to provide a reliable standard of comparison in estimating the best-practice frontier. This is largely because measurement error is more likely to influence the location and shape of the frontier around corner points, but also because VRTS models tend to confuse technical efficiency with scale effects when regions on the feasible set remain 'hidden'. Competing parametric methods encounter a similar problem because it is difficult to fit a well-specified curve over sparsely populated regions of the feasible set (Read and Thanassoulis, 1996).

In line with expectations, Resti (2000) and Yu (1998) found that VRTS DEA models tended to overestimate the efficiency of atypical and outlying production units. Similarly, Read and Thanassoulis (1996) reported higher mean absolute deviations around atypical and outlying observations for SFA-/DEA-based estimates of technical efficiency. Banker, Chang and Cooper (1996) reported an increase in mean absolute deviations for both DEA- and DFA-based estimates in the vicinity of corner points. Moreover, efficiency scores drawn from Banker, Chang and Cooper's (1996) VRTS DEA models were most erratic when faced with sparse comparison sets around corner points.

- Banker, Charnes, Cooper & Maindiratta (1988) encountered problems due to the non-parametric equivalent of incorrect functional form. More specifically, "DEA performs poorly for observations that fall in the region where the 'true' production possibility set is non-convex, violating the convexity axiom in DEA" (p. 50). In a similar vein, Gong and Sickles (1992) reported that failure to correctly specify the form of *parametric* frontiers, relying instead on overly flexible functional forms such as the translog, leads to imprecise estimates of technical efficiency. Banker, Charnes and Cooper (1996), Ruggiero (1999) and Resti (2000) encountered much the same problem when relying on flexible functional forms in smaller samples. Resti (2000) attributed this loss of precision to multicollinearity between cross products and higher-order terms in the unrestricted translog.
- A number of studies (eg. Banker, Gahd & Gorr, 1993; Read & Thanassoulis, 1996;
 Ruggiero, 1999; Resti, 2000; Ondrich & Ruggiero, 2001) have reported a loss of precision for DEA, DFA and/or SFA in the presence of higher levels of measurement error. Recall

that deterministic methods, such as DEA and DFA, are usually regarded as particularly susceptible to measurement error because deviations from the frontier are attributed solely to inefficiency. Results from Resti (2000) confirm the superior performance of SFA in the presence of higher levels of measurement error. Read and Thanassoulis (1996) encountered problems (mean absolute deviations as high as 0.284) in obtaining accurate DEA-based estimates of technical efficiency from noisy data. In contrast, SFA-based estimates from the same study remained reasonably close to the mark even at 'high' levels of noise (Read & Thanassoulis, 1996).

Note, however, that a number of findings call into question SFA's comparative advantage in handling noisy data. Banker, Gahd and Gorr (1993), for example, "show DEA to produce more accurate efficiency estimates... even with remarkably high measurement errors present" (p. 341). In particular, COLS-based SFA models frequently characterised deviations from the frontier as entirely due to inefficiency, "leading to overall poor performance relative to DEA" (Banker, Gahd & Gorr, 1993 p. 337). Ruggiero (1999) and Ondrich and Ruggiero (2001) report similar results in comparing DFA- and SFA-based models. Even in the presence of 'high' levels of measurement error, the deterministic approach sometimes out-performs the SFA-based competition (Ruggiero, 1999; Ondrich and Ruggiero, 2001). In each case, SFA failed to accurately separate noise and inefficiency: calling into question one of the chief selling points of the stochastic frontier approach - the ability to cope with noisy data. In other words, these results suggest that the 'poor-cousin' status of DFA might not stand up to scrutiny.

