Two-tier stochastic frontier analysis using Stata

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Abstract. In this article, we introduce the sftt command, which fits two-tier stochastic frontier (2TSF) models with cross-sectional data. Like most frontier models, a 2TSF model consists of a linear frontier model and a composite error term. The error term is assumed to be a mixture of three components: two one-sided inefficiency terms—strictly nonnegative and nonpositive, respectively—and a symmetric noise term. When providing appropriate distributional assumptions, sftt can fit models with exponential and half-normal specifications. sftt also fits 2TSF models with the scaling property to mitigate concerns over distributional specifications. In addition, we provide two subcommands, sftt sigs and sftt eff, to assist in postestimation efficiency analysis. We provide an overview of the 2TSF literature, a description of the sftt command and its options, and examples using simulated and actual data.

 ${\sf Keywords:}\ {\rm st0705},\ {\rm sftt},\ {\rm two-tier}\ {\rm stochastic}\ {\rm frontier}\ {\rm model},\ {\rm inefficiency},\ {\rm information}\ {\rm asymmetry}$

1 Introduction

In this article, we introduce the sftt command, which fits parametric two-tier stochastic frontier (2TSF) models using cross-sectional data. Since Polachek and Yoon (1987), who introduced this model to reflect a boundary between observed wages and what workers were willing to accept simultaneously with what firms were willing to pay, this class of models has become a popular tool for studying price bargaining (Kumbhakar and Parmeter 2009, 2010; Blanco 2017; Fried and Tauer 2019), information asymmetry (Lu, Lian, and Lu 2011; Liu, Yao, and Wei 2019), and corporate governance (Lin, Liu, and Sun 2017; Lyu, Decker, and Ni 2018; Ge et al. 2020), amongst other application domains. A detailed review of these models can be found in Papadopoulos (2021).

The appeal of 2TSF models is that they allow for measurement of the impact of asymmetries in markets where economic agents are operating in opposite directions, such as workers and firms, buyers and sellers, and countries giving or receiving aid. As alternatives to the classic stochastic frontier literature, which has a single, explicit upper or lower boundary, 2TSF models have both upper and lower boundaries. For example, a home seller has the lowest price they would sell their house for, while simultaneously a home buyer has a maximum price they would pay for a house. It is likely that these two prices will differ and that the final observed price carries information on the relative positions of both agents.

To our knowledge, the estimation of 2TSF models is currently unavailable in distributed Stata commands (or in any other statistical languages). Nevertheless, these models remain popular in various application domains. As such, we developed the sftt command and designed the syntax following the popular sfcross command by Belotti et al. (2013).

To fit 2TSF models, researchers usually use two kinds of model assumptions and estimation techniques. The first is to impose distributional assumptions and estimate via maximum likelihood. For example, the one-sided terms in the composite error are assumed to follow either the exponential distribution (Polachek and Yoon 1987) or the half-normal distribution (Papadopoulos 2015), from which the joint distribution function of the composite error term and the corresponding likelihood function can be derived.

The second approach to fit 2TSF models is to use nonlinear least squares (NLS). Parmeter (2018) proposed using NLS when observable characteristics are presumed to impact the deviations from the boundaries. In this case, if the scaling property is assumed (Wang and Schmidt 2002), NLS can be used to fit the model with no distributional requirements.

Within Stata, multiple ways exist to fit a (single-tier) stochastic frontier model. The built-in commands frontier and xtfrontier fit stochastic frontier models well, and sfcross and sfpanel by Belotti et al. (2013) are quite popular among researchers. With the development of stochastic frontier models, many new commands have been published in recent years. sfkk and xtsfkk by Karakaplan (2017, 2022) can control endogeneity in stochastic frontier models. However, these commands fit only production or cost-frontier models. If we are interested in topics like price bargaining and information asymmetry, 2TSF models, which contain two one-sided terms to capture the inefficiencies in different directions, are required.

sftt provides a user-friendly way to fit 2TSF models with either distributional assumptions or the scaling property. When estimating with distributional assumptions, sftt fits a 2TSF model with either the exponential or the half-normal specification. sftt can also fit a 2TSF model with the scaling property to address concerns over distributional specifications. sftt sigs and sftt eff are two subcommands to decompose error terms and calculate measures of inefficiency, which are helpful in the postestimation efficiency analysis.

The remainder of the article is organized as follows. In sections 2 and 3, we briefly review the 2TSF model and discuss the rudiments of estimation using maximum likelihood and NLS, respectively. Section 4 describes the syntax of sftt, focusing on the main options. Sections 5 and 6 illustrate the use of the sftt command using simulated data and three empirical applications from the 2TSF literature. Finally, section 7 offers some conclusions.

2 2TSF models with distributional assumptions

We begin our discussion with the benchmark specification of the 2TSF model proposed by Polachek and Yoon (1987) and discuss estimation via maximum likelihood and many postestimation objects that researchers may find interesting. We then turn our attention to the half-normal specification of Papadopoulos (2015). We intentionally do not discuss the derivation of the corresponding criterion functions but refer the reader to the cited literature for details on the estimation of each model.

2.1 The exponential specification

2.1.1 Model estimation

Following Kumbhakar and Parmeter (2009), consider the 2TSF model

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\delta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}$$
 (1)

where \mathbf{y} is an $n \times 1$ vector containing observations of the outcome variable, \mathbf{X} is an $n \times K$ matrix of covariates, $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ is a $K \times 1$ vector of the coefficients, and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is an $n \times 1$ vector of the composite error term, with \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{w} being two one-sided inefficiency terms and \mathbf{v} capturing stochastic noise. These three components are assumed to be jointly independent. For each i, we have

$$v_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_v^2)$$

$$u_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \operatorname{Exp}(\sigma_u)$$

$$w_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \operatorname{Exp}(\sigma_w)$$
(2)

where i.i.d. stands for independent and identically distributed, $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_v^2)$ denotes a normal distribution with mean 0 and variance σ_v^2 , and $\text{Exp}(\sigma_z)$ denotes a random variable z that is exponentially distributed with mean σ_z and variance σ_z^2 .

Using the assumptions in (2), we can derive the probability density function of ε_i ,

$$f(\varepsilon_i) = \frac{e^{a_{1i}}}{\sigma_u + \sigma_w} \Phi(b_{1i}) + \frac{e^{a_{2i}}}{\sigma_u + \sigma_w} \Phi(b_{2i})$$

where $a_{1i} = (\varepsilon_i/\sigma_u) + \{\sigma_v^2/(2\sigma_u^2)\}, b_{1i} = -\{(\varepsilon_i/\sigma_v) + (\sigma_v/\sigma_u)\}, a_{2i} = \{\sigma_v^2/(2\sigma_w^2)\} - (\varepsilon_i/\sigma_w), \text{ and } b_{2i} = (\varepsilon_i/\sigma_v) - (\sigma_v/\sigma_w). \Phi(\cdot) \text{ is the standard normal cumulative distribution function (CDF).}$

The log-likelihood function for a sample of n observations is

$$\ln L(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -n \ln(\sigma_u + \sigma_w) + \sum_{i=1}^n \ln \left\{ e^{a_{1i}} \Phi(b_{1i}) + e^{a_{2i}} \Phi(b_{2i}) \right\}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\delta}', \sigma_v, \sigma_u, \sigma_w)'$. Estimates can be obtained by directly maximizing the above log-likelihood function.

2.1.2 Measuring one-sided terms in levels

Using the maximum likelihood estimates, the conditional distributions of u_i and w_i can be written as

$$f(u_i|\varepsilon_i) = \frac{\lambda e^{-\lambda u_i} \Phi(u_i/\sigma_v + b_{2i})}{\chi_{1i}}$$
$$f(w_i|\varepsilon_i) = \frac{\lambda e^{-\lambda w_i} \Phi(w_i/\sigma_v + b_{1i})}{\chi_{2i}}$$

where $\lambda = (1/\sigma_u) + (1/\sigma_w)$, $\chi_{1i} = \Phi(b_{2i}) + e^{a_{1i} - a_{2i}} \Phi(b_{1i})$, and $\chi_{2i} = \Phi(b_{1i}) + e^{a_{2i} - a_{1i}} \Phi(b_{2i}) = e^{a_{2i} - a_{1i}} \chi_{1i}$.

