Why are Countries' Asset Portfolios Exposed to Nominal Exchange Rates?[*]

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Abstract

Most countries hold large gross asset positions, lending in their domestic currency and borrowing in foreign currency. As a result, their balance sheets are exposed to nominal exchange rate movements. We argue that when asset markets are incomplete, this exposure provides partial insurance against shocks that move exchange rates. We demonstrate that this insurance motive can simultaneously generate realistic gross asset positions and resolve the Backus-Smith puzzle: that countries' relative consumption and real exchange rates are negatively correlated. Local perturbation methods are inaccurate in this setting as they approximate around the wrong interest rate, even when they correctly characterize the average portfolio holdings. So to accurately solve the equilibrium portfolio problem, we extend Maliar and Maliar (2015)'s global projection method.

JEL-Codes: F30, F41

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1   Introduction

Many countries have large gross asset positions. For example, Benetrix, Lane, and Shambaugh (2015) report that in 2012 the United Kingdom had foreign assets and liabilities each of over 400% of GDP. When balance sheet exposure is so large, macroeconomic shocks which change relative prices of internationally-traded assets may cause large wealth effects. So to be quantitatively useful, macroeconomic theory should explain the related questions of why such large gross asset positions arise and how they impact macroeconomic dynamics.

In this paper, we attempt to do exactly that. We show how how a single mechanism – portfolio choice with incomplete asset markets – can produce both large gross asset positions and a negative correlation between consumption and real exchange rates. The failure of complete markets models to match this correlation is known as the Backus-Smith puzzle (Backus and Smith (1993)), and is considered a major challenge for theories of international macroeconomic dynamics.

We restrict our attention to one version of this mechanism, the exposure of countries to nominal exchange rates through their holdings of nominal, debt-like assets.[1] We do this for two reasons. First, this channel is large: as we show in Section 2, the median country's nominal exchange rate exposure is 29% of GDP.[2] Second, the nature of the exposure to exchange rates is clear: because payoffs are fixed in nominal terms, a 1% appreciation of the domestic currency produces a 1% loss on debt-like assets denominated in foreign currency.

We represent this mechanism as an asset market restriction in an otherwise-standard two-country model. Households can only trade in nominal, non-contingent bonds. To insure against

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[1]We join a large recent literature researching exchange rate exposure and valuation effects on international portfolios, including Cavallo and Tille (2006), Tille (2008), Benigno (2009), Lee, Ghironi, and Rebucci (2009), Matsumoto and Engel (2009), Mendoza, Quadrini, and RiosRull (2009), Lane and Shambaugh (2010b), Corsetti, Dedola, and Leduc (2014), and Maggiori, Neiman, and Schreger (2017) among many others. Gourinchas and Rey (2014) provide a summary of the literature on valuation effects.

[2]When a country's currency depreciates by 1%, the value of its balance sheet declines by around 0.29% GDP, all else equal.

income shocks, households choose asset portfolios that are home-biased.[3] In the model, the dominant shock is a productivity shock. When productivity increases, domestic goods become more plentiful, reducing the real exchange rate. As the real and nominal exchange rates are positively correlated, households therefore borrow in foreign currency and save in domestic – resulting in portfolio losses when incomes are high and gains when low.

The portfolio home bias produced by the model is consistent with the data. Countries typically hold short positions in foreign-denominated nominal debt-like assets, and (weakly) positive positions in the domestic equivalents. This home bias in asset positions is, in turn, a simple explanation for the negative correlation of consumption and exchange rates. When the exchange rate depreciates, households' returns on their net asset position fall, and so consumption declines through an income effect.[4]

That bonds are both non-contingent and nominal is critical. Prior attempts to resolve the Backus-Smith puzzle using incomplete markets missed this mechanism by examining incomplete asset markets without all of these ingredients. Some papers considered only real bonds, to no avail; Lustig and Verdelhan (2016) prove that any portfolio decision over real non-contingent bonds yields a lower bound of zero for the Backus-Smith correlation. Other papers achieve a negative correlation by reduced the set of assets to a single nominal bond, so that standard perturbation methods could be employed without having to solve a portfolio decision over risky assets, as in Chari, Kehoe, and McGrattan (2002) or Evans and Hnatkovska (2014). Other asset market simplifications such as assuming perfect foresight (Eaton, Kortum, and Neiman, 2016)

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[3]Home bias in bond holdings is also component of the broader home bias in assets, which is puzzling in standard international RBC models; see Lewis (1999) for an early summary, and Coeurdacier and Rey (2013) for a more recent one. When asset returns are uncorrelated with labor income, as in Lucas Jr. (1982), households fully diversify. When domestic asset returns are positively correlated with labor income, households bias their portfolios towards foreign assets, as in Baxter and Jermann (1997).

[4]To the best of our knowledge, ours is the first paper which features endogenous portfolio decisions and achieves a realistic consumption-real exchange rate correlation. Coeurdacier and Rey (2013) note that most models with endogenous portfolios recover perfect risk-sharing, and that in papers where asset markets are incomplete, consumption and real exchange rates typically remain correlated, as in Benigno and Kucuk-Tuger (2008) and Coeurdacier, Kollmann, and Martin (2010).

or allowing only one country to trade the full set of assets (Benigno and Thoenissen, 2008) also can produce a negative Backus-Smith correlation. But these approaches eliminate any role for gross asset positions, shutting down the mechanism we discuss.

However, including these ingredients does pose a computational challenge. Standard perturbation methods are unable to solve the model because it is non-stationary near the steady state. So we also make a secondary computational contribution. We show that the probelms with local perturbation cannot be fixed using stabilizing assumptions, such as an endogenous discount factor (EDF). This holds even when using methods which correctly characterize average portfolio holdings.[5] Recently, Rabitsch, Stepanchuk, and Tsyrennikov (2015) have also shown that policy functions can be inaccurate in other setting when an EDF is used. We go further, showing that linearized perturbations result in wildly inaccurate predictions for the Backus-Smith correlation and other important macroeconmic moments. To address this, we develop a a global solution algorithm generalizing Maliar and Maliar (2015)'s projections method, demonstrating its accuracy.[6]

The points we raise here have wider relevance for models of international macroeconomies. We show that both gross international asset positions and correlations between major macroeconomic variables are sensitive to asset market structure. As a result, asset market structure is a key ingredient in any model which hopes to understand international macroeconomic correlations.

We start in Section 2 by laying out the stylized facts that motivate our model. In Section 3, we lay out our conceptual framework. In Section 4 we present our main results from a calibrated version of the model, comparing the output to that from a linear approximation

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[5]In this case, the Devereux-Sutherland algorithm. This method, presented in Devereux and Sutherland (2011), was developed independently and concurrently by Tille and van Wincoop (2010), and is closely related to the method of Evans and Hnatkovska (2012). Papers that use Devereux-Sutherland to solve endogenous portfolio problems with nominal bonds include Rahbari (2009), Berriel and Bhattarai (2013), Coeurdacier and Gourinchas (2016)

[6]This algorithm joins the large literature using projection methods to solve macroeconomic models, which Fernndez-Villaverde, Rubio-Ramrez, and Schorfheide (2016) survey.

around a steady state. In section 5 we examine the sensitivity of key model moments to alternative parameterization of the model. Section 6 concludes.

2 Stylized Facts

To motivate our paper, we document four stylized facts: three about international nominal debt positions, and one the well-known Backus-Smith puzzle. We focus on nominal debt because we want to study how changes in nominal exchange rates affect asset returns. With nominal debt, the impact is straightforward – a 1% appreciation of the domestic currency reduces the payoff of of foreign nominal bond by 1% in domestic currency terms. With other assets, such as equities, the impact is much less obvious. In a simple world with no frictions to prices or trade, equities are a fundamentally real asset, with payoffs unaffected by purely nominal shocks. In a more sophisticated environment, payoffs may be subject to risk correlated with the nominal exchange rate, but that risk is an equilibrium outcome rather than written into the security itself. So we choose to focus on debt alone.

The data we use to derive these stylized facts come from Benetrix, Lane, and Shambaugh (2015), who collect their debt data for 116 countries from the IMF and BIS during the period 1990-2012.

Stylized fact 1: Most countries' have negative net positions in foreign-currency-denominated debt.

We define a country's Net Foreign Currency Debt (NFCD) as the difference between its external assets and liabilities in foreign-currency-denominated debt[7]. We report sample statistics for within-country medians for this measure in Table 1, scaled by GDP. This measure captures the degree of nominal exchange rate exposure of a country's international portfolio position:

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[7]In the Benetrix, Lane, and Shambaugh (2015) dataset, this quantity is calculated as A_DEBT_FC_GDP-L_DEBT_FC_GDP. This would be equivalent to their NETFX measure, if it considered only debt assets and liabilities.

when the country's currency appreciates uniformly versus all other currency pairs, its balance sheet depreciates in nominal terms by the size of its NFCD.