- Bojanic, Caudill & Ford (1998) allowed the extent of measurement error to increase as output increased (ie. heteroskedastic measurement error). Both DEA and SFA systematically overestimated the inefficiency parameter in the presence of severe and heteroskedastic measurement errors³. Whilst neither method delivered satisfactory estimates for technology and efficiency parameters, SFA-based estimates consistently outperformed their DEA-based counterparts⁴.
- Banker, Charnes and Cooper (1996) simulated the impact of common specification errors via the inclusion of an irrelevant variable and the omission of a relevant variable. Inclusion of an irrelevant variable frequently increased mean absolute deviations but left the relative standing of DEA- and DFA-based models largely intact. In contrast, omitting a relevant variable always increased mean absolute deviations and dramatically eroded the relative standing of estimates drawn from CRTS DEA models (relative to the DEA- and DFA-based competition) with respect to both accuracy and consistency (Banker, Charnes & Cooper, 1996). Ruggiero (1999) reported similar problems due to omitted variables when

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³ DEA-based estimates were, however, much more inflated than their SFA-based counterparts. For the case of moderate inefficiency and moderate heteroskedasticity, SFA overestimated the inefficiency parameter by about five times and DEA by about ten times. For the case of low inefficiency and high heteroskedasticity, SFA overestimated the inefficiency parameter by about 25 times and DEA by about 50 times (Bojanic, Caudill & Ford, 1998).

Note that the relative standing of DEA and SFA was (at least partly) a result of 'rigging' the simulation in favour of SFA. Specifically, the relatively poor performance of DEA is less than surprising given the presence of fairly severe levels of measurement error. In addition, the functional form of the true frontier and the distributions of both error and inefficiency were known in advance; eliminating two sources of specification error that are specific to the stochastic frontier approach.

estimating SFA production frontiers. Because any loss of precision can be attributed to an increase in noise (that would otherwise be explained by the omitted variable), and because the performance of all methods declines as noise increases; Ruggiero (1999) argues that the adverse impact of omitting a relevant variable is common to all competing methods.

Real-world Comparisons

Simulated studies have the advantage of providing a *criterion* against which to compare the performance of competing methods for frontier estimation and efficiency measurement. In particular, the true values of technology and inefficiency parameters are known and available for comparison against estimated values. Note, however, that simulation studies tend to assume away the sort of complications that arise for real-world applications. In attempting to provide a neutral setting and a fair comparison, simulated production units, technologies, and production environments might not be all that realistic in capturing the multi-plant, multi-product organisation of many real-world firms⁵ and might not provide a true test of the techniques (Resti, 2000). The stability of, and correspondence between, competing methods *in real-world applications* therefore make an important contribution to the weight of empirical evidence.

The majority of direct DEA *vs* SFA/DFA comparisons reported in the literature have found moderate to strong correspondence when ranking financial institutions (eg. Drake & Weyman, 1996; Resti, 1997), railways (Coelli & Perelman, 1999), social security offices (Bjurek, Hjalmarsson & Forsund, 1990), cement plants (Hjalmarsson, Kumbhakar & Heshmati, 1996), pig farms (Sharma, Leung & Zaleski, 1997), school districts (Ruggiero & Vitaliano, 1999), local governments (de Borger & Kerstens, 1996), and acute care hospitals (eg. Linna, 1998; Webster, Kennedy & Johnson, 1998). A smaller number of studies found only mediocre to poor correspondence in ranking acute care hospitals (eg. Chirikos & Sear, 2000), financial institutions (eg. Ferrier & Lovell, 1990), and electrical utilities (eg. Ray & Mukherjee, 1995). A summary review of the 41 real-world DEA *vs* SFA/DFA comparisons identified in the literature is provided in table 1 below.

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For example, hospitals are typically multi-product firms that might operate on several campuses and employ a broad range of heterogeneous inputs in the production of teaching, research, hotel services, and patient care. Moreover, episodes of care are likely to differ with respect to case-mix factors such as diagnosis, treatment, severity, age, complications and co-morbidity.