The observation-specific conditional expectations of u_i and w_i are

$$E(u_i|\varepsilon_i) = \frac{1}{\lambda} + \frac{e^{a_{1i} - a_{2i}}\sigma_v \left\{\phi(-b_{1i}) + b_{1i}\Phi(b_{1i})\right\}}{\chi_{1i}}$$
(3)

$$E(w_i|\varepsilon_i) = \frac{1}{\lambda} + \frac{\sigma_v \left\{ \phi(-b_{2i}) + b_{2i} \Phi(b_{2i}) \right\}}{\chi_{1i}}$$
(4)

2.1.3 Measuring one-sided terms in logarithmic specification

Following Papadopoulos (2018), if the dependent variable enters the regression in logarithmic form, we need to consider the expected values of the exponentiated variables.

We derive the following conditional expectations to obtain the logarithmic one-sided terms, which are e^{-u} and e^{-w} . The interpretation of these one-sided terms will be discussed later in section 2.3.

$$E(e^{-u_i}|\varepsilon_i) = \frac{\lambda}{1+\lambda} \frac{1}{\chi_{1i}} \left\{ \Phi(b_{2i}) + e^{a_{1i} - a_{2i}} \times e^{\sigma_v^2 / 2 - \sigma_v b_{1i}} \Phi(b_{1i} - \sigma_v) \right\}$$
(5)

$$E(e^{-w_i}|\varepsilon_i) = \frac{\lambda}{1+\lambda} \frac{1}{\chi_{2i}} \left\{ \Phi(b_{1i}) + e^{a_{2i}-a_{1i}} \times e^{\sigma_v^2/2 - \sigma_v b_{2i}} \Phi(b_{2i} - \sigma_v) \right\}$$
(6)

The relative measure of one-sided terms $E(e^{w_i}e^{-u_i}|\varepsilon_i)$ is

$$E(e^{w_i}e^{-u_i}|\varepsilon_i) = \frac{e^{(1+\sigma_u)\left(a_{1i}+\frac{\sigma_v^2}{2\sigma_u}\right)}\Phi(b_{1i}-\sigma_v) + e^{(1-\sigma_w)\left(a_{2i}-\frac{\sigma_v^2}{2\sigma_w}\right)}\Phi(b_{2i}+\sigma_v)}{e^{a_{1i}}\Phi(b_{1i}) + e^{a_{2i}}\Phi(b_{2i})}$$
(7)

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2.2 The half-normal specification

2.2.1 Model estimation

As in Papadopoulos (2015), we now assume that the inefficiency terms u_i and w_i follow half-normal distributions,

$$v_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_v^2)$$

 $u_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \mathcal{N}_+(0, \sigma_u^2)$
 $w_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \mathcal{N}_+(0, \sigma_w^2)$

where $\mathcal{N}_+(0,\sigma^2)$ represents a half-normal distribution, $\mathcal{N}_+(0,\sigma^2) = |\mathcal{N}(0,\sigma^2)|$.

For compactness, we use the notations

$$\omega_1 \equiv \frac{s\sqrt{1+\theta_2^2}}{\theta_1}, \quad \omega_2 \equiv \frac{s\sqrt{1+\theta_1^2}}{\theta_2}, \quad \lambda_1 \equiv \frac{\theta_2}{\theta_1}\sqrt{1+\theta_1^2+\theta_2^2}, \quad \lambda_2 \equiv \frac{\theta_1}{\theta_2}\sqrt{1+\theta_1^2+\theta_2^2}$$

where $\theta_1 \equiv (\sigma_w/\sigma_v)$, $\theta_2 \equiv (\sigma_u/\sigma_v)$, and $s \equiv \sqrt{\sigma_v^2 + \sigma_u^2 + \sigma_w^2} = \sigma_v \sqrt{1 + \theta_1^2 + \theta_2^2}$.

With these notations, the density of ε_i is

$$f_{\varepsilon}(\varepsilon_i) = \frac{2}{s} \phi\left(\varepsilon_i/s\right) \left\{ G(\varepsilon_i; 0, \omega_1, -\lambda_1) - G(\varepsilon_i; 0, \omega_2, \lambda_2) \right\}$$

where G(z; location, scale, skew) is the CDF of a univariate skew-normal random variable. We further use

$$G_{1i} \equiv G(\varepsilon_i; 0, \omega_1, -\lambda_1), \quad G_{2i} \equiv G(\varepsilon_i; 0, \omega_2, \lambda_2)$$

For convenience of empirical implementation, we evaluate the CDF of the skewnormal distribution with the correlated bivariate standard normal CDF, Φ_2 , following Papadopoulos (2018):

$$G(\varepsilon_i;\xi,\omega,\lambda) = 2\Phi_2\left(\frac{\varepsilon_i-\xi}{\omega},0;\rho=\frac{-\lambda}{\sqrt{1+\lambda^2}}\right)$$

The corresponding log-likelihood function is

$$\ln L(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{q}) = n \ln \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) - n \ln s - \frac{1}{2s^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\delta})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(G_{1i} - G_{2i})$$

where $\mathbf{q} = (\boldsymbol{\delta}', s, \theta_1, \theta_2)'$. \mathbf{x}_i is the column vector taken from the *i*th row of \mathbf{X} .

2.2.2 Measuring one-sided terms in levels

As for the measurement of inefficiency, the conditional expected values of u_i and w_i are

$$E(u_i|\varepsilon_i) = s^2 \psi_{2i} - \frac{\sigma_u^2}{s^2} (\varepsilon_i - s^2 \psi_i)$$
(8)

$$E(w_i|\varepsilon_i) = s^2 \psi_{1i} + \frac{\sigma_w^2}{s^2} (\varepsilon_i - s^2 \psi_i)$$
(9)

where $\psi_{1i} \equiv \{g_{1i}/(G_{1i} - G_{2i})\}, \psi_{2i} \equiv \{g_{2i}/(G_{1i} - G_{2i})\}, \psi_i \equiv \psi_{1i} - \psi_{2i}$, and $g_{\cdot i}$ is the probability density function of the corresponding skew-normal distribution.

2.2.3 Measuring one-sided terms in logarithmic specification

The logarithmic inefficiency can be estimated by $1 - E(e^{-u_i}|\varepsilon_i)$ and $1 - E(e^{-w_i}|\varepsilon_i)$, where

$$E(e^{-u}|\varepsilon_{i}) = 2\left(G_{1i} - G_{2i}\right)^{-1} \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\omega_{u}^{2} + \frac{\omega_{u}}{\omega_{2}}\varepsilon_{i}\right) \left\{ \Phi\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{i} - \sigma_{u}^{2}}{\omega_{1}}\right) - \Phi_{2}\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{i} - \sigma_{u}^{2}}{\omega_{1}}, \omega_{u} + \frac{\varepsilon_{i}}{\omega_{2}}; \rho = \frac{-\sigma_{w}\sigma_{u}}{s_{1}s_{2}}\right) \right\}$$
(10)
$$E(e^{-w}|\varepsilon_{i}) = 2\left(G_{1i} - G_{2i}\right)^{-1} \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\omega_{w}^{2} + \frac{\omega_{w}}{\omega_{1}}\varepsilon_{i}\right) \left\{ \Phi\left(-\frac{\varepsilon_{i} + \sigma_{w}^{2}}{\omega_{2}}\right) - \Phi_{2}\left(-\frac{\varepsilon_{i} + \sigma_{w}^{2}}{\omega_{2}}, \omega_{w} - \frac{\varepsilon_{i}}{\omega_{1}}; \rho = \frac{-\sigma_{w}\sigma_{u}}{s_{1}s_{2}}\right) \right\}$$
(11)

in which $s_1 \equiv \sqrt{\sigma_w^2 + \sigma_v^2}$, $s_2 \equiv \sqrt{\sigma_u^2 + \sigma_v^2}$, $\omega_w \equiv \{(\sigma_w s_2)/s\}$, $\omega_u \equiv \{(\sigma_u s_1)/s\}$, and $\Phi_2(\cdot)$ is the correlated bivariate standard normal CDF.

