

Location Effects and Portfolio Tilting

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Abstract

We show individuals tilt their portfolios towards stocks based on geographic location (where the investor currently lives, where the investor was born, where the company is headquartered, and where the stock is listed). Surprisingly, stocks that are *traded* near where an investor lives receive the highest weights in the investor's portfolio—a result that offers a startling re-interpretation of the existing home bias literature. We believe this is the first paper to establish a clientele effect based on location of trade. Data are consistent with a framework in which the investor faces a costly search process when choosing which stock to buy. These costs are shown to have long-lived effects. Our research exploits unique features of an emerging stock market that allow us to decompose holdings into orthogonal, location-based dimensions. Results are robust to numerous econometric specifications.

Keywords: Individual Investors, Behavioral Finance, Home Bias

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1 Introduction

Do investors tilt their portfolios towards certain types of stocks? This seemingly simple question has generated, and continues to generate, a large amount of debate among economists. A search for the term “home bias” on EconLit, JSTOR, and SSRN yields over 200 citations. The majority of these papers were written within the last five years.

If investors are tilting their portfolios, what can we learn about portfolio choice? What can we learn about markets? Are there barriers to investment, large frictions, or hidden transaction costs? Are portfolio choices linked to the structure of information and the ability to process it? More generally, economists want to know if there is a “rational” explanation for tilting one’s portfolio (such as transaction costs, hedging demands, information asymmetry, etc.), or if the behavior is driven by psychological biases.

This paper undertakes a systematic study of investor holdings in an attempt to answer the questions above. To begin, we introduce a framework for thinking about individual portfolio choice. The framework is based on Weitzman’s (1979) search model. Data are consistent with investors facing a costly search when choosing stocks. After we propose a rough classification system for the ways an investor might tilt (bias) his or her portfolio, we turn to empirical analysis. We exploit the unique market structure in the People’s Republic of China (PRC) in order to carry out tests that were not previously possible. The PRC is divided into thirty-one regions. These regions are culturally different and each has at least one local dialect. Companies and investors are located throughout the country. What’s more, the PRC has two stock exchanges. Both operate with an electronic limit order book system and have uniformly low trading costs. Company shares trade on one exchange or the other, but are not cross-listed. Access to either market is through a unified and seamless system of computer terminals, which are located in brokerage offices throughout the country.

We decompose holdings into three distinct and orthogonal dimensions. Investors overweight firms with headquarters near where the investor lives. This tendency has been well documented (inter- and intra-nationally) and we call it *pure home bias*. French and Poterba (1991), Lewis (1995, 1999), and Coval and Moskowitz (1999, 2001) are well known references in this area. Investors also overweight firms with headquarters near where the investor was born. A similar tendency has been documented in Finland among Finnish and Swedish investors. Grinblatt and Keloharju (2001) show that investors are more likely to hold stocks of firms that communicate in the investor’s native tongue. We show the tilting, which

we call *cultural affinity bias*, is even more complex than the two-culture system studied in Finland. In fact, cultural affinity bias exists even after dividing investors into thirty-one ethnic/linguistic groups. Although we do find cultural affinity among our investors, we should note that economically and statistically it appears to be the smallest of the biases studied in this paper. Finally, we show that investors overweight firms that are listed on an exchange near where the investors live—we call this the *location of trade bias*.

Surprisingly, location of trade is found to be the dominate factor that influences portfolio tilting. In fact, its effects on the proportion of stock held in a portfolio is 4.5 times larger than that of pure home bias and 19.4 times that of cultural affinity bias. Our results are robust to a number of econometric specifications, including regression analysis, ANOVA analysis, and a multivariate factor analysis.

We believe this is the first paper that has been able to disentangle location of trade from pure home bias. Existing studies such as Kang and Stulz (1997), Dalquist and Robertson (2001), Ahearne, Grier, and Warnock (2001), and Edison and Warnock (2003) show that U.S. investors tend to hold foreign stocks if they are cross-listed in the U.S. through American Depositary Receipts (ADRs). However it is hard to interpret existing results. One interpretation is that a cross-listing event ameliorates an information asymmetry problem faced by U.S. investors. But the choice of a foreign company to list in the U.S. is not an exogenous event. It is related to the need to raise money, the ability to produce required accounting numbers, and global marketing goals. Studies such as Bekaert and Harvey (2000) and Bekaert, Harvey, and Lumsdaine (2002) define market liberalization events by using cross-listing dates. Our study offers a clean environment that controls for these effects. A Beijing-headquartered company that is listed in Shanghai is subject to the same accounting standards as a similar company that is listed in Guangdong (on the Shenzhen exchange). Investors and companies have a common language and operate in the same time zone. There is no cross-listing in the PRC, nor may companies switch exchanges.

1.1 Additional motivation—location of trade and clientele effects

An additional motivation behind this paper stems from recent evidence that location of trade affects asset prices. Froot and Dabora (1999) study “Siamese twin” companies. Such companies have two separate shares that trade, they pool their cash flows, and their charters dictate current and future divisions of cash. Thus, with integrated markets, the twin stocks should move together. The authors find that this is not the case. For example, Royal Dutch

Petroleum trades primarily in the U.S. and the Netherlands. Shell Transport and Trading trades primarily in the U.K. The authors note that “when the U.S. market moves up relative to the U.K. market, the price of Royal Dutch (which trades relatively more in New York) tends to rise relative to the price of its twin Shell (which trades relatively more in London).” The authors reject that voting rights, currency fluctuations, ex-dividend timing, and tax differences can explain all of their findings. In a more recent paper, Chan, Hameed, and Lau (2003) perform an event study surrounding the de-listing of Jardine companies from the Hong Kong Stock Exchange (and the subsequent migration of trading volume to the Singapore Stock Exchange.) Before the de-listing, Jardine companies had a high covariance with the Hong Kong index and a low covariance with the Singapore index. After the de-listing, the same companies had a low covariance with Hong Kong and a high covariance with Singapore. The authors cannot explain their results by looking at possible relocation of core businesses, currency movements, tax distortions, or time-varying covariance.¹

Both studies—Froot and Dabora (1999) and Chan, Hameed, and Lau (2002)—suggest that country-specific investor sentiment can explain their results. However, neither group offers evidence beyond ruling out other explanations. Another way to interpret these recent findings is that investors are partially segmented—see Chan, Hameed, and Lau (2002, p. 1222). In other words, there is a *clientele* effect—different clients, operating in different locations, change stock prices and stock betas. Arbitrageurs appear unable—or limited in their ability—to equalize prices across markets, as in Shleifer and Vishney (1997). If clientele effects exist, we should be able to measure differences at the stock-holding level. Neither of the papers mentioned above attempt to do this due to the difficulty of obtaining shareholder records *and* demographic information about each shareholder. This paper attacks the problem directly by using account-level data.

Our goal is to understand which clientele effects are associated with location of trade. Are these effects the same as the home bias that has been documented so thoroughly in the literature? Are they the same as the cultural affinity biases that have recently been documented? Can we disentangle home bias, cultural affinity, and location of trade if, in fact, they are different biases?

As mentioned above, the market structure, diverse cultural fabric, and size of the PRC present us with an extraordinary opportunity. Because we are studying a unified country,

¹In addition, Bedi, Richards, and Tennant (2003) expand the research of dual-listed companies. They document twelve new structures, show that price divergence has remained pervasive, show that betas change depending on listing, and conduct an event study of companies with unified share structures.

with a common set of laws and two stock markets, we are able first able to measure a clientele effect based on location of trade. Next, we are able to disentangle this effect from the previously documented home bias. We are able to compare the relative magnitudes of different effects *as well* as their marginal contribution to overall portfolio composition.

The paper proceeds as follows. In Section 2 we introduce a framework for thinking about individual portfolio choice. Section 3 describes the data and market structures that make this study possible. Section 4 outlines our methodology and presents the empirical results. Section 5 delves further into the information structure in the PRC. Section 6 tests alternative economic models and performs robustness checks. A brief conclusion is provided in Section 7.

2 A framework of stock selection

We consider Weitzman’s (1979) paper about optimal search as a framework for thinking about the stock selection problem facing an individual investor.² In the United States there are thousands of stocks an investor might possibly buy. Thus, the search for *one* stock to buy represents a large search problem. Following Weitzman (1979), call x_i the potential value of holding stock “i”. The values of x_i are distributed $F_i(x_i)$. The value of holding a stock can represent almost any investment criterion an investor chooses to use (e.g., expected Sharpe Ratio.) Call C_i the cost of researching stock “i”. As we will shortly see, we can think of this cost as an actual cost (such as the cost of internet access, newspapers, or photocopying.) We can also think of the cost as a mental processing cost—the cost of placing the stock into the category of stocks the investor might possibly buy. Finally, call p_i the probability of acquiring stock “i”. For infinitely liquid markets, this probability is one. For actual markets the number is close to, but less than one. We can also think of p_i as analogous to a price impact function. The probability of acquiring IBM stock at \$92.50 per share is less than the probability of acquiring IBM stock at \$105.00 per share.³

²As mentioned, the framework closely follows Weitzman (1979). We fully recognize that the framework is not what is innovative about this paper. Nor do we pretend this is an equilibrium model with optimizing agents.

³Clearly the expected value (x_i) of IBM stock bought at \$92.50 per share is higher than IBM stock bought for \$105.00 a share. In this example, there are two (x_i) pairs for IBM stock.