	Net Foreign Currency Debt	Net Domestic Currency Debt	Bond Home Bias	Backus-Smith Correlation	
Mean	-0.32	0.01	0.33	-0.08	-0.11
First quartile	-0.48	0.00	0.13	-0.26	-0.44
Median	-0.29	0.00	0.30	-0.05	-0.11
Third quartile	-0.13	0.00	0.49	0.13	0.18
Emerging/Developing Mean	-0.35	0.00	0.36	-0.08	-.15
Developed Mean	-0.20	0.04	0.23	-0.09	.17
G7 Countries	-0.12	-0.05	0.08	-0.11	.14
Sample period	1990-2012	1990-2012	1990-2012	1950-2014	1990-2012
Number of Countries	116	116	116	181	181

Table 1: Cross-Country Statistics on International Portfolios and the Backus-Smith Correlation

The median NFCD is negative over the sample period for 107 of 116 countries[8], meaning that countries are typically debtors in foreign currency. The median position is -0.29, implying that a 1% uniform currency appreciation increases the typical country's asset position by 0.29% of GDP, when expressed in domestic currency. This is consistent with earlier estimates of exchange rate exposure by Eichengreen, Hausmann, and Panizza (2003), Goldstein and Turner (2004), and Lane and Shambaugh (2010a). Eichengreen and Hausmann (1999) refer to this pattern as "Original Sin" in emerging markets, although it holds in most developed economies as well. While the magnitude of this statistic does shrink following 2003, it is consistently negative over the sample, as shown in Figure 1.[9]

Stylized fact 2: Most countries' have positive or zero net positions in domestic-currency-denominated debt.

Similarly, a country's Net Domestic Currency Debt (NDCD) is the difference between its ex-

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[8]The only exceptions are, from largest position to smallest: Hong Kong, Switzerland, Singapore, Japan, Venezuela, Iran, Oman, Equatorial Guinea, and China.

[9]Benetrix, Lane, and Shambaugh (2015) study the aggregate portfolios, i.e. including other assets as well as bonds, and find that the equivalent measure for that portfolio is negative only prior to 2005.
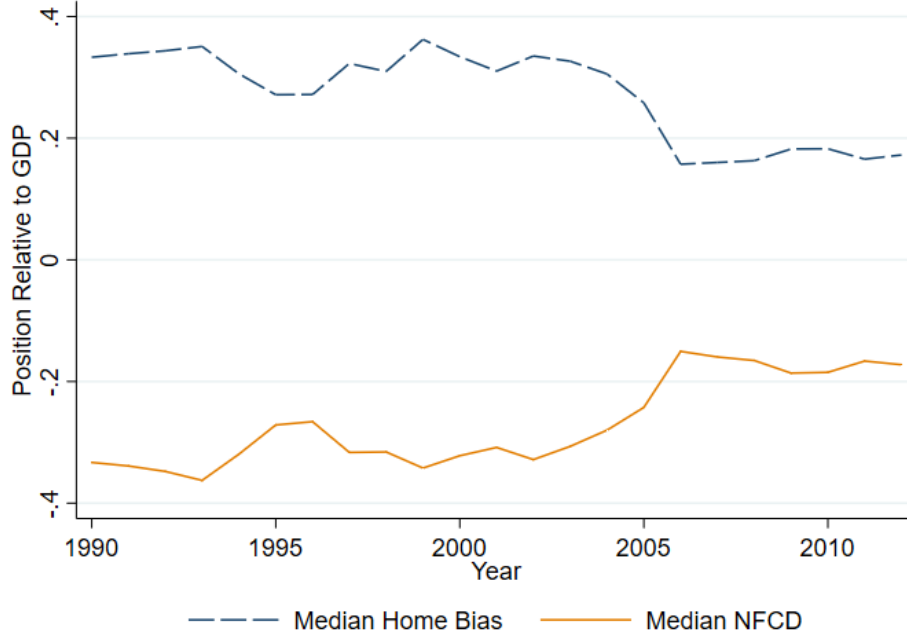
Figure 1: Bond Home Bias 1990-2012

ternal assets and liabilities in domestic-currency-denominated debt. For the overwhelming majority of countries, this is negligible. As most international debt is written in terms of a few global currencies[10], most countries have no external debt in their domestic currency. As shown in Table 1, a handful of developed countries are net creditors in their own currency[11]. This is not to say that no countries are net debtors in their own currencies, just that their positions are very small. As a result, the mean NDCD position is small and positive, at just 0.01.

Stylized fact 3: Debt asset currency denomination is home biased for most countries.

A country's home bias in bonds is their Net Domestic Currency Debt less their Net Foreign

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[10]Specifically the US Dollar, British Pound, Euro, Japanese Yen, and Swiss Franc. Benetrix, Lane, and Shambaugh (2015) report that there is nearly zero borrowing in foreign currencies other than these five.

[11]The countries with the largest median positions are Ireland (147% of GDP), Hong Kong (38%), Belgium (31%), Germany (12%), and Finland (11%)

Currency Debt. Because the latter is typically negative, and the former typically zero or positive, net debt positions are usually home-biased. Figure 1 demonstrates that this pattern holds over the sample period. Developed economies[12] show slightly less home bias in general, as do the G7 countries[13].

The advantage of focusing on bond home bias, rather than NFCD, is that it measures the *relative composition* of the debt portfolio. The NFCD alone does not truly capture this. A small, negative NFCD may reflect that a country is a net debtor with similar domestic currency net debt, and so no home bias. Or, that they are a net creditor with a large net domestic position, and so a large home bias.

Stylized fact 4: Most countries exhibit a negative correlation between consumption and the real exchange rate.

This is the well-known Backus-Smith puzzle. We illustrate it using data from the Penn World Table (Feenstra, Inklaar, and Timmer, 2015), reported in the last two columns of Table 1. For each country, this is the correlation of real consumption growth relative to the United States, with the pairwise real exchange between that country and the United States. Most countries have a negative correlation, consistent with previous findings (this is not specific to the pairwise correlation with the United States, either e.g. Benigno and Thoenissen (2008) report

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[12]Developed economies follow the definition of Benetrix, Lane, and Shambaugh (2015), namely: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Israel, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

[13]Coeurdacier and Gourinchas (2016) calculate exchange rate exposure for these 7 countries using the Lane and Shambaugh (2010b) data for 2000-2004 and find that 4 of the countries have negative home bias. However, when we use the extended 1990-2012 sample, this is only true for Japan, which is an outlier among the larger set of 22 developed economies. They estimate hedge factors for the same set of countries and find that real bonds are not an effective hedge for income risk, arguing convincingly that countries should choose a portfolio with negative home bias of real bonds. The difference between their conclusion and ours is that in this paper, we consider nominal bonds, which can be a hedge on income risk if inflation is sufficiently correlated with real income, allowing nominal exchange rates to correlate positively with real income even though real exchange rates do not. This is true, at least for the unconditional correlations in the United States (Table 5). Lastly, we cannot use their hedge factors to calculate portfolio positions in our model, as their portfolio formulas do not apply in a dynamic setting with incomplete markets.

a median estimate of -0.16 for advanced economies). The fourth column uses the entirety of the data set, while fifth column restricts the data to years for which we have portfolio statistics.

Together, these four stylized facts motivate our model, in which home bias in nominal assets occurs endogenously along side a negative Backus-Smith correlation.

3 Model

We consider a two-country RBC model, similar to the workhorse model of Backus, Kehoe, and Kydland (1992) but with two goods and without capital. There are two identical countries, indexed by $i = H$ and $i = F$, which we refer to as Home and Foreign. They are each populated by mass one of identical, infinitely lived households. Each country produces a tradable intermediate good and a nontradable consumption good. Consumption in each country aggregates the nontradable consumption good with a tradable consumption bundle, which itself is an aggregate of domestic and foreign intermediates.

3.1 Households

The representative household in country i maximizes

$$E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \frac{C_{i,t}^{1-\gamma} - 1}{1 - \gamma} \tag{1}$$

where $C_{i,t}$ is the domestic consumption good for country i in period t.

