Global Portfolio Rebalancing
Under the Microscope

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October, 2009

Abstract
Cross border capital flows and returns on assets are two key variables in international macroeconomics. Difficult endogeneity issues plague any analysis of their correlations in aggregate data. This paper examines the dynamics of international portfolios with a unique data set on the stock allocations of approximately 6,500 international equity funds domiciled in four different currency areas during a 5 year period. The disaggregated data structure allows us to examine the effect of realized returns on portfolio adjustments. Do managers rebalance their portfolios towards their desired weights or do they increase their exposure to appreciating assets? We find strong support for portfolio rebalancing behavior aimed at stabilizing exchange rate risk and equity risk exposure around desired levels. These findings are important for the new open economy macroeconomics models featuring endogenous portfolio choice. They should also help inform the burgeoning theoretical literature in macroeconomics and in finance that aims at modeling financial intermediaries.

Key words: heterogenous portfolios, international equity funds, portfolio rebalancing, valuation effects, exchange rate, equity risk

Sylvain Champonnois provided excellent research assistance. We are very grateful to the Fondation Banque de France and especially Henri Pagès for financial support and feedback. We also benefited greatly from comments by Philippe Bachetta, Mick Devereux, Marcel Fratscher, Stéphane Guibaud, Karen Lewis, Paolo Mauro, Jay Shambaugh, Andrew Rose, Mark Seasholes, Kenichi Ueda and seminar participants at the NBER, the CEPR, the University of Amsterdam, the University of Brussel, HEI, Harvard University and the AEA 2009 meeting.

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Abstract
Cross border capital flows and returns on assets are two key variables in international macroeconomics. Difficult endogeneity issues plague any analysis of their correlations in aggregate data. This paper examines the dynamics of international portfolios with a unique data set on the stock allocations of approximately 6,500 international equity funds domiciled in four different currency areas during a 5 year period. The disaggregated data structure allows us to examine the effect of realized returns on portfolio adjustments. Do managers rebalance their portfolios towards their desired weights or do they increase their exposure to appreciating assets? We find strong support for portfolio rebalancing behavior aimed at stabilizing exchange rate risk and equity risk exposure around desired levels. These findings are important for the new open economy macroeconomics models featuring endogenous portfolio choice. They should also help inform the burgeoning theoretical literature in macroeconomics and in finance that aims at modeling financial intermediaries.
1 Introduction

Gross stocks of cross-border assets and liabilities have increased dramatically from roughly 50 percent of world GDP in the early 1990’s to more than 120 percent a decade later. Capital gains and losses on those assets have significant effects on the dynamics of countries external asset positions. The macroeconomics literature finds that valuation effects induced by asset price changes have become quantitatively large relative to the traditional product account determinants of the current account. Recent macroeconomic models such as Fernandez-Villaverde, Guerron-Quintana, Rubio-Ramirez and Uribe (2009) focus on second moments of asset returns and point to the importance of risk shocks on investment and other real variables. But, at the microeconomic level, how do international investors adjust their risk exposure in response to the fluctuations in realized returns they experience on their positions? Do they rebalance their portfolios towards their desired weights or do they increase their exposure to appreciating assets? What are the consequences of those portfolio decisions for international asset price dynamics? International capital flows and returns are two key variables in international macroeconomics. Yet, little is known on the dynamics of portfolio allocations of international investors. Most of the existing evidence has been gathered from aggregate data on cross border capital flows and may give very misleading summary statistics if international investment strategies are highly heterogeneous.

This paper analyzes time series variations in international asset allocations of a large cross section of institutional investors. The main distinctive feature of our approach is that we are able to use a unique panel data set of investment positions at the stock level for international equity funds located around the globe. We can thus construct time varying fund specific measures of risk and fund specific measures of portfolio rebalancing strategies. The richness of our data set allows us to estimate precisely the portfolio adjustments made by fund managers when faced by fluctuations in the value of equities and exchange rates. The data even allow us to compute the time series of the marginal risk contribution of an individual stock to the portfolio of a given fund and observe the reallocation decisions of fund managers due to its variations.

The main contribution of the paper is empirical. But to better frame the analysis, we start with a simple model of portfolio rebalancing for international funds facing both exchange rate risk and equity risk. The model allows us to derive various testable implications about fund rebalancing. Unlike most papers in the literature our data are disaggregated, have a significant time series dimension and are not only about US funds. We can therefore observe portfolio rebalancing behavior “under a microscope” in a sample of pronounced heterogeneity both in investor location and investment destination. This approach provides a more direct and powerful test of portfolio rebalancing behavior compared to empirical work based on aggregate data. Our data show a very large degree of heterogeneity in the compositions of portfolios of institutional investors, with in particular very different degrees of home bias. They also strongly support

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1 For data on the increase of gross assets and liabilities and valuation effects see Lane and Milesi-Ferretti (2007), Tille (2004), Gourinchas and Rey (2007) and Fratscher, Juvenal and Sarno (2007a). For a special focus on exchange rate valuations and currency composition of external assets see Lane and Shambaugh (2009) and Corte, Sarno and Sestieri (2009).

2 For a detailed study of home bias at the fund level see Hau and Rey (2008).
the existence of portfolio rebalancing strategies at the fund level, aimed at mitigating the fluctuations in portfolio weights due to asset price and exchange rate changes. We highlight the following findings:

- At the fund level, we study the dynamics of the foreign share of the portfolio. Managers adjust their foreign portfolio share to mitigate the valuation effects of asset price changes. A higher equity return on the foreign portfolio share compared to the domestic share triggers capital repatriation, while foreign asset underperformance coincides with capital expatriation. Corresponding aggregate equity flows are economically significant.

- At the fund level, we calculate a portfolio risk measure based on total holdings of each fund. We find that a total portfolio risk increase (decrease) due to valuation effects coincides with active rebalancing which decreases (increases) the overall portfolio risk. Fund level rebalancing behavior is documented both for changes in total equity risk (in investor currency) as well as for changes in the foreign exchange (FX) risk component.

- At the stock level, we calculate the marginal risk contribution of each stock to the total portfolio risk of a given fund. Active reversal of marginal risk changes is found to be strong at the stock level if the marginal risk change and the overall portfolio risk change have the same direction, but absent if marginal risk and portfolio risk changes have opposite directions. The rebalancing evidence at the stock level is very strong for both overall equity risk as well as for the FX component of the portfolio risk.

The determinants of home bias and static portfolio allocations have been extensively studied in the literature (see e.g. the classic survey of Lewis (1999)). The determinants of international portfolio dynamics have been far less researched. The previous literature tests portfolio balance models\(^3\) on the basis of macroeconomic data on prices and aggregate cross border flows. The corresponding results are generally inconclusive (Frankel (1982b), Frankel (1982a), Rogoff (1984), Park (1984), Loopesko (1984)). More recently, Bohn and Tesar (1996) analyzes return chasing and portfolio rebalancing in an ICAPM framework. Brennan and Cao (1997) studies the effect of information asymmetries between domestic and foreign investors on correlations between international portfolio flows and returns. Albuquerque, Bauer and Schneider (2007) and Albuquerque, Bauer and Schneider (2008) provide interesting models with information asymmetries and investor heterogeneity aimed at fitting stylized facts on aggregate correlations of flows and returns. These papers all use aggregate data on U.S. international transactions - the U.S. TIC data were the only data set available at the time - and have to assume that investors hold aggregate indices. The limitations of these

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\(^3\)Portfolio balance models of the economy have been developed in the early 1980s (a seminal contribution is due to Kouri (1982); an excellent survey can be found in Branson and Henderson (1985)). Their lack of microfoundations led them to fall in disgrace for a while, but they have been resuscitated recently (see in particular Blanchard, Giavazzi and Sa (2005)) due to their very relevant focus on imperfect asset substitutability and their credible implications for exchange rate dynamics. Due to recent methodological advances, linearized dynamic stochastic general equilibrium of the open economy with portfolio choice can now be solved (see for example Coeurdacier (2005), Devereux and Sutherland (2009b) , Tille and Van-Wincoop (2007), Devereux and Sutherland (2009a) or Devereux and Sutherland (2009c)) and provide a new framework in which portfolio balance effects can be modelled. For a recent model giving a prominent role to portfolio balance effects to describe deviations from uncovered interest parity see Bachetta and Van-Wincoop (2008).
data are well known. The aggregate TIC data identify the transaction location, but not the asset location or currency denomination of the asset. Purchases of U.S. investors in the London markets are reported as U.K. asset transactions even if they concern a French stock. Furthermore, correlation evidence in aggregate data is difficult to interpret because of thorny endogeneity issues. Our data allow us to get around some of these problems since we observe the exact portfolio of each individual fund manager and we estimate the portfolio weight changes induced by past realized valuation changes in our sample of heterogeneous portfolios. Common shocks or aggregate demand effects and their price impact therefore pose less of an inference problem than they do in aggregate data. The approximately 4.5 million observations in our pooled sample also imply a tremendous increase in statistical power.

The only other empirical study on portfolio rebalancing using microeconomic data we are aware of is Calvet, Campbell and Sodini (2009) who investigates whether Swedish households adjust their risk exposure in response to the portfolio returns they experience during the period 1999-2002. They examine the rebalancing between the risky share of households portfolios and riskless assets and, interestingly, find evidence of portfolio rebalancing especially for the most educated and wealthiest households. Our study is very different in its focus and methodology: we study institutional investors, who are arguably very financially literate and do so in an international context where market segmentation due to exchange rate risk plays a key role. We also construct a very detailed array of equity and exchange rate risk measures at the fund and stock level, which allows us to precisely describe the rebalancing strategies of fund managers. In particular we make use of the information contained in the entire distribution of stock holdings of our sample.

Finally, the financial crisis of 2007-2008 has underlined the need to understand better the role of financial intermediaries in international capital flows. Our empirical findings should help inform the burgeoning theoretical literature in macroeconomics and in finance that aims at modeling financial intermediaries (see e.g. Vayanos and Wooley (2008), Mondria and Dziuda (2009)).

Section 2 sets the stage with a simple two-country model with three periods. Its parsimonious microeconomic structure allows us to derive 4 testable propositions. Of particular interest are propositions 3 and 4 which concern the rebalancing dynamics at the fund level both for equity risk and foreign exchange risk. Section 3 presents the new microdata. We examine the model predictions about the foreign equity share dynamics in section 4.1. In section 4.2, we take up the formidable computational challenge of computing fund portfolio risk measures, i.e risk measures based on the variance covariance matrix of each fund specific stock holdings and we study their dynamics. In section 4.3 we introduce a new stock level risk measure, the marginal risk contribution of a stock to the total portfolio risk. We then analyse stock level rebalancing conditional on the direction of the marginal risk change and the portfolio risk change. Section 5 concludes.

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4There is an obvious endogeneity problem with contemporaneous correlations because of common shocks or because of price effects due to demand pressure. Correlations of aggregate flows with past returns and correlations of aggregate flows with future returns may also be problematic to interpret as aggregate flows are persistent.

5It would doubtless be also interesting to study the global portfolios of the final owners of the securities but unfortunately our data do not include the relevant information for us to do so.
2 Model

We present a simple model to develop a series of testable implications for the investment dynamics at the fund level in an international context. The three period model features a mean-variance framework and abstracts from any consumption related model structure, which accords well with our focus on fund level investment decisions. The model allows for an empirical characterization of portfolio rebalancing consistent with equilibrium. It accounts for the endogenous price effect of rebalancing on asset prices and exchange rates. The key mechanism is the following. When faced with a change in valuations of their asset holdings (due to realized equity price or exchange rate changes), fund managers tend to rebalance towards their preferred weights, reflecting their risk return preferences. In an international context, if the foreign share of their portfolio gains in value (due for example to an overperformance of foreign equities), the exchange rate risk associated with their new portfolio holdings increases. Managers will offload that increased risk by selling foreign shares onto their foreign counterparts, who do not face the same currency risk. The exchange rate will in equilibrium be consistent with market clearing. The important market friction in the model is that investors cannot internationally trade their FX exposure through state contingent derivative contracts. The latter assumption captures an observable investment constraint or behavior of many fund managers discussed in Levich, Hayt and Ripston (1999).

Assumption 1: Investment Opportunities

Home and Foreign investors with mean-variance preferences in terminal wealth and a risk aversion \( \rho \) make optimal portfolio allocation decisions in periods 1 and 2 to maximize their terminal wealth in period 3. Each investor can invest in risky home and foreign stocks with independent normally distributed (period 3) liquidation values, \( V^f \) and \( V^h \), respectively, or in a domestic riskless asset with return \( r \). In addition, the home and foreign stock each pay a stochastic (mean zero) dividend in period 3, \( d^h \) and \( d^f \), respectively. The terminal exchange rate \( E_3 \) is also assumed to be normally distributed and uncorrelated with the stock payoffs. Formally the asset payoffs are given by

\[
P^h_3 = V^h + d^h \sim N(1, \sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_V); \quad P^f_3 = V^f + d^f \sim N(1, \sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_V); \quad E_3 \sim N(1, \sigma^2_e).
\]

The normality assumption for the payoffs is a convenient specification to obtain linear asset demand functions in a mean-variance framework. We assume that the risk aversion of the investors is sufficiently

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\(^6\) The main focus of the paper being empirical and to uncover novel stylized facts, we chose the simplest set up to illustrate our regressions and abstract from (very complex) general equilibrium features. For more macroeconomics implications stemming from a more complex model see Hau and Rey (2006). For the same reason, we model here only one source of heterogeneity (home versus foreign) to elucidate more clearly the role of the exchange rate in segmenting markets. Modelling heterogeneous agents within countries is certainly also an important and difficult research agenda (see Albuquerque et al. (2007)). In the empirical part of the paper we take the exogeneity of our funds as given (as heterogeneous portfolios are perfectly observed in our data) and study its implications on rebalancing behaviour.

\(^7\) Alternatively, we could assume a CARA utility function for the investors, which - for normally distributed returns - amounts to a mean-variance utility framework. However, only the linearized version of the model features normally distributed returns to which the utility equivalence applies.
low $\rho < 7$\textsuperscript{8} to ensure that the international risk sharing equilibrium exists under exogenous exchange rate risk. For simplicity we normalize all unconditional terminal asset payoffs to one. We also abstract from more complicated correlation structures between the terminal asset prices in order to simplify the exposition and model solution. Any correlation in the payoff structure will diminish the benefits from international asset diversification without altering any of the qualitative findings in the subsequent analysis. Finally, the model is formulated only for one home and one foreign asset. However, the general insights carry over to the case where the home and foreign assets are themselves portfolios of many individual stocks.