Author / Date	Country	Units / Period	DEA Model		SFA/D	FA Model	Findings		
Author / Date	Country	Units/ Period	Orientation	RTS	Form	Frontier	DEA	SFA/DFA	Comparison
Banker, Chang &	N/A	simulation study:	output-	CRTS	Cobb- Douglas	deterministic			
Cooper (1996)	,,,	50 - 200 units	increasing	VRTS	translog	prod. frontier	evaluating efficiency, DE	EA generally shows superion	or performance" (p. 233).
Banker, Charnes, Cooper & Maindiratta (1987)	N/A	simulation study: 100 & 500 units	output- increasing	VRTS	translog	deterministic prod. frontier	production function is	he parametric approach more flexible in approxima ported in this study bear th	ating the true frontier
Banker, Conrad & Strauss (1986)	US	114 acute care hospitals 1978/79	input- reducing	CRTS	CRTS translog	deterministic TC frontier	45 units $TE_x = 1$ 37 units $0.9 \le TE_x \le 1$	45 units $EE_x = 1$ 37 units $0.9 \le EE_x \le 1$	$(\chi^2 = 11.79,$ df = 4, p < 0.05)
Banker, Gahd & Gorr (1993)	N/A	simulation study: 25 - 200 units	output- increasing	VRTS	translog	stochastic prod. frontier	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		
Bates (1997)	England	96 local education authorities, 1980s	output- increasing	CRTS	Cobb- Douglas	stochastic prod. frontier	23 units $TE_y > 0.95$ 55 units $0.95 \le TE_y \le 0.9$ 18 units $TE_y < 0.9$	16 units $TE_y > 0.95$ 71 units $0.95 \le TE_y \le 0.9$ 9 units $TE_y < 0.9$	"much agreement between DEA and SF results" (p. 92).
Bauer, Berger, Ferrier & Humphrey (1998)	US	683 banks, 1977 - 1988	cost- reducing	VRTS	translog	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.21-0.385	EE _x means: 0.875-0.88	Spearman's rho: 0.10-0.17
Bjurek, Hjalmarsson	Sweden	400 social security offices	input-	CRTS	Cobb- Douglas	deterministic	potential input-saving: 0.17-0.31	potential input-saving: 0.18-0.26	Spearman's rho > 0.83
& Forsund (1990)	Sweden	1974 - 1984	reducing	DRTS NITRS	quadratic	input-req. frontier	potential input-saving: 0.16-0.25	potential input-saving: 0.12-0.20	Spearman's rho > 0.87
Bojanic, Caudill & Ford (1998)	N/A	simulation study: 25 - 200 units	cost- reducing	CRTS	Cobb- Douglas	stochastic TC frontier	"heteroskedasticity in the two-sided error term introduces substantial biases into ML, COLS and DEA estimators. Although none perform well, both ML and COLS are found to be superior to DEA" (p. 140).		
Brümmer (2001)	Slovenia	147 private farms, 1995 & 1996	revenue- increasing	VRTS	translog	stochastic prod. frontier	TE _y means: 0.43-0.45	TE _y means: 0.74-0.75	Spearman's rho: 0.69

Author / Date	Country	Units / Period	DEA Mo	del	SFA/I	OFA Model	Findings				
Author / Date	Country	Units/Period	Orientation	RTS	Form	Frontier	DEA	SFA/DFA	Compare		
21.11		186 acute	_		translog			EE _x mean: 0.85	Pearson's r: 0.33		
Chirikos & Sear (2000)	US	care hospitals, 1982 - 1993	cost- reducing	CRTS	CRTS translog	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x mean: 0.80	EE _x mean: 0.75	Pearson's r: 0.13		
					hybrid			EE _x mean: 0.82	Pearson's r: 0.26		
			input- reducing	CRTS	CRTS	deterministic input distf	$TE_x = TE_y$ means:	$TE_x = TE_y$ mean: 0.78	Pearson's r: 0.56-0.71		
Coelli & Perelman	Europe	17 railway firms,	output- increasing	CRIS	translog	deterministic output distf	0.81-0.88	TE _x = TE _y Mean. 0.76	Pearsons 1. 0.56-0.71		
(1999)	Luiope	1988 -1993	input- reducing	VRTS	translog	deterministic input dist f	TE _x means: 0.86-0.93	TE _x mean: 0.90	Pearson's r: 0.29-0.43		
					output- increasing	VKIS	liansiog	deterministic output distf	TE _y means: 0.88-0.93	TE _y mean: 0.89	Pearson's r: 0.26-0.43
Cooper, Kumbhakar, Thrall & Yu (1995)	China	3 industries (textiles, chemicals, metals), 1966 - 1988	output- increasing	CRTS	Cobb- Douglas	stochastic prod. frontier	toward confirmation—this consistency increases confidence that behaviour is				
Cummins & Zi (1998)	US	445 life insurers, 1988 -1992	cost- reducing	VRTS	translog	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.42-0.50	EE _x means: 0.44-0.86	Spearman's rho: 0.56-0.60		
De Borger & Kerstens	Deleium	589 local govts,	cost-	VRTS	transla r	deterministic TC frontier	FF man 0.707	EE _x mean: 0.570	Pearson's r: 0.81 Spearman's rho: 0.81		
(1996)	Belgium	1985	reducing	VKIS	translog	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x mean: 0.727	EE _x means: 0.78-0.81	Pearson's r: 0.82-0.83 Spearman's rho: 0.82		
Dismuke & Sena (1999)	Portugal	2 DRGs in 52 central & general hospitals, 1992-1994	input- reducing	CRTS	linear	stochastic input- req. frontier	"technical efficiency change and technological change computed using DEA results are generally consistent with those obtained from parametric methods" (pp. 112-113).				
Drake & Weyman- Jones (1996)	UK	46 building societies, 1988	cost- reducing	VRTS	translog	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x mean: 0.876	EE _x mean: not reported	Spearman's rho: 0.97		
Eisenbeis, Ferrier & Kwan (1999)	US	254 banks, 1986 - 1991	cost- reducing	VRTS	restricted translog	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.60-0.72	EE _x means: 0.81-0.92	Spearman's rho: 0.444-0.589		