 $E(e^{w_i}e^{-u_i}|\varepsilon_i)$ can be obtained as

$$E(e^{w_i}e^{-u_i}|\varepsilon_i) = \exp\left\{\frac{\sigma_w^2 + \sigma_u^2}{s^2} \left(\frac{\sigma_v^2}{2} + \varepsilon_i\right)\right\}$$

$$\times \frac{\Phi_2\left(\frac{\varepsilon_i + \sigma_v^2}{\omega_1}, 0; \rho = \frac{\lambda_1}{\sqrt{1 + \lambda_1^2}}\right) - \Phi_2\left(\frac{\varepsilon_i + \sigma_v^2}{\omega_2}, 0; \rho = \frac{-\lambda_2}{\sqrt{1 + \lambda_2^2}}\right)}{\Phi_2\left(\frac{\varepsilon_i}{\omega_1}, 0; \rho = \frac{\lambda_1}{\sqrt{1 + \lambda_1^2}}\right) - \Phi_2\left(\frac{\varepsilon_i}{\omega_2}, 0; \rho = \frac{-\lambda_2}{\sqrt{1 + \lambda_2^2}}\right)}$$
(12)

2.3 Interpreting the one-sided terms

Interpreting the one-sided terms is an essential part of 2TSF analysis. To study welfare allocation, researchers usually pay more attention to the relative measures of one-sided terms, which measure the result of price bargaining or information asymmetry.

For example, we introduce the interpretation of one-sided terms in a logarithmic price bargaining model. The actual price is assumed to be $F(\mathbf{x})e^{v-u+w}$, where $F(\mathbf{x}) = e^{\mathbf{x}'\boldsymbol{\delta}}$ is the optimal price. Correspondingly, the benchmark price $F(\mathbf{x})e^v$ is the optimal price plus a stochastic markup, while the maximum price is $F(\mathbf{x})e^{v+w}$ and the minimum price is $F(\mathbf{x})e^{v-u}$. The relative measure of surplus can be evaluated as follows:

- $1 e^{-u}$ measures two things that appear different but are equal in magnitude:
 - Seller surplus with respect to the benchmark price, relative to the benchmark price.

$$\frac{\text{Benchmark price} - \text{Minimum price}}{\text{Benchmark price}} = \frac{F(\mathbf{x})e^v - F(\mathbf{x})e^{v-u}}{F(\mathbf{x})e^v} = 1 - e^{-u}$$

Consumer surplus with respect to the actual price, relative to the maximum price.

$$\frac{\text{Maximum price} - \text{Actual price}}{\text{Maximum price}} = \frac{F(\mathbf{x})e^{v+w} - F(\mathbf{x})e^{v-u+w}}{F(\mathbf{x})e^{v+w}} = 1 - e^{-u}$$

- $1 e^{-w}$ measures two things that appear different but are equal in magnitude:
 - Seller surplus with respect to the actual price, relative to the actual price.

$$\frac{\text{Actual price} - \text{Minimum price}}{\text{Actual price}} = \frac{F(\mathbf{x})e^{v-u+w} - F(\mathbf{x})e^{v-u}}{F(\mathbf{x})e^{v-u+w}} = 1 - e^{-w}$$

 Consumer surplus with respect to the benchmark price, relative to the maximum price.

$$\frac{\text{Maximum price} - \text{Benchmark price}}{\text{Maximum price}} = \frac{F(\mathbf{x})e^{v+w} - F(\mathbf{x})e^v}{F(\mathbf{x})e^{v+w}} = 1 - e^{-w}$$

• $e^{-w} - e^{-u}$ measures the net gain in consumer surplus, which is actually the deviation of actual price from benchmark price as a percentage of maximum price.

$$\frac{\text{Benchmark price} - \text{Actual price}}{\text{Maximum price}} = \frac{F(\mathbf{x})e^{v} - F(\mathbf{x})e^{v-u+w}}{F(\mathbf{x})e^{v+w}} = e^{-w} - e^{-u}$$

• $e^w e^{-u} - 1$ measures the difference between actual price from benchmark price, as a percentage of benchmark price.

$$\frac{\text{Actual price} - \text{Benchmark price}}{\text{Benchmark price}} = \frac{F(\mathbf{x})e^{v-u+w} - F(\mathbf{x})e^v}{F(\mathbf{x})e^v} = e^w e^{-u} - 1$$

3 2TSF models with the scaling property

Assuming that the one-sided error component is from a one-parameter distribution, it possesses the scaling property (Parmeter 2018), which has many benefits. The scaling property enables the estimation of 2TSF models without distributional assumptions (Wang and Schmidt 2002). Further, as noted by Alvarez et al. (2006), ease of interpretation of estimates also stems from use of the scaling property. Finally, as noted in Parmeter (2018), independence among the separate error terms is no longer necessary for identification and estimation when the scaling property is invoked. This point is essential because, in many empirical settings, it is likely that u and w will have some type of dependence at a minimum.

The ability to avoid distributional assumptions is naturally favorable, although the imposition of correct distributional assumptions will produce statistically efficient estimators via maximum likelihood. Empiricists, however, may find the simplicity of NLS more palatable and, as such, argue for the imposition of the scaling property. sftt also offers users an option to fit the 2TSF model with the scaling property.

Starting with (1),

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\delta} - \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \tag{13}$$

assuming that the distributions of u_i and w_i depend upon the level of observable characteristics $\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{u}i}$ and $\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}i}$, which are vectors of characteristics for the *i*th observation. We then introduce the scaling property into the 2TSF model:

$$u_i = u(\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{u}i}, \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{u}}) = g_u(\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{u}i}, \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{u}}) \times u_i^*$$
$$w_i = u(\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}i}, \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{w}}) = g_w(\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}i}, \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{w}}) \times w_i^*$$

 u_i^* and w_i^* are from what are termed basic distributions and are independent from \mathbf{x}_i , $\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{u}i}$, and $\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}i}$. $g_u(\cdot)$ and $g_w(\cdot)$ are scaling functions: $g_u(\cdot) \ge 0$ and $g_w(\cdot) \ge 0$. Following Parmeter (2018), we assume $g(\mathbf{z}_i, \boldsymbol{\delta}) = e^{\mathbf{z}'_i \boldsymbol{\delta}}$.

To fit the model, rewrite (13) as

$$y_i = \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\delta} - e^{\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{u}'_i} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{u}}} u_i^* + e^{\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}'_i} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{w}}} w_i^* + v_i \tag{14}$$

Taking the expectation of (14),

$$E(y_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{u}i}, \mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}i}) = \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\delta} - \mu_u^* e^{\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{u}'} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{u}}} + \mu_w^* e^{\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}'} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{w}}}$$
(15)

where δ , δ_u , δ_w , μ_u , and μ_w are parameters; μ_u^* and μ_w^* are the expectations of u_i^* and w_i^* ; $\mu_u^* = E(u_i^*)$; and $\mu_w^* = E(w_i^*)$. Because u_i^* and w_i^* are independent from $\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{u}i}$ and $\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}i}$, we can extract the mean of u_i^* and w_i^* from $e^{\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{u}i}\delta_{\mathbf{u}}}u_i^*$ and $e^{\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}i}\delta_{\mathbf{w}}}w_i^*$.

To fit this model, we use NLS estimation:

$$\left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}_{\mathbf{u}}, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}_{\mathbf{w}}, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{u}^{*}, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{w}^{*}\right) = \min_{\boldsymbol{\delta}, \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{u}}, \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{w}}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{u}^{*}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{w}^{*}} n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\delta} + \boldsymbol{\mu}_{u}^{*} e^{\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{u}}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{u}}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{w}^{*} e^{\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{w}}} \right)^{2}$$

4 The sftt command

This section introduces the syntax of sftt.

4.1 Estimation syntax

The syntax to fit a 2TSF model with distributional assumptions following Kumbhakar and Parmeter (2009) and Papadopoulos (2015) is

```
sftt depvar [indepvars] [if] [in] [, hnormal noconstant robust
vce(vcetype) findseed seed(#) sigmau(varlist) sigmaw(varlist)
    iterate(#)]
```

The syntax to fit a 2TSF model with the scaling property following Parmeter (2018) is

```
sftt depvar indepvars [if] [in] [, noconstant robust vce(vcetype)
sigmau(varlist) sigmaw(varlist) iterate(#) scaling
initial(initial_values)]
```

indepvars may contain factor variables; see [U] 11.4.3 Factor variables.

4.2 Options for sftt

hnormal uses the half-normal/half-normal/normal specification rather than the benchmark exponential/exponential/normal specification. Note that, when using this option, the estimation might not converge because of flat derivatives or missing values; setting another random seed by using the option seed() might help. Users may also specify the findseed option to find a usable random seed.

noconstant suppresses the constant term (intercept) in the linear model.

robust is the synonym for vce(robust).