\textbf{Assumption 2: Information Structure}

At the beginning of period 2, both investors learn of the dividend payments $(d^h, d^f)$, while the liquidation values $(V^f, V^h)$ remain unknown. The conditional terminal asset price distributions are then given by

\begin{align*}
P_{3}^h | d^h, d^f &\sim N(1 + d^h, \sigma_V^2); \quad P_{3}^f | d^h, d^f \sim N(1 + d^f, \sigma_V^2) \\
E_3 | d^h, d^f &\sim N(1, \sigma_e^2).
\end{align*}

The analytical focus of the model is on the rebalancing effect of the dividend payoff information. It is assumed throughout the paper that the exchange rate risk cannot be hedged and that the optimal risk management of the investors is reflected in their asset holdings. The full revelation of the dividend values in period 2 and continued investor uncertainty about the liquidation values is just a stylized representation of partial revelation of different stock market fundamentals in the two countries. Other Bayesian formulations of the same problem are possible, but are likely to be more complicated\textsuperscript{9}. Next we turn to the asset supply assumptions and the market clearing conditions.

\textbf{Assumption 3: Asset Supplies}

The net supply of equity is constant and normalized to 1. The riskless rate is in perfectly elastic supply and is constant at $r$. Excess demand for foreign currency $D^F_t$ is balanced by an elastic supply with elasticity $\eta$. Let $X_t = (x_t^h, x_t^f)$ and $X^*_t = (x^*_t^h, x^*_t^f)$ denote the equity demands of the home and foreign investor, respectively. Let $E$ denote the exchange rate defined such that an increase in $E$ is a depreciation of the home country currency. Hence, we have (for $t = 1, 2$)

\begin{align*}
(x_t^h, x_t^f) + (x_{t}^{h*}, x_{t}^{f*}) &= (1, 1); \quad D_{t}^{F*} = \eta(E_{t} - 1).
\end{align*}

\textsuperscript{8}See appendix.

\textsuperscript{9}We assume that with a very small probability $\epsilon > 0$ the market is closed in period 2 so that investors cannot rebalance their portfolio. This ensures that investors have an incentive to acquire optimal portfolios in period 1. Otherwise the period 1 holdings would be indeterminate since an investor could always wait until period 2 to implement his optimal portfolio choice. A small likelihood of market closure in period 2 eliminates this indeterminacy.
A fully elastic supply of the riskless asset and a fully inelastic supply of the risky asset are common in the finance literature. This describes a world in which investments with low and safe returns are always abundant, while investments with high payoffs are both risky and in limited or fixed supply. The assumption about the constant elastic currency supply in periods 1 and 2 is natural. Assuming foreign exchange dealers with a utility function in mean and variance, we can show that their currency supply corresponds to a linear function \( \eta(E_t - 1) \) given a normally distributed terminal value for foreign exchange balances. The linear currency supply can therefore be interpreted as a reduced form of a more elaborate FX market model with risk averse dealers (see Hau and Rey (2006)).

2.1 Solving the Model

Solving for the model is mostly relegated to the appendix. We simply outline the major steps which allow us to characterize the solution. In period 1, the excess return of home and foreign investment over the risk-less rate is given by the vector \( \mathbf{R} = (R^h, R^f) \) for the home country investor and by \( \mathbf{R}^* = (R^{h*}, R^{f*}) \) for the foreign country investor. Excess returns are denominated in the currency of the investor and an increase in the exchange rate \( E \) denotes a depreciation of the domestic currency.

\[
R^h = P^h_t - (1 + r)P^h_1; \quad R^f = P^f_t E_t - (1 + r)P^f_1 E_1; \\
R^{h*} = P^h_t / E_t - (1 + r)P^h_1 / E_1; \quad R^{f*} = P^f_t - P^f_t E_t (1 + r). 
\]

Furthermore, for international equity allocations \( X_1 = (x^h_1, x^f_1) \) and \( X^*_1 = (x^{h*}_1, x^{f*}_1) \), the period 3 wealth follows as

\[
W_3 = X_1 R + (1 + r)W_1; \quad W^*_3 = X^*_1 R^* + (1 + r)W^*_1, 
\]

for the home and foreign investor, respectively. The utility of the home and foreign investors is given by a mean-variance framework. Hence, investors optimize

\[
U = \max_{(x^h_1, x^f_1)} \left[ \mathbb{E}_1(W_3) - \frac{\rho}{2} \text{Var}_1(W_3) \right], \quad U^* = \max_{(x^{h*}_1, x^{f*}_1)} \left[ \mathbb{E}_1(W^*_3) - \frac{\rho}{2} \text{Var}_1(W^*_3) \right], 
\]

where \( \rho \) denotes the coefficient of absolute risk aversion. For the expectations in period 1 symbolized by \( \mathbb{E}_1 \), we can express the variance-covariance matrix of the returns in home currency by \( \Omega_1 = \mathbb{E}_1(\mathbf{R} \mathbf{R}^T) \) and in foreign currency by \( \Omega^*_1 = \mathbb{E}_1(\mathbf{R}^* \mathbf{R}^{*T}) \). Optimal equity holdings for home and foreign investors follow as

\[
X_1 = \frac{1}{\rho} \mathbb{E}_1(R) \Omega_1^{-1}; \quad X^*_1 = \frac{1}{\rho} \mathbb{E}_1(R^*) \Omega^*_1^{-1}, 
\]

An alternative specification could assume exogenous stochastic exchange rate changes instead of endogenizing the exchange rate in periods 1 and 2. This approach produces similar rebalancing results as stated in propositions 3 and 4. It would not be able to account for the "uncovered equity parity condition" (proposition 2).

The domestic and foreign riskless rate could possibly differ. But this only introduces a model asymmetry between the home and foreign country which is of no qualitative relevance for the main model implications. Note also that dates 1 and 2 are arbitrarily close so that the total interest accrued between dates 1 and 3 is \((1 + r)\).
respectively. For independently distributed dividends and liquidation values, we find furthermore

$$\Omega_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_d^2 + \sigma_v^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_d^2 + \sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Omega_1^* = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_d^2 + \sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_d^2 + \sigma_v^2 \end{pmatrix}. $$

Market clearing in both equity markets implies two additional constraints for period 1.

In period 2, information about the dividends \((d^h, d^f)\) is revealed, but values \((V^h, V^f)\) are still unknown. Equity holdings need to fulfill the new first order conditions

$$X_2 = \frac{1}{\rho} \mathcal{E}_2(R) \Omega_2^{-1}; \quad X_2^* = \frac{1}{\rho} \mathcal{E}_2(R^*) \Omega_2^{* -1}. $$

The conditional covariance \(\Omega_2\) and \(\Omega_2^*\) depends on the dividend realization \((d^h, d^f)\) and we find

$$\Omega_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_v^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_v^2 + (1 + d^f)^2 \sigma_e^2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Omega_2^* = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_v^2 & (1 + d^h)^2 \sigma_e^2 \\ 0 & \sigma_v^2 \end{pmatrix}. $$

The period 3 equity prices \((P^h_3, P^f_3)\) will now reflect any asymmetric realization of dividend payouts \((d^h, d^f)\). This in turn implies that, under high foreign dividends, the foreign asset is more valuable and therefore the foreign investment constitutes a large exchange rate exposure. Optimal asset demands in period 2 have to account for the higher conditional variance. We show that it leads to rebalancing into domestic equity.\(^{12}\)

This rebalancing simultaneously changes the currency demand, which in turn affects the exchange rate. In order to solve the model for the two periods, we have to first conjecture a linear solution for all asset prices as a function of the dividend realizations. In a second step, we substitute these asset price solutions into the demand functions and use the market clearing and supply constraints to determine all coefficients. The appendix provides the solutions.

### 2.2 Model Implications

We summarize the implications of the model in 4 separate testable propositions. Propositions 1 and 2 concern stylized facts documented in the literature (see in particular Hau and Rey (2006)). Propositions 3 and 4 concern directly the rebalancing behavior at the fund level. These implications have not yet been subjected to empirical testing and are the main focus of this paper.

**Proposition 1: Portfolio Allocations**

International investors exposed to exchange rate risk (as described in assumptions 1 and 2) choose

\(^{12}\)The model considers partial revelation of the stocks payoffs in period 2, which diminishes the payoff risk. In contrast, exchange rate risk is fixed. Hence exchange rate risk plays conditionally a bigger role in period 2 compared to period 1. This gives rise to an "automatic rebalancing" effect towards home currency holdings in period 2. But this is of no consequence for our theoretical and our empirical results. Our results are about the covariance between rebalancing and returns and the covariance between active and passive risk rebalancing. The "automatic rebalancing" described above is like a time effect and does not alter any of these covariances. The model could be purged of the "automatic rebalancing" effect by assuming that conditional exchange rate risk decreases in the same proportion as stock payoffs. Such a modification is however immaterial for our results. Hence we favor the simpler model set-up.
optimal period 1 asset allocations given by

\[ x^h_1 = x^{f*}_1 = \frac{\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_V + \sigma^2_e}{2\sigma^2_d + 2\sigma^2_V + \sigma^2_e}; \quad x^f_1 = x^{h*}_1 = \frac{\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_V}{2\sigma^2_d + 2\sigma^2_V + \sigma^2_e}. \]

**Proof:** For the derivation see Appendix.

Home and foreign investors hold symmetric positions biased towards home assets. The home bias can be quantified as \( x^h_1 - x^{h*}_1 = x^{f*}_1 - x^f_1 = \frac{\sigma^2_e}{2\sigma^2_d + 2\sigma^2_V + \sigma^2_e} \) and equals the proportion of foreign exchange rate risk \( \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2_e \) relative to total payoff risk \( \sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_V + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2_e \) of an allocation of identical home and foreign portfolio shares. Higher exchange rate volatility should therefore reinforce the home bias. The home bias has been extensively documented in the international finance literature.\(^\text{13}\) A variety of alternative explanations can also account for the home bias and are complementary to ours\(^\text{14}\); for example higher transaction costs for foreign stocks, international information asymmetries, or differences in investor familiarity. While these alternative hypotheses explain the level effect of the home bias, they may not have the same dynamic implications. The particular asset price dynamics in our exchange risk based model of market segmentation is captured by Proposition 2.

**Proposition 2: Dividend Information and the Covariance Structure of Prices**

Information revealed at date 2 about different stock market fundamentals \((d^h - d^f \neq 0)\) creates a negative covariance between relative home and foreign stock price performance \( P^h_2 - P^f_2 \) and the exchange rate:

\[ \text{Cov} \left[ P^h_2 - P^f_2, E_2 \right] < 0. \]

**Proof:** For the derivation see Appendix.

Asset prices in period 2 feature a particular correlation structure in spite of the assumed independence of the final asset payoffs. When faced by increased foreign exchange risk due to an appreciation of the foreign assets of their portfolios relative to the domestic ones, investors rebalance out of foreign assets. This risk rebalancing investment strategy implies net sales of the foreign currency and hence an appreciation of the domestic exchange rate, which mitigates the original valuation shock in the equity market\(^\text{15}\). Such covariance structures could however potentially be induced by macroeconomic channels which do not rely on portfolio rebalancing. It is therefore interesting to explore direct microeconomic evidence on the relevance of

\(^{13}\)For evidence linking exchange rate volatility to home bias see Fratscher, Fidora and Thimmann (2007b). For a study of the home bias at the fund level see Hau and Rey (2008). For recent country level evidence, see Chan, Covrig and Ng (2005) or Portes and Rey (2005). For a classic survey on home bias see Lewis (1999).

\(^{14}\)We are evidently not claiming that our model is the only possible explanation for the home bias. It is also out of the scope of this paper to provide a quantitative assessment of the home bias due to exchange rate risk.

\(^{15}\)This correlation structure of stock prices and exchange rates, called “uncovered equity parity condition” (Hau and Rey (2006)), has also been examined by Brooks, Edison, Kumar and Slok (2001), Krylova, Cappiello and Santis (2005), Chaban (2008). Gyntelberg, Lorentz, Subhanij and Chan (2009) provide evidence that foreign excess returns on Thai equity are followed by capital outflows of foreign investors which simultaneously depreciates the Thai bath. For most OECD countries the exchange rate returns and differential stock market returns feature the predicted negative correlation at all frequencies from daily to quarterly data.
the portfolio channel. Propositions 3 and 4 state the microeconomic hypothesis of fund rebalancing, which constitute the heart of the empirical tests of this paper.

**Proposition 3: Portfolio Rebalancing Measures Based on Portfolio Shares**

Denote by \( \hat{w}_2^f \) the portfolio weight induced by passively holding the previous period 1 portfolio. \( \hat{w}_2^f = w_1^f \left( \frac{1+r^f_2}{1+r^h_2} \right) \), where \( r^f_2 \) represents the home investor’s total portfolio return (between dates 1 and 2), while \( r^h_2 \) and \( r^f_2 \) denote the return on his home and foreign investment component, respectively. We define a measure of ‘active rebalancing’ from foreign to domestic equity for the home country investor as

\[
RB^f = w_2^f - \hat{w}_2^f,
\]

where \( w_2^f = x_2^fE_2^fP_2^f/(x_2^hP_2^h + x_2^fE_2^fP_2^f) \) denotes the foreign portfolio weight for an optimal rebalanced allocation at the beginning of period 2. The model implies a negative covariance between \( RB^f \) and the return differential \( r^f_2 - r^h_2 \), that is

\[
CovRB^f, r^f_2 - r^h_2 < 0.
\]

**Proof:** For the derivation see Appendix.

The active rebalancing measure \( RB^f \) is intuitive. If the return on the foreign share of the portfolio \( r^f_2 \) is higher than the return on the total portfolio \( r^p_2 \) then the share of foreign assets in the portfolio increases automatically and such ‘passive weight changes’ are not captured in the measure \( RB^f \). If investors pursue a passive holding strategy, then the new foreign portfolio share in period 2 follows as \( w_2^f = \hat{w}_2^f \). In this case the active rebalancing measure \( RB^f \) is zero. Active rebalancing into home equity implies \( RB^f < 0 \) and occurs for foreign market excess returns, whenever \( r^f_2 - r^h_2 > 0 \). The international equity fund manager rebalances out of foreign equities into domestic equities whenever the foreign component of their portfolio outperforms the domestic component. Intuitively, the exposure of international equity managers to exchange rate risk increases as the weight of foreign securities increases. Rebalancing towards domestic equity decreases the exchange rate exposure. This behavior corresponds to the negative covariance between \( RB^f \) and \( r^f_2 - r^h_2 \).