The household earns wage income $W_{i,t}$ per unit of labor, denominated in domestic currency[14]. The household inelastically supplies 1 unit of labor every period. The price level of the consumption good is $P_{i,t}$. The household has access to two asset markets. It can hold non-contingent domestic bonds $B_{i,t+1}^i$ at price $\frac{1}{R_{t+1}^i}$, which pays one unit of domestic currency in period $t + 1$, and it can hold non-contingent foreign bonds $B_{i,t+1}^j$ at price $\frac{1}{R_{t+1}^j}$, which pays

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[14] "Currency" here serves the role only of a unit of account, not a means of exchange nor a store of value. Given that we are most interested in wealth effects induced by relative fluctuations in competing units of account, this is an appropriate simplification for our purposes.

one unit of foreign currency. Both of these bonds are in zero net supply. $\mathcal{E}_t^{i,j}$ is the nominal exchange rate: the relative price of the country j consumption good in country j's currency, to the price of the country i consumption good in country i's currency.

The household's period budget constraint (denominated in domestic currency) is

$$W_{i,t} + B_{i,t}^i + \mathcal{E}_t^{i,j} B_{i,t}^j = P_{i,t} C_{i,t} + \frac{B_{i,t+1}^i}{R_{t+1}^i} + \mathcal{E}_t^{i,j} \frac{B_{i,t+1}^j}{R_{t+1}^j} \tag{2}$$

for $j \neq i$.

3.2 Firms

There are four types of firms in each country: intermediate goods producers, nontradable goods producers, tradable consumption goods producers, and final goods producers. All firms are perfectly competitive.

The intermediate goods producers hire domestic labor $N_{i,t}^T$ to produce a country specific tradable intermediate good $X_{i,t}$. Their production function is linear in labor, with productivity $A_{i,t}$, which is exogenous and stochastic:

$$X_{i,t} = A_{i,t} N_{i,t}^T \tag{3}$$

We will assume that the productivities and other exogenous states are jointly generated by a first-order Markov process.

The nontradable goods producers hire domestic labor $N_{i,t}^N$ to produce a country specific nontradable good $C_{i,t}^N$. Their production function is linear in labor:

$$C_{i,t}^N = N_{i,t}^N \tag{4}$$

Foreign and domestic tradable goods aggregate into a tradable consumption good $C_{i,t}^T$ by

$$C_{i,t}^T = (\alpha^{\frac{1}{\eta}} (X_{i,t}^i)^{\frac{\eta-1}{\eta}} + (1-\alpha)^{\frac{1}{\eta}} (X_{i,t}^j)^{\frac{\eta-1}{\eta}})^{\frac{\eta}{\eta-1}} \tag{5}$$

The elasticity of substitution η captures the degree of differentiation between foreign and domestic tradables, which moderates the effect of productivity changes on the relative price of final consumption in each country. The value of η is quantitatively important for our results, which we explore in Section 5.

The final goods producers in each country produce the consumption good from the tradable consumption good $C_{i,t}^T$ and the nontradable good $C_{i,t}^N$. Their production function is CES with elasticity of substitution ξ and tradable expenditure share μ

$$C_{i,t} = (\mu^{\frac{1}{\xi}}(C_{i,t}^T)^{\frac{\xi-1}{\xi}} + (1-\mu)^{\frac{1}{\xi}}(C_{i,t}^N)^{\frac{\xi-1}{\xi}})^{\frac{\xi}{\xi-1}} \tag{6}$$

The price of intermediate good $X_{i,t}^j$ in units of the country i consumption good is $P_{i,t}^j$, so intermediate goods firms solve

$$\max_{N_{i,t}^T} P_{i,t}^i A_{i,t} N_{i,t}^T - W_{i,t} N_{i,t}^T \tag{7}$$

The price of the nontradable good $C_{i,t}^N$ in units of the country i consumption good is $P_{i,t}^N$, so nontradable goods firms solve

$$\max_{N_{i,t}^N} P_{i,t}^N N_{i,t}^N - W_{i,t} N_{i,t}^N \tag{8}$$

Tradable goods firms aggregate the domestic and foreign intermediate goods. Where $P_{i,t}^T$ is the price of the tradable consumption good, the tradable consumption goods firms solve

$$\max_{C_{i,t}^T, C_{i,t}^N} P_{i,t}^T(\alpha^{\frac{1}{\eta}}(X_{i,t}^i)^{\frac{\eta-1}{\eta}} + (1-\alpha)^{\frac{1}{\eta}}(X_{i,t}^j)^{\frac{\eta-1}{\eta}})^{\frac{\eta}{\eta-1}} - P_{i,t}^i X_{i,t}^i - P_{i,t}^j X_{i,t}^j \tag{9}$$

Final goods firms in country i face prices $P_{i,t}^T$ for the tradable consumption good and $P_{i,t}^N$ for the nontradable good. They solve

$$\max_{X_{i,t}, X_{j,t}} P_{i,t}(\mu^{\frac{1}{\xi}}(C_{i,t}^T)^{\frac{\xi-1}{\xi}} + (1-\mu)^{\frac{1}{\xi}}(C_{i,t}^N)^{\frac{\xi-1}{\xi}})^{\frac{\xi}{\xi-1}} - P_{i,t}^T C_{i,t}^T - P_{i,t}^N C_{i,t}^N \tag{10}$$

3.3 Goods Prices

The first order conditions for both the intermediate goods firms and the nontradable goods firms imply that wages are proportional to their respective value marginal products of labor:

$$P_{i,t}^i A_{i,t} = W_{i,t} \tag{11}$$

$$P_{i,t}^N = W_{i,t} \tag{12}$$

The first order conditions for the tradable consumption goods firms imply

$$\left(\alpha \frac{C_{i,t}^T}{X_{i,t}^i}\right)^{\frac{1}{\eta}} = \frac{P_{i,t}^i}{P_{i,t}^T} \qquad \left((1-\alpha)\frac{C_{i,t}^T}{X_{i,t}^j}\right)^{\frac{1}{\eta}} = \frac{P_{i,t}^j}{P_{i,t}^T} \qquad [j \neq i] \tag{13}$$

and the first order conditions for the final goods firms imply

$$\left(\mu \frac{C_{i,t}}{C_{i,t}^T}\right)^{\frac{1}{\xi}} = \frac{P_{i,t}^T}{P_{i,t}} \qquad \left((1-\mu)\frac{C_{i,t}}{C_{i,t}^N}\right)^{\frac{1}{\xi}} = \frac{P_{i,t}^N}{P_{i,t}} \qquad [j \neq i] \tag{14}$$

The real exchange rate is the price of foreign relative to domestic consumption. The law of one price holds for both intermediate goods, so the nominal exchange rate $\mathcal{E}_t^{i,j}$ is

$$\mathcal{E}_t^{i,j} = \frac{P_{i,t}^i}{P_{j,t}^i} = \frac{P_{i,t}^j}{P_{j,t}^j} \tag{15}$$

and the real exchange rate $Q_t^{i,j}$ as

$$Q_t^{i,j} = \frac{P_{j,t}}{P_{i,t}}\mathcal{E}_t^{i,j} \tag{16}$$

The terms of trade in this economy is the relative price of the foreign intermediate in terms of the domestic intermediate:

$$S_t^{i,j} = \frac{P_{i,t}^j}{P_{i,t}^i} = \frac{P_{j,t}^j}{P_{j,t}^i} = \frac{1}{S_t^{j,i}} \tag{17}$$

3.4 The Price Level

Without further discipline, the price level is undetermined. So for both countries, we assume that the domestic intermediate price $P_{i,t}^i$ is exogenous and stochastic. When calibrating the

model in Section 4, we estimate a first-order Markov joint process for price and productivity shocks to ensure that their correlation is realistic.

We assume that the price level is stochastic so that perfect risk-sharing is impossible. If the only shocks were the two productivity shocks, households could choose portfolios of the two assets to recover perfect risk-sharing, as in Devereux and Sutherland (2007) and Engel and Matsumoto (2009). With four shocks, asset markets are incomplete, so relative consumption and the real exchange rate will not be perfectly correlated. Because two of the shocks are nominal, it is crucial that bonds are also nominal; if households were trading real bonds instead, perfect risk-sharing would be attainable.[15]

One interpretation of this assumption is that the domestic monetary authorities in both countries commit to stabilizing domestic tradable producer prices, but do so with error. For example, this would arise if there is a binding cash-in-advance constraint and money supply follows a Markov process. Alternatively, this assumption could be thought of as implying that domestic tradable producer prices are very sticky, but that this price stickiness does not have real effects on the production side of the economy as it does in Chari, Kehoe, and McGrattan (2002). Rather, it determines how inflation behaves in response to real shocks.[16] The key common feature of both these interpretations is that they both introduce some mechanism whereby inflation shocks have real effects on the household balance sheet. How exactly this arises is something we are agnostic about. So to emphasize the generality of this mechanism, we simply pick the simplest way of introducing it: exogeneity.