2.1 Search criterion

The value z_i is called the reservation price of researching stock “i”. If we consider the special case with: i) a probability p_i of stock “i” actually providing value $x_i = R_i$; ii) a probability $1 - p_i$ of providing no value; and iii) no time discounting for lengthy searches, we get:

$$z_i = \frac{p_i R_i - C_i}{p_i} \quad (1)$$

The investor ranks potential stocks by reservation price (z_i) and researches the stock with the highest reservation price first. If R_i is greater than some reservation value R_0 , the investor buys the stock. If not, the investor researches the stock with the next highest reservation price.

2.2 Interpretation of search results

One way to think about the results is to consider the case when all stocks are ex-ante identical (z_i is the same for all potential stocks.) Then, the smallest bit of news, information, or noise can put a stock at the top of an investor’s search list. Local companies, companies that produce products the investor uses, or companies that are recently in the news are likely to be at the top of an investor’s list.

A more subtle way of interpreting the results is to consider the case when the expected value of buying any stock (R) is constant and the probability of executing a buy transaction (p_i) is one. In this case, the search problem reduces to:

$$z_i = R - C_i \quad (2)$$

The ranking of reservation prices is now entirely determined by the cost of searching. In this case, stock for which information is readily available are researched before those stocks for which information is more scarce. Clearly, stocks that are mentioned more frequently in the news fit this criterion, as do stocks that advertise more, stocks that have better public relations departments, etc. Stocks that communicate in an investor’s native language are more likely to be held. Finally, stocks that are listed on exchanges near an investor may be more likely to be held.

While the empirical sections of this paper concentrate on the effect of location in reducing search costs (and increasing holdings), the search framework fits well with a number of other stylized facts regarding individual portfolio selection. First, if the cost of searching is high, investors may under-diversify and hold few stocks. Under-diversification is shown in the U.S. by Barber and Odean (2000), in Sweden by Bodnaruk (undated), and in China by Feng and Seasholes (2003b). The low number of stocks held by investors is also discussed by Merton (1987) and hinted at in Linnainmaa (2003) for Finnish day-traders. Second, investors are more likely to transacted in stocks they have previously owned since they have already paid the search/research costs—see Barber, Odean, and Strahilevitz (2003) and Linnainmaa (2003). Finally, investors are more likely to hold stocks they are familiar with—see Huberman (2001) and the example of local telephone company stocks.

3 Data and market structure

We use account-level data to investigate investor portfolio composition. Our data come from individual brokerage accounts in the People’s Republic of China (PRC). By and large, we focus on holdings at one point in time, 01-June-2000, although other time periods between 1999 and 2000 are used as controls.

3.1 Cultural divisions in the PRC

The PRC offers a unique opportunity for social scientists to study geographic and cultural differences. The country is divided into thirty-one regions (provinces, autonomous regions, and municipalities); Figure 1 shows the location of the regions. Officially there are fifty-six ethnic groups in the PRC. The largest ethnic group is the Han, who comprise over 90% of the population. The Manchu, Mongolian, Tibetan, and Uygur are some other well known groups. All regions speak Mandarin (called “Putonghua” or “common language.”) Regions have at least one local dialect. The best known of these dialects is Cantonese (or “Guangdonghua”) which is spoken in Guangdong province, Hong Kong, and many overseas Chinese communities.

3.2 Equity markets in the PRC

The structure of equity markets in the PRC offers an unparalleled opportunity for studying investor portfolios. We have a clean, laboratory-like research design. The country uses an electronic, open limit order system. Investors can enter their own trades through computer terminals that show the current queue five deep on both the bid and ask side. The market has uniform and low transaction costs. One of the strengths of this study is that we are assured that investors do not have other brokerage accounts. Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan are not included in this study for political, legal, and regulatory regions. The typical PRC investor cannot easily invest outside the PRC. Since mutual funds are relatively new to the PRC, we effectively know investors' entire equity portfolios.

Exchanges: There are two stock exchanges in the PRC. One is in Shanghai and the other in Guangdong (in the city of Shenzhen). The Shanghai Stock Exchange uses six-digit tickers, while Guangdong (Shenzhen Stock Exchange) uses four-digit tickers. Investors have equal and unfettered access to either exchange.

Listed companies: We identify 945 listed companies with traded common shares on 01-June-2000. Of these, 485 companies are listed in Shanghai and 460 in Guangdong. At least one listed company has its headquarters in each of the thirty-one regions. Given thirty-one regions and two exchanges, we can classify firms and holdings into one of sixty-two region/exchange bins.

IPO data: Initial Public Offering (IPO) data contain the issue date, name of the bank that managed the IPO, and location of the bank. This data is proprietary and collected from a private source in the PRC. Data are available for 778 of the 945 companies in our sample.

Brokerage accounts: A brokerage firm (the firm) has branch offices (branches) throughout the country, region, or city. Many brokerage firms are regionally focused. Individuals open accounts at a branch office and then place all of their trades *through this one branch*. Thus, there is a critical difference in our study between brokerage firms (our data are from one firm) and branch offices (our data come from fifteen different branches.) For a full description of brokerage accounts in the PRC, please see Feng and Seasholes (2003a, 2003b).

Our data contain each investor's internal passport number (or "NIC" number). This number can be decoded and gives the individual's birth date and gender, as well as where the individual is registered to live. Given the fact that investors place all trades through one branch, we assume investors currently live in the region where the branch is located (we call

this the “home region”). Our investors live in seven of the thirty-one regions. In cases where the registration location is not the same as the current region, we assume that the investor has joined the vast internal migration in the PRC. We assume the NIC number gives us the region where the investor was born (or “birth region”). The effects of these assumptions are discussed further in Section 6. Our data contain at least one investor who was born in each of the thirty-one regions. Given the seven home regions, individuals can be classified in one of 217 birth-region/home-region bins.

3.3 Overview statistics

Table I presents an overview of the data, which is collected from fifteen branch offices located in seven regions (Column 1 and Column 2.) The two regions with stock exchanges (Guangdong and Shanghai) both have multiple branch offices.

Overall, we have the holdings of 51,218 individuals on 01-June-2000 (Table I, Column 3). We focus on a single date in the middle of the sample period to study portfolio holdings and save other dates for robustness checks. This focus is conservative since it lowers potential statistical power. On the other hand, using one date simplifies statistical tests, because we do not have to worry about observations being correlated across time. The median investor holds only three stocks (Column 4.) The average investor holds 3.47 stocks (not reported). This gives us a total of 177,783 investor/stock positions. In Columns 5, we see the average portfolio value is RMB 136,777. This average value is approximately equal to USD 17,097 if we use a rough exchange rate of RMB 8:USD 1. Notice that richer regions such as Guangdong and Shanghai have higher average portfolio values than poorer regions such as Heilongjiang. The distribution of portfolio values is skewed, as we can see by the median values in Column 6. The total value of all holdings used in this study is given in Column 7 and is over RMB 7 bn (or slightly less than USD 1 bn.) Appendix 1 provides some overview statistics such as population, GDP per capita, and household income for each of the thirty-one regions.

4 Methodology and results

4.1 Reference portfolios

Statistical tests of portfolio tilting entail a joint hypothesis that: i) investor portfolio weights are equal to the weights in a reference portfolio; and ii) we choose the *correct* reference portfolio. Choosing a reference portfolio is difficult, fraught with uncertainty, and controversial. Dahlquist and Robertsson (2001) provide a nice discussion on this point. A logical reference portfolio is the CAPM portfolio as described in Sharpe (1964) and Lintner (1965). Alternative portfolios are considered later in this paper.

Consider a local investor whose opportunity set is entirely in the PRC. The investor then faces the traditional portfolio optimization problem:

$$\min_{\omega} \quad \omega' \Sigma \omega$$

subject to the constraint

$$\begin{aligned} s.t. \quad \omega' \mu &\geq \mu^* \\ \omega' I &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Such an investor chooses to hold a combination of the market portfolio and a riskless (in local currency) asset. The weight of a given stock in the investor's portfolio is simply equal to the weight of the given stock in the market portfolio.

4.2 A classification system of portfolio tilting (bias)

We propose a simple system of ways investors might tilt (bias) their portfolios towards certain types of stocks. Our system contains two main classifications. We call the first classification “constrained portfolio tilting (biases)” since ownership of a company's shares is constrained to add up to 100% of shares outstanding. Examples of constrained portfolio biases include a tendency to hold large stocks, high P/E stocks, internet stocks, stocks with high past returns, or stocks with low past returns. In other words, not all investors can simultaneously tilt their portfolios toward these types of stocks. For every share that is overweighted by one investor, exactly one share must be underweighted by another investor. The sum across

all investors of an over/underweighting measure must be zero. Appendix 2 provides a list of biases. Constrained portfolio biases are very difficult to study since we must understand how heterogeneous agents trade amongst themselves. It is through trade that some investors end-up overweighting large stocks (for example) and others end up underweighting the same large stocks. These biases are beyond the scope of this paper and are left for future study.

We call the second classification “unconstrained portfolio tilting (biases)” since the adding-up constraint is not binding. Unconstrained biases fit well with the costly search framework discussed earlier. Examples of unconstrained portfolio biases include a preference for locally headquartered stocks or locally listed stocks. All investors are able to tilt their portfolios toward locally headquartered stocks (for example.) In other words, the sum across all investors’ over/underweighting measures is not constrained to add up to zero. It follows naturally to think about differences in portfolio selection as relating to search costs.⁴ In particular, we focus on three location-related biases (unconstrained) that have been documented, or at least hinted at, in the financial literature.