Author / Date	Country	Units / Period	DEA Model		SFA/D	FA Model		Findings		
Author / Date	Country	Units/Period	Orientation	RTS	Form	Frontier	DEA	SFA/DFA	Compare	
Ferrier & Lovell (1990)	US	575 financial institutions, 1984	cost- reducing	VRTS	translog	stochastic TC frontier	TE _x mean: 0.84 AE _x mean: 0.95 EE _x mean: 0.79	TE _x mean: 0.91 AE _x mean: 0.83 EE _x mean: 0.74	Spearman's rho: 0.014-0.017	
Gong & Sickles (1992)	N/A	simulation study: 50 units over 10 to 50 periods	input- reducing	VRTS	generali	CES translog & sed Leontief prod. frontiers	frontier models outper	n is close to the underlying form DEA. As specification appeal becomes more con	n error becomes more	
Guiffrida & Gravelle	England	90 FHSAs,	cost-	CRTS	hybrid	deterministic TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.89-0.97	EE _x means: 0.86-0.91	Spearman's rho: 0.26-0.70	
(1998)	Liigiand	1993/94 - 1994/5	reducing	OKTO	Пурпа	stochastic TC frontier	LL _X means. 0.09-0.97	EE _x means: 0.89-0.99	Spearman's rho: 0.22-0.71	
				CRTS	Zellner-	deterministic	TE _y means: 0.72-0.89	TE _v means: 0.68-0.78	Spearman's rho: 0.52-0.80	
Hjalmarsson,	Calambia	15 cement plants,		VRTS	VRTS Revankar	prod. frontier	TE _y means: 0.75-0.97	TEy means. 0.00-0.70	Spearman's rho: 0.35-0.77	
Kumbhakar & Heshmati (1996)	Colombia	1968 - 1988		CRTS	- translog	stochastic	TE _y means: 0.72-0.89	- TE _y means: 0.71-0.97	Spearman's rho: -0.08-0.75	
				VRTS		prod. frontier	TE _y means: 0.75-0.97		Spearman's rho: -0.37-0.92	
Jacobs (2001)	UK	232 NHS hospitals, 1995/96	cost- reducing	VRTS	linear	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.65-0.94	EE _x means: 0.83-0.88	Pearson's r: 0.43-0.63	
Johnes (1998)	UK	50 universities, 1989/90	cost- reducing	CRTS VRTS	quadratic	stochastic TC frontier	that these are broadly in	ncy measures obtained by n accord with one another icient, at 0.133, is rather k	the magnitude of the	
Linn - (4000)	Finland	43 acute	cost-	CRTS	Box-Cox	stochastic	EE _x means: 0.70-0.93		Spearman's rho: 0.57-0.75	
Linna (1998)	Finland	care hospitals, 1988 - 1994	reducing	VRTS	transform	TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.79-0.96	EE _x means: 0.84-0.93	Spearman's rho: 0.54-0.72	
Linna & Häkkinen	Finles 4	95 acute care hospital units, 1994	cost- reducing	CRTS	Box-Cox transform	stochastic	EE _x means: 0.90-0.92	FF magn, 0.90	Spearman's rho: 0.41-0.58	
(1999)	Finland			VRTS		TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.85-0.87	EE _x mean: 0.86	Spearman's rho: 0.59-0.61	