A positive covariance by contrast would imply a change in weights that further increases exchange rate exposure after such exposure has increased due to valuation effects.

Even more finely, we can decompose the return vector denominated in home currency \( R \) into a pure equity return vector denominated in local currency \( R^{Eq} \) and the complementary exchange rate vector \( R^{Fx} = R - R^{Eq} \). The covariance matrix can then be decomposed into the pure equity covariance and into a complementary exchange rate covariance matrix, that is

\[
\mathcal{E}_t(RR^T) = \Omega_t = \Omega_t^{Eq} + \Omega_t^{Fx},
\]
where we define

\[ \Omega^E_t = \mathcal{E}_t(R^E(R^E)^T); \quad \Omega^{Fx}_t = \mathcal{E}_t(R^{Fx}(R^{Fx})^T) + \mathcal{E}_t(R^F(R^{Fx})^T) + \mathcal{E}_t(R^{Fx}(R^{Fx})^T) \]

The total portfolio risk of an international investor and the exchange rate component can be defined as

\[ \text{Risk}(w_t) = w_t \Omega_t w_t^T; \quad \text{Risk}^{Fx}(w_t) = w_t \Omega^{Fx}_t w_t^T, \]

correspondingly. We can now characterize rebalancing behavior based on portfolio risk as follows:

**Proposition 4: Portfolio Rebalancing Measures Based on Portfolio Risk**

We denote by \( w_1 = (w^h_1, w^f_1) \) the initial portfolio weights in period 1, \( \tilde{w}_2 = (\tilde{w}^h_2, \tilde{w}^f_2) \) the portfolio weights of the home investor resulting from a passive investment strategy in period 2 and by \( w_2 = (w^h_2, w^f_2) \) the actual portfolio weights in period 2. The passive risk changes (without rebalancing) between period 1 and 2 are given by

\[ \Delta \text{Risk}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1) = \tilde{w}_2 \Omega_2 \tilde{w}_2^T - w_1 \Omega_1 w_1^T; \quad \Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1) = \tilde{w}_2 \Omega^{Fx}_2 \tilde{w}_2^T - w_1 \Omega^{Fx}_1 w_1^T, \]

(1)

where the first expression corresponds to the total portfolio risk while the second expression accounts for changes in foreign exchange risk only. Active risk changes due to optimal portfolio management are given by

\[ \Delta \text{Risk}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2) = w_2 \Omega_2 w_2^T - \tilde{w}_2 \Omega_2 \tilde{w}_2^T; \quad \Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2) = w_2 \Omega^{Fx}_2 w_2^T - \tilde{w}_2 \Omega^{Fx}_2 \tilde{w}_2^T, \]

(2)

Risk rebalancing implies a negative covariance between passive and active weight changes

\[ \text{Cov} [\Delta \text{Risk}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2), \Delta \text{Risk}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1)] < 0 \]
\[ \text{Cov} [\Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2), \Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1)] < 0, \]

for total risk and exchange rate risk rebalancing, respectively.

**Proof:** For the derivation see Appendix.

The model predicts that any risk increase of a passive strategy should be counterbalanced by active weight changes inducing a portfolio risk reduction. Hence the negative covariance.

### 3 Data

A data set of global equity holdings from Thomson Financial Securities (TFS) is used to explore the theoretical predictions. The data documents individual mutual fund and other institutional holdings at the stock level. TFS itself was created by the merger of The Investext Group, Security Data Company and
CDA/Spectrum. Our data covers the five year period 1997 to 2002 and has therefore an interesting cross sectional and time series dimension. This key distinctive feature allows us to investigate portfolio dynamics as opposed to static allocations.\(^\text{16}\)

The TFS holding data comprise fund number, fund name, management company name, country code of the fund incorporation, stock identifier, country code of the stock, stock position (number of stocks held), reporting dates for which holding data is available, security price on the reporting date and the security price on the closest previous days in case the reporting date had no price information on the security, total return index (including dividend reinvestments) in local currency, and daily dollar exchange rates for all investment destinations. Most funds report only with a frequency of 6 months. This suggests that the analysis is best carried out at a semi-annual frequency. Reporting dates differ somewhat, but more than 90 percent of the reporting occurs in the last 30 days of each half-year. Roughly a third of the funds also report on a quarterly frequency and a still smaller percentage at the monthly frequency. Moving to quarterly or monthly reporting frequency implies a substantial sample reduction.

A limitation of the data is that they do not include any information on cash holdings, financial leverage, investments in fixed income instruments or investments in derivative contracts. All the portfolio characteristics we calculate therefore concern only the equity proportion of a fund’s investment. We believe that missing cash holdings in home currency or financial leverage are not a major concern for our analysis, since leverage simply implies a scaling of the absolute risk by a leverage factor. All our analysis is based on portfolio shares and therefore not affected by leverage decisions which scale the absolute risk but do not alter the unit risk based on portfolio shares.\(^\text{17}\) A more serious concern is that funds may carry out additional hedging operations which escape our inference. In spite of this data shortcoming, we believe that the analysis is still informative. As documented in previous surveys (Levich et al. (1999)), most mutual funds do not engage in any derivative trading and their equity position may therefore represent an accurate representation of their risk taking. We also note that any additional hedging is likely to attenuate rebalancing and therefore bias the predicted negative correlation towards zero.

To keep the data processing manageable, we focus our analysis on funds domiciled in four geographic regions, namely the United States (US), Canada (CA), United Kingdom (UK) and the Euro area (EU).\(^\text{18}\).

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\(^{16}\) Other papers using disaggregated data on international institutional investors holdings albeit with a different focus are Chan et al. (2005) who look at the determinants of static allocations at the country level and Covrig, Fontaine, Jimenez-Garcia and Seasholes (2007) who studies the effect of information asymmetries on home bias. Broner, Gelos and Reinhart (2006) is an interesting study which focuses on country allocations of emerging market funds and looks at channels of crisis transmission. They present a model with time varying risk aversion which predicts in particular that overexposed investors tend to revert to the market portfolio in crisis times. They assume, in the absence of stock level data, that funds hold a portfolio well proxied by the IFC US$ total return investable index. Our empirical exercise and focus is very different. Our sample is not restricted to emerging market funds nor to aggregate return indices. It is also much larger. The total capitalization of the funds under study in Broner et al. (2006) is $120 bn at the end of their sample in 2000 while our sample totals around $3,000 bn in market capitalization that year. Froot, O’Connell and Seasholes (2001) is a high frequency study based on the transaction data of one global custodian (State Street Bank & Trust). They look at the effect of aggregate cross country flows on MSCI country returns. Our study focuses on a different time scale (semester instead of daily frequency) and uses a whole cross section of fund specific investment decisions and stock level data. For a high frequency study linking exchange rates to aggregated institutional investors flows using State Street Bank & Trust data see Froot and Ramadorai (2005).

\(^{17}\) This argument is only valid for home currency cash and cannot be maintained if cash is held in foreign currency. In the latter case the exchange rate risk alters the risk features of the portfolio.

\(^{18}\) Ireland, Finland, France, Greece, Germany, Austria, Netherlands, Italy, Belgium, Luxembourg, Portugal, Spain.
These locations represent 88 percent of all semi-annual fund reports in our data and constitute 91 percent of all reported positions. Euro area funds are pooled together because of their common currency after 1999 and very little relative exchange rate movement in 1997 to 1999. In order to reduce data outliers and limit the role of reporting errors, a number of data filters are employed:

- We retain holding data only from the last reporting date of a fund in half-year. Fund holdings are only taken into account for reporting dates within the last 100 days of the half-year. A fund has to feature in two consecutive half-year periods in order to be retained. Consecutive reporting dates are a pre-requisite for the dynamic inference in this paper. The first reporting half-year to be retained is 1998.\(^{19}\)

- Funds are retained if their total asset holding exceeds 10 million U.S. Dollars. Smaller funds might represent incubator funds and other non-representative entities.

- We retain only international funds which hold at least 5 stocks in the domestic currency and at least 5 stocks in another currency area. This excludes all funds with less than 10 stock positions and also purely domestic or purely international funds. International rebalancing for the latter might be incompatible with the fund investment objective.\(^{20}\)

- Non-diversified funds with extreme investment biases in very few stocks are also ignored. We consider a fund diversified if fund weights produce a Herfindahl-Hirschman index below 20 percent.

- We discard funds if their return on combined equity holdings exceed 200 percent or if they lose more than 50 percent of their equity holdings over a half-year. Individual stock observations are ignored if they feature extreme half-annual returns which exceed 500 percent or below \(-80\) percent.\(^{21}\)

To start we examine the representativeness of our disaggregated data set. For this purpose we compute the correlations statistics of aggregate destination country holdings in our sample with the aggregate cross-country holdings data of the Coordinated Portfolio Investment Survey of the IMF. The CPIS data have been systematically collected since 2001 and constitute the best measures we have of aggregate cross-country asset holdings. The correlations of our holdings with the CPIS geographical distribution\(^{22}\) are very high as shown in Table 1. They range from 0.73 for Euro area funds to 0.99 for Canadian funds. The high correlations for both years suggests that our sample is representative of foreign equity positions in the world economy.

Next, we document the summary statistics for the fund holding data according to fund domicile. In Table 2, Panel A, we report by half-year the number of funds in each fund domicile, the number of equity positions and their aggregate market value. The sample period extends over 10 half-years from 1998/1 to 2002/2.

\(^{19}\)Very few holdings were reported in the first semester of 1997. The first sizeable combination of consecutive reporting dates is therefore 1997/2 and 1998/1 which is reported under 1998/1.

\(^{20}\)We are also unable to capture any ‘household rebalancing’ which might consist in rebalancing out of foreign country funds into purely domestic equity funds.

\(^{21}\)We discard less than 1 percent of the observations this way. Extreme return values may be attributable to data errors.

\(^{22}\)These correlations have been computed on foreign holdings only and do not include zeros. Adding investments into the domestic markets would push these correlations even higher.
The number of funds in the sample generally increased over time. For example, for the U.S. in 2002, first half-year, we have 1422 funds with a total of 390,849 stock positions valued at around $1,658 billion. For the same half-year, the European fund sample comprises 1,782 funds, and their aggregate holding amounts to only $205 billion. While the U.S. and European fund sample contain roughly the same number of fund periods, both the number of equity positions and the aggregate fund value over all half-years is considerably higher for the U.S. funds. In Panel B, we report the total investment over the period 1998-2002 by investment destination, broken up into U.S., Euro area, U.K., Canada, other OECD economies, off-shore markets and emerging markets. As expected, our data show a clear home bias and sizable cross-country investments among the more developed economies.

4 Empirical analysis

The main contribution of this paper is to document the dynamics of portfolios induced by valuation changes using microeconomic data across a broad sample of funds and countries. Using disaggregated data allows for a more precise identification of portfolio rebalancing both in response to equity risk and to exchange rate risk. Section 4.1 examines rebalancing evidence based on the time series of the foreign portfolio share. Rebalancing out of foreign equity is an implicit risk reduction due to a decrease in exchange rate risk exposure. In Section 4.2, we analyze fund portfolio risk measures. Rebalancing is defined here as the reversal of portfolio risk changes. Section 4.3 introduces a new stock level risk measure, the marginal risk contribution of a stock to the total portfolio risk and studies its dynamics.

4.1 Foreign Portfolio Share Rebalancing

According to proposition 3, domestic and foreign equity are imperfect substitutes because of differences in exchange rate risk exposure for the home and foreign investors. If exchange rate risk is imperfectly traded, equity holdings themselves dynamically reflects this lack of substitutability. In particular, a relative increase in the value of the foreign portfolio share triggers a rebalancing in favor of domestic equity and vice versa. The rebalancing behavior reflects the desire of investors to partly offset exogenous changes in exchange rate risk exposure. The domestic investor is not exposed to exchange rate risk and therefore accommodates the rebalancing desire of the foreign investor. But do fund managers indeed sell foreign equities whenever foreign holdings outperform the domestic part of their portfolio in order to decrease their exposure to exchange rate risk? In order to answer this question, we measure portfolio rebalancing by computing the active rebalancing statistic \( RB_f \) of proposition 3. It compares the actual foreign equity weights to those implied by a simple holding strategy which induces weight changes stemming only from valuation effects. A negative rebalancing statistic implies an active decrease of the foreign equity weight in the portfolio, while a positive rebalancing statistic indicates an active increase in foreign exchange rate exposure. Let the portfolio weight of foreign

23The off-shore markets in our sample are Bermuda, Cayman Islands, Netherlands Antilles, Bahamas, Belize, British and US Virgin Islands, Jersey, Guernsey, Liechtenstein, Puerto Rico and the Dominican Republic.
securities at date \( t \) in the portfolio of fund \( j \) be denoted by \( w_{j,t}^f \). Formally, the active rebalancing statistic for fund \( j \) is defined as

\[
RB_{j,t}^f = w_{j,t}^f - \hat{w}_{j,t}^f \quad \text{with} \quad \hat{w}_{j,t}^f = w_{j,t-1}^f \left( \frac{1 + r_{f,j,t}^p}{1 + r_{h,j,t}^p} \right),
\]

where \( r_{f,j,t} \) represents the total portfolio return and \( r_{f,j,t}^f \) the return on the foreign component of the portfolio of fund \( j \) between dates \( t - 1 \) and \( t \). Furthermore,

\[
w_{j,t}^f = \sum_{s=1}^{N_j} 1_{s=f} \times w_{s,j,t-1},
\]

where \( 1_{s=f} \) is a dummy variable which is 1 if stock \( s \) is a foreign stock and 0 otherwise. Figure 1 illustrate the distribution of the rebalancing measure for each of the 4 fund domiciles. We graph the realized foreign portfolio share \( w_{j,t}^f \) of each fund against the implied share \( \hat{w}_{j,t}^f \) under a passive holding strategy. The vertical distance of any fund observation from the 45 degree line measures active portfolio management \( RB_{j,t}^f \) for the respective fund. Fund rebalancing over a half-year has a standard deviation of 8 percent for the full sample of 26,436 fund periods as stated in Table 3. It is highest for Euro area funds at 10 percent and lowest for the U.K. and U.S. funds at 5.5 and 6.1 percent, respectively. The lower variation for both the U.K. and the U.S. follow from a strong foreign investment bias for U.K. funds and a strong home bias for U.S. funds. By contrast, the E.U. fund sample is more evenly distributed in terms of its foreign investment share, which leaves more scope for valuation effects and consecutive rebalancing.