4.3 Unit of analysis

The three unconstrained biases examined in this paper are all related to geographic location. We use a binary methodology to classify holdings as coming from (or not coming from) the region where an investor lives. This methodology is similar to most international studies of home bias that group holdings as coming from (or not coming from) an investor’s home country: Coval and Moskowitz (2001), who code holdings as within (or outside of) a 100-kilometer radius of the investor; Ivkovich and Weisbenner (2003), who use a 250-mile radius; and Grinblatt and Keloharju (2001), who classify holdings by municipality in Finland.

Our unit of analysis is the percentage of an investor’s portfolio—or portfolio weight—from a given region ($\omega_{i,r}$). We compare this weight to the percentage of the reference portfolio from the same region (ω_r^*). The difference between these two weights is our measure of an investor’s over/underweighting.

$$\text{over/underweighting} \equiv \omega_{i,r} - \omega_r^* \tag{3}$$

⁴The weights of an individual’s portfolio must still sum to 100%, and we account for this later.

4.4 Preliminary tilting results

We begin the empirical investigation by documenting three unconstrained portfolio biases. Table II, Panel A shows that investors tend to overweight companies that are headquartered in the region where the investor currently lives. On average, 19.53% of investor' portfolios come from the region where they currently live (see the average value at the bottom of the second column.) On average, only 11.28% of the market is headquartered in the region where the investor lives. The difference between these two numbers is 8.25%, and the positive value indicates overweighting.

We see that the average overweighting due to pure home bias is positive when investors are grouped by the seven regions where they currently live. It is also positive when investors are grouped by the fifteen branches offices that provided our data (not reported). At this point we only present overview statistics and save tests of statistical significance for the next section. This said, we note that with 51,218 investors, 8.25% is statistically significant at all conventional levels.

Table II, Panel B shows the cultural affinity bias. On average, an investor holds 16.92% of his or her portfolio in companies with headquarters in the region where the investor was born. On average, 9.33% of the market capitalization is from birth regions. Therefore, the average overweighting due to cultural affinity bias is 7.58%.

We round out our overview of biases by looking at the location of trade bias in Table II, Panel C. At this point we only look at investors who live in a region with an exchange (Guangdong and Shanghai). We see that investors hold 83.68% of their wealth in companies that are listed on the local exchange. However, each exchange has approximately 50% of the market. This makes an average of 34.28% overweighting due to the location of trade bias.

Clearly, the overweighting due to the location of trade bias is huge and very, very surprising. This is the first time (that we know of) that financial economists have been able to estimate location of trade effects related to actual stock holdings. In fact, the 34.28% is so large that it makes the prudent reader skeptical. Maybe 34.28% is really just another manifestation of pure home bias? Maybe it is cultural affinity bias? To check these possibilities, we turn to a multivariate regression framework after a quick note on measuring over/underweighting.

We have chosen to use differences between observed weights and a reference portfolio as shown in (3). We could also have looked at the ratio of observed weights and the reference

portfolio by using:

$$\text{over/underweighting ratio} = \frac{\omega_{i,r}}{\omega_r^*} - 1 \quad (4)$$

From Table II, we see this new ratio is also positive in all cases. The interpretation is a bit different. In pure home bias, cultural affinity bias, and location of trade bias investors hold approximate twice as much (100% more) than the reference portfolio. While the location of trade bias no longer dominates with the ratio measure, its value is capped from above at one (if 50% is listed on one exchange, investors can only add another 50%.) Additionally, putting 3.15x the reference weight in a small region (like in Hubei) is interesting, but tells us little of wealth committed by the investor. For these two reasons, we stick with our difference measure in (3) and note that statistical significance remains with (4) albeit with a different interpretation.

4.5 Regression analysis

We turn to a regression analysis with two main goals. First, we want to double-check the results from Table II—especially the surprising results related to the location of trade bias. Second, we want to determine whether the three documented biases are, in fact, independent. It is entirely possible that the three biases documented in Table II are simply manifestations of a common bias or common factor.

For each of the 51,218 investors, we calculate the percentage of the portfolio that is held in stocks from each of the sixty-two region/exchange combinations. We also calculate the percentage of total market capitalization that is listed in each of these sixty-two region/exchange combinations. We then calculate the over- or underweighting by taking the difference of the two values.

Our procedure allows us to look at pure home bias, cultural affinity bias, and location of trade bias together. In total, there are 3,175,516 over/underweighting observations.⁵ Clearly, we do not really have this many data points since most investors only hold three stocks at a time. Therefore, we correct our standard errors to reflect the true sample size of 149,691 data points.⁶

⁵Calculated as: $3,175,516 = 51,218 \text{ investors} \times 31 \text{ regions} \times 2 \text{ exchanges}$.

⁶We have 149,691 total investor/region/exchange holding combinations in our dataset. Using this number is conservative since we group multiple holding positions by same investor into the same investor/region/exchange bin.

We regress our over- or underweighting measure $(\omega_{i,r,e} - \omega_{i,r,e}^*)$ on one of three indicator (dummy) variables. The first indicator ($Dum_{Home=HQ}$) equals one if the region where the stock is headquartered is the same as the region where the investor currently lives (and equals zero otherwise). The second indicator ($Dum_{Born=HQ}$) equals one if the region where the stock is headquartered is the same as the region where the investors was born. The third indicator ($Dum_{Home=Listing}$) equals one if the listing exchange of the holding is located in the same as the region where the investors currently lives.

$$\omega_{i,r,e} - \omega_{i,r,e}^* = \gamma_1 Dum_{Home=HQ} + \gamma_2 Dum_{Born=HQ} + \gamma_3 Dum_{Home=Listing} + \varepsilon_{i,r,e} \quad (5)$$

We do not include a constant since we fully realize there is an adding up constraint as far as an individual's portfolio weights are concerned. For example, an investor who holds one Beijing-headquartered stock that is listed in Shanghai has 100% of his or her portfolio in the Beijing/Shanghai exchange bin. Since companies in this bin only represent 3.35% of total market capitalization, we can say that the investor has overweighted the bin by 96.65%. At the same time, the investor has underweighted *all other* region/exchange combinations. In fact, the investor has an average 1.58% underweight in all other region/exchange bins.⁷ We **do not** want to measure the difference between the overweighting and the average underweighting. We simply want to measure the difference between the investor's portfolio and the reference portfolio.

Table III presents the results of the regression analysis in a manner than can easily be compared with Table II. There are four regressions. The first three repeat the overview results from Table II and provide a measure of statistical significance. The most interesting point in Table III is Regression 4. Again, we see the surprising result that the location of trade bias is dominant and economically significant. Investors tend to overweight their portfolios by 30.36% due to the location of trade bias. Pure home bias remains statistically significant at 6.49%. Economically, this number is only a fifth as large as the location of trade bias. The cultural affinity bias is economically and statistically much smaller than either of the other two biases.

Regression fit: How well does regressing holdings on dummies fit our data? If we consider

⁷We get 1.58% by dividing the 96.65% underweighting by the 61 remaining region/exchange combinations. The 96.65% underweighting comes from the fact that the sum of all over- and underweightings is zero (by definition) for a given investor.

all 3,175,516 investor/region/exchange combinations, the fit is not good since investor only have holdings in 149,691 of the bins. However if we only consider investor/region/exchange combinations with positive investor holdings, the R^2 ranges from 0.0843 for Regression 2 to 0.1871 for Regression 4. In other words, we get a fairly good fit by simply by guessing that an investor spreads his/her stocks evenly over local stocks.

Clearly, using a restricted sample of 149,691 bins changes the regression coefficients presented in Table III. Although not reported, the new coefficients follow a similar pattern to the one shown in Table III. In particular, when running Regression 4, the coefficient on the location of trade dummy is the largest and the coefficient on the cultural affinity dummy is the smallest.⁸

4.6 ANOVA analysis

Since both Table II and Table III provide surprising results concerning the location of trade bias, we retest our results with ANOVA analysis. We run a regression that is essentially the same as equation (5). The only difference is that an overall constant is included this time so that the sum of squares of the first right-hand side variable does not pick up the variance associated with the investor's adding-up constraint (see above for a brief discussion of the adding-up constraint.)

Table IV shows that the indicator variable associated with the location of trade bias explains over three times as much of the variance as does the indicator variable associated with pure home bias ($\frac{100.58}{30.12} > 3$). It explains more than forty times as much of the variance as the cultural affinity bias ($\frac{100.58}{2.38} > 40$). Results are significant at all conventional levels.