The price of the aggregate consumption good is the CES price index

$$P_{i,t} = (\mu(P_{i,t}^T)^{1-\xi} + (1-\mu)(P_{i,t}^N)^{1-\xi})^{\frac{1}{1-\xi}} \tag{18}$$

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[15]Alternatively, if households could hold two other independent assets - such as equities - they might recover perfect risk-sharing. We omit this option for households in order to consider only the case where asset markets are incomplete. While in reality households do hold other assets, they do not perfectly share risk.

[16]Indeed, in the calibrated solution of Section 4, we allow for a richer shock structure, with within-country correlation of the real and nominal shock, both contemporaneously and through the lag structure.

and the price of the tradable consumption good $C_{i,t}^T$ is the CES price index

$$P_{i,t}^T = (\alpha(P_{i,t}^i)^{1-\eta} + (1-\alpha)(P_{i,t}^j)^{1-\eta})^{\frac{1}{1-\eta}} \tag{19}$$

When $P_{i,t}^i$ is fixed at 1, the terms of trade $S_t^{i,j}$ moves one for one with the nominal exchange rate $\mathcal{E}^{i,j}$. An increase in domestic productivity $A_{i,t}$ relative to foreign productivity will increase the terms of trade, increasing the nominal exchange rate and the price level, which is why productivity growth is positively correlated with inflation in equilibrium.

3.5   Equilibrium Asset Prices

The household's optimal behavior includes an Euler Equation for each asset. The domestic bond's Euler equation is

$$1 = R_{t+1}^i \beta E_t \left[\left(\frac{C_{i,t}}{C_{i,t+1}} \right)^\gamma \frac{P_{i,t}}{P_{i,t+1}} \right] \tag{20}$$

while the Euler equation for the foreign bond $j \neq i$ is

$$1 = R_{t+1}^j \beta E_t \left[\frac{\mathcal{E}_{t+1}^{i,j}}{\mathcal{E}_t^{i,j}} \left(\frac{C_{i,t}}{C_{i,t+1}} \right)^\gamma \frac{P_{i,t}}{P_{i,t+1}} \right] \tag{21}$$

Both bonds suffer inflation risk due to variation in the price of consumption, while the foreign bond also suffers exchange rate risk because $\frac{\mathcal{E}_{t+1}^{i,j}}{\mathcal{E}_t^{i,j}}$ varies stochastically in equilibrium.

Given the same interest rate, a household has incentive to decrease its holdings of foreign bonds if exchange rate growth (currency depreciation) $\log \frac{\mathcal{E}_{t+1}^{i,j}}{\mathcal{E}_t^{i,j}} \equiv e_{t+1}^{i,j}$ covaries sufficiently with consumption growth $\log \frac{C_{i,t+1}}{C_{i,t}} \equiv c_{i,t+1}$. This is the central force that leads to home bias in assets; households choose to be long domestic bonds and short foreign bonds to minimize the correlation of their wage income with the returns on foreign bonds.

A second order approximation of the Euler equations provides a condition for home bias in assets. The second order log approximations[17] around the period $t+1$ average for the domestic

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[17]All approximations in this section are derived in Appendix A.

Euler equation (with lower case variables denoting growth rates) is

$$0 \approx \log R^i_{t+1} + \log \beta - \gamma E_t c_{i,t+1} - E_t \pi_{i,t+1} + \gamma^2 \frac{Var_t(c_{i,t+1})}{2} + \frac{Var_t(\pi_{i,t+1})}{2} + \gamma Cov_t(c_{i,t+1}, \pi_{i,t+1}) \tag{22}$$

where inflation of consumption prices in country i is defined $\pi_{i,t+1} \equiv \log \frac{P_{i,t+1}}{P_{i,t}}$. The Euler equation for the foreign bond $j \neq i$ is

$$0 \approx \log R^j_{t+1} + \log \beta + E_t e^{i,j}_{t+1} - \gamma E_t c_{i,t+1} - E_t \pi_{i,t+1} + \frac{Var_t(e^{i,j}_{t+1})}{2} + \gamma^2 \frac{Var_t(c_{i,t+1})}{2} + \frac{Var_t(\pi_{t+1})}{2}$$
$$- \gamma Cov_t(e^{i,j}_{t+1}, c_{i,t+1}) - Cov_t(e^{i,j}_{t+1}, \pi_{i,t+1}) + \gamma Cov_t(c_{t+1}, \pi_{i,t+1}) \tag{23}$$

Consistent with our critique of linearization solutions, this argument is not dependent on finding a steady state. It is an approximation around the conditional expectation in the next period given the current state, and thus holds no matter the current value of the state variable. Differencing the two Euler equations yields an approximate indifference condition for holding the two bonds:

$$\log R^j_{t+1} + E_t e^{i,j}_{t+1} - \log R^i_{t+1} \approx \gamma Cov_t(e^{i,j}_{t+1}, c_{i,t+1}) + Cov_t(e^{i,j}_{t+1}, \pi_{i,t+1}) - \frac{Var_t(e^{i,j}_{t+1})}{2} \tag{24}$$

The left hand side of this approximation is the premium of foreign bonds over domestic bonds, which is zero when uncovered interest rate parity holds. We use this equation to explain the intuition behind our main results.

3.6   Home Bias and the Backus-Smith Puzzle

How do households choose their portfolio allocations? When optimizing, they must satisfy approximation (24). The symmetry of the model implies that uncovered interest rate parity holds on average. Taking unconditional expectations of this approximation therefore yields:

$$0 \approx \gamma Cov(e^{i,j}_{t+1}, c_{i,t+1}) + Cov(e^{i,j}_{t+1}, \pi_{i,t+1}) - \frac{Var(e^{i,j}_{t+1})}{2} \tag{25}$$

The most obvious implication of this approximation is that when risk aversion γ is large, the covariance of consumption and the nominal exchange rate must be small in absolute value. The incomplete markets framework can therefore produce a weak correlation between at least the nominal exchange rate and consumption.

In addition to simply being small, depending on the other terms in this approximation, the consumption-nominal exchange rate correlation may also be negative. In particular, if $Cov(e_{t+1}^{i,j}, \pi_{i,t+1}) - \frac{Var(e_{t+1}^{i,j})}{2} > 0$ (a result which holds in some calibrations of the model) then this approximation dictates that $\gamma Cov(e_{t+1}^{i,j}, c_{i,t+1}) < 0$. When UIP fails to hold, for example when the two countries are not symmetric, the same logic holds, just for a threshold for $Cov(e_{t+1}^{i,j}, \pi_{i,t+1}) - \frac{Var(e_{t+1}^{i,j})}{2}$ which is different from zero.[18]

The mechanism whereby this occurs is through households' adjustment of their international bond portfolio. If households were to hold foreign and domestic bonds equally, we would expect $Cov(e_{t+1}^{i,j}, c_{i,t+1}) > 0$, because their total income would covary positively with the nominal exchange rate. In order to deliver $\gamma Cov(e_{t+1}^{i,j}, c_{i,t+1}) < 0$, they go long domestic bonds and short foreign bonds in order to reduce their exposure to exchange rate risk. Therefore, home bias in bond holdings is crucial part of explaining the consumption-real exchange rate anomaly; households achieve a low (or even negative) correlation of the consumption with the real exchange rate by shorting foreign assets.

The Backus-Smith puzzle concerns consumption and real exchange rates, but Equation (25) only characterizes the relationship between consumption and nominal exchange rates. To understand the covariance of relative consumption with the real exchange rate, express approximation (24) in real terms, by defining real exchange rate growth as $\log \frac{Q_{t+1}^{i,j}}{Q_t^{i,j}} \equiv q_{t+1}^{i,j}$.

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[18]If the unconditional average UIP differential is $\overline{UIP}$, then this condition becomes $Cov(e_{t+1}^{i,j}, \pi_{i,t+1}) - \frac{Var(e_{t+1}^{i,j})}{2} > \overline{UIP}$. Note in particular that UIP may be larger or smaller than zero,

Then differencing this condition for country H and country F implies

$$0 \approx Cov_t(e_{t+1}^{i,j}, c_{i,t+1} - c_{j,t+1} - \frac{1}{\gamma} q_{t+1}^{i,j}) \tag{26}$$

The implication of this approximation is that deviations from the complete markets consumption ratio are uncorrelated with exchange rate growth, which is the risky premium of foreign over domestic bonds[19]. Then use the relationship $e_{t+1}^{i,j} = q_{t+1}^{i,j} + \pi_{i,t+1} - \pi_{j,t+1}$ to rearrange this approximation in terms of the covariance between relative consumption and the real exchange rate:

$$Cov_t(c_{i,t+1} - c_{j,t+1}, q_{t+1}^{i,j}) \approx \frac{1}{\gamma} Cov_t(q_{t+1}^{i,j}, e_{t+1}^{i,j}) - Cov_t(c_{i,t+1} - c_{j,t+1}, \pi_{i,t+1} - \pi_{j,t+1}) \tag{27}$$

This approximation reveals why the portfolio decision can resolve the real exchange rate consumption puzzle. $Cov_t(q_{t+1}^{i,j}, e_{t+1}^{i,j})$ is positive, so if the intertemporal elasticity of substitution $\frac{1}{\gamma}$ is small, then the covariance of the real exchange rate and relative consumption will be negative if consumption covaries more with domestic inflation than foreign inflation. This holds in our model because productivity shocks make households richer, and so consume more, but at the same time cause a depreciation of the currency and so increase imported inflation.