- vce(vcetype) specifies the type of standard error reported, which includes types that are robust to some kinds of misspecification (<u>robust</u>), allow for intragroup correlation (<u>cluster clustvar</u>), or use bootstrap or jackknife methods (<u>bootstrap</u>, <u>jackknife</u>) for estimation with scaling.
- findseed loops through 100 estimations, during which the random seed was set from 1 to 100. We iterate at most 200 times for each seed to accelerate the process.
- seed(#) sets a random seed before estimating to ensure that the results are reproducible.

- sigmau(varlist) specifies heteroskedasticity in the negative inefficiency component, with
 the variance expressed as a linear model of the covariates defined in varlist.
- sigmaw(varlist) specifies heteroskedasticity in the positive inefficiency component, with
 the variance expressed as a linear model of the covariates defined in varlist.
- iterate(#) specifies the maximum iterations. The default is iterate(1000). In most cases, the optimization should converge in fewer than 1,000 iterations.
- scaling fits the 2TSF model with the scaling property by NLS. The results might be very sensitive to the initial values if the models are complex.
- initial(*initial_values*) specifies the initial values to begin the NLS estimation. This option is used only when estimating with scaling. When NLS runs slowly or cannot converge, assigning initial values might help. If the independent variable is named x and the covariates for the two one-sided error terms are zu and zw, then the initial values should be assigned with the syntax initial(delta_x 1 du_zu 0.6 mu_u 1 dw_zw 0.8 mu_w 1), where mu_u and mu_w represent μ_u^* and μ_w^* in (15) and the numbers correspond to initial values. By default, the estimation results of ordinary least squares (OLS) would be used as initial values for dependent variables, and other parameters would be initialized to 1.

4.3 Subcommands

After model estimation using sftt, the subcommands sftt sigs and sftt eff may be used for variance decomposition and calculation of inefficiency measures, respectively.

Error term decomposition

sftt sigs

This command calculates the parameters of each component's distribution $(u_i, w_i,$ and $v_i)$ in the composite error term.

Inefficiency measurements

```
sftt eff [, level exp absolute relative u_hat(newvar) w_hat(newvar)
wu_diff(newvar) u_hat_exp(newvar) w_hat_exp(newvar)
wu_diff_exp(newvar) wu_net_effect(newvar) replace]
```

This subcommand encapsulates several of the most commonly used algorithms of inefficiency in both level and logarithmic specification. By default, this command will generate all measures of inefficiency using the default variable name. This subcommand is unavailable when the scaling option is invoked. Users may use the following options to select the type of measurement to be performed:

- level generates inefficiency terms only in the level specification. level may not be used with exp.
- exp generates inefficiency terms only in the logarithmic specification. exp may not be used with level.
- absolute generates only absolute measures of inefficiency. absolute may not be used with relative.
- relative generates only relative measures of inefficiency. relative may not be used with absolute.

The variable names of inefficiency measures may be customized using the following options:

- u_hat(newvar) sets the variable name of $E(u_i|\varepsilon_i)$, which is the conditional expectation of u_i , calculated by (3) and (8). The default is u_hat(_u_hat).
- w_hat(newvar) sets the variable name of $E(w_i|\varepsilon_i)$, which is the conditional expectation of w_i , calculated by (4) and (9). The default is w_hat(_w_hat).
- wu_diff(newvar) sets the variable name of $E(w_i|\varepsilon_i) E(u_i|\varepsilon_i)$, which is the net surplus in the level specification. The default is wu_diff(_wu_diff).
- u_hat_exp(newvar) sets the variable name of $E(e^{-u_i}|\varepsilon_i)$, the conditional expectation of e^{-u_i} , calculated by (5) and (10). The default is u_hat_exp(_u_hat_exp).
- w_hat_exp(newvar) sets the variable name of $E(e^{-w_i}|\varepsilon_i)$, the conditional expectation of e^{-w_i} , calculated by (6) and (11). The default is w_hat_exp(_w_hat_exp).
- wu_diff_exp(*newvar*) sets the variable name of $E(e^{-w_i}|\varepsilon_i) E(e^{-u_i}|\varepsilon_i)$, the net surplus in the logarithmic specification. The default is wu_diff_exp(_wu_diff_exp).
- wu_net_effect(newvar) sets the variable name of $E(e^{w_i}e^{-u_i}|\varepsilon_i) 1$, which is the net effect in the logarithmic specification, calculated by (7) and (12). The default is wu_net_effect(_wu_net_effect).

The command will check if there are any previous variables before generating a new variable. To overwrite the existing variable, use the following option:

replace permits sftt to overwrite existing variables.

5 Examples with simulated data

This section provides several examples with simulated data to illustrate the features of sftt.

5.1 The benchmark 2TSF model

We first illustrate the sftt command by fitting a 2TSF model with simulated data. As in Kumbhakar and Parmeter (2009), the one-sided error terms u_i and w_i follow exponential distributions, and the stochastic noise v_i is assumed to come from a normal distribution.

The data-generating process is

$$y_i = x_{1i} + 2x_{2i} - u_i + w_i + v_i$$
$$u_i \sim \text{i.i.d. Exp}(0.6)$$
$$w_i \sim \text{i.i.d. Exp}(1.4)$$
$$v_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

where y_i is the outcome variable and the covariates x_{1i} and x_{2i} are normally distributed with 0 means and variances equal to 1.

We first fit a random sample with 1,600 observations by using the sftt command:

```
. set seed 999
. quietly set obs 1600
. generate x1 = invnormal(runiform())
. generate x2 = invnormal(runiform())
. generate ue = invexponential(0.6, runiform())
. generate we = invexponential(1.4, runiform())
. generate v = invnormal(runiform())
. generate y = x1 + 2 * x2 - ue + we + v
```

. sftt y x1 x2	2, noconstant					
<pre>initial: rescale: rescale eq: Iteration 0: Iteration 1: Iteration 2: Iteration 3: Iteration 4:</pre>	<pre>log likeliho log likeliho log likeliho log likeliho log likeliho log likeliho log likeliho log likeliho</pre>	d = -3233. d = -3229. d = -3229. d = -3229. d = -3170. d = -3161. d = -3161. d = -3161.	1231 7914 7503 (n 2027 0853 0851	ot conca		
Two-tier stoch	lastic frontie	r model with	1 exponen	tiai spe		
Log likelihood	d = −3161.0851				Number of obs Wald chi2(2) Prob > chi2	= 3186.44
У	Coefficient	Std. err.	Z	P> z	[95% conf.	interval]
frontier_y						
x1	.9915255	.0419678	23.63	0.000	.9092702	1.073781
x2	2.032645	.0402523	50.50	0.000	1.953752	2.111538
ln_sig_v						
_cons	0712458	.0951567	-0.75	0.454	2577494	.1152579
ln_sig_u						
_cons	4742256	.0972085	-4.88	0.000	6647506	2837005
ln_sig_w						
_cons	.3918662	.0468007	8.37	0.000	.3001386	.4835939

From the estimation results, the coefficients of x_{1i} and x_{2i} are 0.9915 and 2.0326, which are very close to their true values (1 and 2).