Author / Date	Country	Units/Period	DEA Mo	del	SFA/D	FA Model		Findings				
Author / Date	Country	Units/Period	Orientation	RTS	Form	Frontier	DEA	SFA/DFA	Compare			
					Cobb- Douglas			EE _x mean: 0.89-0.93	Spearman's rho: 0.52-0.63			
Linna & Häkkinen (1998)	Finland	95 acute care hospital units, 1994	cost- reducing	CRTS	translog	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x mean: 0.84-0.89	EE _x mean: not reported	Spearman's rho: 0.28			
(/			3		Box-Cox transform			EE _x mean: 0.86-0.89	Spearman's rho: 0.55-0.68			
Meibodi (1998)	developing	26 electricity	input-	CRTS	Cobb-	stochastic	TE _x mean: 0.72	TE _ν mean: 0.77	Pearson's r: 0.48 Spearman's rho: 0.36			
ivielbodi (1996)	countries	industries, 1987 - 1988	reducing	VRTS	Douglas	prod. frontier	TE _x mean: 0.79	TE _y mean. 0.77	Pearson's r: 0.71 Spearman's rho: 0.66			
Mortimer (2001)	Australia	38 public hospitals, 1993	cost- reducing	VRTS	Cobb- Douglas	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.83-0.86	EE _x means: 0.81-0.86	Pearson's r: 0.61-0.65 Spearman's rho: 0.48-0.55			
		170 rock-blasting	input- reducing output- increasing	CRTS	Cobb-	deterministic	$TE_x = TE_y$ mean: 0.36	$TE_x = TE_y$ mean: 0.12	Spearman's rho: 0.85			
Odeck (2001)	Norway	units, 1993	input- reducing	utput-	Douglas	Douglas	prod. frontier	TE _x mean: 0.47 SE _x mean: 0.77	TE _x mean: 0.23 SE _x mean: 0.60	Spearman's rho: 0.78 Spearman's rho: 0.71		
			output- increasing		VKIS	VICIO	VICIO	VICIO			TE _y mean: 0.44 SE _y mean: 0.85	TE _y mean: 0.19 SE _y mean: 0.76
Ondrich & Ruggiero (2001)	N/A	simulation study: 200 & 1000 units	N/A	N/A	Cobb- Douglas	stochastic vs deterministic prod. frontier	performs as well as the	elation criterion, the COLS ne stochastic frontier mode error variance and sample	el regardless of actual			
Park & Lesourd	South	64 power plants,	input-	CRTS	translog	stochastic	TE _x mean: 0.904	TE _v mean: 0.761	Pearson's r: 0.636			
(2000)	Korea	1990	reducing	VRTS	liansing	prod. frontier	TE _x mean: 0.934	TLymean. 0.701	Pearson's r: 0.612			
Ray & Mukherjee (1995)	US	123 electricity utilities, 1970	cost- reducing	VRTS	hybrid	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.82-0.92	EE _x means: 0.88-0.97	Spearman's rho: 0.21-0.55			
Read & Thanassoulis (1996)	N/A	simulation study: 500 units	output- increasing	CRTS	Cobb- Douglas	stochastic prod. frontier		n does specify the underly s are much better than l				