3.7   Equilibrium

A competitive equilibrium in this economy consists of sequences for $t \geq 0$ of prices, $P_{H,t}$, $P_{F,t}$, $P_{H,t}^F$, $P_{F,t}^F$, $W_{H,t}$, $W_{F,t}$, $\mathcal{E}_t^{H,F}$, R_t^H, R_t^F; allocations, $C_{H,t}$, $C_{F,t}$, $N_{H,t}$, $N_{F,t}$, $X_{H,t}^H$, $X_{F,t}^H$, $X_{H,t}^F$, $X_{F,t}^F$; and assets $B_{H,t}^H$, $B_{F,t}^H$, $B_{H,t}^F$, $B_{F,t}^F$; given initial assets $B_{H,0}^H$, $B_{F,0}^H$, $B_{H,0}^F$, $B_{F,0}^F$ and realizations of the exogenous stochastic productivities and prices $A_{H,t}$, $A_{F,t}$, $P_{H,t}^H$, $P_{F,t}^H$; such that:

1. Households maximize their intertemporal utility (1), subject to (2).

2. Firms maximize profits, satisfying factor demands (11), (12), (13) and (14).

---

[19]Looking ahead to the solution techniques we discuss later, we note that equation (26) is *precisely* that used by Devereux and Sutherland (2011) to generate linearized solutions to the portfolio problem.

3. Markets clear, satisfying the household budget constraint (2), the labor market constraint $N_{i,t}^T + N_{i,t}^N = 1$ and production functions (3), (4), (5) and (6).

4. Household assets are in net zero supply: $B_{H,t}^H + B_{H,t}^F = 0$ and $B_{F,t}^H + B_{F,t}^F = 0$

5. The vector of exogenous states $(A_{H,t}, A_{F,t}, P_{H,t}^H, P_{F,t}^H)$ is generated by a first-order Markov process.

4 Results from a Calibrated Economy

In this section we discuss two main issues. First, we show that a calibration of the model including within-country correlated shocks can produce a small, negative correlation between the real exchange rate and relative consumption. The same calibration, though, fails to reproduce this fact if asset market restrictions are either tighter (the one bond case) or looser (complete markets).

The second issue we discuss is solution technique. The model is challenging to solve because a) the linearized model is non-stationary near the steady state, and b) the steady state is far from the solution manifold. We show that standard modifications that solve the first problem fail to produce accurate perturbation solutions simply because the second problem remains[20]. The results of Schmitt-Grohe and Uribe (2003), who argue that this approach works well in a small open economy model, do therefore not carry over to the two-country case.

4.1 Calibration

To illustrate how the model works to deliver a negative correlation between the real exchange rate and relative consumption, we calibrate at a quarterly frequency using standard parameters from the literature. The main restriction we impose at this point is that the shock processes in

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[20]This holds even for methods which produce accurate levels of asset holdings, such as Tille and van Wincoop (2010) and Devereux and Sutherland (2011), because they too rely on linearizing near the steady state interest rate.

the two countries are symmetric and independent[21]. We assume that the stochastic variables, productivity and prices, follow a joint autoregressive process:

$$
\begin{pmatrix} \log A_{i,t} \\ \log P_{i,t}^i \end{pmatrix} = B \begin{pmatrix} \log A_{i,t-1} \\ \log P_{i,t-1}^i \end{pmatrix} + \epsilon_{i,t} \qquad var(\epsilon_{i,t}) = \Sigma
$$

To calibrate this process, we estimate a VAR for detrended log tradable productivity $\log A_{i,t}$ and detrended log tradable prices $\log P_{i,t}^i$ on US KLEMS data[22]. The US KLEMS data on productivity and tradable prices are annual, but we are interested in macroeconomic statistics typically measured at a quarterly frequency, such as the Backus-Smith correlation. To generate a quarterly shock process, we estimate the VAR using the annual data, and then impute a quarterly VAR consistent with the annual process[23]. The estimated persistence and innovation covariance matrices are reported in Table 2 with standard errors from Maximum Likelihood Estimation.

	b_{11}	b_{21}	b_{11}	b_{22}	σ_{11}	σ_{12}	σ_{22}
Point estimate	0.95	0.01	0.00	0.97	0.00017	-0.00009	0.00015
Standard error	0.07	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.00002	0.00001	0.00002

Table 2: VAR estimates of the shock processes for output and prices

$$
\text{Where:} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix} \tag{28}
$$

[21]Our model is estimated as if two copies of the United States traded with one another. We select this symmetric case for three reasons. First, we choose not to estimate a pair of similar economies (e.g. the US and the Euro-zone) because we want to match the aggregate trade shares, and no two large economies have bilateral flows that are nearly as large as their total trade flows. Second, we choose not to estimate the US versus the rest of the world, because tradable/nontradable shares and prices are not available for the world as a whole. Finally, in this stylized model, we want to be clear that our results are generated by the few economic ingredients, rather than an asymmetry across countries.

[22]We follow Stockman and Tesar (1995) and define tradable sectors as: agriculture, mining, manufacturing, and transportation.

[23]This interpolation is, of course, not unique. But it is if we insist that the quarterly autocorrelations of productivity and prices are, like their annual counterparts, positive.

Although cross-persistence is minimal (the off-diagonal elements of B are small) the cross-correlation of the innovations is large, at -0.6. The key model mechanism is that households use their portfolio choice to insure against competing nominal and real shocks. So including correlation of these shocks is an important test of the quantitative validity of our results.

Parameter	Interpretation	Value	Justification
β	Discount factor	0.99	4% Annual real rate
γ	CRRA risk aversion	3	Standard value
α	Share of domestic goods in tradables	0.62	US KLEMS
η	Domestic-foreign elasticity of substitution	1.5	Standard value
μ	Share of tradables in consumption	0.21	US KLEMS
ξ	Tradable-nontradable elasticity of substitution	0.44	Stockman and Tesar (1995)

Table 3: Calibrated Parameters

The remaining parameter values are summarized in Table 3. While there is not strong agreement in the literature over the true value of some of these parameters (particularly γ and η), we endeavor to choose reasonable values. For the elasticity of substitution between domestic and foreign tradables η, calibrated values are typically between 0.9 and 2: Corsetti, Dedola, and Leduc (2008) use 0.99 and 1.11, Benigno and Thoenissen (2008) use 2, and we choose the Backus, Kehoe, and Kydland (1995) value of 1.5. In the international business cycle literature, values for the risk aversion coefficient γ typically range between 1 (log utility) and 5 (Chari, Kehoe, and McGrattan, 2002), so we select the midpoint 3. We consider the sensitivity of our results to these assumptions in Section 5.

4.2 The Backus-Smith Correlation in the Calibrated Model

The main object we wish to measure is the correlation of relative consumption growth with the real exchange rate. That is, given by:

Backus-Smith correlation $= corr\left(\log\left(Q_{t+1}/Q_t\right), \log\left(C_{1,t+1}/C_{1,t}\right) - \log\left(C_{2,t+1}/C_{2,t}\right)\right)$

Our main contention is that risky gross asset positions matter for this correlation. So we also compare our results those of two other models, representing alternative views. The first, complete markets, represents the notion that asset-based risk is not a meaningful driver of this correlation. The second, a symmetric one-bond model, captures the idea that only risks to the *net* asset position matter. In this case, we permit only an average bond, which costs one unit of each currency in period t and returns R_{t+1} units of each currency in period $t+1$. The corresponding Euler equations are then:

$$1 = R_{t+1}\beta E_t \left[\frac{1 + \mathcal{E}_{t+1}^{i,j}}{1 + \mathcal{E}_t^{i,j}} \left(\frac{C_{i,t}}{C_{i,t+1}} \right)^\gamma \frac{P_{i,t}}{P_{i,t+1}} \right]$$

Table 4 compares the prediction of these different models. The model with two bonds delivers a value of the Backus-Smith correlation of -0.23, and a positive home bias. This is shown in the third line of Table 4, and is consistent with the data in Table in 1. And in Table 5 above, we find a mean correlation between a sample of countries and the USA of -0.05. While the model-based and empirical moments differ slightly, the model with a meaningful portfolio choice is able to match this data moment substantially better than models with less rich portfolio choices. The complete markets model delivers a correlation of 1: the Backus-Smith puzzle. And the symmetric one-bond example produces a correlation of -1[24].