To make sure the distributional parameters are strictly positive, the command takes the exponential form during estimation. Thus, the _cons in sigma_v, sigma_u, and sigma_w are actually $\ln(\sigma_v)$, $\ln(\sigma_u)$, and $\ln(\sigma_w)$. We then run the following postestimation commands to interpret the actual distributional parameters and decompose the residuals:

•	sftt	sigs
---	------	------

	Variance Es	timation			
sigma_v : sigma_u : sigma_w : sigma_v_sq : sigma_u_sq : sigma_w_sq :	0.9312 0.6224 1.4797 0.8672 0.3873 2.1896				
	Variance An	alysis			
Total sigma_so (sigu2+sigw2), sigu2/(sigu2+sigw2/(sigu2+sigw2/(sigu2+sigw2/sigu2+sig_w - sig_u	/Total : 0.7 sigw2) : 0.1 sigw2) : 0.8	442 482 503 3497 3574			
. sftt eff The following _u_hat _wu_diff _u_hat_exp _w_hat_exp _wu_diff_exp _wu_net_effect		we been gene	erated:		
. summarize _u Variable	u_hat_exp _w_ 	hat_exp _wu_ Mean	_diff_exp Std. dev.	Min	Max
_u_hat_exp _w_hat_exp _wu_diff_exp . summarize _u	1,600 1,600 1,600 wu_diff_exp,	.3818473 .6003683 .218521 detail ru_diff_exp	.1049245 .198864 .2852138	.3046399 .3046399 6854007	.9900407 .9999939 .695354
Percent: 1%4977: 5%27084 10%1505 25% .02299 50% .22336	10268 44367 4666 92363 657	111est 154007 175006 144028 144826 144826	Obs Sum of wgt. Mean Std. dev.	1,600 1,600 .218521 .2852138	
75% .4496	LC		Dour dorr	12002100	

The command sftt sigs identifies the variance of each component in the composite error term. The estimated standard errors of u_i , w_i , and v_i are 0.6224, 1.4797, and 0.9312, and the actual standard errors are 0.6, 1.4, and 1, respectively. sftt eff decomposes the residual and calculates the inefficiency measures.

5.2 Estimation with the scaling property

sftt also fits 2TSF models with the scaling property (Parmeter 2018). The most attractive feature of the scaling property is that it is free from distributional and independence assumptions. Here we assume that the basic distribution of the one-sided error terms is the exponential distribution. Consider the data-generating process

$$y_i = x_i - e^{0.6z_{wi}} \times u_i^* + e^{0.8z_{wi}} \times w_i^* + v_i$$
$$u_i^* \sim \text{i.i.d. Exp}(1)$$
$$w_i^* \sim \text{i.i.d. Exp}(1)$$
$$v_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

where x_i , z_{ui} , and z_{wi} are the covariates. As in Parmeter (2018), x_i , z_{ui} , and z_{wi} follow a trivariate normal distribution with correlation 0.1. u_i^* , w_i^* , and v_i are mutually independent from one another and from (x_i, z_{ui}, z_{wi}) . We do not explicitly include an intercept in this model, because the simulations in Parmeter (2018) suggested it was quite difficult to separately identify an intercept and the constant terms for both u and w.

The following commands demonstrate the generation of the simulated data and the way to fit the model. We first estimate without setting initial values.

```
. clear
. set seed 999
. quietly set obs 10000
. matrix C = (1, 0.1, 0.1 \ 0.1, 1, 0.1 \ 0.1, 0.1, 1)
. drawnorm x zu zw, corr(C)
. generate ui = invexponential(1, runiform())
. generate wi = invexponential(1, runiform())
. generate vi = invnormal(runiform())
. generate y = x - exp(0.6 * zu) * ui + exp(0.8 * zw) * wi + vi
```

	caling sigmau(: delta_x 1.05	0				1
Iteration 0:	residual SS =	70216.84				
Iteration 1:	residual SS =	68805.46				
Iteration 2:	residual SS =	68791.96				
Iteration 3:	residual SS =	68791.83				
Iteration 4:	residual SS =	68791.83				
Iteration 5:	residual SS =	68791.83				
Nonlinear reg	ression				er of obs = uared =	
				-	R-squared =	
					MSE =	
					dev. =	47663.77
Two-tier stoch	astic frontie	r model with	scaling			
		Robust				
У	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf.	interval]
/delta_x	1.004185	.025706	39.06	0.000	.9537958	1.054574
/du_zu	.5945575	.0549976	10.81	0.000	.4867511	.7023639
/mu_u	1.013727	.1194435	8.49	0.000	.7795938	1.24786

As expected, the coefficients are precisely estimated.

.0684228

.1314908

.777372

1.030119

/dw_zw

/mu_w

In the above example, we did not provide any initial value. The sftt command will run a regress command to specify a set of initial values for delta_x, while the other parameters are initialized to 1.

11.36

7.83

0.000

0.000

.6432495

.7723707

.9114945

1.287868

A suitable set of initial values can speed up the optimization process. Here we use the actual values of these parameters to emphasize the comparison.

. sftt y x, so > ini initial value:	itial(delta_x	1 du_zu 0.6	mu_u 1 d	lw_zw 0.8	mu_w 1)		
Iteration 0: Iteration 1: Iteration 2: Iteration 3:	residual SS = residual SS =	68791.83 68791.83					
Nonlinear regression Nonlinear regression Number of obs = 10,000 R-squared = 0.3221 Adj R-squared = 0.3217 Root MSE = 2.623476 Res. dev. = 47663.77							
Two-tier stoch	astic frontie	r model with	scaling	property			
У	Coefficient	Robust std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf.	interval]	
/delta_x /du_zu	1.004185 .5945575		39.06 10.81		.9537958 .486751	1.054574 .7023639	

From the results, we can see that the number of iterations is reduced, but the estimation results are identical.

8.49

11.36

7.83

0.000

0.000

0.000

.7795941

.6432495

.772371

1.24786

.9114944

1.287867

.1194433

.0684228

.1314907

We demonstrate the performance of **sftt** with a series of Monte Carlo simulations, and the results show a similar pattern to table 1 in Parmeter (2018).

6 Empirical applications

/mu_u

/dw_zw

/mu w

1.013727

1.030119

.777372

This section provides three empirical applications to illustrate the use of sftt. We first examine the wage bargaining between firms and workers by using the benchmark exponential specification following Kumbhakar and Parmeter (2009). We then estimate the hedonic price function in Kumbhakar and Parmeter (2010) by using a heterogeneous 2TSF model with half-normal specification. Finally, we compare different specifications' impacts on inefficiency by using a dataset from the medical service market following Lu, Lian, and Lu (2011).

6.1 Match uncertainty and wage bargaining

In labor markets, workers' willingness to accept a job and firms' willingness to offer a job are private information; workers and firms are incentivized to extract more surplus from each other. We can demonstrate the optimal wage and surplus extraction in each firm–worker pair in a two-tier stochastic frontier model:

wage_i =
$$\mu(\mathbf{x}_i) + \varepsilon_i$$

wage_i is the actual wage, and $\mu(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\delta}$ is a linear model that represents the optimal wage in the *i*th firm–worker pair. $\varepsilon_i = v_i - u_i + w_i$ is the composite error term. The lower frontier of wage (wage_i) is $\underline{wage}_i = \mu(\mathbf{x}_i) - u_i$, which represents the minimum wage that the *i*th worker is willing to accept. The upper frontier indicates the maximum wage that a firm would pay to hire a worker and is given by $\overline{wage}_i = \mu(\mathbf{x}_i) + w_i$. The worker's surplus is $\mu(\mathbf{x}_i) - wage_i$, and the firm's surplus is $\overline{wage}_i - \mu(\mathbf{x}_i)$.

Distributional assumptions are then proposed to make it possible to estimate the surplus extraction components. Following Kumbhakar and Parmeter (2009), we assume that $v_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \mathcal{N}(0, 1), u_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \text{Exp}(\sigma_u)$, and $w_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } \text{Exp}(\sigma_w)$.

Run the following syntax:

```
. set seed 20220612
. use https://sftt.oss-cn-hangzhou.aliyuncs.com/kp09.dta, clear
. sftt lwage iq educ educ2 exper exper2 tenure tenure2 age married south
>
          urban black sibs brthord meduc feduc
initial:
              log likelihood = -821.98656
              log likelihood = -821.98656
rescale:
rescale eq:
              \log likelihood = -821.98656
Iteration 0:
              log likelihood = -821.98656 (not concave)
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -790.073 (not concave)
 (output omitted)
Iteration 15: log likelihood = -226.06913
Two-tier stochastic frontier model with exponential specification
```