4.7 Multifactor model

The regression and ANOVA analyses provide consistent and statistically significant results. The results are so surprising that we run one more test in an effort to make sure we are interpreting our results correctly. We regress the returns from investor portfolios on the overall market index, regional indices, and listing/exchange-based indices. The market index is a weighted average of all 945 companies in our sample. The regional indices are weighted

⁸We also run the regression using the ratio form of our over/underweighting measure from (4). A similar high-level of statistical significance is found. Other robustness checks are discussed later in the paper.

averages of stocks that are headquartered in each region. The two listing/exchange-based indices are weighted averages of the stocks listed on the two exchanges. Our goal is to see if investors choose portfolios that expose them to location-based factors.

$$r_{i,t} = \alpha + \beta \cdot r_{mkt,t} + \Gamma_1 \cdot r_{Home,t} + \Gamma_2 \cdot r_{Birth,t} + \Gamma_3 \cdot r_{Exch,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \quad (6)$$

To generate the investor portfolio returns, we calculate the weight of each stock in each investor’s portfolio (regardless of how many different stocks an investor might have). We then calculate the weekly return to the investor’s portfolio over the *following* twenty-six weeks. We re-balance portfolios every six months for one and a half years. Thus, we have a panel of three six-month periods (with twenty-six weeks per period) times the number of investors (or groups of investors.) To control for clustering, we form portfolios of the investors’ portfolios: all investors who live in one region, all investors who were born in one region, or all investors who live near one of the two stock exchanges. Our results do not change when we consider individual investor portfolios separately and control for clustering of the residuals.

Table V presents the results from the multifactor model. In Regression 1 we regress a portfolio of all investor returns on a constant and the returns of the market. Regression 1 provides some comforting results. On average, investor portfolios have a beta of one and an alpha near zero.⁹

We then regress investor portfolio returns (portfolios of investors based on where they currently live) on a constant, the returns of the market, and the associated regional index (again based on where the investors currently live). Table V, Regression 2 shows that investor portfolios load positively (and significantly) on the home-region portfolio. This is our fourth piece of evidence of pure home bias. In a similar manner, Table V, Regression 3 shows that investor portfolios load positively (and significantly) on the birth-region portfolio. Similarly, this is our fourth piece of evidence of cultural affinity bias.

Finally, we perform regressions for investors who do not live in a region with an exchange (Regression 4a) and those who do (Regression 4b). We see those who do not live in a region

⁹Regression 1 uses seventy-eight data points (calculated seventy-eight weeks of data—one and a half years—times one group of investors.) The R^2 of the regression is 0.9724—high since investors, as a group, basically track the market. We consider using only seventy-eight data points a conservative test. Alternatively, we could have used 3,995,004 data points (51,218 investors times 78 weeks) and controlled for contemporaneous correlation of observations across investors.

with an exchange again have market betas close to one. However, the portfolio returns of those who live in Guangdong and Shanghai load heavily on their local exchange index. The 0.4768 coefficient shown in Table V, Regression 4b *is after controlling* for the covariance of an investor’s portfolio with overall market movements.

4.8 Economic costs

After documenting the biases, it is natural to ask how costly they are to an investor. We could calculate welfare loss in a manner similar to Brennan and Torous (1999). However, this requires specifying investors’ utility functions and risk aversion parameters. Another method would involve testing the efficiency of various portfolios. We could measure how “far” a portfolio is from the mean-variance frontier. However, methods of this sort often require us to specify expected returns.

We realize that tests of economic costs can be controversial, and opt for a straightforward comparison of Sharpe ratios. The advantage lies in the simplicity. We use market weights as of 01-June-2000, form a market portfolio, and calculate the weekly return for the next twenty-six weeks. We divide the average weekly return over this period by the weekly standard deviation. We repeat the procedure for portfolios formed from stocks on each exchange and from each region. Our results are shown in Table VI.

Table VI, Column 2 shows a weekly Sharpe ratio of 0.1356 for the entire market. The average value is 0.1253 for the exchange indices. This value is 0.0103 less than the market Sharpe ratio. In Column 3 we interpret this difference as a “cost” to a mean-variance investor. We also calculate the average Sharpe ratio for a value-weighted portfolio of five random stocks.

It is clear from Table VI that for small investors who hold few stocks, the lack of diversification is a major cost. For investors or fund managers who hold many stocks, the location of trade bias also appears costly. To see this, consider that the typical portfolio has 30.26% more weight on the local exchange than the reference portfolio (Column 4). If we multiply this number by the cost in Column 3, we get 31 bp (basis points). For pure home bias, a similar calculation yields 20 bp. We have expressed cost in units of *price of risk*. On this basis, our rough estimation is that location of trade bias is 50% more costly than pure home bias (31 bp vs. 20 bp.)

In this section, we show that location of trade appears to be the dominant factor affecting individual portfolio choice. Our tests take place in a unified market system with very low

transaction costs. Despite open access to either stock exchange, we show that some investors tend to self-segregate. Section 5 looks at how the information environment may be affect investors. Section 6 then describes our tests of alternative, non-informational economic models in an attempt to explain the observed segmentation.

5 Information structure and long-lived effects

Recent work on why an investor may overweight some stocks and underweight others focuses on the investor’s information set—Coval and Moskowitz (1999, 2001), Grinblatt and Keloharju (2000, 2001), Hau (2001), and Ivankovich and Weisbenner (2003) are some of the numerous examples. Investors may overweight stocks for which they truly have superior information or they may overweight stocks that they are more familiar with.

It seems reasonable to assume investors have better information about, or are more familiar with, stocks that are located near where the investor currently lives (or near where the investor was born). This paper, however, shows that neither pure home bias nor cultural affinity are dominant factors in portfolio choice. Since living near where a stock is traded is the dominant factor, it is reasonable to explore the information environment around the exchange. A recent trip to the PRC did exactly that.

5.1 Field study in the PRC

We visited brokerage offices in a number of cities in the PRC, watched trading behavior, interviewed brokerage firms, and collected newspapers. The goal of the field study was to asses the cost of gathering stock information in the PRC. While any study of information environments in the real world is bound to be selective, we make the following observations.

Brokerage offices: Brokerage offices in the PRC have large, electronic boards that update stock prices throughout the day. These boards list stocks from both exchanges regardless of where the office is located. For example, brokerage offices in Shanghai show prices of *both* Shanghai-listed and Guangdong-listed stocks.

Trading terminals: Investors typically trade through terminals located in brokerage houses. These terminals offer equal access to the stocks listed in Shanghai and Guangdong. The availability of information (past stock prices, volume, order queue, etc.) is the same for

stocks listed on both exchanges.

Business newspapers: There are three main business newspapers in the PRC: China Securities Journal, Securities Times, and Shanghai Securities News. The offices of the three papers are located in Beijing, Guangdong(Shenzhen), and Shanghai. All three papers provide stock information on both Shanghai-listed and Guangdong-listed stocks.

Local newspapers: Local newspapers focus on local companies and local events. This might explain pure home bias but not location of trade bias. Local newspapers that list stock prices tend to list prices from both exchanges.

Ideally, we aim to carry out more formal tests based on electronic searches of the Chinese media. We have yet to find a database that allows us to do this. Baker, Nofsinger, and Weaver (2002) show that media attention goes up when firms cross-list between New York and London. The authors findings support of hypothesis that the cost of researching locally listed stocks is less than the cost of researching other stocks. We hope to follow-up with future studies in this area as data become available. In the meantime, we are able to conduct a series of tests related to long-lived information effects.

5.2 Long-lived information effects

Investors in the PRC have electronic access to market information about all stocks via computer trading terminals in the brokerage branch offices. They can read news releases online or in one of the three national newspapers. Since much of the daily, market-based news appears equally easy to acquire for any stock, we turn to investigating other differences in the information structure. In particular, we look at long-lived differences.

Our tests involve looking at the location of the investment bank that ran the initial public offering (or “IPO”.) We are interesting in testing whether investors who were more exposed to information about the company during the IPO process are more likely to hold the company’s stock today. We hypothesize that the IPO process generates information about soon-to-be-listed companies and this information lowers investor search costs. Formally, the null hypothesis is that events in the past (e.g., four years ago) should have no effect on holdings today. On average, stocks in our sample have been listed for four to five years ago and turnover is approximately two times per year.

We obtain a proprietary list of initial public offering (IPO) dates and investment banks. The

data cover 778 of the 945 companies in our sample and provide the location of the investment banks.

Pure home bias: For each of the 778 companies, we count the total number of shares held by all 51,218 investors in our sample. For each company, we then count the fraction of shares held by investors who currently live in the same region as the company’s headquarters. We call this our aggregate measure of pure home bias or $\Omega_{\text{pure home bias}}$. It is important to note that we do not have the complete holdings of each listed-firm. Therefore these results in this section are only indicative. We hope to conduct a future study of the complete holdings of the firm, but at this time we are not sure the data is available.¹⁰ For the pure home bias test, we consider only the 388 firms where we have at least one investors in our sample, who lives in the same region as the firm’s headquarters, and holds some of the firm’s stock (in other words, $\Omega_{\text{pure home bias}} > 0$). One can think of our test as follows: we take home bias as given and then measure differences (if any) of a home bias measure based on firm characteristics.

$$\Omega_{\text{pure home bias}} = \alpha + \gamma \cdot \text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}} + \varepsilon \quad (7)$$

For each of the 388 firms, we regress our aggregate measure of pure home bias on a constant and an indicator variable ($\text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}}$). The indicator variable ($\text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}}$) equals one if the investment bank the managed the firms original IPO is headquartered in the same region as the firm is headquartered.

The results are presented in Table VII, Panel A and are quite stunning. The fraction of shares held in home region-firms almost doubles if the investment bank is headquartered in the same region. To see this doubling we look at the regression estimates. Holdings are 0.2652 in firms where the investment bank is not local and are (0.2652+0.1893=0.4545) in firms where the investment bank is local.