Author / Date	Country	Units/Period	DEA Model		SFA/D	FA Model		Findings		
Author / Date	Country	Units/Period	Orientation	RTS	Form	Frontier	DEA	SFA/DFA	Compare	
Reinhard, Lovell &	Holland	613 dairy farms,	input- reducing	VRTS	restricted	stochastic	TE _x means: 0.81-0.82 EnvE _x means: 0.51-0.53	TE_x means: 0.90 $EnvE_x$ means: 0.79-0.8	Spearman's rho: 0.70 Spearman's rho: 0.49	
Thijssen (2000)	Tioliand	1991- 1994	output- increasing	VICIO	translog	prod. frontier	TE _y means: 0.78-0.79	TE _y means: 0.89	Spearman's rho: 0.76	
Resti (2000)	N/A	simulation study: 50 & 500 'banks'	cost- reducing	CRTS VRTS	restricted translog	stochastic TC frontier	used in the same method	do not lead to dramatical ological framework (as fa oncept of efficiency are o	r as selection of variables	
Resti (1997)	Italy	270 banks,	cost-	CRTS	restricted	stochastic	EE _x means: 0.66-0.69	EE _x means: 0.69-0.70	Pearson's r: 0.87 Spearman's rho: 0.89	
itesu (1991)	italy	1988 - 1992	reducing	VRTS	translog	TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.73-0.76	LLXMeans. 0.03-0.70	Pearson's r: 0.71 Spearman's rho: 0.73	
Ruggiero (1999)	N/A	simulation study: 25 - 200 units	N/A	N/A	translog & Cobb- Douglas	stochastic vs deterministic prod. frontier	"the parametric deterministic model outperformed the stochastic frontier model in nearly all of the model situations consideredIn addition, the deterministic frontier approach was more consistent" (p. 562).			
Ruggiero & Vitaliano (1999)	US	520 school districts, 1990/91	cost- reducing	VRTS	Cobb- Douglas	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x mean: 0.875	EE _x mean: 0.860	Spearman's rho: 0.86	
Scarsi (1999)	Italy	76 electricity firms, 1994 - 1996	output- increasing	VRTS	translog	stochastic prod. frontier	TE _y means: 0.60-0.71	TE _y mean: 0.62	Paired t: -0.65-6.41 $p \le 0.518$	
Sharma, Leung &	US	53 pig farms,	output-	CRTS	Cobb-	stochastic	TE _y mean: 0.644	TE 0.740	Spearman's rho: 0.883	
Zaleski (1997)	05	1994	increasing	VRTS	Douglas	prod. frontier	TE _y mean: 0.726	TE _y mean: 0.749	Spearman's rho: 0.745	
Sickles & Streitwieser (1992)	US	14 natural gas firms, 1977 - 1985	input- reducing	CRTS	translog	stochastic prod. frontier	$TE_x = TE_y$ means: 0.78-0.86	TE _y means: 0.70-0.78	Pearson's r: 0.53-0.54 Spearman's rho: 0.46-0.61	
Singh, Coelli & Fleming (2000)	India	23 dairy plants, 1992/93 - 1996/97	cost- reducing	VRTS	Cobb- Douglas	stochastic prod. frontier	TE _x mean: 0.91 AE _x mean: 0.68 EE _x mean: 0.62	TE _x mean: 0.89 AE _x mean: 0.91 EE _x mean: 0.80	"choice of method can have a significant impact on results" (p.25).	
Souza, Alves & Avila (1999)	Brazil & Argentina	34 research units, 1996	output- increasing	CRTS	Cobb- Douglas	stochastic prod. frontier	$TE_x = TE_y$ mean: 0.65	TE _y means: 0.67-0.68	Pearson's r > 0.91 Spearman's rho > 0.90	