The total portfolio return \( r_{j,t}^P \) on fund \( j \) is defined as

\[
r_{j,t}^P = \sum_{i=1}^{N_j} w_{i,j,t-1}^i r_{i,t},
\]

where \( r_{i,t} \) is the return on security \( i \) and \( N_j \) is the total number of stocks in the portfolio of fund \( j \). The foreign and domestic return components of the portfolio are defined as

\[
\begin{align*}
{r}_{j,t}^f &= \sum_{s=1}^{N_j} \frac{w_{s,j,t-1}}{w_{j,t-1}} r_{s,t}^f \times 1_{s=f} & \quad {r}_{j,t}^h &= \sum_{s=1}^{N_j} \frac{w_{s,j,t-1}}{w_{j,t-1}} r_{s,t}^h \times 1_{s=h}.
\end{align*}
\]

As a test of the rebalancing hypothesis, we regress the portfolio rebalancing measure on the excess return of the foreign part of the portfolio over the home part of the portfolio, that is

\[
RB_{j,t}^f = c_j + \alpha \left[ {r}_{j,t-k}^f - {r}_{j,t-k}^h \right]_{k=0,1} + \beta D_t + \varepsilon_{j,t},
\]

where \( k = 0 \) represents instantaneous rebalancing and \( k = 1, 2, 3... \) captures delayed portfolio reallocations. Time dummies \( D_t \) capture all common reallocations in each period which are not related to relative return differences and \( c_j \) represents a fund fixed effect. For the half-annual data in our data set, we restrict the analysis to \( k = 0 \) and \( k = 1 \). The rebalancing hypothesis outlined in the model implies a negative regression
coefficient ($\alpha < 0$). Note that a passive buy and hold strategy of an index produces $RB^f_{j,t} = 0$ and should imply a zero coefficient.

Table 4 reports the regressions results for funds from the United States (US), Canada (CA), the United Kingdom (UK) and Euro area (EU), respectively, as well as the pooled regression results. The baseline regression with contemporaneous returns ($k = 0$) yields a statistically significant negative coefficient for all the geographic areas. The results are very robust and hold when we include time fixed effects and fund fixed effects as well as the lagged dependant variable. The strongest rebalancing is found for Canadian and Euro area funds with coefficients of $-8.99$ and $-6.00$, respectively. We note that such rebalancing generates important aggregate capital flows if the home and foreign market show pronounced performance differences. An excess performance of the foreign portfolio share by 10 percent implies a 0.466 ($= .10 \times 4.66$) percent aggregate shift towards domestic holdings in the pooled sample (our preferred specification includes time, country and funds fixed effects). Applied to an aggregate foreign equity position of 4 trillion U.S. dollars, the corresponding equity flow amounts to around 18.6 billion U.S. dollars. US TIC data show that on average net purchases of foreign equities by US investors over the period 1998-2002 amount in absolute value to approximately 28.9 billions per semester. Thus the portfolio rebalancing channel generates economically significant international equity flows.

It is also interesting to explore the possible asymmetries in the rebalancing behavior of international investors. For this purpose, we split the sample into negative and positive excess returns and estimate separate regression coefficients $\alpha^+$ and $\alpha^-$ for positive and negative return differentials. Formally, we have

$$RB^f_{j,t} = c_j + \alpha^+ [r^f_{j,t} - r^h_{j,t}] \times 1_{\Delta r \geq 0} + \alpha^- [r^f_{j,t} - r^h_{j,t}] \times 1_{\Delta r < 0} + \beta D_t + \epsilon_{j,t},$$

where $1_{\Delta r \geq 0}$ represents a dummy which is equal to 1 whenever the foreign excess return $\Delta r = r^f_{j,t-k} - r^h_{j,t-k} \geq 0$ and 0 otherwise. The complementary dummy marking negative foreign excess returns is given by $1_{\Delta r < 0}$. Both coefficients are generally negative for all geographical areas, but rebalancing appears to be stronger for an overexposure to exchange rate risk than for an underexposure except for the U.K. funds. In the pooled sample, the rebalancing coefficient for positive foreign excess performance is at $-6.79$, almost twice as negative as the $-3.37$ in case of negative foreign underperformance. The equity capital repatriation effect is quantitatively stronger than the capital expatriation effect.\(^{25}\)

Looking only at contemporaneous rebalancing ($k = 0$) may underestimate the permanent effect of return differentials on capital reallocation. Some rebalancing might occur with a time lag. Columns (3), (7), (11), and (15) show that the lagged return differentials ($k = 1$) are also statistically significant for all four

\(^{24}\)The Bureau of Economic Analysis of the U.S. Department of Commerce reports in International Economic Accounts private corporate stock holdings of U.S. residents in foreign companies of 4.2 trillion U.S. dollars for year end 2006.

\(^{25}\)We also ran the following regressions

$$RB^f_{j,t} = c + \alpha [r^f_{j,t-k} - r^h_{j,t-k}] + \beta D_t + \epsilon_{j,t},$$

that is we allowed for different coefficients on the domestic and the foreign returns. We found that both coefficients $\alpha$ and $\gamma$ are significant, of the expected sign and of similar magnitude ($-4.7$ and $5.4$ respectively for the pooled sample for $k = 0$ and $-2.6$ and $3.1$ respectively for the pooled sample for $k = 1$ ).
fund locations, though of smaller magnitude. Using lagged returns also has the advantage of controlling for potential measurement errors. The implied foreign share $w_{j,t}$ on the left-hand-side uses (by construction) the returns on the foreign portfolio share $r_{f,j,t}$ and the return on the total portfolio $r_{P,j,t}$ (linear combination of $r_{f,j,t}$ and $r_{h,j,t}$), which are also part of the a right-hand-side regressor (with opposite sign). Mismeasurement of $r_{f,j,t}$ or $r_{h,j,t}$ may therefore generate a spurious negative coefficient estimate $\alpha$ for the contemporaneous regression ($k = 0$), but not for the lagged return differential ($k = 1$). An additional robustness check consists in an IV regression, where we use lagged foreign excess returns $r_{f,j,t-1}$ interacted with fixed time and domicile dummies as instruments.\(^{26}\) The IV regression confirms statistically negative coefficients for both the U.S. and Canadian samples (not reported). However, standard errors are inconclusively large for the U.K. and European fund samples (not reported). The IV regression for the pooled sample yields a coefficient estimate $\alpha_{IV} = -4.83$ which is negative and highly significant. We note that both OLS regressions with lagged regressors and the IV regressions are immune to any simultaneity problem since realized returns between date $t - 2$ and $t - 1$ are used to account for rebalancing between date $t - 1$ and $t$. The equity flows induced by portfolio rebalancing after date $t - 1$ cannot drive the lagged return changes. Rather they are a response to the returns realizations.

As an additional robustness check, we include a lagged dependent variable $RB_{f,j,t-1}$ as additional regressor. To obtain consistent estimates under the short time span of the panel data, we use the Arellano Bond estimator. It corroborates the previous results (columns 4, 8, 12, 16, 24). The coefficient estimate of $-0.12$ for the lagged term (column 24) shows that foreign portfolio share rebalancing is highly persistent and that only 12 percent is reversed in the next semester.

It is also interesting to compare our results to the rebalancing regressions pertaining to risky and riskless holdings of Swedish households in Calvet et al. (2009) by relating the active change in the foreign share on the passive change. They found that Swedish households offset about 50 percent of the passive change in risky share of their portfolio. Interestingly, we find a number which is similar in magnitude, i.e. that international equity funds offset about a third of any passive change in foreign equity share through active rebalancing (see columns 25 and 26).

The rebalancing model developed in section 2 does not allow for expected returns that would change because of realized returns. All the effects come from realized values in our model, which are exogenous from the point of view of the investor and given time invariant expected returns. The hypothesis we maintain in the empirical exercise is therefore that time varying expected returns enter the error term and are uncorrelated with the realized excess return. Note that if changes in expected returns were positively correlated with current realized excess returns, then this would bias the results against finding a negative correlation. Only in the case where changes in expectations are negatively correlated with current realized excess returns could we get a potentially spurious negative coefficient. However, the regressions based on lagged returns or the IV specification should still produce the correct coefficient as long as changes in expected returns are

\(^{26}\)Using only time and domicile dummies as instruments (no fund specific variable) gives qualitatively similar results.
uncorrelated with the lagged returns or with the instruments.\textsuperscript{27}

4.2 Risk Rebalancing at the Fund Level

In this section we take up the formidable computational challenge of computing \textit{fund portfolio risk measures}, i.e. risk measures based on the variance covariance matrix of each fund specific stock holdings. While the previous section proxied exchange rate risk with the foreign portfolio share, we now measure risk directly based on the estimated covariance matrix of each fund portfolio. Proposition 4 states that active rebalancing should produce a portfolio risk change which counteracts any passive risk change due to valuation effects. Testing proposition 4 is a daunting task. The portfolio risk needs to be calculated for approximately 20,000 fund periods with each fund period requiring the data input from a set of approximately 30,000 different international stocks. We use an algorithm to construct a data base with daily equity return and exchange rate data for each fund period. The covariance estimation for the half-year \( t \) is based on daily returns over the three preceding half-year periods \( S = \{ t - 1, t - 2, t - 3 \} \). A typical covariance element is therefore estimated using approximately \( n = 380 \) daily return observations. We calculate the historical sample covariance matrix \( \hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1} \) for fund \( j \) using the vector of (log) daily equity returns \( R_s = R_{Eq}^s + R_{Fx}^s \). It is expressed in home (fund domicile) currency and corresponds (in its stock ordering) to the vector of portfolio weights \( w_{j,t} \). Equity returns are measured as ‘total returns’ and generally account for stocks splits and dividend reinvestment. We separately estimate a second covariance matrix \( \hat{\Omega}_{Eq,j,t-1} \) based on equity returns \( R_{Eq}^s \) in local currency. The exchange rate risk covariance matrix \( \hat{\Omega}_{Fx,j,t-1} \) then represents the complementary matrix in the decomposition

\[
\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1} = \hat{\Omega}_{Eq,j,t-1} + \hat{\Omega}_{Fx,j,t-1},
\]

where

\[
\hat{\Omega}_{Eq,j,t-1} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s \in S} R_{Eq}^s (R_{Eq}^s)^T,
\]

\[
\hat{\Omega}_{Fx,j,t-1} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s \in S} R_{Fx}^s (R_{Eq}^s)^T + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s \in S} R_{Eq}^s (R_{Fx}^s)^T + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s \in S} R_{Fx}^s (R_{Fx}^s)^T.
\]

The covariances \( \hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1} \) and \( \hat{\Omega}_{Eq,j,t-1} \) are identical under the assumption that all exchange rates are constant. The covariance matrix \( \hat{\Omega}_{Fx,j,t-1} \) therefore captures the portfolio risk due to exchange rate movements.

We apply the same data filters with respect to the fund data as in the previous section on share rebalancing measures. However, estimating the covariance matrix for each fund poses additional challenges. In particular, the return data must be sufficiently complete. We include a matrix element in the calculation of the portfolio risk if we dispose of at least 150 non-missing return pairs of daily return observations over the 18 months data window. If too many return observations are missing, we replace the covariance element by the average covariance of the stock with all other stocks in the portfolio. Moreover, a fund is discarded from the sample

\textsuperscript{27}Note that we could have assumed a time varying expected return in the model (such as a mean reverting process for the expected returns). This would not change our results as long as all investors expected a mean reverting process from date zero. In fact in Hau and Rey (2006) we assumed Orstein Uhlenbeck processes for the returns without altering our results.
if more than 20 percent of its stocks (in terms of the fund asset value) feature incomplete return data. We found that more stringent selection criteria like a 5 percent of 10 percent threshold for data completeness did not qualitatively change the main results, even though it reduced the number of available funds observations.

In a first step we document the relationship between the foreign portfolio share of a fund and its corresponding share of FX risk. The FX risk share is formally calculated as the standard deviation of the FX risk relative to the standard deviation of total risk, hence

$$FX\ risk\ share_j = \frac{w_{j,t} \hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}^{Fx} w_{j,t}^T}{w_{j,t} \hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1} w_{j,t}^T} \times \text{sign}(w_{j,t} \hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}^{Fx} w_{j,t})$$

where \(\text{sign}\) function adjusts for the sign of the FX risk

$$w_{j,t} \hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}^{Fx} w_{j,t}^T = w_{j,t} \hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}^{Fx} - w_{j,t} \hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}^{Eq} w_{j,t}^T.$$ 

The matrix \(\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}^{Fx}\) for the exchange rate risk is symmetric, but not necessarily positive definite. In other words exchange rate exposure may make a negative contribution to overall portfolio risk. Figure 2 plots the FX risk share as a function of the foreign portfolio share \(w^f\) separately for the U.S., Canada, the U.K. and the Euro area. U.S. The FX risk share is very dispersed across different funds, though its fitted mean is generally increasing in the foreign portfolio share. There are also pronounced differences across countries. U.S. funds generally have small foreign portfolio shares and their FX risk share is close to zero. Only for a foreign portfolio share beyond 70 percent do we find an increase in the FX risk share. For the U.K. most sample funds have a foreign portfolio share between 80 and 100 percent and their mean FX risk share for those funds is above 30 percent. Canada stands out by its generally negative FX risk share which is just slowly increasing in the foreign portfolio share of a fund. Canadian funds are mostly invested in the U.S. (see Table 2). Hence their foreign exchange risk exposure is driven by the correlation between US equity returns and the Canadian dollar exchange rate. This correlation is negative at \(-0.0428\) in our sample period. Therefore the Canadian exchange rate provides a natural hedge for Canadian investors. It is worth highlighting that a low or even negative level of fund exposure to FX risk does not imply that rebalancing with respect to changes in this risk is irrelevant. Canadian funds may rebalance after an increased in their FX risk component even though the level of the FX exposure remains negative. The situation is very different for the U.K. whose exchange rate is positively correlated with U.S. returns during the same period. As a result, foreign exchange risk exposure of U.K. funds increases with their foreign portfolio share. The increase in the FX risk share as a function of the foreign portfolio share is also steep for Euro area funds. Their FX risk share reaches almost 50 percent for the funds with the largest foreign investment weights.