Cultural affinity bias: Table VII, Panel B repeats a similar test for cultural affinity bias. In this test, we count the fraction of shares held by investors who were born in the same region as the company’s headquarters and call the measure $\Omega_{\text{cultural affinity bias}}$. Due to the limited nature of our sample, we consider the 595 of 788 firms with a positive measure of $\Omega_{\text{cultural affinity bias}}$. We again run a regression on a constant and our indicator variable ($\text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}}$). The fraction of shares in the birth region is more than double the average

¹⁰Our sample is representative of the overall market in many dimensions—see Feng and Seasholes (2003b). However, we know that investors currently live in only seven of the thirty-one regions. In this way, our data do not have enough breadth to fully explore what we would like.

fraction after considering the presence of the investment bank.

$$\Omega_{\text{cultural affinity bias}} = \alpha + \gamma \cdot \text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}} + \varepsilon \quad (8)$$

Location of trade bias: Finally, Table VII, Panel C tests long-lived effects and location of trade bias. We now calculate the fraction of shares in our sample that are held by investors who live in the same province (Shanghai or Guangdong) as the firm is listed. We call the measure $\Omega_{\text{location of trade bias}}$. Again we consider only the 667 of the 778 firms for which this measure is positive. We regress our measure on a constant and an indicator variable. This time, the indicator variable ($\text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}}$) equals one if the investment bank is headquartered in the same region as the stock is listed. We see the presence of a local investment bank almost triples the fractions of shares held (0.1689 compared with $0.1689+0.2735=0.4424$).

$$\Omega_{\text{location of trade bias}} = \alpha + \gamma \cdot \text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}} + \varepsilon \quad (9)$$

Conclusions from tests of long-lived effects: It is clear from our preliminary findings there need to be much more work in the area of long-lived information effects. We imagine similar studies can be undertaken in a variety of market settings including in the U.S. We hope that the full holdings of a company become available to us in the future so that we may expand upon our findings.

In the meantime, we limit our conclusion to our sample of 51,218 investors. We see that living near the investment bank that originally managed a company’s IPO, greatly increases one’s chances of holding the stock. We hypothesize that living near such an investment bank exposes an investors to additional information about the company. This information lowers search costs and raises the probability the investors will (someday) hold the stock. The results in Table VII indicate that long-lived information effects can help explain currently portfolio holdings.

5.3 Performance of the local-portion of a portfolio

As a final investigation into the market’s information structure, we check the returns of the local portion of an investor’s portfolio. Coval and Moskowitz (2001) and Ivkovich and Weisbenner (2003) show that the local part of U.S. investors’ portfolios tend to outperform

the distant part of their portfolios. Zhu (2003) does not find this result when looking at the same data as Ivkovich and Weisbenner (2003).

We look at the 16,924 investors who hold part of their portfolio in stocks that are headquartered in the province where they currently live, and part of their portfolio in stocks that are headquartered outside their home province. We then calculate the return of each part of their portfolio over the four weeks. We find that the local portion of the portfolio outperforms the distant part by approximately 62 bp per year. While this result is statistically significant at the 5% level, the result is not economically large. It is hard to argue that local investors have superior information that only earns them 62 bp per annum, and that this explains portfolio tilting. This result provides additional support that investors choose stocks with lower search costs (and not stocks that offer superior returns.)

6 Tests of alternative models and robustness checks

We now turn to existing models that attempt to explain portfolio biases. We test whether the predictions of these models can explain the dominance of the location of trade bias that we measure. We also retest our existing tests for robustness.

6.1 Transaction costs

Direct and high transaction costs: Stulz (1981) presents a model in which it is costly for investors to hold foreign securities. Our research design has specifically controlled for costs by examining an intranational setting with uniform transaction costs. Given the high turnover of international portfolios, Tesar and Werner (1995) posit that variable transaction costs are an unlikely explanation for home bias. The PRC also has high turnover, which leads us to believe that direct transaction costs cannot explain the portfolio tilting shown in this paper.

Indirect and small transaction costs: It is possible that investors experience very small transaction costs when switching between trading Shanghai-listed stocks and Guangdong-listed stocks. The costs may be related to execution time. During our sample period, brokerage offices maintained two accounts per individual (one account for holding stocks from each exchange). This system was much like the American system of having a checking and savings account at the same bank. Maybe investors didn't like switching back and forth

between accounts.

If small transaction costs are driving our results, we can formulate two hypotheses about the investors who do **not** live near a stock exchange (i.e., not in Guangdong nor in Shanghai). In aggregate, these “non-exchange” investors should hold roughly similar amounts of Shanghai-listed and Guangdong-listed stocks. At the individual level, the majority of investors should show a distinct preference for trading on one exchange over the other.

We select the 30,171 investors in our sample who live in the five non-exchange regions (Beijing, Heilongjiang, Hubei, Shandong, and Sichuan.) In aggregate, 56% of the stocks held by these investors are listed in Shanghai and 44% are listed in Guangdong.

At the individual level, 16,564 of the 30,171 investors hold 100% of their portfolio in stocks from one of the two exchanges. This high fraction ($16,564/30,171$) is misleading. 8,643 of the investors hold only one stock and therefore we can say nothing about a preference for one exchange over the other. Another 4,271 of the 16,564 hold only two stocks. Thus, there is approximately a 50% chance that both stocks will be listed on the same exchange. And 1,935 of the 16,564 hold only three stocks, so there is approximately a 25% chance all three stocks will be listed on the same exchange, and so on.

Given the empirical split of 56:44 mentioned above, we can reject the hypothesis that the majority of investors show a distinct preference for stocks from one exchange. Thus, there appears to be little evidence of other transaction costs that lead investors to invest in one exchange at a time.

6.2 Industry expertise/affinity

Industry expertise/affinity may possibly explain the location of trade bias. Suppose a certain industry tends to list in Shanghai and another industry tends to list in Guangdong. If Shanghai investors work in the first industry, they might believe they have private information about the industry. Or, they might feel more comfortable investing in companies from that industry.

We check the hypothesis that certain industries might be linked to one exchange or another. Appendix 3 shows the distribution of industries for the market as a whole, Shanghai-listed companies, and Guangdong-listed companies. A Wilcoxon sign-ranked test fails to reject the hypothesis that both distributions are the same (results not reported). This finding

matches our research. In the first decade of public stock exchanges in the PRC, the China Securities Regulatory Commission (CSRC), the regional CSRCs, and industry ministries worked to match the number, capital, and industry affiliations of companies on the two stock exchanges.

6.3 Non-traded goods

In a world with non-traded goods, investors may have hedging demands that can be met by holding local stocks—see Stockman and Dellas (1989) and Baxter, Jermann, and King (1998). Whether an investor over- or underweights the locally headquartered stock depends on whether the investor’s assumed utility function is separable between traded and non-traded goods and the level of risk aversion.

While non-traded goods can possibly explain pure home bias or cultural affinity bias, it is hard to imagine they can explain the location of trade bias that dominates our results. This could only happen if certain types of companies list on one exchange and certain types list on the other. The type of company that lists in Shanghai would have to provide hedging to Shanghai investors and not to Guangdong investors. What’s more, investors in the non-exchange regions would have to have hedging demands that were not related to those in either Shanghai and Guangdong. Appendix 3 shows little difference in the industries listed on the two exchanges.

6.4 Community effects

Thus far, we have used the market as the reference portfolio. It is possible that investors do not have mean-variance preferences. For example, investors care about aggregate community wealth as well as their own wealth. DeMarzo, Kaniel, and Kremer (2002) offer such a model. In such cases, we may measure a non-zero over/underweighting of locally headquartered stocks even though the true value might be zero. The error would stem from mis-specifying the reference portfolio.

The DeMarzo, Kaniel, and Kremer (2002) model might also explain the cultural affinity bias if investors want their wealth to exceed that of family and friends back in the region where they were born. Such an explanation makes sense in the modern-day PRC, where people travel to large cities to look for work. Money earned while working in a big city is often

sent back to the family or saved until the person returns home. Investors might overweight stocks that are headquartered where the investor was born *relative to the market portfolio*.

Community effects cannot explain overweighting of locally listed stocks. Locally listed stocks are not necessarily headquartered in the region where the investor lives nor are they necessarily headquartered in the region where the investor was born. Since location of trade is the dominant factor, we conclude that community effects do not explain the majority of our results.

6.5 Habit formation

Shore and White (2002) link external habit formation and home bias. In their model “a small group of agents holds primarily domestic securities.” Other agents with external habit formation then mimic the domestic bias of the small group. The authors envisage small business owners who are forced to hold local assets for agency reasons. In our case, there is no reason to think that a group of Shanghai investors are forced to hold Beijing stocks that are listed in Shanghai, as opposed to Beijing stocks that are listed in Guangdong.

6.6 Attention

A possible explanation of our findings may be related to recent work by Barber and Odean (2003). The authors hypothesize that investors face a difficult search problem when deciding which stocks to buy. In the PRC, investors must choose between almost 1,000 stocks; in the U.S. the number is an order of magnitude larger.

While attention may help explain why Shanghai investors limit themselves to buying Shanghai-listed stocks and Guangdong investors limit themselves to Guangdong-listed stocks, it does not help explain the behavior of investors from the non-exchange regions. As we show above, the majority of these investors hold stocks from both exchanges and do not limit themselves to stocks from one exchange or the other. While attention is one behavioral model for thinking about portfolio choice, we believe the costly search model better fits the data.