Author / Date	Country	Units/Period	DEA Mo	del	SFA/D	FA Model		Findings		
Author / Date	Country	Units/Period	Orientation	RTS	Form	Frontier	DEA	SFA/DFA	Compare	
Stone (2000)	Spain	21 High Courts,	input- reducing CRTS		Cobb-	stochastic	TE _x mean: 0.77	EE _x means: 0.66-0.84	Pearson's r: 0.85-0.90	
Storie (2000)	Ораш	1991	cost- reducing	CICTO	Douglas	TC frontier	EE _x mean: 0.66	LL _x means. 0.00-0.04	Pearson's r: 0.82-0.89	
Uri (2001)	US	19 telecom LECs	input-	CRTS	Cobb-	stochastic		ts there was no identifiable 38-1998 period results f		
		1988 - 1998	reducing	VRTS	Douglas	prod. frontier		n no change in technical e		
van den Broek, Førsund, Hjalmarsson	Sweden	28 dairy plants,	N/A	N/A	Zellner-	deterministic prod. frontier	N/A	TE _y means: 0.46-0.80	SFA TE _v > DFA TE _v	
& Meeusen (1980)	Sweden	1964 -1973	IN/ A	IN/ A	Revankar	stochastic prod. frontier	IN/ A	TE _y means: 0.79-0.90	SIA ILy > DIA ILy	
Wadud & White	Danadadad	150 rice farms,	output-	CRTS	tropolo a	stochastic	TE _y means: 0.789	TE	Spearman's rho: 0.777	
(2000)	Bangladesh	1997	increasing	VRTS	translog	prod. frontier	TE _y means: 0.858	TE _y means: 0.791	Spearman's rho: 0.747	
Webster, Kennedy & Johnson (1998)	Australia	301 private hospitals,	input- reducing	VRTS	translog & Cobb-	stochastic prod. frontier	TE _x means: 0.39-0.90	TE _y means: 0.71-0.79	Pearson's r: 0.29-0.79 Spearman's rho:	
, ,		1991/92 - 1994/5			Douglas				0.32-0.80	
		41 electricity, 51		CRTS	-	deterministic distfs & ray	" the existence of	stochastic error appears to	have little impact on	
Whiteman (2000)	worldwide	natural gas & 31	input-	VRTS	Cobb-	Cobb-	prod. frontier		there appear to be major	
Willeman (2000)	worldwide	telecom firms, 1996 & 1996/97	reducing	CRTS	Douglas	stochastic		nastic frontier models which make the parametric or DEA our preferred methodologies" (pp. 10 & 11).		
		& 1990/97		VRTS		distfs & ray prod. frontier	deterministic models o	DEA our preferred metric	dologies (pp. 10 & 11).	
					Cobb-	•		EE _x means: 0.922	Spearman's rho: 0.7	
Yin (2000)	worldwide	102 softwood pulp mills, 1996	cost-	VRTS	Douglas	stochastic TC frontier	EE _x means: 0.857	EE _x range: 0.751-0.976		
		miis, 1996	reducing		translog	TC frontier	EE _x range: 0.681-1.00	EE _x means: 0.951 EE _x range: 0.801-0.992	Spearman's rho: 0.5	
)(·· (4000)	N1 / A	simulation study:	output-	CRTS	tuanala	stochastic	"the one-step stochastic frontier method has a dominant advantage over			
Yu (1998)	N/A 250 units		increasing VRTS		translog	prod. frontier	other methods in dealing with exogenous variablesas long as exogen-ous variables are correctly identified and accounted for" (pp. 569 & 579).			

Conclusions & Directions for Future Research

This paper reviews empirical results drawn from published simulation studies with the aim of highlighting the pros and cons of competing methods for frontier estimation and efficiency measurement. In summary, the conclusions drawn by Resti (2000) seem appropriate:

"...none of these articles demonstrates that either DEA or econometric models have an absolute advantage over their competitors. Nevertheless, ...they succeed in indicating a range of specific situations (depending for example on the number of units in the sample, or on the amount of inefficiency and noise in the data) where some estimation technique proves superior" (Resti, 2000 p. 560).

In other words, results drawn from the simulation studies reviewed above confirm, clarify and/or contradict expected trade-offs, so that the choice of a 'correct' method is rather more clear cut in certain specific situations. The problem is that these specific situations (defined over key features of the simulated technology and production environment such as dimensionality of input/output space, economies of scale and scope, heterogeneity of production units, the extent of measurement error and random shocks, et cetera) are usually much simplified and occur relatively infrequently in the real world.

Our review of some 41 real-world DEA *vs* SFA/DFA comparisons suggests that calls for the parallel application of competing methods (to cross check results) have already been heeded. Unfortunately, real-world comparisons aren't much help either unless actual efficiency scores (like those underlying simulated data) are available for comparison purposes. It seems that the best of both worlds (realism *and* a criterion measure) is required in determining the relative precision (and policy value) of DEA, DFA and SFA. Both Yu (1998) and Resti (2000) have already made some progress in this regard by making their simulated data "more realistic and closer to the characteristics of existing industries" (Resti, 2000 p. 560). To provide further clarification as to the relative precision of competing methods, the now routine practice of cross checking should be taken one step further to include realistic simulation studies along-side real-world DEA *vs* SFA/DFA comparisons.

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