Log likelihood = -226.06913

lwage	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf	interval]
frontier_lw_e						
iq	.0043955	.0011061	3.97	0.000	.0022277	.0065634
educ	2.036803	1.128628	1.80	0.071	1752675	4.248873
educ2	7563295	.5533698	-1.37	0.172	-1.840914	.3282555
exper	. 28234	.1561886	1.81	0.071	023784	.588464
exper2	1005302	.0921451	-1.09	0.275	2811314	.0800709
tenure	.1535866	.0635696	2.42	0.016	.0289925	.2781808
tenure2	0568321	.0380829	-1.49	0.136	1314732	.0178091
age	.4950143	.1867546	2.65	0.008	.128982	.8610465
married	.2060007	.0443427	4.65	0.000	.1190905	.2929109
south	0348172	.0297127	-1.17	0.241	0930529	.0234186
urban	.2208797	.0290555	7.60	0.000	.1639319	.2778275
black	1022164	.0526949	-1.94	0.052	2054965	.0010637
sibs	.0088167	.007232	1.22	0.223	0053579	.0229912
brthord	015372	.0106093	-1.45	0.147	0361658	.0054218
meduc	.0081452	.0056126	1.45	0.147	0028553	.0191456
feduc	.0076534	.0050712	1.51	0.131	0022858	.0175927
_cons	3.858254	.6128944	6.30	0.000	2.657004	5.059505
ln_sig_v						
_cons	-1.659804	.1570302	-10.57	0.000	-1.967578	-1.352031
ln_sig_u						
	-1.510707	.1146933	-13.17	0.000	-1.735502	-1.285912
ln_sig_w						
_ Cons	-1.665971	.1230849	-13.54	0.000	-1.907213	-1.424729

Number of obs =

Wald chi2(16) = 319.41

Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

663

. sftt sigs	5	
		Variance Estimation
sigma_v	:	0.1902
sigma_u	:	0.2208
sigma_w	:	0.1890
sigma_v_sq	:	0.0362
sigma_u_sq	:	0.0487
sigma_w_sq	:	0.0357
		Variance Analysis
Total sigma	a_sqs	: 0.1206
(sigu2+sigv	72) /T	otal : 0.7002
sigu2/(sigu	12+si	gw2) : 0.5770
sigw2/(sigu	12+si	gw2) : 0.4230
sig_w - sig	g_u	: -0.0317

From the results in Variance Analysis, the unexplained variation in log wage $(\sigma_v^2 + \sigma_u^2 + \sigma_e^2)$ is 0.1206, while 70.02% of the unexplained variation is due to bargaining. From the estimate of $E(w_i - u_i) = \sigma_w - \sigma_u$, we can tell whether bargaining affects wages on average, and if so, in which direction. In this application, $E(w_i - u_i) = -3.17\% < 0$ means bargaining may lead to lower wages on average.

However, if the interest is to obtain the exact impact of bargaining on wages, we should analyze observation-specific estimates of $E(u_i|\varepsilon)$ and $E(w_i|\varepsilon)$. As an example, we analyze the surplus extraction between races (table 4 of Kumbhakar and Parmeter [2009]) with the sftt eff command.

```
. sftt eff
The following variables have been generated:
_u_hat
_w_hat
_wu_diff
_u_hat_exp
_wu_diff_exp
_wu_diff_exp
_wu_net_effect
```

. tabstat _w_hat _u_hat _wu_diff, by(black) statistics(mean p25 p50 p75)
> format(%6.3f) columns(statistics)

Summary for variables: _w_hat _u_hat _wu_diff Group variable: black

black	Mean	p25	p50	p75
0	0.189	0.114	0.143	0.212
	0.221	0.122	0.165	0.249
	-0.032	-0.135	-0.022	0.091
1	0.184	0.110	0.150	0.210
	0.213	0.122	0.156	0.279
	-0.029	-0.169	-0.006	0.088
Total	0.189	0.114	0.144	0.212
	0.221	0.122	0.164	0.251
	-0.032	-0.137	-0.020	0.091

. tabstat _w_hat_exp _u_hat_exp _wu_diff_exp, by(black)
> statistics(mean p25 p50 p75) format(%6.3f) columns(statistics)

Summary for variables:	_w_hat_exp	_u_hat_exp	_wu_diff_exp
Group variable: black			

black	Mean	p25	p50	p75
0	0.159	0.103	0.127	0.182
	0.181	0.109	0.144	0.210
	-0.022	-0.107	-0.017	0.073
1	0.157	0.100	0.133	0.180
	0.178	0.110	0.138	0.232
	-0.021	-0.132	-0.005	0.071
Total	0.159	0.103	0.128	0.182
	0.181	0.109	0.144	0.211
	-0.022	-0.109	-0.016	0.073

From the results, we can conclude that the difference between the average surplus extractions of Black and White workers is insignificant. However, from the tails of the extraction distributions, the lower quartile suggests that Black workers have 2-3% more extraction from the benchmark. In contrast, White workers can extract about 1% more than Black workers in the upper quartile.

6.2 Estimation of the hedonic price function

With the development of technology, information conduits such as advertisements and the Internet are increasingly ubiquitous in today's marketplace. Both buyers and sellers can gain information through search. However, given that search costs exist, market participants most likely will not become fully informed and price variations due to ignorance will exist even after controlling for product characteristics (Kumbhakar and Parmeter 2010). As an example, the housing market might be inefficient for certain types of buyers and sellers. We can use the 2TSF model to study the advantage a buyer may possess over a seller or vice versa, simultaneously. Following Kumbhakar and Parmeter (2010), we express prices observed in the market as

$$\mathbf{P}_m = h(\mathbf{X}) + \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}$$

where $h(\mathbf{X})$ is the implied price of the characteristics \mathbf{X} , \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{w} are the costs of incomplete information to the sellers and buyers, and \mathbf{v} is a vector of the random noise.

To capture the heterogeneous cost of incomplete information, we allow the distributions of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{w} to be functions of buyers' and sellers' characteristics, $\mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{u}}$ and $\mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{w}}$, respectively. Thus, we specify the vectors of standard errors of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{w} , which are $\sigma_{\mathbf{u}}$ and $\sigma_{\mathbf{w}}$, as

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\mathbf{u}} = e^{\mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{u}}\boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{u}}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{w} = e^{\mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{w}}\boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{w}}}$$

We introduce buyers' and sellers' attributes through the options sigmau() and sigmaw(). Here we assume the ignorance of information follows a half-normal distribution, so we add the option hnormal. The syntax and results are as follows:

```
. use https://sftt.oss-cn-hangzhou.aliyuncs.com/kp10.dta, clear
. sftt lprn lsf unitsftc bathstot roomsn sfan sfdn
> agelt5 age510 age1015 agegte30
> cencityn urbsubn urbann riuraln inadeq degreen
> s87 s88 s89 s90 s91 s92 s93
> verylg large siz1to3 small,
> sigmaw(outbuy firstbuy incbuy busbuy agebuy blkbuy marbuy sfbuy edubuy kidbuy)
> sigmau(incsell bussell agesell blksell marsell sfsell edusell kidsell)
> hnormal seed(6)
initial:
               log likelihood = -5527.2566
rescale:
               log likelihood = -5527.2566
rescale eq:
               log likelihood = -5411.5646
               log likelihood = -5411.5646 (not concave)
Iteration 0:
               \log likelihood = -4377.3679
Iteration 1:
  (output omitted)
Iteration 26: log likelihood = -2846.9465
```