6.7 Better diversified investors

One worry in a study of investor behavior is that departure from rationality makes null hypotheses hard to verbalize. For example, does it make sense to use the CAPM portfolio as a reference portfolio if investors hold only three stocks? Clearly these investors care little about diversification. Therefore, we split our sample into those who hold few stocks (less than seven) and those who hold more stocks (seven or more) and redo the results in Table III. Regression estimates can be seen in Appendix 4. It is apparent that better diversified investors exhibit the same portfolio tilting as less diversified investors. Appendix 4 shows only regression coefficients (and not t-stats) for clarity.

6.8 Transformation of our over/underweighting measure

Readers might worry that the left-hand side (LHS) variables in the regressions from Table III and Appendix 4 are bounded (-100% , +100%). These limits might affect either coefficient estimates or significance tests. We redo the results in Table III after transforming the LHS variable. The transformation entails mapping the variable on the (0,1) interval and taking a logit transformation. Results and statistical significance (not reported) are not materially changed. That is, location of trade is still the dominant bias and it is statistically significant.

6.9 Distance from the exchange

Ideally we would like to test gradations of location effects, but we are limited by our sample. Since we have investors from only seven regions, it is not possible to test whether investors who live in a region next to an exchange tend to exhibit a location of trade bias. We hope to carry out such tests in future studies, but must first assemble a new dataset that allows us to do so.

6.10 Notes on our cultural affinity measure

It is possible that our cultural affinity measurements are affected by our interpretation of the NIC numbers. When an individual is first given an internal passport, the NIC number is coded with the individual's birth date, place of residence, and gender. If an individual moves, he or she is supposed to re-register with the police in the new location. The re-registration

results in a new NIC number that reflects the new place of residence. It is possible that investors in our sample have moved and re-registered. Thus, what we interpret to be an investor who is currently living in the region where he or she was born may actually be an investor who has moved to the region and re-registered.

Our statistical power comes from investors whose birth region is different from their home region. Any mis-specification would lead us to focus on recent or temporary migrants. These are the investors that one would expect to have the strongest cultural affinity bias. Yet the cultural affinity bias is economically and statistically small in our study. Thus, we are confident that the location of trade bias is the dominant effect.

6.11 Correlation of independent variables

We check the correlation of the right-hand side indicator variables used in the regression and ANOVA analyses. Not surprisingly, $Dum_{Home=HQ}$ and $Dum_{Birth=HQ}$ are correlated with a 0.8 coefficient. Individuals in the PRC tend to live and work in the region where they were born. The correlation of $Dum_{Home=Listing}$ with the other two indicator variables ranges between 0.15 and 0.25, depending on whether you look at all investors or only those from Shanghai and Guangdong. This is additional support that we have the statistical power to conclude that location of trade is the dominant factor.

7 Conclusion

We study investor portfolios in the People’s Republic of China (PRC). Our research exploits a number of features of this country: i) investors come from one of thirty-one regions; ii) companies are headquartered in one of thirty-one regions; iii) regions have cultural and linguistic differences; iv) there are two stock exchanges with no cross-listed stocks; v) there are uniform and low trading costs; and vi) investors have equal and seamless access to stocks listed on either exchange.

The research design decomposes portfolio holdings into three distinct and orthogonal dimensions. Investors overweight locally headquartered companies. Investors overweight firms headquartered in the region where the investor was born. Finally, investors overweight locally listed stocks. We show that the location of trade bias dominates investor portfolios. This result, combined with recent studies of cross-border ADR holdings, makes us recon-

sider past studies that have focused only on home bias. We reinterpret existing home bias findings as coming (in large part) from a location of trade bias. In other words, investors appear to have a strong preference for locally listed stocks. In the United States most locally listed stocks are from U.S. companies. Therefore, researchers may have assumed that U.S. investors prefer stocks of U.S. companies when investors simply prefer U.S.-listed stocks. Disentangling these preferences has been difficult up until now, because the U.S. and foreign markets operate in different time zones, in different currencies, with different trading costs, and under different legal systems.

Our results help explain recent studies that link location of trade to differences in asset prices. Studies such as Froot and Dabora (1999) and Chan, Hameed, and Lau (2002) attribute their findings to country -specific investor sentiment. This paper shows that investors are actually segregated by location of trade. This segregation allows for the possibility that different shocks affect different groups of investors differentially (and may affect asset prices differentially.) Clearly, there is a wealth of future projects that can examine how clientele effects affect asset prices.

A simple search model provides a consistent framework for thinking about portfolio choice. Alternative economic models fail to explain investor preference for locally listed stocks. Investors are faced with a very large search problem when trying to choose which stock to buy. Investors tend to choose stocks for which the cost of acquiring information is low. Examples of such stocks are: firms with headquarters near where the investor currently lives, firms with headquarters near where the investor was born, etc. In an effort to understand our findings, we examine the information structure in the market. We show that the location of the investment bank that originally managed a company's IPO is a good predictor of which investors hold the company's shares today. This finding suggests that initial conditions relating to the information structure are important even in high-turnover markets like the PRC. Our results open the door to a number of future research directions. How long-lived is information? What factors are related to investors holding a stock years after the IPO? Are these factors related to firm size, number of newspaper articles, or marketing budget during the IPO process? Answering these questions are key to understanding how economic agents process (and retain) information.

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Figure 1
People's Republic of China: Provinces, Autonomous Regions, and Municipalities

- 11. Beijing
- 12. Tianjin
- 13. Hebei
- 14. Shanxi
- 15. Neimenggu (Inner Mongolia)
- 21. Liaoning
- 22. Jilin
- 23. Heilongjiang
- 31. Shanghai
- 32. Jiangsu
- 33. Zhejiang
- 34. Anhui
- 35. Fujian
- 36. Jiangxi
- 37. Shandong
- 41. Henan
- 42. Hubei
- 43. Hunan
- 44. Guangdong (Canton)
- 45. Guangxi
- 46. Hainan
- 50. Chongqing
- 51. Sichuan
- 52. Guizhou
- 53. Yunnan
- 54. Xiazang (Tibet)
- 61. Shaanxi
- 62. Gansu
- 63. Qinghai
- 64. Ningxia
- 65. Xinjiang