While the structure of equity and FX risk is interesting in its own right, our study is focused on the dynamic aspect of risk choices. To what extent are valuation related portfolio risk changes reversed by active rebalancing? In accordance with proposition 4, the empirical portfolio risk changes due to valuation
effects are defined as
\[
\Delta \text{Risk}(\hat{\omega}_{j,t}, \omega_{j,t-1}) = \hat{\omega}_{j,t}\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}\hat{\omega}_{j,t}^T - \omega_{j,t-1}\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}\omega_{j,t-1}^T \\
\Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(\hat{\omega}_{j,t}, \omega_{j,t-1}) = \hat{\omega}_{j,t}\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}^{Fx}\hat{\omega}_{j,t}^T - \omega_{j,t-1}\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}^{Fx}\omega_{j,t-1}^T 
\]
for total and FX risk, respectively; and the portfolio risks change due to rebalancing is given by
\[
\Delta \text{Risk}(\omega_{j,t}, \hat{\omega}_{j,t}) = \omega_{j,t}\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}\omega_{j,t}^T - \hat{\omega}_{j,t}\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}\hat{\omega}_{j,t}^T \\
\Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(\omega_{j,t}, \hat{\omega}_{j,t}) = \omega_{j,t}\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}^{Fx}\omega_{j,t}^T - \hat{\omega}_{j,t}\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}^{Fx}\hat{\omega}_{j,t}^T, 
\]
where \( \omega_{j,t} \) denotes the vector of weights at the end of period \( t \) for fund \( j \), respectively. The risk rebalancing hypothesis is tested through a linear regression given by
\[
\Delta \text{Risk}(\omega_{j,t}, \hat{\omega}_{j,t}) = c_j + \alpha \times \Delta \text{Risk}(\hat{\omega}_{j,t}, \omega_{j,t-k})_{k=0} + \beta D_t + \varepsilon_{j,t} \\
\Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(\omega_{j,t}, \hat{\omega}_{j,t}) = c_j + \alpha^{Fx} \times \Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(\hat{\omega}_{j,t}, \omega_{j,t-k})_{k=0} + \beta^{Fx} D_t + \varepsilon_{j,t}. 
\]
A negative coefficient \( \alpha < 0 \) indicates mean reversion for the total portfolio risk through active risk rebalancing and \( \alpha^{Fx} < 0 \) confirms active risk rebalancing for the foreign exchange rate risk component.

Table 5 reports the regression results for portfolio risk rebalancing. We report separate results for each of the four fund domiciles and pooled results in column (15). In order to reduce the importance of outliers, we eliminate the 1 percent lowest and higher observations of both the dependent and independent variables. Panel A presents evidence for the rebalancing of total risk and Panel B focuses on rebalancing for the FX risk component. All the regressions have fixed fund effects. The pooled OLS regressions in Panel A show strong evidence for a negative coefficient (see column 14 in particular). A coefficient estimate of \( \alpha = -0.32 \) (= −0.2 − 0.12) that takes into account lagged rebalancing suggests that (on average) a third of any portfolio risk change resulting from valuation effects is reversed by active rebalancing over a year. The robust standard errors of 0.03 and 0.04 on the estimate are very low, which implies a high level of statistical significance. Reported standard errors account for clustering effects at the fund level. The point estimates for the mean reversion parameter are more negative for funds domiciled in Canada and the Euro area. Only U.K. based funds provide no evidence for mean reversion of total portfolio risk. Controlling for fixed time effects slightly increases the adjusted \( R^2 \) without much impact on the respective point estimate. The evidence for exchange rate risk rebalancing in Panel B is very similar. The point estimates \( \alpha^{Fx} = -0.31 \) for the mean reversion parameter is almost identical to the parameter estimate in Panel A. Evidence in favor of FX risk rebalancing is uniform except for the U.K. The peculiar behavior of the U.K. in our sample may be linked to the very high degree of internationalization of the U.K. market with many of final securities owners not being U.K., but international investors.

An obvious concern about the regression analysis in risk changes is spurious negative correlation implied by measurement error. The term \( \hat{\omega}_{j,t}\hat{\Omega}_{j,t-1}\hat{\omega}_{j,t}^T \) represents the portfolio risk implied by a passive holding strategy and is only estimated. But it features on both the left-hand and right-hand side of the regression with opposite signs. A substantial measurement error would induce a negative estimation bias for \( \alpha \). Such
measurement error is likely to be fund specific. An instrumental variable approach allows us to obtain an unbiased parameter estimate. We use fixed time effects interacted with domicile dummies as instruments to capture the portfolio risk changes common across all funds in a given fund domicile and half-year. The F-test of the first stage regression shows that such fixed time effects provide reasonably good instruments for the U.S. and Canadian fund sample. The pooled IV regression in Panel A implies a parameter estimate of \( \alpha = -0.29 \), which is very close to the OLS estimate. Eliminating fund specific measurement error from the right-hand side of the regression by projection of the portfolio risk change into a set of aggregate fixed effects does not qualitatively change the estimation result. We therefore conclude that our negative point estimate \( \alpha \) is not due to fund specific measurement error of the portfolio risk. The corresponding IV estimates in Panel B also imply generally negative point estimates. However, the standard errors are large here given the poor quality of the instruments as indicated by the F-statistics of the first stage regression.

Next, we examine if the rebalancing effect differs across fund sizes. We classify funds above 500 millions of market capitalization as large and funds below as small. This threshold has been chosen to roughly match the median of the US sample. The OLS regressions are now repeated separately for each subsample with the coefficient estimates reported in Table 6. We find that for equity risk the rebalancing effect is generally larger for small funds. The point estimate for the pooled sample in Panel A is \( \alpha = -0.27 \) for small funds and \( \alpha = -0.07 \) for large funds (not significant). This would be consistent with the world in which large funds trade less because of higher price impact. The difference is statistically significant. Panel B shows that rebalancing with respect to FX risk are not as clear cut. The difference between small and large funds in the pooled sample is not statistically significant.

4.3 Risk Rebalancing at the Stock Level

We now study rebalancing at the stock level. To do so we introduce a new measure of risk: the marginal risk contribution of a given stock to the total portfolio risk of a fund. Like in the previous section, we use the information of the entire cross section of stock holdings of our sample. In order to reduce portfolio risk induced by valuation effects, a fund manager needs to reduce the risk contribution of certain stocks to the total portfolio risk. The marginal risk contribution of a stock will depend on its weight in the portfolio and the volatility of its return but also on the covariances of its return with the other stocks of the portfolio. We are, to our knowledge, the first ones to estimate marginal risk contributions of assets, which is a measure of independent interest. Once more, however we focus on the dynamics of portfolio allocation. A passive change of the marginal risk contribution (due to valuation effects) of stock \( i \) in portfolio \( j \) is defined as \( \Delta M \text{Risk}(i, \tilde{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1}) = (\tilde{\Omega}_{j,t-1})_{ii} (\tilde{w}_{j,t} - w_{j,t-1})^T \), where \( (\tilde{\Omega}_{j,t-1})_{ii} \) denotes row \( i \) of the variance covariance matrix \( \tilde{\Omega}_{j,t-1} \) for fund \( j \). Active portfolio management results in marginal risk changes characterized by

\[
\Delta M \text{Risk}(i, w_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t}) = (\tilde{\Omega}_{j,t-1})_{ii} (w_{j,t} - \tilde{w}_{j,t})^T.
\]

The change in total risk of the portfolio of fund \( j \) is a weighted average of the changes in marginal risk.
contributions of all the stocks $i$ of the portfolio. Rebalancing at the fund level will therefore imply rebalancing the marginal risk of some specific stocks. Imagine there is an increase in the marginal risk contribution of a specific stock $i$, which brings about an increase in aggregate risk at the fund level. We should see the marginal risk contribution of this stock decrease as a result of active rebalancing. This may consist in either reducing the portfolio weight of stock $i$ itself or in reducing the weight of other stocks with high covariances with stock $i$. In contrast if we see an increase in the marginal risk contribution of a given stock $i$ but at the same time a decrease in the aggregate portfolio risk (due to changes in marginal risks of other stocks), there is less reason to expect that active rebalancing of the marginal risk of stock $i$ will occur. Hence the magnitude of the stock level rebalancing should be conditioned by the aggregate portfolio risk change. The rebalancing in the marginal risk contribution of a stock should occur if its marginal risk change, and the portfolio risk change have the same direction and not if they have opposite directions. The following regression captures the differential rebalancing at the stock level across these different states,

$$
\Delta \text{MRisk}(i, w_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t}) = c + \alpha \times \Delta \text{MRisk}(i, \tilde{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1}) \times \\
\times \text{sign}(\Delta \text{Risk}(\tilde{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1})) \times \text{sign}(\Delta \text{MRisk}(i, \tilde{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1})) + D_t + \varepsilon_{j,i,t},
$$

where the product of the two sign functions takes the value of 1 if portfolio risk and marginal stock risk move in the same direction and $-1$ in the opposite case. We highlight that the coefficient $\alpha$ captures only differences in the mean reversion across the two conditioning states where marginal stock risk and portfolio risk move in either the same or opposite directions. Potential measurement errors in the marginal risk term $(\tilde{\Omega}_{j,t-1}) \bullet \tilde{w}_{j,t}$ would bias the coefficient estimate for $\alpha$ in each of the four sign combinations towards a negative value, but not the differences in the mean reversion across the two states captured by the product of the sign functions. This stock level regression specification based on mean reversion differences should therefore be very robust to concern about measurement errors.

The evidence for marginal stock risk rebalancing is presented in Table 7. Panel A provides the regression results for total risk and Panel B for the marginal FX risk. We present again separate regression results for each fund domicile and split the regressor into the four conditional components: The dummy variables $1_{\Delta \text{Risk}(\tilde{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1}) \geq 0}$ and $1_{\Delta \text{Risk}(\tilde{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1}) < 0}$ mark a portfolio risk increase and decrease, respectively. Similarly, we define dummies $1_{\Delta \text{MRisk}(i, \tilde{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1}) \geq 0}$ and $1_{\Delta \text{MRisk}(i, \tilde{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1}) < 0}$ which condition on a marginal risk increase or decrease in stock $i$, respectively. The pooled results in Panel A, column (9) show very strong rebalancing in the case where marginal stock risk and portfolio risk both increase. The coefficient estimate of $\alpha = -0.85$ implies that most of the marginal risk increase of valuation effects is reversed by active portfolio management if overall portfolio risk increases. A high negative coefficient of $\alpha = -0.45$ is also obtained for a marginal risk decrease combined with an overall portfolio risk decrease. In both cases, the direction of the marginal risk change and the portfolio risk change is the same and the product of the two sign functions is $1$. The case where the two sign functions have opposite signs provides no evidence for rebalancing. The coefficient estimates here are significantly positive. The results are qualitatively similar across all 4 fund
domiciles. The second regression for each fund domicile uses the sign function and therefore captures the difference in the mean reversion of marginal risk changes. The point estimates are uniformly negative at high levels of statistical significance. A qualitatively similar picture is obtained for the marginal FX risk rebalancing documented in Panel B. Some of the point estimates for marginal risk reversion are lower than 1. The pooled regression in Panel B, column (9) for example yields a point estimate of $\alpha = -1.19$ for the state $\Delta Risk(\hat{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1}) \geq 0$ and $\Delta MRisk(i, \hat{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1}) \geq 0$. This implies that not only the marginal risk increase due to the valuation effect is completely reversed, but that the portfolio manager reduces the marginal risk contribution in stock $i$ further conditional on an overall portfolio risk decrease. The quantitatively strongest effects for marginal FX risk rebalancing are found for funds from the U.K. and the Euro area. Both feature a relatively large FX risk share compared to funds in the U.S. and Canada.

4.4 Alternative interpretations

Our empirical results provide strong support in favour of portfolio rebalancing. Can the observed rebalancing result from a simple behavioral hypothesis? One such behavioral hypothesis concerns “profit taking” on appreciating stocks. Fund managers might sell stocks once a certain target price is reached. The evidence presented here reflects the decisions of investment professionals who should be less prone to behavioral biases compared to households. But we can identify two additional aspects of the data which cannot be easily reconciled with a “profit taking motive” as explanatory alternative. First, this behavioral hypothesis does not explain why funds buy foreign shares when they underperform domestic holdings as documented in section 4.1. Second, the “profit taking motive” evaluates each stock in isolation from the other portfolio assets unlike the risk based paradigm. In this context the stock level evidence in section 4.3 becomes important. A central finding there is that individual stock rebalancing is explained by the interaction of the marginal risk change of stock and the portfolio risk change. What happens to the remaining portfolio therefore enters into the rebalancing decision for the individual stock. The latter finding cannot be obtained from stock specific selling targets.

A second alternative interpretation concerns exogenous investment policies and mandates for the funds. Could the observed rebalancing behavior result from investment policies which commit a fund to a certain range of foreign stock ownership? French and Poterba (1991) note that funds mandates are an unlikely explanation for the home bias in equity. This does not preclude their greater importance for the rebalancing dynamics documented in this paper. To the extent that such mandates exist, we can interpret them as reflecting risk management objectives of the ultimate fund investors. As such they can be interpreted as direct evidence for limited asset substitutability and support rather than contradict the main message of the paper. But rationalizing such mandates in the context of agency problems is beyond the scope of this paper. Distinguishing between mandated rebalancing and autonomous fund based rebalancing presents an interesting issue for future research. In order to make progress on these issues we doubtless need a better theoretical understanding of delegated investment strategies and one which is compatible with the stylized
facts that we uncover in this paper: large heterogeneity of portfolios as measured by domestic and foreign weights or exposure to exchange rate and equity risk. Modelling financial intermediaries more realistically is an important agenda for future research.

5 Conclusions

International capital flows and returns are two key variables in international macroeconomics. We use new data on the stock allocations of approximately 6,500 international equity funds from four different currency areas over 5 years to study the time series properties of portfolio weights following valuation changes. Portfolio rebalancing due to equity risk as well as exchange rate risk is tested at the fund and stock level using a variety of measures. We introduce two new empirical measures of risk, fund level portfolio risk measures and stock level marginal risk contribution measures. We find evidence supporting rebalancing of the foreign portfolio share as well as rebalancing based on portfolio risk and stock risk measures. Fund managers tend to revert towards their preferred risk exposure instead of increasing the weights of appreciating assets. Active risk rebalancing reverses about a third of the risk change due to valuation effects in the course of a year. Corresponding aggregate capital flows are economically significant. Our measures concern both changes of the total equity risk as well as its FX component. We also find that equity risk rebalancing is larger for smaller funds. Both small funds and large funds engage in foreign exchange risk rebalancing. The estimated magnitude of portfolio rebalancing can therefore generate sizeable macroeconomic equity flows.