Model	Ave. bond home bias ratio	Backus-Smith correlation
Complete markets	-	1
One bond	0	-1
Two bonds, global solution	0.76	-0.23
Two bonds, EDF/perturbation solution	[0.34,0.79]	[-1.0, 0.1]

Table 4: Model values for bond home bias-output ratio and Backus-Smith correlation

What explains these different values? When markets are complete, a correlation of 1 is an equilibrium condition, because marginal utilities must be proportional to the real exchange

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[24]Stabilizing the model with an EDF gives answers that vary from -1.0 to 0.1. This is included in Table 4 for completeness, but not discussed in detail until Section 4.3.

rate.[25] When there is one bond and nontradables, positive productivity shocks to the tradable sector lead to consumption growth, because the risk is uninsured and makes countries richer. But tradables and nontradables are complements so the real exchange rate falls, and the Backus-Smith correlation is negative. This is the same effect as studied in Benigno and Thoenissen (2008), and similar to Corsetti, Dedola, and Leduc (2008), who instead suppose that home and foreign goods are complements.[26] Trade frictions (Eaton, Kortum, and Neiman, 2016) or, in general, other wedges that shift the relative price of consumption goods in the two countries can achieve negative correlations if their asset market structure is sufficiently simple.[27]

Yet when there are two bonds, countries are *partially* insured. After a domestic productivity increase, the nominal exchange rate rises because the foreign tradable becomes dear relative to the domestic tradable, and their nominal prices are fixed without a contemporaneous nominal shock. Households choose a portfolio exposed to this exchange rate risk, so that their portfolio loses value after a productivity shock, partly offsetting their gains from higher future productivity. To do this, they chose a home-biased portfolio. As Table 4 makes clear, of the three model types considered here, only the one with two bonds can produce this phenomenon.

As a result of this portfolio choice, the correlation between consumption growth and income is therefore less than one, indicating partial insurance. Table 5 verifies this, reporting this and other correlations for the model, as well as comparable empirical values.[28] The model's most

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[25]Some papers use demand shocks to achieve a negative real exchange rate by breaking the relationship between relative consumptions and relative marginal utilities. Bai and Ríos-Rull (2015) does this in a complete markets model and finds the opposite outcome: a perfectly negative correlation. Demand shocks in a model with endogenous portfolio decisions in a rich asset market could be an alternative to achieve a realistic Backus-Smith correlation.

[26]Mukhin, Itskhoki, and others (2016) criticize these mechanisms as being inconsistent with the Meese-Rogoff puzzle and the purchasing power parity puzzle. This criticism at least partially applies to our model; nominal exchange rates are not a random walk, and less correlated with real exchange rates than in the data (Table 5). Engel (1999) also criticizes this channel, finding that tradable prices account for most of the changes in relative price levels at short horizons. Alternative mechanisms through which productivity shocks can produce consumption growth and a real exchange rate decline for some asset market structures include nonseparable utility with news shocks (Colacito and Croce, 2013), nonseparable utility with labor wedge shocks (Karabarbounis, 2014), and financial shocks (Mukhin, Itskhoki, and others, 2016).

[27]For example,

[28]We calculate correlations of log quantities for the United States at a quarterly frequency. Income and consumption are taken from the national accounts. Real and nominal exchange rates use the BIS narrow effective

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prominent deviation from the data is the low correlation between real and nominal exchange rates. This is common in international macro models, and is referred to as the purchasing power parity puzzle (Rogoff, 1996). The disconnect between these two correlations allow nominal bond home bias to be a hedge for income shocks, whereas real bond home bias would not, as argued by Coeurdacier and Gourinchas (2016).

Variable 1	Variable 2	Model Value	Empirical Value (US)
Real exchange rate	Output	-0.36	-0.17
Nominal exchange rate	Output	0.09	0.09
Consumption	Output	0.65	0.95
Real exchange rate	Consumption	-0.53	-0.15
Real exchange rate	Nominal exchange rate	0.36	0.76

Table 5: Other Model Correlations

Home bias in the calibrated model is illustrated further in Figure 2, which shows the asset distributions in a ten-million-period simulation. Saving in the domestic currency is typically funded by borrowing in the foreign currency. Mean holdings of domestic assets equal 0.38, or 38% of average output[29]. The slight asymmetry in the distribution results from the fact that even though assets are not a random walk, they are very persistent, so even a very long simulation results in a slightly asymmetric asset distribution. As discussed in the next section, the persistence of assets is determined by the size of the average interest rate relative to $1/\beta$. Accurately calculating the interest rate is therefore critical for describing the dynamics of the model, including the Backus-Smith correlation.

This introduces the key issue of solution technique. Although the model itself is stationary, linearizing around the steady state interest rate will produce an average interest rate of $1/\beta$, and so deliver non-stationary debt dynamics. One approach to dealing with this issue is to

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exchange rate, which we seasonally adjusted at the quarterly frequency. When reporting correlations of levels, we first remove a linear time trend. Finally, Table 5 reports absolute levels for the US, which is different from the Backus-Smith statistic of Table 4, which reports the correlation of relative growth rates.

[29]Hence the average home bias figure in Table 4. Average home assets plus average foreign borrowing gives a home bias-GDP ratio of 0.78.
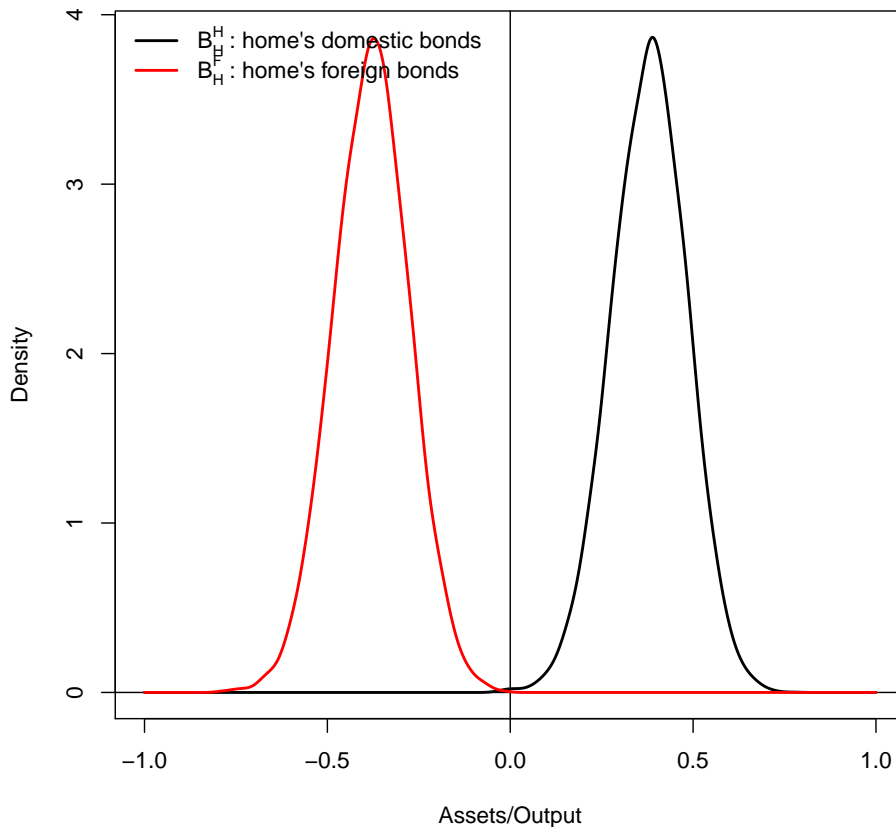
Figure 2: Distribution of bond holdings

modify the model to stationarize it near the steady state, as in (Schmitt-Grohe and Uribe, 2003). In following section we show that such modifications have non-trivial effects in our model. So instead, we solve the model using a nonlinear global method, based on that of Maliar and Maliar (2015). Details of the solution method are presented in Appendix B.

4.3 Perturbation Solution near the Steady State Interest Rate

In our model, the deterministic steady state interest rate is $R_t^H = R_t^F = 1/\beta$. Approximating the model near this point results in explosive asset dynamics, as the average rate of interest

equals the rate of time preference, and so induces a unit root in asset dynamics.[30] This is a common problem in small open economy models where the world interest rate is fixed, and is typically set to $1/\beta$. Schmitt-Grohe and Uribe (2003) show that a number of simple model modifications which stationarize the canonical small open economy model have no impact on a large range of economically relevant model moments. This is a key contribution to the solution of open economy models, as it allows them to be modified slightly and then solved by standard perturbation methods.