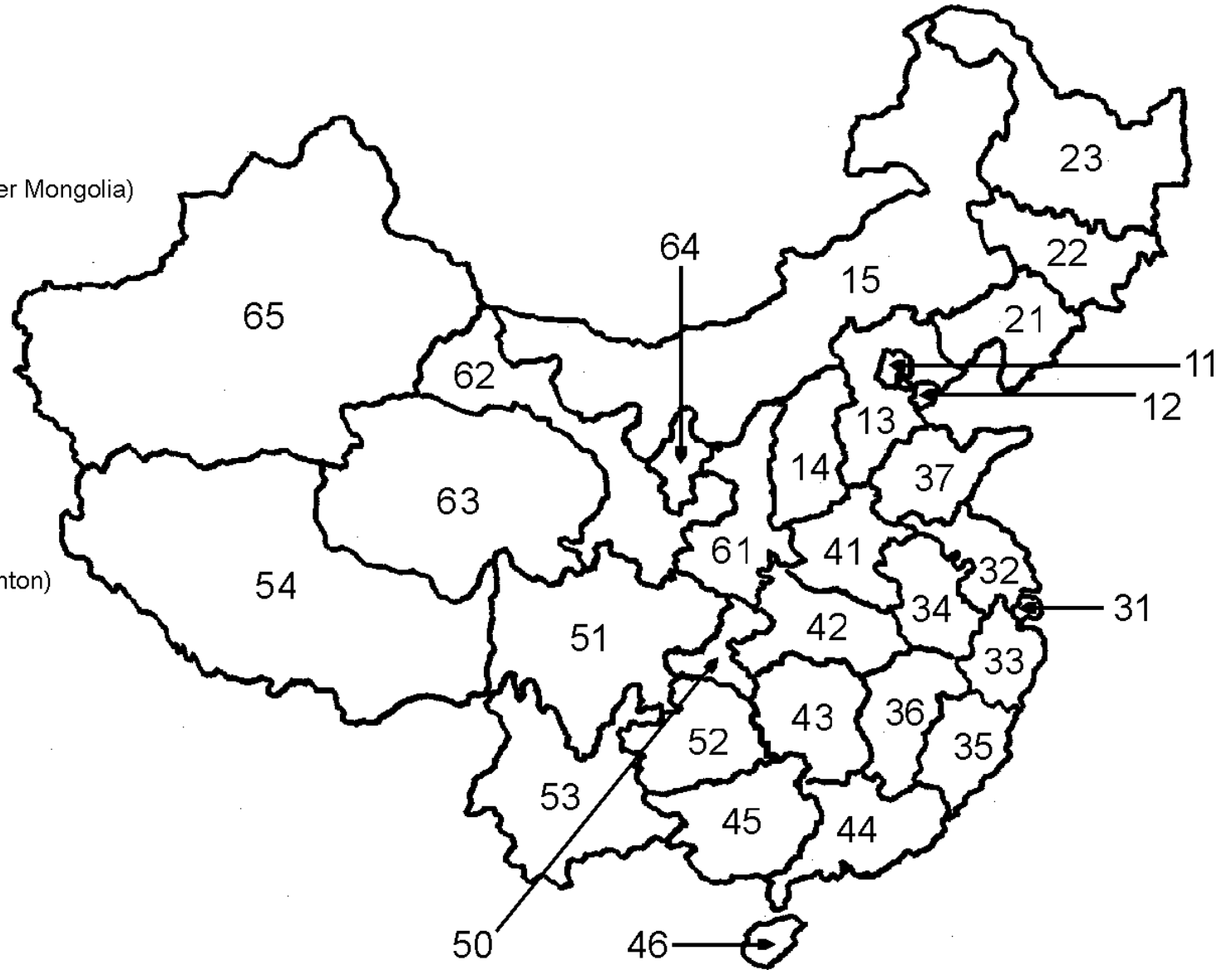


Table I
Portfolio Overview Statistics

The table presents some general overview statistics of the stock holding data. Our data come from fifteen branch offices of one brokerage firm. The branch offices are located in seven regions in the People's Republic of China (PRC). We concentrate on holdings from a single point in time: 01-Jun-2000. Other time periods from 1999 to 2000 are used as control groups. We have 51,218 distinct individual accounts that hold over RMB 7 bn. At an exchange rate of RMB 8 : USD 1 the holdings are approximately USD 1 bn.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Location of branch (region in PRC)	Number of branch offices (#)	Number of investors (#)	Median number of stocks per account (#)	Average portfolio value (RMB)	Median portfolio value (RMB)	Total portfolio value held by all investors (RMB)
Beijing	1	7,604	3	134,209	34,745	1,020,521,664
Guangdong	4	6,488	2	273,194	53,105	1,772,480,640
Heilongjiang	1	7,408	2	48,187	22,889	356,971,872
Hubei	1	4,399	2	90,893	32,455	399,836,800
Shandong	1	5,299	2	78,145	26,650	414,091,520
Shanghai	5	14,559	3	162,069	44,060	2,359,566,848
Sichuan	2	5,461	2	124,878	28,752	681,957,248
Total	15	51,218	--	--	--	7,005,426,592
Average	--	--	3	136,777	34,442	--

Table II
Overview of Portfolio Tilting (Bias)

The table overviews portfolio tilting in three, separate dimensions. Our data come from fifteen branch offices of one brokerage firm. We have 51,218 distinct individual accounts that hold over RMB 7 bn. The branch offices are located in seven regions in the People's Republic of China (PRC). We concentrate on holdings from a single point in time: 01-Jun-2000.

Panel A: Pure Home Bias

Region in PRC	Average fraction of portfolio held in the region where investor currently lives	Market capitalization of firms in region as a fraction of total market cap	Average overweight due to pure home bias
Beijing	0.1042	0.0671	0.0371
Guangdong	0.3131	0.2339	0.0792
Heilongjiang	0.0691	0.0200	0.0491
Hubei	0.1067	0.0339	0.0728
Shandong	0.0351	0.0090	0.0261
Shanghai	0.3724	0.2189	0.1535
Sichuan	0.1077	0.0399	0.0678
Average	0.1953	0.1128	0.0825

Panel B: Cultural Affinity Bias

	Average fraction of portfolio from region where investor was born	Average fraction of market from region where investor was born	Average overweight due to cultural affinity
Average	0.1692	0.0933	0.0758

Panel C: Location of Trade Bias

Region in PRC	Fraction of investor's portfolio held in locally listed stocks	Fraction of PRC market cap listed on local exchange	Average overweighting due to location of trade
Guangdong	0.8228	0.5157	0.3071
Shanghai	0.8431	0.4843	0.3588
Average	0.8368	0.4940	0.3428

Table III
Regression Results of Portfolio Tilting (Biases)

The table shows results for three distinct biases in a regression framework. For each investor, we calculate the percentage (weight) of his or her portfolio that is invested in each region/exchange combination (or “bin”). We calculate the percentage of the market in each bin. We regress the difference of these two weights on three indicator (dummy) variables. Regressions 1, 2, and 3 repeat the results from Table II. Regression 4 tests for all three biases simultaneously. Our data come from fifteen branch offices of one brokerage firm. The branch offices are located in seven regions in the People’s Republic of China (PRC). We concentrate on holdings from a single point in time: 01-Jun-2000. Regressions use all 3,175,516 investor/region/exchange combinations. T-statistics (in parentheses) are based on robust standard errors and correct for the actual number of non-zero investor/region/exchange combinations in our data set (149,691). Statistical significance and fit are discussed more thoroughly in the text.

$$\omega_{i,r,e} - \omega_{r,e}^* = \gamma_1 Dum_{Home=HQ} + \gamma_2 Dum_{Born=HQ} + \gamma_3 Dum_{Home=Listing} + \varepsilon_{i,r,e}$$

		Reg. 1	Reg. 2	Reg. 3	Reg. 4
Investor currently lives in same region as company’s headquarters (pure home bias)	Dum _{Home=HQ}	0.0825 (13.56)			0.0649 (5.86)
Investor was born in same region as company’s headquarters (cultural affinity)	Dum _{Born=HQ}		0.0758 (13.34)		0.0156 (1.52)
Investor currently lives in region where company’s stock is listed (location of trade)	Dum _{Home=Listing}			0.3428 (16.89)	0.3026 (15.88)

Table IV
ANOVA Results of Portfolio Tilting (Biases)

The table shows results for three distinct biases in an ANOVA framework. For each investor, we calculate the percentage (weight) of his or her portfolio that is invested in each region/exchange combination (or “bin”). We calculate the percentage of the market in each bin. We regress the difference of these two weights on a constant and three indicator (dummy) variables. Of the three indicator variables, the location of trade bias explains the highest percentage of variance. Our data come from fifteen branch offices of one brokerage firm. The branch offices are located in seven regions in the People’s Republic of China (PRC). We concentrate on holdings from a single point in time: 01-Jun-2000.

$$\omega_{i,r,e} - \omega_{r,e}^* = \alpha + \gamma_1 Dum_{Home=HQ} + \gamma_1 Dum_{Born=HQ} + \gamma_1 Dum_{Home=Listing} + \varepsilon_{i,r,e}$$

	Partial SS	df	MS	F	Prob > F
Model	282.93	3	94.31	10,649	0.0000
Dum _{Home=HQ}	30.12	1	30.12	3,401	0.0000
Dum _{Born=HQ}	2.38	1	2.38	268	0.0000
Dum _{Home=Listing}	100.58	1	100.58	11,353	0.0000

Table V
Multivariate Factor Model of Portfolio Tilting (Biases)

The table shows results for three distinct biases with a multivariate factor model. For each investor, we calculate weekly returns to his or her portfolio, over the next half year, based on holdings at one point in time. Individual returns are grouped into portfolios based on location. We describe the procedure for forming investor portfolios in the text. We also calculate the returns of the market portfolio, exchange portfolios, and regional portfolios. We regress the returns from each portfolio (of investor returns) on these factors. Our data come from fifteen branch offices of one brokerage firm. The branch offices are located in seven regions in the People's Republic of China (PRC). T-statistics (in parentheses) are based on robust standard errors. Sample size and fit are discussed in the text.

$$r_{i,t} = \alpha + \beta \cdot r_{mkt,t} + \Gamma_1 \cdot r_{Home,t} + \Gamma_2 \cdot r_{Born,t} + \Gamma_3 \cdot r_{Exch,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

	Reg. 1	Reg. 2	Reg. 3	Reg. 4a	Reg. 4b
Sample	all	all	all	All investors except for Guangdong and Shanghai	Guangdong and Shanghai investors only
r_{mkt}	0.9895 (41.98)	0.9086 (39.39)	0.9544 (85.15)	0.9920 (41.66)	0.5180 (3.03)
$r_{home\ region}$		0.0798 (3.95)			
$r_{birth\ region}$			0.0465 (4.75)		
$r_{local\ exch.}$					0.4768 (2.81)
Constant	-0.0009 (-1.06)	-0.0009 (-2.73)	-0.0010 (-5.45)	-0.0010 (-1.15)	-0.0086 (-1.38)

Table VI
Economic Costs of Portfolio Tilting (Biases)

The table provides a rough estimate of the economic costs of underdiversification. To simplify our calculations, we use weekly Sharpe ratios. We calculate the Sharpe ratio an investor would have achieved if s/he had held the market portfolio or one of the two exchange portfolios. We also calculate the average Sharpe ratio to holding one of the thirty-one provincial portfolios. Finally, we calculate the average Sharpe ratios an investor would have achieved from holding a portfolio with fifty stocks or a portfolio with only five stocks. Our data come from fifteen branch offices of one brokerage firm. The branch offices are located in seven regions in the People's Republic of China (PRC). We concentrate on holdings from a single point in time (01-Jun-2000.)

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Sharpe Ratio	"Cost" (difference from market)	Average over/underweighting (from Table III)
Holds entire market	0.1356	0.0000	0.0000
Holds stocks from one exchange (only)	0.1253	0.0103	0.3026
Holds stocks from one region (only)	0.1054	0.0302	0.0649
Holds 5 stocks (only)	0.0801	0.0555	
<hr/>			
Average investor in our sample	0.1198	0.0158	

Table VII
Information Structure and Long-Lived Effects

We test whether past differences in information are correlated with current holdings. We obtain a proprietary database covering initial public offerings (IPOs). For each of the 778 companies in the database, we calculate the total shares held by investors in our sample on 01-Jun-2000. Our data come from fifteen branch offices of one brokerage firm. The branch offices are located in seven regions in the People's Republic of China (PRC).