Log likelihood	= -2846.9465				Number of obs Wald chi2(27) Prob > chi2	,
lprn	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf	. interval]
frontier_lprn						
lsf	.2974248	.0246532	12.06	0.000	.2491053	.3457442
unitsftc	1209992	.0424964	-2.85	0.004	2042905	0377078
bathstot	.2234376	.0154124	14.50	0.000	.1932298	.2536454
roomsn	.0100356	.0062459	1.61	0.108	0022062	.0222774
sfan	.5028812	.0473966	10.61	0.000	.4099856	.5957769
sfdn	.5890742	.0349242	16.87	0.000	.5206241	.6575243
agelt5	.196477	.0299935	6.55	0.000	.1376909	.2552631
age510	.0916725	.0242236	3.78	0.000	.0441951	.1391499
age1015	.0365939	.0237961	1.54	0.124	0100456	.0832333
agegte30	0010998	.0201294	-0.05	0.956	0405527	.0383532
cencityn	1176012	.0298582	-3.94	0.000	1761222	0590803
urbsubn	0234166	.0275902	-0.85	0.396	0774924	.0306592
urbann	3236883	.0336743	-9.61	0.000	3896887	2576879
riuraln	3196333	.0312238	-10.24	0.000	3808308	2584358
inadeq	.0445825	.0669426	0.67	0.505	0866226	.175787
degreen	0093918	.0057882	-1.62	0.105	0207364	.0019528
s87	.0408672	.0285615	1.43	0.152	0151123	.0968467
s88	.0559373	.0281587	1.99	0.047	.0007473	.1111273
s89	.1140626	.0288774	3.95	0.000	.0574638	.1706613
s90	.1885622	.0294923	6.39	0.000	.1307583	.246366
s90 s91	.1295755	.0294923	4.36	0.000	.0713839	.187767
s91 s92	.1351328	.0290901	4.30	0.000	.079238	.1910270
s92 s93	.1557371	.0205105	4.74 5.11		.0959744	.2154998
				0.000		
verylg	.5600216	.0376576	14.87	0.000	.4862141	.6338293
large	.1516597	.0362234	4.19	0.000	.0806632	.2226563
siz1to3	.1975842	.0259854	7.60	0.000	.1466538	.2485146
small	0954866	.0270787	-3.53	0.000	1485599	0424133
_cons	8.171205	.1780178	45.90	0.000	7.822296	8.520113
ln_sig_v						
_cons	-1.142592	.0527501	-21.66	0.000	-1.24598	-1.039203
ln_sig_u						
incsell	3762457	.0403635	-9.32	0.000	4553567	2971348
bussell	2718317	.0475565	-5.72	0.000	3650408	178622
agesell	2809178	.0516282	-5.44	0.000	3821072	1797284
blksell	.2727522	.0809753	3.37	0.001	.1140435	.4314608
marsell	1369204	.0412778	-3.32	0.001	2178234	056017
sfsell	0725139	.0466659	-1.55	0.120	1639775	.018949
edusell	3189302	.0356865	-8.94	0.000	3888744	248985
kidsell	0180103	.034288	-0.53	0.599	0852135	.049193
	.4297773	.0753251	5.71	0.000	.2821429	.5774118

ln_sig_w						
outbuy	.079076	.0725611	1.09	0.276	063141	.2212931
firstbuy	.0079438	.0672442	0.12	0.906	1238524	.13974
incbuy	.3901659	.0388278	10.05	0.000	.3140647	.4662671
busbuy	.3152677	.0641257	4.92	0.000	.1895835	.4409518
agebuy	.6749622	.108253	6.24	0.000	.4627902	.8871342
blkbuy	-1.366972	.6209467	-2.20	0.028	-2.584005	1499389
marbuy	0038389	.0801271	-0.05	0.962	1608851	.1532073
sfbuy	.1127059	.0998305	1.13	0.259	0829583	.3083702
edubuy	.4212932	.0724415	5.82	0.000	.2793104	.563276
kidbuy	1204749	.0587324	-2.05	0.040	2355884	0053615
_cons	-2.485998	.2466709	-10.08	0.000	-2.969464	-2.002532

Here we mainly focus on the estimated parameters in the $\delta_{\mathbf{u}}$ and $\delta_{\mathbf{w}}$ functions.

On the buyers' side, the negative signs on the Black dummy (blkbuy) and children dummy (kidbuy) in $\delta_{\mathbf{w}}$ suggest that the costs of incomplete information for African American buyers and buyers with kids are lower. In contrast, buyers who have a higher income (incbuy), have a business (busbuy), are older (agebuy), and are educated (edubuy) pay higher information costs.

On the sellers' side, however, we find that income (incsell), having a business (bussell), age (agesell), being married (marsell), and having a college education (edusell) decrease information costs. Conversely, Black sellers (blksell) pay higher information costs.

6.3 Medical information asymmetry

6.3.1 Model estimation

Lu, Lian, and Lu (2011) estimated the effect of information asymmetry in the medical services market of China. Considering the *i*th doctor-patient pair, a doctor has a minimum price, \underline{P}_i , at which he or she would offer a particular medical service, and the patient has a maximum price, \overline{P}_i , that he or she could afford. The actual price can be written as

$$P_{i} = \underline{P}_{i} + \eta(\overline{P}_{i} - \underline{P}_{i}) = \mu(\mathbf{x}_{i}) + \eta\left\{\overline{P}_{i} - \mu(\mathbf{x}_{i})\right\} - (1 - \eta)\left\{\mu(\mathbf{x}_{i}) - \underline{P}_{i}\right\}$$

where $\mu(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is the optimal price in a doctor-patient pair and η represents the bargaining power of the doctor.

The 2TSF model fits data from the China Health and Nutrition Survey database. Here we add factor variables i.province and i.year into the syntax to absorb provincial and annual fixed effects.

```
. set seed 20220612
. use https://sftt.oss-cn-hangzhou.aliyuncs.com/lu11.dta, clear
. sftt lnprice lnage symp urban education job endurance insur i.province i.year
note: i_province_1 omitted because of collinearity.
note: i_year_1 omitted because of collinearity.
               log likelihood = -3675.6139
initial:
               log likelihood = -3675.6139
rescale:
rescale eq:
               log likelihood =
                                 -3645.644
Iteration 0:
               \log likelihood = -3645.644
Iteration 1:
               \log likelihood = -3460.2012
                                            (not concave)
  (output omitted)
Iteration 9:
               log likelihood = -3311.415
Two-tier stochastic frontier model with exponential specification
```

Numbe	er	of	obs	=	1,806
Wald	cl	ni2	(21)	=	672.36
Prob	>	ch	i2	=	0.0000

Log likelihood = -3311.415

lnprice Coefficient Std. err. z P>|z| [95% conf. interval] frontier_ln_e .5982784 .1144348 5.23 0.000 .3739903 .8225664 lnage symptoms .7457815 .0548336 13.60 0.000 .6383096 .8532533 .2049616 .0761177 2.69 0.007 .0557736 .3541495 urban education .0630399 .034737 1.81 0.070 -.0050434 .1311233 -.2929144.0777547 -3.770.000 -.4453109-.140518 job endurance -1.015456.0915982 -11.090.000 -1.194985-.8359272insurance .0989838 .0857161 1.15 0.248 -.0690166 .2669843 1.55 i_province_2 .2183171 .140904 0.121 -.0578497.4944838 i_province_3 .9542838 .1576787 6.05 0.000 .6452392 1.263328 i_province_4 .4149037 .1523468 2.72 0.006 .1163095 .713498 i_province_5 .5425718 .1485073 3.65 0.000 .8336407 .2515029 i_province_6 1.158282 .1372435 8.44 0.000 .8892896 1.427274 4.55 i_province_7 .6197577 .1360702 0.000 .353065 .8864504 i_province_8 5.16 .6700105 .1298114 0.000 .4155849 .9244361 i_province_9 .8400983 .1728504 4.86 0.000 .5013177 1.178879 i_year_2 -.2171845 -0.81 -.7432656 .3088965 .2684136 0.418 .4858937 2.03 i_year_3 .2390549 0.042 .0173548 .9544326 i_year_4 .946091 .2338325 4.05 0.000 .4877878 1.404394 i_year_5 1.093305 4.92 1.52849 .2220374 0.000 .6581198 i_year_6 1.228319 .2168512 5.66 0.000 .8032985 1.65334 1.20161 5.30 i_year_7 .2266252 0.000 .7574324 1.645787 -1.586893 -2.98 -2.629474-.5443124 _cons .5319389 0.003 ln_sig_v _cons .1269897 .1232088 1.03 0.303 -.1144951.3684746 ln_sig_u -1.1772471.071734 -1.10 0.272 -3.277807 .9233118 cons ln_sig_w _cons .0036885 .0914932 0.04 0.968 -.1756349.1830119 This command processes factor variables as a series of dummy variables, where i_province_1 and i_year_1 are dropped because of collinearity.