The micro-evidence on fund level rebalancing is consistent with international asset pricing effects like the ‘equity parity condition’ found in the recent literature (see Hau and Rey (2006)). Evidence on portfolio rebalancing underscores the importance of imperfect international asset substitutability and casts new light on the international financial adjustment mechanism. The short and medium term adjustment to trade imbalance seems to rely to a considerable degree on valuation effects (see Gourinchas and Rey (2007) or Fratscher et al. (2007a)), which can only exist if assets are imperfect substitutes. Increasing holdings in dollar denominated assets by foreign investors go hand in hand with a dollar depreciation. A depreciating dollar lowers the foreign investors’ portfolio weight in U.S. assets and represents the adjustment to the new asset market equilibrium (see Blanchard et al. (2005) for a formal macroeconomic presentation of such a dynamics). A strong valuation channel for the process of external adjustment is therefore complementary to the evidence for portfolio rebalancing presented in this paper. Overall, we hope our empirical findings will be a useful guide for macroeconomic research aimed at developing richer and empirically relevant microfounded open economy models with endogenous portfolio choice such as Devereux and Sutherland (2009b) or Tille and Van-Wincoop (2007). We also hope that the stylized facts we uncover on individual funds portfolios will be useful for the growing literature that aims at modelling financial intermediation.
References


Froot, Kenneth and Tarun Ramadorai, “Currency returns, intrinsic value and institutional investor


Appendix

Proof of Proposition 1.

The notations mark with an overbar \( X \) the steady state value of a variable \( X \). Variables referring to the foreign country are denoted by a star (*). The investment problem is strictly symmetric for the home and foreign investors in period 1. Hence, we can assume that the equilibrium in period 1 coincides with the steady state, that is \( P^h_1 = P^f_1 = \bar{F}_1 \) and \( E_1 = \bar{E}_1 = 1 \) since final payoffs \( V^h + d^h \) and \( V^f + d^f \) have identical distributions. Symmetric holdings imply \( x^h_1 = x^{f*}_1 \) and \( x^f_1 = x^{h*}_1 \). The returns for the home investor follow as

\[
R^h = P^h_3 - (1 + r)\bar{F}_1; \quad R^f = P^f_3 E_3 - (1 + r)\bar{F}_1 \bar{E}_1,
\]

and linearizing the second equation around the steady state gives

\[
R^f = E_3 + P^f_3 - (1 + r)\bar{F} - E_3 \bar{P}_3
\]

It is straightforward to derive the period 1 holdings as

\[
x^h_1 = x^{f*}_1 = \frac{E_1(P^h_1 - (1 + r)\bar{F}_1)}{\rho(\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_i)}
\]

\[
x^f_1 = x^{h*}_1 = \frac{E_1(E_3 + P^f_3 - (1 + r)\bar{F}_1 - 1)}{\rho(\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_i + \sigma^2)}
\]

or

\[
x^h_1 = x^{f*}_1 = \frac{1 - (1 + r)\bar{F}_1}{\rho(\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_i)} = \frac{\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_i + \sigma^2}{2\sigma^2_d + 2\sigma^2_i + \sigma^2}
\]

\[
x^f_1 = x^{h*}_1 = \frac{1 - (1 + r)\bar{F}_1}{\rho(\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_i + \sigma^2)} = \frac{\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_i}{2\sigma^2_d + 2\sigma^2_i + \sigma^2}
\]

where we substituted the solution for \( \bar{F}_1 \) obtained from equity market clearing as

\[
1 = \frac{1 - (1 + r)\bar{F}_1}{\rho(\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_i)} + \frac{1 - (1 + r)\bar{F}_1}{\rho(\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_i + \sigma^2)}
\]

\[
\bar{F}_1 = \left[ -\frac{\rho(\sigma^2_d + \sigma^2_i + \sigma^2)}{(1 + r)[2\sigma^2_d + 2\sigma^2_i + \sigma^2]} + \frac{1}{(1 + r)} \right].
\]

The term \( 1/(1 + r) \) denotes the present value of the expected liquidation value and the second term captures a price discount linear in the risk aversion \( \rho \) of the investors.

Proof of Proposition 2.

To solve for the equilibrium in period 2, we linearize again the foreign return equations to obtain

\[
R^f = \bar{P}_3 \bar{E}_3 + \bar{P}_3 (E_3 - \bar{E}_3) + \bar{E}_3 \left( P^f_3 - \bar{P}_3 \right)
\]

\[
-(1 + r) \left[ \bar{P}_2 \bar{E}_2 + \bar{P}_2 (E_2 - \bar{E}_2) + \bar{E}_2 \left( P^f_2 - \bar{P}_2 \right) \right]
\]

\[
= E_3 + P^f_3 - \bar{E}_3 \bar{P}_3 - (1 + r) \left[ \bar{P}_2 \bar{E}_2 + \bar{E}_2 \bar{P}_2 - \bar{E}_3 \bar{P}_3 \right]
\]

\[
= E_3 + P^f_3 - 1 - (1 + r) \left[ \bar{P}_2 \bar{E}_2 + \bar{E}_2 \bar{P}_2 - \bar{E}_3 \bar{P}_3 \right]
\]
Finally, market clearing in the currency market implies
\[ R^{h*} = \frac{\bar{p}_3^h}{E_3} - \frac{\bar{p}_3^f}{E_3} (E_3 - E_3) / (\bar{p}_3^f)^2 + \frac{P_3^h}{E_3} - \frac{P_3^f}{E_3} \]
\[ = - (1 + r) \left[ \frac{\bar{p}_3^h}{E_2} - \frac{P_3^h}{E_2} (E_2 - E_2) / (E_2)^2 + \frac{P_3^f}{E_2} \right]. \]

Next, we conjecture a linear solution in the two state variables \( d^h \) and \( d^f \), namely
\[ P_2^h = \bar{p}_2^h + \gamma(d^h - d^f) + \beta(d^h + d^f) \] \[ P_2^f = \bar{p}_2^f - \gamma(d^h - d^f) + \beta(d^h + d^f) \] \[ E_2 = \bar{e}_2 + \theta(d^h - d^f) \]
where \( (\gamma, \beta, \theta) \) represent coefficients to be determined using the market clearing conditions. Equity demand depends on the period 2 conditional return covariances. We note in particular that \( \text{cov}(R^{h*}, R^{f*})|d^h, d^f) = 0 \) and \( \text{cov}(R^{h*}, R^{f*})|d^h, d^f) = 0 \). The conditional return covariances therefore follow as
\[ \Omega_2 = \left( \frac{\sigma_v^2}{\sigma_v^2} \frac{0}{\sigma_v^2 + (1 + d^f)^2 \sigma_e^2} \right), \quad \Omega_2 = \left( \frac{\sigma_v^2}{\sigma_v^2 + (1 + d^h)^2 \sigma_e^2} \frac{0}{\sigma_v^2} \right). \]

Using market clearing for the equity markets, we can derive the following two equilibrium conditions for the parameters \( (\gamma, \beta, \theta) \) given by
\[ \theta = \frac{(\gamma - \beta) (2 \sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2)}{\bar{p}_2 \sigma_v^2} \]
\[ 2(1 + r)(\gamma - \beta) = \frac{\sigma_v^2}{(2 \sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2)} > 0. \]

Eq. (7) shows that \( \gamma - \beta > 0 \) and it follows from eq. (6) that \( \theta > 0 \). We can also show that \( \rho < (2 \sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2)/2 \sigma_v^2 \sigma_e^2 = \rho^* \) represents a sufficient condition for \( \frac{\rho^*}{\sigma_v^2} > \beta > 0 \) and for \( \gamma > 0 \).

For the steady state values of the asset holdings, we have
\[ x_2^h = \frac{(1 - (1 + r) \bar{p}_2)}{\rho \sigma_v^2} = \frac{\sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2}{2 \sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2} \]
\[ x_2^f = \frac{(1 - (1 + r) \bar{p}_2)}{\rho \sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2} = \frac{\sigma_v^2}{2 \sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2}, \]
where we use \( d^h = d^f = 0 \) and
\[ \bar{p}_2 = \frac{\rho (\sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2)}{(1 + r)[2 \sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2]} + \frac{1}{(1 + r)} \]
\[ = \frac{1 - (1 + r) \bar{p}_2}{\rho (\sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2)} > 0. \]

Finally, market clearing in the currency market implies
\[ (x_2^f - x_2^h) P_2^f E_2 - (x_2^h - x_2^h) P_2^h = \eta (E_2 - 1). \]

Using the linear approximation \( \bar{p}_2 E_2 (x_2^f - x_2^h) - \bar{p}_2 (x_2^h - x_2^h) = \eta (E_2 - 1) \) and \( \bar{p}_2 E_2^f x_2^f = \bar{p}_2 x_2^f \), we get
\[ (x_2^f - x_2^h) = \frac{\eta \theta (d^h - d^f)}{\bar{p}_2}, \]
with \( \eta \theta > 0 \). The relative foreign equity allocation \( (x_2^f - x_2^h) \) of the home investor is therefore reduced by
relatively higher foreign dividends, that is \((d^h-d^f) < 0\). Combining eqs. (3) and (4) to
\[
P_2^f - P_2^h = -2\gamma (d^h - d^f)
\]
implies for the covariance between differential equity price performance and the exchange rate
\[
Cov \left[ P_2^f - P_2^h, E_2 \right] = -4\gamma \theta \sigma_d^2 < 0.
\]
Generally, \(\theta > 0\) and \(\gamma > 0\) follows for sufficiently low risk aversion \(\rho < \rho^0\). Under a high risk aversion and a high exogenous exchange rate risk \(\sigma_d^2\), the risk sharing equilibrium may no longer exist if the exchange rate risk is too large relative to the risk aversion of the agents. Then the only solution is the autarky solution in which every investor only holds his home equity.

**Proof of Proposition 3: Portfolio Rebalancing Measures Based on Foreign Portfolio Shares**

The portfolio return for the home country investor can be stated as
\[
r^P = w^h r^h + (1-w^h) r^f = w^h \left[ P_2^h / P_1^h - 1 \right] + (1-w^h) \left[ E_2 P_2^f / P_1^f - 1 \right].
\]
Using the linear solution in eqs (3) to (5) and \(E_2 = 1\), we obtain
\[
r^P = \frac{P_2^f - P_1^f}{P_1^f} + \frac{1}{P_1^f} \beta (d^h + d^f) + \frac{1}{P_1^f} \left[ (1 - 2w^h)\gamma + (1 - w^h)P_2^f \right] (d^h - d^f).
\]
The home investor’s return on his foreign and domestic portfolio component is given by
\[
\begin{align*}
    r^f &= \frac{1}{P_1^f} \left[ P_2^f - P_1^f + P_2^f (E_2 - 1) \right] = \frac{P_2^f - P_1^f}{P_1^f} + \frac{1}{P_1^f} \beta (d^h + d^f) - \frac{1}{P_1^f} \left[ \gamma - P_2^f \theta \right] (d^h - d^f) \\
    r^h &= \frac{1}{P_1^f} \left[ P_2^h - P_1^h \right] = \frac{P_2^h - P_1^h}{P_1^f} + \frac{1}{P_1^f} \beta (d^h + d^f) + \frac{1}{P_1^f} \gamma (d^h - d^f),
\end{align*}
\]
respectively. The excess return of the foreign over the domestic foreign component is then
\[
r^f - r^h = -\frac{1}{P_1^f} \left[ 2\gamma - P_2^f \theta \right] (d^h - d^f).
\]
We have \(2\gamma - P_2^f \theta > 0\), because \(\theta = \frac{(\gamma - \beta) (2\sigma_d^2 + \sigma_d^2)}{P_2^f \sigma_d^2} < \gamma^0\).

News about high future foreign dividends imply high returns on the foreign equity. The term \(P_2^f \theta\) captures the diminished home currency return of the foreign country investment due to the depreciation of the foreign currency.

Next, we derive the implications for the portfolio shares of the home country investor. In period 1, we have \(P^h = P^f = P_1\) and therefore total equity wealth is \(W = P_1 (x_1^h + x_1^f)\) and the wealth shares follow as
\[
\begin{align*}
    w_1^h &= \frac{P_1 x_1^h}{P_1 (x_1^h + x_1^f)} = x_1^h \\
    w_1^f &= \frac{P_1 x_1^f}{P_1 (x_1^h + x_1^f)} = x_1^f = 1 - x_1^h.
\end{align*}
\]
Let \((\tilde{w}_2^h, \tilde{w}_2^f)\) denote the new period 2 wealth shares under the new prices, but absent any portfolio adjust-
mments. These are

\[
\hat{w}_2^h = \frac{P_2^h x_2^h}{P_2^h x_1 + P_2^f E_2 x_2^f} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P_2^f E_2 x_2^f}{P_2^h x_1}}
\]

\[
\hat{w}_2^f = \frac{P_2^f E_2 x_1^f}{P_2^h x_1 + P_2^f E_2 x_2^f} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P_2^f x_2^f}{P_2^h x_1}} = 1 - \hat{w}_2^h
\]

However, under period 2 prices, the home investor will also adjust his portfolio share. The observable wealth shares are given by

\[
w_2^h = \frac{P_2^h x_2^h}{P_2^h x_2 + P_2^f E_2 x_2^f} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P_2^f E_2 x_2^f}{P_2^h x_2}}
\]

\[
w_2^f = \frac{P_2^f E_2 x_2^f}{P_2^h x_2 + P_2^f E_2 x_2^f} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P_2^f x_2^f}{P_2^h x_2}}
\]

Linearization around \( \mathcal{T}_2^f = \mathcal{T}_1^h \) and \( E = 1 \) implies (using eq. (8))

\[
\hat{w}_2^h = \pi_1^h + \frac{\pi_1^h}{\mathcal{T}_2^f} (P_2^h - P_2^f) - \pi_1^h (E_2 - 1) = \pi_1^h + \frac{\pi_1^h}{\mathcal{T}_2^f} \left[ 2\gamma - \mathcal{T}_2^h \theta \right] (d^h - d^f)
\]

\[
= \pi_1^h - \frac{\pi_1^h}{\mathcal{T}_2^h} \left[ r^f - r^h \right]
\]

\[
\hat{w}_2^f = \pi_1^f + \frac{\pi_1^f}{\mathcal{T}_2^f} \left[ r^f - r^h \right]
\]