Panel A: Pure Home Bias

We test whether investors who live in the same region as a company's headquarters are more likely to hold the company's shares if the investment who managed the initial public offering (IPO) is headquartered in the same region. For each of the 778 companies in the database, we calculate the fraction of all shares in our sample held by investors who live in the same region as the company's headquarters. We call this fraction, ($\Omega_{\text{Pure home bias}}$). For the 388 companies with ($\Omega_{\text{Pure home bias}} > 0$), we regress the measure on a constant and an indicator variable ($\text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}}$). The indicator variable ($\text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}}$) equals one if the investment bank is headquartered in the same region as the company. T-statistics are based on robust standard errors.

$$\Omega_{\text{pure home bias},i} = \alpha + \gamma \text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank},i} + \varepsilon_i$$

α	γ
0.2652	0.1893
(14.38)	(7.61)

Panel B: Cultural Affinity Bias

We test whether investors who were born in the same region as a company's headquarters are more likely to hold the company's shares if the investment who managed the initial public offering (IPO) is headquartered in the same region. For each of the 778 companies in the database, we calculate the fraction of all shares in our sample held by investors who live in the same region as the company's headquarters. We call this fraction, ($\Omega_{\text{cultural affinity bias}}$). For the 595 companies with ($\Omega_{\text{cultural affinity bias}} > 0$), we regress the measure on a constant and an indicator variable ($\text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}}$). The indicator variable ($\text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}}$) equals one if the investment bank is headquartered in the same region as the company. T-statistics are based on robust standard errors.

$$\Omega_{\text{cultural affinity bias},i} = \alpha + \gamma \text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank},i} + \varepsilon_i$$

α	γ
0.1117	0.1652
(13.00)	(10.32)

Panel C: Location of Trade Bias

We test whether investors who were live in the same region where a company's stock is listed are more likely to hold the company's shares if the investment who managed the initial public offering (IPO) is headquartered in the same region. For each of the 778 companies in the database, we calculate the fraction of all shares in our sample held by investors who live in the same region as the company's headquarters. We call this fraction, ($\Omega_{\text{location of trade bias}}$). For the 667 companies with ($\Omega_{\text{location of trade bias}} > 0$), we regress the measure on a constant and an indicator variable ($\text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}}$). The indicator variable ($\text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank}}$) equals one if the investment bank is headquartered in the region where the company is listed. T-statistics are based on robust standard errors.

$$\Omega_{\text{location of trade bias},i} = \alpha + \gamma \text{Dum}_{\text{I-bank},i} + \varepsilon_i$$

α	γ
0.1689	0.2735
(20.35)	(18.72)

Appendix 1 **Regional Statistics from the PRC**

We present a list of the thirty-one regions in the PRC. Column 2 has the same regional code used in Figure 1. Column 3 has the size (in km²) of the province or municipality as provided by the central government of the People's Republic of China (PRC). Regional GDP and GDP per capita in Columns 4 and 5 are from the central government. Regional population in Column 6 is from the brokerage firm that supplied our data. Column 7 shows monthly household income and is from a private survey.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Region Name	Regional code	Area (km ²)	GDP (RMB bn)	GDP per capita (RMB)	Population (mm)	Monthly household income (RMB)
Anhui	34	139,400	290.9	4,707	66,117,241	636.7
Beijing	11	16,800	217.5	19,846	11,061,983	1,184.2
Chongqing	50	N/A	148.0	4,826	30,723,399	747.3
Fujian	35	136,000	333.0	10,797	32,835,978	1,067.9
Gansu	62	454,000	93.2	3,668	25,074,457	622.5
Guangdong	44	170,000	846.4	11,728	72,988,849	1,336.6
Guangxi	45	236,660	195.3	4,148	46,575,918	860.6
Guizhou	52	176,100	91.2	2,475	36,300,720	623.1
Hainan	46	34,000	47.1	6,383	7,431,864	788.8
Hebei	13	187,700	456.9	6,932	70,102,861	633.1
Heilongjiang	23	453,900	289.7	7,660	36,608,425	490.1
Henan	41	167,000	457.6	4,894	125,809,220	599.6
Hubei	42	187,400	385.8	6,514	59,425,019	754.0
Hunan	43	211,800	332.7	5,105	65,205,272	841.9
Jiangsu	32	102,600	769.8	10,665	70,090,824	950.4
Jiangxi	36	166,600	196.3	4,661	48,538,550	677.2
Jilin	22	187,400	167.0	6,341	26,161,000	548.8
Liaoning	21	144,900	417.2	10,086	42,988,207	617.7
Neimenggu	15	1,183,000	126.8	5,350	23,295,364	583.5
Ningxia	64	51,800	24.2	4,473	5,432,891	636.8
Qinghai	63	791,200	23.8	4,662	4,732,420	610.8
Shaanxi	61	205,600	148.8	4,101	39,097,650	720.5
Shandong	37	153,800	766.2	8,673	89,216,648	794.2
Shanghai	31	6,340	403.5	30,805	13,131,204	1,422.1
Shanxi	14	156,000	150.7	4,727	31,450,808	588.9
Sichuan	51	570,000	371.2	4,452	83,585,559	721.8
Tianjin	12	11,300	145.0	15,976	9,161,665	896.9
Xinjiang	65	1,660,000	217.5	6,470	17,633,656	820.2
Xizang	54	1,201,000	10.6	4,262	2,477,195	N/A
Yunnan	53	394,000	185.6	4,452	40,183,888	747.9
Zhejiang	33	101,800	536.5	12,037	45,123,435	1,456.6
Average				6,919		788.2

Appendix 2

Tilting (Bias) Classification System

Below are examples of ways investors might tilt their portfolios. Our classification system divides tilting (biases) into two main categories. Constrained biases are subject to the adding-up constraint that 100% of a company's shares must be owned by somebody at all times. For example, all investors can't overweight large stocks. For every investor who overweights shares of a large firm by one share, another investor must underweight the same firm by one share. Unconstrained biases are not subject to the adding-up constraint. As long as there is heterogeneity in where investors live and where companies are located, all investors are able to tilt their portfolios towards locally headquartered stocks.

Constrained Tilting (Biases)	Unconstrained Tilting (Biases)
The sum of all investors' over/underweighting measures is constrained to equal zero	The sum of all investors' over/underweighting measures is <i>not</i> constrained to equal zero
large (small) stocks	locally headquartered stocks
high (low) P/E stocks	stocks with headquarters near where the investor was born
high (low) M/B stocks	locally listed stocks
stocks with Swedish-speaking CEOs	stocks with a CEO who speaks the same language as the investor
stocks that publish annual reports in Finnish	stocks that publish annual reports in the investor's native language
stocks from a certain industry	stocks from the same sector that employs the investor (area of expertise)
stocks that begin with the letter "A"	stocks that begin with the same letter as the investor's last name
stocks with high (low) past returns	

Appendix 3 Industry Overview

The table shows the breakdown of companies at the letter level (roughest level) for the entire sample and divided by listing exchange. In the People's Republic of China (PRC), industries classified by one letter and up to four numbers. There are two stock exchanges in the PRC. One is in Shanghai; one is in Guangdong (in the city of Shenzhen). Stocks may not be cross-listed. Industry data provided by brokerage firm in PRC.

Entire Sample

Industry Code	Count	Fraction
O	1	0.11
A	19	2.01
B	10	1.06
C	523	55.34
D	33	3.49
E	15	1.59
F	30	3.17
G	55	5.82
H	82	8.68
I	6	0.63
J	30	3.17
K	34	3.60
L	10	1.06
M	77	8.15
blank	20	2.12

TOTAL 945

Shanghai-Listed

Industry Code	Count	Fraction
O	0	0.00
A	11	2.27
B	3	0.62
C	252	51.96
D	18	3.71
E	8	1.65
F	18	3.71
G	29	5.98
H	52	10.72
I	3	0.62
J	13	2.68
K	18	3.71
L	7	1.44
M	44	9.07
blank	9	1.86

485

Guangdong-Listed

Industry Code	Count	Fraction
O	1	0.22
A	8	1.74
B	7	1.52
C	271	58.91
D	15	3.26
E	7	1.52
F	12	2.61
G	26	5.65
H	30	6.52
I	3	0.65
J	17	3.70
K	16	3.48
L	3	0.65
M	33	7.17
blank	11	2.39

460

Appendix 4 Regression Results

We repeat the results shown in Table III, except that we divide our sample into two groups. Group 1 is made up of investors who hold less than seven stocks. Group 2 is made up of investors who hold seven or more stocks. Our data come from fifteen branch offices of one brokerage firm, located in seven regions in the People's Republic of China (PRC). We concentrate on holdings from a single point in time: 01-Jun-2000. We present only coefficient estimates for comparison with Table III.

$$\omega_{i,r,e} - \omega_{r,e}^* = \gamma_1 Dum_{Home=HQ} + \gamma_2 Dum_{Born=HQ} + \gamma_3 Dum_{Home=Listing} + \varepsilon_{i,r,e}$$

		# of stocks held	Reg. 1	Reg. 2	Reg. 3	Reg. 4
Investor currently lives in same region as company's headquarters (pure home bias)	Dum _{Home=HQ}	< 7	0.0807			0.0631
		≥ 7	0.0960			0.0797
Investor was born in same region as company's headquarters (cultural affinity)	Dum _{Born=HQ}	< 7		0.0742		0.0157
		≥ 7		0.0880		0.0136
Investor currently lives in region where company's stock is listed (location of trade)	Dum _{Home=Listing}	< 7			0.3522	0.3127
		≥ 7			0.2934	0.2468