Next we decompose the composite error term into information asymmetry components.

```
. sftt eff, exp
The following variables have been generated:
_u_hat_exp
_w_hat_exp
_wu_diff_exp
_wu_net_effect
. summarize _u_hat_exp _w_hat_exp _wu_diff_exp
    Variable
                       Obs
                                  Mean
                                           Std. dev.
                                                            Min
                                                                        Max
                               .2355296
                                           .0406805
                                                       .1907761
                                                                   .5762016
                     1,806
  _u_hat_exp
                     1,806
                               .5016665
                                                       .2073607
                                           .1672711
                                                                   .9943287
  _w_hat_exp
                     1,806
                                .266137
                                           .2015247 -.3688409
                                                                   .8035526
_wu_diff_exp
. summarize _wu_diff_exp, detail
                         _wu_diff_exp
      Percentiles
                        Smallest
 1%
       -.1120609
                       -.3688409
5%
       -.0133144
                        -.332948
        .0352878
                       -.2467907
10%
                                        Obs
                                                           1,806
25%
        .1196526
                       -.2240263
                                                           1,806
                                        Sum of wgt.
50%
        .2360287
                                        Mean
                                                         .266137
                         Largest
                                        Std. dev.
                                                        .2015247
75%
        .3937378
                        .7953292
90%
        .5637176
                        .7954245
                                        Variance
                                                        .0406122
95%
        .6552005
                        .8010323
                                        Skewness
                                                        .4913073
99%
        .7682604
                        .8035526
                                        Kurtosis
                                                        2.834541
```

From the first table in the results, the mean value of doctor surplus $E(e^{-w_i}|\varepsilon_i)$ (that is, the variable <u>w_hat_exp</u>) is 0.5017, which means that, relative to the optimal price, doctor surplus makes the price 50.17% higher, while the patient surplus (<u>u_hat_exp</u>) lowers the price by only 23.55%. The information asymmetry between doctors and patients eventually leads to medical service prices that are 26.62% (50.17% - 23.55%) higher than optimal prices.

The second table shows the quantile of net surplus $[E(e^{-u_i}|\varepsilon_i) - E(e^{-w_i}|\varepsilon_i)]$; that is, the variable $_uw_diff_exp]$. The 10% quantile of the net surplus is 0.0353 > 0, implying that at least 90% of patients must pay higher-than-optimal prices because of information asymmetry.

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We then demonstrate the distribution of the surplus extracted by each side of patient–doctor pairs and the distributions of the net surplus.

```
. histogram _u_hat_exp, percent title(Percent, place(10) size(*0.7))
> ylabel(,angle(0)) ytitle("") xtitle("Surplus extracted by patients (%)")
> xscale(titlegap(3) outergap(-2)) scheme(sj)
(bin=32, start=.19077611, width=.01204455)
```

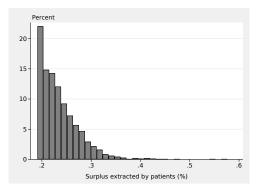


Figure 1. Surplus extracted by patients

```
. histogram _w_hat_exp, percent title(Percent, place(10) size(*0.7))
> ylabel(,angle(0)) ytitle("") xtitle("Surplus extracted by doctors (%)")
> xscale(titlegap(3) outergap(-2)) scheme(sj)
(bin=32, start=.20736069, width=.02459275)
```

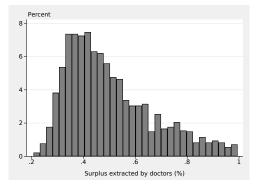


Figure 2. Surplus extracted by doctors

```
. histogram _wu_diff_exp, percent title(Percent, place(10) size(*0.7))
> ylabel(,angle(0)) ytitle("") xtitle("Net surplus (%)")
> xscale(titlegap(3) outergap(-2)) scheme(sj)
(bin=32, start=-.36884092, width=.0366373)
```

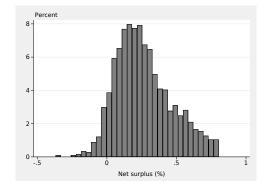


Figure 3. Distribution of net surplus

Figures 1 and 2 show that the patient surplus is much smaller than the doctor surplus. In contrast, both the patient surplus and the doctor surplus are right-skewed, indicating that only a few doctors have fully used their information superiority. Figure 3 illustrates the distribution of net surplus. From the histogram, we can see that most doctors have a positive net surplus, which means the prices of medical services are somewhat higher than optimal.

6.3.2 Contrasting the exponential and half-normal specifications

We then contrast the results from the exponential setting to the half-normal distributional setting. We run OLS estimation as well as the two specifications (exponential and half-normal) of the 2TSF model with the following syntax:

```
. use https://sftt.oss-cn-hangzhou.aliyuncs.com/lu11.dta, clear
. // OLS
. regress lnprice lnage symp urban education job endurance insur i.province
> i.year, vce(robust)
  (output omitted)
. // 2TSF - exponential specification
. sftt lnprice lnage symp urban education job endurance insur i.province i.year,
> findseed
  (output omitted)
. // 2TSF - half-normal specification
. sftt lnprice lnage symp urban education job endurance insur i.province i.year,
> hnormal findseed
  (output omitted)
```

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The results are in table 1.

	(1)	(2)	(3)		
	OLS	Exponential	Half-normal		
lnage	0.666***	0.598***	0.557***		
	(6.02)	(5.23)	(4.93)		
symptoms	0.765***	0.746***	0.745^{***}		
	(13.23)	(13.60)	(13.65)		
urban	0.210**	0.205**	0.206**		
	(2.69)	(2.69)	(2.73)		
education	0.0536	0.0630	0.0687^{*}		
	(1.47)	(1.82)	(2.05)		
job	-0.274^{***}	-0.293^{***}	-0.286^{***}		
-	(-3.44)	(-3.77)	(-3.71)		
endurance	-0.969^{***}	-1.015^{***}	-0.990^{***}		
	(-10.43)	(-11.09)	(-11.00)		
insurance	0.0947	0.0990	0.0998		
	(1.07)	(1.15)	(1.17)		
_cons	-1.255^{**}	-1.587^{**}	-1.512^{**}		
_	(-2.61)	(-2.98)	(-3.05)		
σ_u		0.3085	1.1468		
σ_w		1.0037	2.0772		
σ_v	1.5343	1.1354	0.5621		
N	1806	1806	1806		

Table 1. Estimation results with different distributions

NOTE: t statistics in parentheses. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

We can see that the coefficients are similar across the three columns, while the estimated standard errors vary between the exponential and the half-normal 2TSF specifications. The expected values of u_i and w_i also differ in table 2, as expected.

Specification	Variable	N	Mean	SD	Min	p50	Max
Exponential	u_hat_e w_hat_e						$1.110 \\ 5.841$
Half-normal	u_hat w_hat		$0.915 \\ 1.657$	$0.376 \\ 1.055$	$0.442 \\ 0.317$		$3.753 \\ 6.852$

Table 2. Summary statistics of inefficiency

However, if we were interested in the rank of the one-sided terms, the choice of distributional assumptions may not significantly affect the results. Indeed, the rank correlation coefficients of u_i and w_i between the exponential and half-normal specifications are above 99%.

In figures 4 and 5, we present the scatterplots of $rank(u_i)$ and $rank(w_i)$. We see that the rankings of u_i and w_i are essentially linear, which also indicates that the ranking of inefficiency is not sensitive to the distributional assumptions.

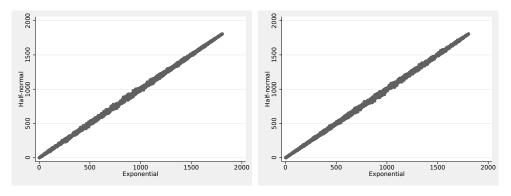


Figure 4. Ranking of u_i

Figure 5. Ranking of w_i

7 Conclusions

In this article, we introduced a new command, sftt, to fit 2TSF models with crosssectional data. When paired with distributional assumptions, this command can fit 2TSF models by using either an exponential (Polachek and Yoon 1987) or a half-normal (Papadopoulos 2015) specification. sftt also fits 2TSF models with the scaling property imposed (which are free of distribution assumptions), as in Parmeter (2018). We also provided two postestimation subcommands, sftt sigs and sftt eff, to help with variance identification and residual decomposition.

sftt provides the user with a simple way to fit 2TSF models that is intuitive and similar to sfcross. We illustrated the command's estimation capabilities through both simulated data and three distinct empirical datasets, using different frameworks to demonstrate the versatility of sftt. Our work here has covered the most popular cross-sectional approaches for the 2TSF model. There do exist several interesting extensions that could be added to the coding lexicon for the 2TSF. These include accounting for selection (Blanco 2017), the use of the fast Fourier transform to allow for different distributions for the separate one-sided shocks (Tsionas 2012), and extensions for the presence of panel data (Das and Polachek 2017). Any of these extensions into the Stata programming environment would help to further enhance the use of this flexible model.

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9 Programs and supplemental materials

To install a snapshot of the corresponding software files as they existed at the time of publication of this article, type

```
net sj 23-1
net install st0705 (to install program files, if available)
net get st0705 (to install ancillary files, if available)
```

The corresponding code and results can be found on GitHub (https://github.com/arlionn/sftt).

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