The modification that is most commonly used is to alter the consumer's preferences so that the discount rate is a function of current consumption[31]. This is often termed an "endogenous discount factor". This introduces a new parameter θ in the Euler equations, which become:

$$1 = R_{t+1}^i \beta C_{i,t}^\theta E_t \left[\left(\frac{C_{i,t}}{C_{i,t+1}} \right)^\gamma \frac{P_{i,t}}{P_{i,t+1}} \right]$$

$$1 = R_{t+1}^j \beta C_{i,t}^\theta E_t \left[\frac{\mathcal{E}_{t+1}^{i,j}}{\mathcal{E}_t^{i,j}} \left(\frac{C_{i,t}}{C_{i,t+1}} \right)^\gamma \frac{P_{i,t}}{P_{i,t+1}} \right]$$

The idea behind this approach is to pick a θ large enough that a local approximation is stationary, but small enough that the underlying economic properties of the model are unaffected. Figure 3 shows that this is a hopeless task, at least in the current model. This chart presents the Backus-Smith coefficient as a function of θ[32]. Small changes in θ have a very large effect on this coefficient. As θ varies from 0 to 0.1, the Backus-Smith statistic ranges from -0.9 to nearly 0.1. In other words, the parameterization of the ad hoc problem modification is

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[30]A related issue is that of perfect substitutability of assets at the steady state. In this model, as in others, this means that asset holdings are not unique in steady state. This problem on its own is a solved problem. Devereux and Sutherland (2011) show how to compute the correct approximation to asset holdings in such a model - and distinct from the one we address here. However, that technique also relies on approximating near a steady state interest rate of $1/\beta$. In our case, we face a further challenge: because the average intereest rate is not euqal to the steady state one, approximating near the steady state leads to innaccurate solutions.

[31]This is also the only one of Schmitt-Grohe and Uribe's modifications that does not alter the exact mechanism that we are trying to investigate: their ad hoc debt elastic demand curve is an endogenous feature of our model; portfolio adjustment costs would alter the portfolio decision that we want to study; and complete markets are precisely the paradigm that we know fails to produce empirically plausible Backus-Smith correlations.

[32]When we solve the model using a local linearization, we make sure to approximate around the true asset level using the approach of (Devereux and Sutherland, 2011).
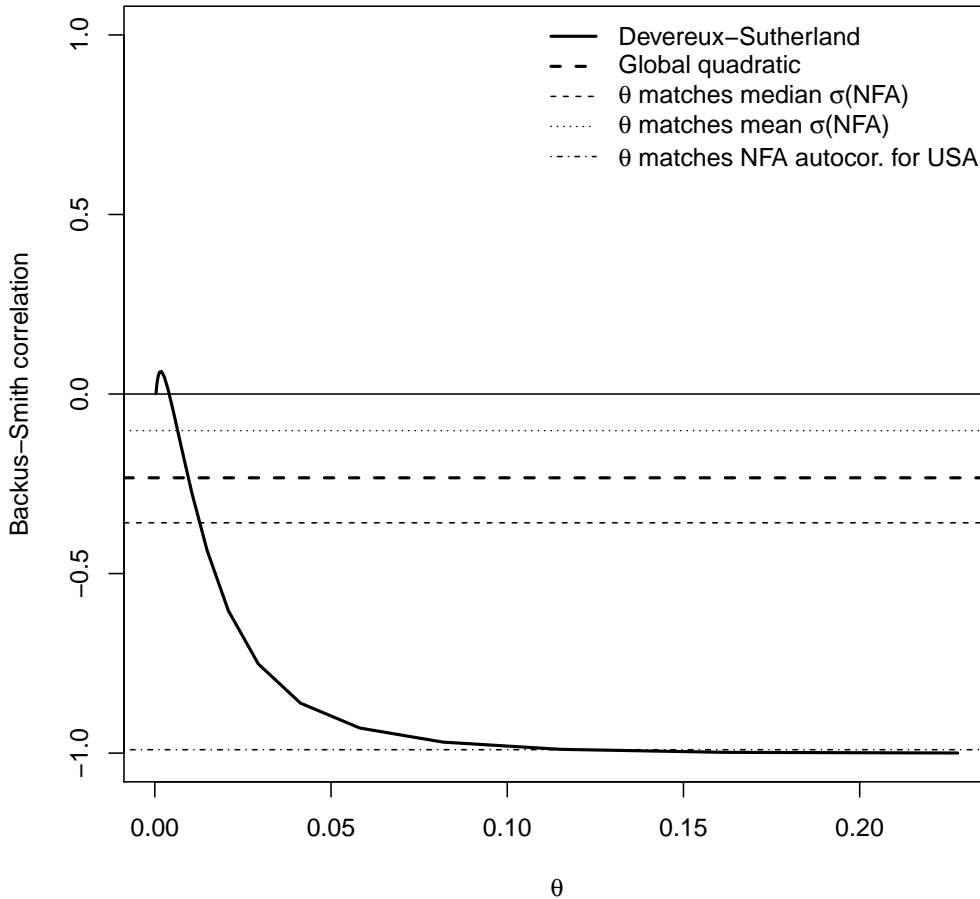
economically meaningful.

Figure 3: Consumption-real exchange rate correlation

Common practice is to try to calibrate θ by targeting some other moment of the data, typically some of the properties of net foreign assets[33]. If this can inform the choice of θ and select a stable value for the Backus-Smith correlations, then there may still yet be hope for the EDF-perturbation approach. So in Figure 3 we also show the results from calibrating θ to three different moments of the Benetrix, Lane, and Shambaugh (2015) cross-country data

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[33]There is no commonly accepted strategy for this calibration. Different papers choose values in a wide range, on the order of 10^{-4} (Rabitsch, Stepanchuk, and Tsyrennikov, 2015) to 10^{-3} (Devereux and Yetman, 2010) to 10^{-2} Yao (2012).

on net foreign debt assets (NFDA) - the pooled autocorrelation, and the mean and median within-country standard deviations - as well as a fourth alternative - matching the average bond home bias. Alas, these cannot pin down a single value for the Backus-Smith correlation, and produces numbers varying from -1 to -0.1. Not only does this approach fail to select a unique value for the Backus-Smith correlation, none of them appear to be very close to the correct value (computed via the global solution), at around -0.23. Other correlations, including those reported in Table 5 fluctuate similarly with the choice of θ.

Nor should Figure 3 be read as saying that $\theta \simeq 0.01$ is a "good" choice (the intersection of the curve and dashed "Global quadratic" line in Figure 3), simply because the local and global Backus-Smith correlations are similar. Not only does the "best" choice of θ vary with the particular calibration, but without having an accurate (e.g. global) solution, there is no way to know in advance what value of θ will deliver the correct Backus-Smith correlation. In Table 6 in Appendix C we show that other correlations are similarly sensitive to the choice of θ. In the next section, we discuss how to accurately solve the model, before preceding to compare the two solution approaches.

4.4 A Global Solution

The true model is stationary because the average interest rate in the model is less than $1/\beta$. This is related to home bias in bond holdings: households save in domestic bonds and lend in foreign bonds, as already shown in Figure 2. Because domestic production is a majority of domestic consumption, the domestic price level is more correlated with domestic than foreign shocks. As a result, the real return on foreign bonds (which is susceptible to exchange rate risk) is riskier than that on home bonds. So the borrowers of each bond bear more risk than savers. The average interest rate is therefore less than the steady state level to compensate borrowers for this extra risk. By ignoring risk, the steady state would eliminate this effect, producing average interest rates that are a too high and leading to nonstationary debt dynamics.

Our solution method is and extension of Maliar and Maliar (2015) and is described in detail in Appendix B[34]. The basic principles are quite straightforward, though. We guess a policy function for each variable in terms of the states[35], simulate the model, and update the policy functions based on the equation errors. Because our solution is global, we do not have to find a steady state first and then approximate the solution nearby. Instead, the algorithm fits an approximation to the entire solution manifold simultaneously[36]. And so the average gross quarterly interest rate in the solution is less than $1/\beta$. Asset dynamics are therefore stable. A similar effect occurs in Huggett (1993) and Aiyagari (1994) where idiosyncratic risk leads the equilibrium interest rate to be less than the discount rate.