The terms \( w_2^h \) and \( w_2^f \) capture the total portfolio weight effect, which can be decomposed into the previous price effects \( \hat{w}_2^h \) and \( \hat{w}_2^f \) and the reallocation effects \( w_2^h - \hat{w}_2^h \) and \( w_2^f - \hat{w}_2^f \) due to changes in the holdings. Again, linearizing the total portfolio weight change effect implies

\[
w_2^h = \hat{w}_2^h + \frac{[1 - (1 + r)(\beta + \gamma)]}{\rho \sigma_V} d^h - \frac{(1 + r)(\beta - \gamma)}{\rho \sigma_V} d^f
\]

\[
w_2^f = 1 - w_2^h = \hat{w}_2^f - \frac{[1 - (1 + r)(\beta + \gamma)]}{\rho \sigma_V} d^h + \frac{(1 + r)(\beta - \gamma)}{\rho \sigma_V} d^f.
\]

The portfolio rebalancing statistics \( RB^f \) is simply given by

\[
RB^f = w_2^f - \hat{w}_2^f = -\frac{[1 - (1 + r)(\beta + \gamma)]}{\rho \sigma_V} d^h + \frac{(1 + r)(\beta - \gamma)}{\rho \sigma_V} d^f
\]

and its covariance with the foreign excess return in eq. (8) follows as

\[
Cov \left[ RB^f, r^f - r^h \right] = Cov \left[ w_2^f - \hat{w}_2^f, r^f - r^h \right] = \frac{1}{\rho \sigma_V} \left[ 2\gamma - \mathcal{T}_2^h \theta \right] \left[ 1 - (1 + r)2\gamma \right] \sigma_a^2 < 0
\]

because

\[
2\gamma - \mathcal{T}_2^h \theta > 0
\]

\[
\left[ 1 - (1 + r)2\gamma \right] = \frac{2\rho \sigma^2 \sigma_a^2 - \sigma_a^2}{(\sigma_V^2 + \sigma_a^2)^2} < 0 \text{ for } \rho < \frac{2\sigma_V^2 + \sigma_a^2}{2\sigma_V^2 \sigma_a} = \bar{\rho}.
\]

29
Proof of Proposition 4: Portfolio Rebalancing Measures Based on Portfolio Risk

For portfolio risk changes defined in eqs. (1) and (2), we have to show that

\[
\text{Cov} [\Delta \text{Risk}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2), \Delta \text{Risk}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1)] < 0
\]
\[
\text{Cov} [\Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2), \Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1)] < 0.
\]

The matrices for the portfolio risks are

\[
\Omega_1 = \begin{pmatrix}
\sigma^2 + \sigma_V^2 & 0 \\
0 & \sigma^2 + \sigma_V^2 + \sigma_e^2
\end{pmatrix}, \quad \Omega_1^* = \begin{pmatrix}
\sigma^2 + \sigma_V^2 + \sigma_e^2 & 0 \\
0 & \sigma^2 + \sigma_V^2
\end{pmatrix}
\]
\[
\Omega_2^{Fx} = \begin{pmatrix}
\sigma^2_V & 0 \\
0 & (1 + d)^2 \sigma^2_e
\end{pmatrix}, \quad \Omega_2^{Fx*} = \begin{pmatrix}
\sigma^2_V + (1 + d)^2 \sigma^2_e & 0 \\
0 & \sigma^2_V
\end{pmatrix}
\]
\[
\Omega_2^e = \begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
0 & (1 + d)^2 \sigma^2_e
\end{pmatrix}, \quad \Omega_2^{Fx*} = \begin{pmatrix}
(1 + d)^2 \sigma^2_e & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

A first order Taylor expansion around the steady state with \(d^h = d^f = 0\) gives

\[
\Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1)/\sigma^2_e = \left(\tilde{w}_2 \Omega_2^{Fx^*} \tilde{w}_2^T - w_1 \Omega_1^{Fx^*} w_1^T\right)/\sigma^2_e
\]
\[
= \left(2(\frac{\pi_1^r}{T_2})^2 + 2\pi_1^r \frac{\pi_1^r}{T_2} \left[2\gamma - F_2^r \theta\right]\right)(d^f - 0) - 2\pi_1^r \frac{\pi_1^r}{T_2} \left[2\gamma - F_2^r \theta\right](d^h - 0)
\]

\[
\Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2)/\sigma^2_e = \left(w_2 \Omega_2^{Fx^*} \tilde{w}_2^T - w_2 \Omega_2^{Fx^*} \tilde{w}_2^T\right)/\sigma^2_e
\]
\[
= -2\pi_1^r \left[1 - (1 + r)(\beta + \gamma)\right](d^h - 0) + 2\pi_1^r \frac{(1 + r)(\beta - \gamma)}{\rho \sigma^2_V}(d^f - 0).
\]

The covariance of the exchange rate risk change (around the steady state with \(d^h = d^f = 0\)) follows as

\[
\text{Cov} \left[\Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2), \Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1)\right]/\sigma^2_e = \mathcal{E} \left[\Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2) \times \Delta \text{Risk}^{Fx}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1)\right]
\]
\[
= \frac{4(\frac{\pi_1^r}{T_2})^2 \sigma_d^2}{\rho \sigma^2_V} \left[(1 + r)(\beta - \gamma) + \frac{\pi_1^r}{T_2} \left[2\gamma - F_2^r \theta\right][1 - (1 + r)2\gamma]\right].
\]

The covariance of the full equity risk change is given by

\[
\text{Cov} \left[\Delta \text{Risk}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2), \Delta \text{Risk}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1)\right] = \mathcal{E} \left[\Delta \text{Risk}(w_2, \tilde{w}_2) \times \Delta \text{Risk}(\tilde{w}_2, w_1)\right]
\]
\[
= 2 \left(\frac{\pi_1^r}{T_2}\right)^4 \sigma^2_d \pi_1^r \left[2\gamma - F_2^r \theta\right][1 - (1 + r)2\gamma] \sigma^2_v \rho
\]

Both covariances are negative because \(\beta - \gamma < 0, 2\gamma - F_2^r \theta > 0, \pi_1^r > 0, \) and \(1 - (1 + r)2\gamma < 0\) for \(\rho < \bar{\rho}\).
Data Appendix

Thomson Financial Securities provided us with the following four data files: (i) the 'Holding Master File', containing the fund number, fund name, management company name, country code of the fund incorporation, reporting date, stock identifier, country code of the stock, and stock position (number of stocks held); (ii) the ‘Security Price File’, containing the stock identifier, the currency denomination of the stock price, reporting dates for which holding data is available, security price on the reporting date and the security price on the closest previous days in case the reporting date had no price information on the security; (iii) the ‘Return File’ containing the stock identifier, the country code of the stock, the total return index (including dividend reinvestments) in local currency; (iv) ‘Exchange Rate File’ containing daily dollar exchange rates for all investment destinations.

In a first step, we match holding data for each fund with holding data in the same fund in the two previous half-years. Holding data for which no holding date is reported in the previous half-year is discarded. Additional holding data from half-year \( t - 2 \) is matched whenever available. For each fund we retain only the latest reporting date within a half-year as long as this reporting date is within 100 day from the end of the half-year. The price from the ‘Security Price File’, the return data from the ‘Return File’ and the exchange rate data from the ‘Exchange Rate File’ is matched for the same reporting date as the holding data. If the price or return data is not available, we search for the nearest previous date with available data.

Similar to Calvet et al.(2009), we use a sequence of data filters to eliminate the role of reporting errors in the data. We focus on the 4 largest fund domiciles, namely the U.S., Canada, U.K. and the Euro area. All small funds with a capitalization of less than $10 million are deleted. These small funds might represent incubator funds or other non-representative entities. Funds with a growth in total assets growth over the half-year of more than 200 percent or less than −50 percent are also discarded. Finally we treat as missing those stock observations for which the return exceeds 500 percent or is below −80 percent. Missing observations do not enter into the calculation of the stock weights or the foreign excess returns. Two additional selection criteria guarantee a minimal degree of fund diversification. We ignore funds with less than 5 foreign stocks and less than 5 domestic stocks in their portfolio. Pure country funds or pure domestic funds are thereby excluded from the sample. Secondly, all funds with a Herfindahl-Hirschman index over all stock weights above 20 percent are discarded. This fund concentration threshold is surpassed if a fund holds more than \( \sqrt{0.2} \approx 0.447 \) percent in a single stock. Funds with such extreme stock weights are unlikely to exhibit risk diversification considerations. The latter criterion eliminates approximately 4,100 fund periods from the sample. We verify that the qualitative conclusions of our analysis is robust to changes in the fund concentration threshold.

Additional computational consideration are required for the calculation of the covariance matrix for each fund period. For a fund period \( t \), we use a covariance estimate based on (log) return data over consecutive trading days in the 3 half-years \( S = \{ t - 1, t - 2, t - 3 \} \). Such a data window implies typically up to \( n = 380 \) return observations for the estimation of each covariance element of the matrix. We discard as data outliers daily log returns above 50 percent and below −50 percent for both the exchange rate and the equity returns. Separate covariances are calculated for stock returns measured under constant exchange rates and for stock return converted into the currency of the fund domicile. This allows the calculation of the FX component of the portfolio risk as the difference of the two covariances. The incompleteness of the return sequence for some stocks and exchange rates requires that each covariance element be calculated individually. If the number of common return pairs for any covariance element dropped below 50 observations, we marked the corresponding covariance element as missing. Missing elements are replaced be the average covariance of the row vector. To track the degree of incompleteness of the covariance matrix, we created a quality matrix \( Q_{jt-1} \) which marks all missing elements by one and all computable elements by zero. The risk based analysis in Tables 5 to 7 uses the matrix \( Q_{jt-1} \) as an additional censoring criterion for fund inclusion. We only used fund periods for which the products \( \bar{w}_{jt} Q_{jt-1} \bar{w}_{jt} \), \( \bar{w}_{jt} Q_{jt-1} \bar{w}_{jt} \), \( w_{jt-1} Q_{jt-1} w_{jt-1} \) remains below 0.2. Funds with more than 20 percent (value weighted) missing covariance elements are discarded. Again we check that the results are qualitatively stable with respect to modifications of this quality threshold for estimation of the covariance matrix.
Figure 1: We plot the realized foreign portfolio share $w_t$, relative to the portfolio share $\bar{w}_t$, implied by a passive holding strategy for funds domiciled in the U.S., Canada, U.K. and the Euro area. The vertical distance from the 45 degree line characterizes active rebalancing measure $RB_{jt}$. 
Figure 2: We define the FX risk share of a fund as the percentage contribution of FX risk to the standard deviation of total portfolio risk. It is plotted against the fund’s foreign portfolio shares. The graphs pool half-annual observations from 10 semesters from 1998 to 2002. The fitted red line denotes the estimated conditional mean.
For funds domiciled in the United States (US), Canada (CA), the United Kingdom (UK) and the Euro area (EU) we correlate the end of the year aggregate asset holdings in each of 97 investment destination countries with the corresponding asset holdings reported in ‘Coordinated Portfolio Investment Survey’ of the IMF.

<table>
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<th>Country of Fund Registration</th>
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<th>Year 2001</th>
<th>Year 2002</th>
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<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.97</td>
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<tr>
<td>EU</td>
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<td>0.81</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average</td>
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<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.91</td>
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Table 2: Summary Statistics on Fund Holdings

For funds domiciled in the United States (US), Canada (CA), the United Kingdom (UK) and the Euro area (EU) we report by half-year (Panel A) and by investment destination (Panel B) the number of funds, their total number of stock positions, and the corresponding asset value (in $billion).

### Panel A: Summary Statistics by Semester

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Fund domicile</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(6)</th>
<th>(7)</th>
<th>(8)</th>
<th>(9)</th>
<th>(10)</th>
<th>(11)</th>
<th>(12)</th>
<th>(13)</th>
<th>(14)</th>
<th>(15)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Half-year</td>
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<td>Value</td>
<td>Funds</td>
<td>Positions</td>
<td>Value</td>
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<td>Positions</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Funds</td>
<td>Positions</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Funds</td>
<td>Positions</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
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<td>267,662</td>
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<td>56</td>
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<td>426</td>
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<td>1,669</td>
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<td>1,925</td>
<td>230,796</td>
<td>586</td>
<td>2,211</td>
<td>367,907</td>
<td>1,341</td>
<td>10,745</td>
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<td>2,447</td>
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<td>4,443,118</td>
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### Panel B: Summary Statistics by Investment Destination

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<tr>
<td>Investment destination</td>
<td>Funds</td>
<td>Positions</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Funds</td>
<td>Positions</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Funds</td>
<td>Positions</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Funds</td>
<td>Positions</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Funds</td>
<td>Positions</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
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<td>17,612</td>
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<td>2,447</td>
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</table>
Table 3: Summary statistics on regression variables

For each of the 4 fund domiciles (US, CA, UK, EU) we report summary statistics on all regression variables. The rebalancing statistics $RB_{j,t} = 100 \times (\tilde{w}_{j,t}^f - \tilde{w}_{j,t}^f)$ for fund $j$ in semester $t$ states the aggregate weight change of the foreign investment share relative to the weight of a passive holding strategy. The term $r_{j,t}^f - r_{j,t}^f$ denotes the excess return performance of the foreign portfolio share over the domestic share. Portfolio risk changes $\Delta Risk(\tilde{w}_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t})$ characterize the portfolio risk difference between the observed weights $w_{j,t}$ and weights $\tilde{w}_{j,t}$ of a passive holding strategy. The change in the marginal risk contribution of stock $i$ to the portfolio risk of fund $j$ due to rebalancing from weights $\tilde{w}_{j,t}$ to $w_{j,t}$ is denoted by $\Delta M Risk(i, w_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t})$. In each case we distinguish the foreign exchange risk component of the total portfolio risk by a superscript $Fx$. For all regression variables the 1 percent highest and lowest values are discarded.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Assets (USD millions)</td>
<td>11,554</td>
<td>1,830</td>
<td>8,224</td>
<td>1,925</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>2,211</td>
<td>607</td>
<td>2,744</td>
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<td>228</td>
<td>837</td>
<td>26,435</td>
<td>965</td>
<td>5,576</td>
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<tr>
<td>Home Assets (USD millions)</td>
<td>11,554</td>
<td>1,524</td>
<td>6,727</td>
<td>1,925</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>386</td>
<td>2,211</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>10,745</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>26,435</td>
<td>728</td>
<td>4,509</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foreign Assets (USD millions)</td>
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<td>306</td>
<td>2,271</td>
<td>1,925</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>2,211</td>
<td>497</td>
<td>2,546</td>
<td>10,745</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>619</td>
<td>26,435</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>1,723</td>
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<tr>
<td>Home Asset Share $w_{j,t}^h$</td>
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<td>0.765</td>
<td>0.275</td>
<td>1,925</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td>0.238</td>
<td>2,211</td>
<td>0.254</td>
<td>0.238</td>
<td>10,745</td>
<td>0.464</td>
<td>0.232</td>
<td>26,435</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td>0.306</td>
</tr>
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<td>Foreign Asset Share $w_{j,t}^f$</td>
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<td>0.275</td>
<td>1,925</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.238</td>
<td>2,211</td>
<td>0.746</td>
<td>0.238</td>
<td>10,745</td>
<td>0.536</td>
<td>0.232</td>
<td>26,435</td>
<td>0.407</td>
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<tr>
<td>$RB_{j,t} = 100 \times (w_{j,t}^f - \tilde{w}_{j,t}^f)$</td>
<td>11,554</td>
<td>-0.420</td>
<td>6.091</td>
<td>1,925</td>
<td>0.331</td>
<td>6.972</td>
<td>2,211</td>
<td>-0.654</td>
<td>5.453</td>
<td>10,745</td>
<td>0.883</td>
<td>10.039</td>
<td>26,435</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>8.004</td>
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<td>$[r_{j,t}^f - r_{j,t}^f]$</td>
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<td>-0.022</td>
<td>0.176</td>
<td>1,925</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
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<td>0.148</td>
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<td>-0.011</td>
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<td>$r_{j,t}^f - r_{j,t}^f \times 1_{\Delta &gt; 0}$</td>
<td>11,554</td>
<td>0.005</td>
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<td>1,925</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>2,211</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>10,745</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>26,435</td>
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<td>0.094</td>
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<td>$r_{j,t}^f - r_{j,t}^f \times 1_{\Delta &lt; 0}$</td>
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<td>10,745</td>
<td>-0.052</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>26,435</td>
<td>-0.066</td>
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<td>0.185</td>
<td>8,883</td>
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<td>0.169</td>
<td>23,026</td>
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<td>$\Delta Risk(w_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t})$</td>
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<td>-0.045</td>
<td>0.321</td>
<td>1,609</td>
<td>-0.042</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>1,468</td>
<td>-0.034</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>7,286</td>
<td>-0.029</td>
<td>0.298</td>
<td>19,823</td>
<td>-0.038</td>
<td>0.302</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\Delta Risk^Fx(w_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t})$</td>
<td>9,462</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>1,609</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>1,468</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>7,286</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>19,823</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.049</td>
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<td>$\Delta Risk(\tilde{w}<em>{j,t}, w</em>{j,t-1})$</td>
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<td>-0.022</td>
<td>0.225</td>
<td>1,609</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>1,468</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>7,286</td>
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<td>0.109</td>
<td>19,823</td>
<td>-0.006</td>
<td>0.168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta Risk^Fx(\tilde{w}<em>{j,t}, w</em>{j,t-1})$</td>
<td>9,462</td>
<td>-0.000</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>1,609</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>1,468</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>7,286</td>
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<td>0.024</td>
<td>19,823</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.015</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\Delta M Risk(i, w_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t})$</td>
<td>3,767</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>310,063</td>
<td>-0.004</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>408,072</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>1,070,933</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.168</td>
<td>5,556,447</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>0.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta M Risk^Fx(i, w_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t})$</td>
<td>3,767</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>310,063</td>
<td>-0.000</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>408,072</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>1,070,933</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>5,556,447</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta M Risk(i, \tilde{w}<em>{j,t}, w</em>{j,t-1})$</td>
<td>3,767</td>
<td>-0.031</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>310,063</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>408,072</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>1,070,933</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>5,556,447</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta M Risk^Fx(i, \tilde{w}<em>{j,t}, w</em>{j,t-1})$</td>
<td>3,767</td>
<td>-0.000</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>310,063</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>408,072</td>
<td>-0.000</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>1,070,933</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>5,556,447</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.006</td>
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</table>
The portfolio rebalancing statistics $RB_{j,t} = 100 \times (w_{f,t}^j - \tilde{w}_{f,t}^j)$ of fund $j$ in semester $t$ is defined as the observed foreign portfolio share $w_{f,t}^j$ at the end of a semester minus the implied foreign portfolio share $\tilde{w}_{f,t}^j$ under passive asset holding strategy over the same semester. We regress $RB_{j,t}$ on the excess return $r_{j,t} - r_{h,t}$ of the foreign over the home component of the portfolio and also its decomposition into positive and negative excess returns using dummy variables for positive ($1_{\Delta r_{j,t} \geq 0}$) and negative ($1_{\Delta r_{j,t} < 0}$) excess returns, respectively. Separate regressions results are reported for funds registered in the United States (US), Canada (CA), the United Kingdom (UK) and the Euro currency area (EU). Our sample spans each semester between 1998 and 2002. We included fixed time effects (unreported) for each half-year and fixed fund effects (unreported) as indicated. Columns (4), (8), (12), (16) and (24) add a lagged dependent variable and report coefficient estimates obtained for the Arellano-Bond dynamic panel-data estimator (ABDP). The IV regression in column (22) uses as instrument for the contemporaneous excess returns ($k = 0$) the lagged excess return ($k = 1$) as well as interacted time and country fixed effects. Columns (25) and (26) use “passive rebalancing” as the independent variable similar to Calvet, Campbell and Sodini (2008). Robust standard errors are stated below the coefficients. We mark significance on a 5 percent level (*) and a 1 percent level (**).

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<td>OLS</td>
<td>OLS</td>
<td>ABDP</td>
<td>OLS</td>
<td>OLS</td>
<td>OLS</td>
<td>ABDP</td>
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<td>ABDP</td>
<td>OLS</td>
<td>OLS</td>
<td>OLS</td>
<td>ABDP</td>
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<tr>
<td>$r_{j,t} - r_{h,t}$</td>
<td>-3.91**</td>
<td>-2.89**</td>
<td>-2.63**</td>
<td>-8.99**</td>
<td>-9.19</td>
<td>-8.03**</td>
<td>-3.81**</td>
<td>-1.01</td>
<td>-3.32**</td>
<td>-6.00**</td>
<td>-8.63**</td>
<td>-8.37**</td>
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<td>-0.37</td>
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<td>(lagged dep. variable)</td>
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<td>$(r_{j,t} - r_{h,t}) \times 1_{\Delta r_{j,t} \geq 0}$</td>
<td>-4.89**</td>
<td>-9.69**</td>
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<td>(0.75)</td>
<td>(1.85)</td>
<td>(1.98)</td>
<td>(1.88)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$(r_{j,t} - r_{h,t}) \times 1_{\Delta r_{j,t} &lt; 0}$</td>
<td>-1.24</td>
<td>-7.14**</td>
<td>-3.33</td>
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<td>(2.22)</td>
<td>(1.94)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$r_{j,t-1} - r_{h,j,t-1}$</td>
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<td>-2.10**</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<td>Obs.</td>
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<td>11,102</td>
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<td>1,856</td>
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<td>361</td>
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<td>608</td>
<td>505</td>
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<th>(20)</th>
<th>(21)</th>
<th>(22)</th>
<th>(23)</th>
<th>(24)</th>
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<tr>
<td>$r_{f,t} - r_{h,t}$</td>
<td>-4.94**</td>
<td>-4.60**</td>
<td>-4.85**</td>
<td>-4.76**</td>
<td>-4.83**</td>
<td>-4.64**</td>
<td>(0.32)</td>
<td>(0.39)</td>
<td>(0.37)</td>
<td>(0.31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$(r_{f,t} - r_{h,t}) \times 1_{\Delta r_{f,t} \geq 0}$</td>
<td>-6.79**</td>
<td>-7.57**</td>
<td>(0.62)</td>
<td>(0.80)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$(r_{f,t} - r_{h,t}) \times 1_{\Delta r_{f,t} &lt; 0}$</td>
<td>-3.37**</td>
<td>-2.21**</td>
<td>(0.55)</td>
<td>(0.72)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$r_{f,t-1} - r_{h,f,t-1}$</td>
<td>-2.63**</td>
<td>-2.53**</td>
<td>-2.63**</td>
<td>-2.54**</td>
<td>(0.33)</td>
<td>(0.27)</td>
<td>(0.32)</td>
<td>(0.44)</td>
<td>-0.12**</td>
<td>(0.014)</td>
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<td>$100 \times (\tilde{w}<em>{f,t}^j - w</em>{f,t}^j)$</td>
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<td>-0.32**</td>
<td>(0.03)</td>
<td>(0.03)</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fixed fund effects</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<td>7,297</td>
<td>7,297</td>
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<td>6,300</td>
<td>3,631</td>
<td>7,297</td>
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<td>F-statistic first stage</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hausman test (p-value)</td>
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</table>
The risk rebalancing measure $\Delta \text{Risk}(w_{jt}, \tilde{w}_{jt})$ for fund $j$ in semester $t$ is regressed on the risk change $\Delta \text{Risk}(\tilde{w}_{jt}, w_{jt-1})$ (and its lagged value) between weights $\tilde{w}_{jt}$ implied by a passive holding strategy and the risk of the original weights $w_{jt-1}$ observed at the end of semester $t - 1$. We undertake separate regressions for funds domiciled in the United States (US), Canada (CA), the United Kingdom (UK) and the Euro currency area (EU), respectively. The IV regression uses time fixed effects interacted with fund domicile dummies as instruments. Panel A reports the risk rebalancing regression for the total equity risk $\Delta \text{Risk}$ measured in local currency of the fund domicile and Panel B reports risk rebalancing regression for the exchange rate component $\Delta \text{Risk}^{F\text{x}}$ of the portfolio risk. The unbalanced panel includes fund data for 10 semesters over the period 1998 to 2002. All regressions include fixed effects for each fund and for each half-year. Robust standard errors are stated below the coefficients. We mark significance on a 5 percent level (*) and a 1 percent level (**).

### Panel A: Equity Risk Rebalancing

<table>
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### Panel B: FX Portfolio Risk Rebalancing

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Table 6: Portfolio Risk Rebalancing by Fund Size

Similar to Table 5, the risk rebalancing measure $\Delta\text{Risk}(w_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t})$ for fund $j$ in semester $t$ is regressed on the risk change $\Delta\text{Risk}(\tilde{w}_{j,t}, w_{j,t-1})$ (and its lagged value) between weights $\tilde{w}_{j,t}$ implied by a passive holding strategy and the risk of the the original weights $w_{j,t-1}$ observed at the end of semester $t-1$. We undertake separate regressions for funds domiciled in the United States (US), Canada (CA), the United Kingdom (UK) and the Euro currency area (EU), respectively. Funds are grouped in the small or large group based on a fund capitalization below or above $500$ million in a given semester. Panel A reports the risk rebalancing regression for the total equity risk $\Delta\text{Risk}$ measured in local currency of the fund domicile and Panel B reports risk rebalancing regressions for the exchange rate component $\Delta\text{Risk}^{FX}$ of the portfolio risk. The unbalanced panel includes fund data for 10 semesters over the period 1998 to 2002. All regressions include fixed effects for each half-year and fixed effects for each fund. Robust standard errors are stated below the coefficients. We mark significance on a 5 percent level (*) and a 1 percent level (**).

### Panel A: Equity Risk Rebalancing

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Adjusted $R^2$
Table 7: Marginal Stock Risk Rebalancing Conditional on Marginal Risk Direction and Portfolio Risk Direction

For each stock $i$ held by each fund $j$ the marginal risk change $\Delta MRisk(i, \tilde{w}_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t-1})$ in stock $i$ due to rebalancing is regressed on the marginal risk change under a passive holding strategy denoted by $\Delta MRisk(i, \tilde{w}_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t-1})$. Any interaction is interacted with a set of dummy variables for the sign of the passive marginal risk change $\Delta MRisk$ in stock $i$ and the passive portfolio risk change $\Delta Risk$ of fund $j$. Panel A reports regressions for the total marginal risk changes in the currency of the fund domicile and Panel B reports the corresponding regressions for the FX component of the marginal risk. All regressions include effects for each half-year, fixed effects for each fund and fixed effects Yes

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta MRisk(i, \tilde{w}_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t-1}) &= (\tilde{b}_{j,t-1} \times (w_{j,t+1} - \tilde{w}_{j,t}))^T \\
\Delta MRisk^F(i, \tilde{w}_{j,t}, \tilde{w}_{j,t-1}) &= (\tilde{b}_{j,t-1} \times (w_{j,t+1} - \tilde{w}_{j,t}))^T
\end{align*}
\]

where $(\tilde{b}_{j,t})_{i,\cdot}$ represents the $i$-th row of the covariance matrix of stocks held by fund $j$. A marginal risk increase in stock $i$ is marked by a dummy $1_{\Delta MRisk \geq 0}$ and a marginal risk decrease by the dummy $1_{\Delta MRisk < 0}$. These dummies are interacted with a second conditioning dummy $1_{\Delta Risk_{\text{FX}}} \geq 0$ denoting a passive portfolio risk increase in portfolio $j$ or a dummy $1_{\Delta Risk_{\text{FX}}} < 0$ denoting a passive portfolio risk decrease. Panel A reports regressions for the total marginal risk changes measured in the currency of the fund domicile and Panel B reports the corresponding regressions for the FX component of the marginal risk. All regressions include fixed effects for each half-year, fixed effects for each fund and fixed effects for the combinations of the four dummies. Robust standard errors are stated below the coefficients. We mark significance on a 5 percent level (*) and a 1 percent level(**).

Panel A: Marginal Stock Risk Rebalancing

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<th>CA</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>EU</th>
<th>Pooled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta MRisk^F(i, \tilde{w}<em>{j,t}, \tilde{w}</em>{j,t-1}) \times 1_{\Delta Risk_{\text{FX}}} \times 1_{\Delta Risk_{\text{FX}}}$</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$-0.61^{**}$</td>
<td>$(0.005)$</td>
<td>$-0.49^{**}$</td>
<td>$(0.011)$</td>
<td>$-0.96^{**}$</td>
<td>$(0.012)$</td>
<td>$-1.17^{**}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed time effects</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obs.</td>
<td>3,721,244</td>
<td>3,721,244</td>
<td>306,147</td>
<td>306,147</td>
<td>402,167</td>
<td>402,167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funds</td>
<td>2,637</td>
<td>2,637</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>0.188</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>