Figure 4 displays the equilibrium relationship between interest rates and asset holdings in the calibrated solution, when all other variables are at their long-run averages[37]. There are two main points to note. First, that the interest rate is always less than $1/\beta$, stabilizing the model. This holds elsewhere in the state space too; the quarterly average log interest rate is 0.099, close to the lines shown in Figure 4. And while the difference between the true average interest rate and the steady state is small - only around one basis point per quarter - the steady state

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[34]Devereux and Sutherland (2010) suggest an alternative method to our global approach: guess a mean interest rate, linearize nearby, simulate, update the interest rate guess, and iterate to convergence. As noted by Rabitsch, Stepanchuk, and Tsyrennikov (2015), this will fail because the analytic solution for average asset holdings computed by local linearization formulae of Devereux and Sutherland (2011) do not hold away from the riskless interest rate. Computing a perturbation solution near a "risky steady state" in the vein of Coeurdacier, Rey, and Winant (2011), or the improved "exact-today" algorithm of Den Haan, Kobielarz, and Rendahl (2016), could potentially be used to solve our model as well.

[35]The basis functions we use for this are the full set of quadratic functions of the states, although this choice is a matter of accuracy rather than anything more fundamental. There are six states in the model: real and nominal shocks in each country, plus stocks of each asset. This means that for each model variable, we solve for coefficients defining the projection onto the intercept, linear, and quadratic iterations for each state, i.e. $1 + 6 + .5 \times 6 \times 7 = 28$ coefficients. With 13 model variables for each country, plus real and nominal exchange rates, this results in some $(2 + 2 \times 13) \times 28 = 784$ projection coefficients in total.

[36]In common with Maliar and Maliar (2015), the collocation points are updated at each iteration using the part of the state space covered by the simulation. Unlike methods with a preset grid of collocation points, such as Schmedders, Judd, and Kubler (2002), this greatly improves the efficiency of the algorithm by eliminating the need to solve the model in parts of the state space which are very rarely visited in equilibrium.

[37]Because equilibrium assets holdings and endowments are highly correlated, the conditional distributions of B_H^H and B_F^F are much narrower than the unconditional distributions shown in Figure 2. The x-axis ranges of the panels in Figure 4 cover more than twice the conditional range of B_H^H and B_F^F observed in a ten-million period simulation. Observations outside these ranges essentially never happen.

is the knife-edge separating stable from explosive dynamics, so even small differences can have large effects.

Second, as home's domestic saving increases above its average value (moving to the right in the left-hand panel), the return on home-currency bonds, R^H, falls relative to the return on foreign-currency bonds, R^F. This occurs because more domestic saving by country H requires more foreign borrowing by country F. Because international borrowers are more exposed to risk than savers, households in country F must be compensated through a lower cost of borrowing relative to the return on their assets. So in equilibrium, R_H falls relative to R_F.
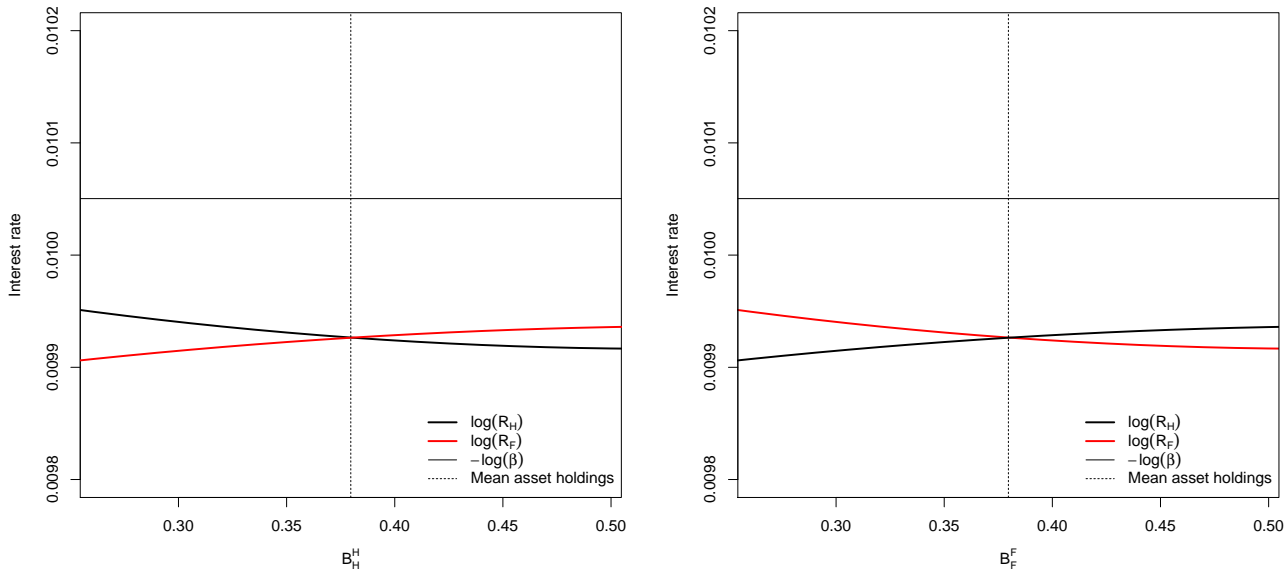
Figure 4: Equilibrium Asset Returns

To illustrate how this maps through to choices for savings, Figure 5 presents the policy functions for individual assets as a function of the states. Home bias is clear – the home country always is always long domestic assets and short foreign ones. Likewise, both home and foreign assets are increasing in wealth. Indeed, as holdings of domestic assets increase ($B^H_{H,t}$ rises) the home investors pay down foreign debt and increase domestic asset holdings. The resulting impact on net wealth is given by the sum of the red and black lines, which has a slope

Figure 5: Policy functions for savings

of 0.998 at the long-run mean, i.e. stable local dynamics.

4.5 Comparing solution methods

To check that the global method we develop is indeed more accurate than competing alternatives, we compute the errors on the four Euler equations and compare across solution methods.

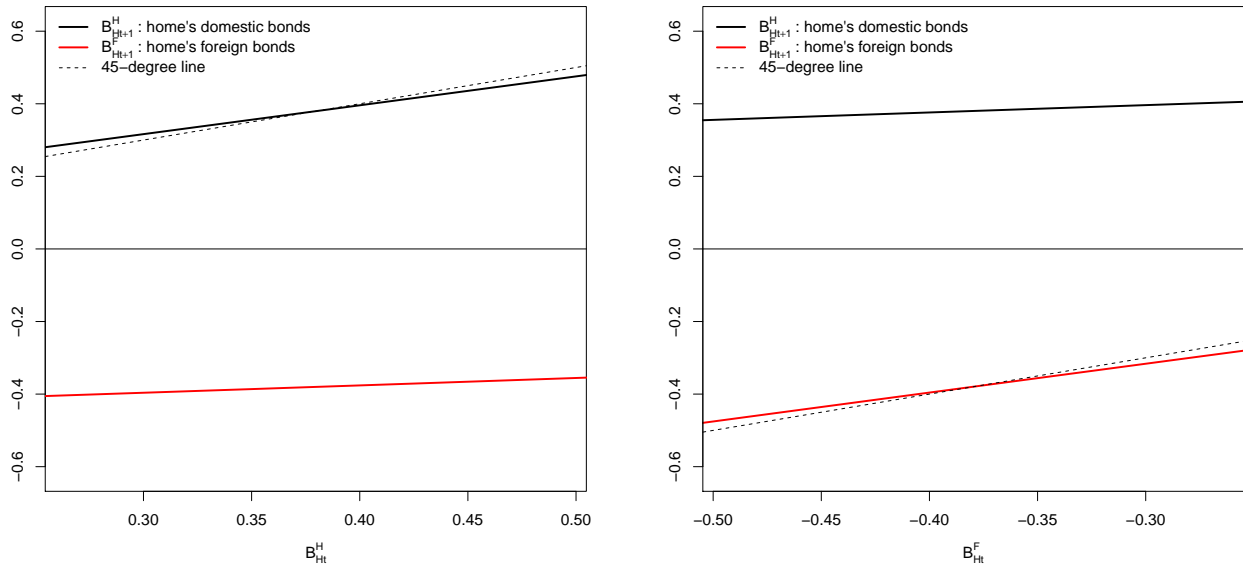Figure 6 shows the distribution of the log errors on the four Euler equations[38]. The blue and red lines show the errors from the linear and quadratic global solutions respectively. The black line shows the errors using the Devereux and Sutherland (2011) method, using an EDF of $\theta = 0.01$ to stationarize the model. Figure 7 summarizes these densities, displaying the mean and mean absolute error, reported in $\log_{10}$ units.

As these figures makes clear, the local method is biased, as it approximates around a point where the interest rate is $1/\beta$, which is not the true long-run average. This leads to *systematic*

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[38]Each is labeled with a variable name, because the (Maliar and Maliar, 2015) method associates each equation with a rules for one variable. Here, the Euler equations are satisfied by adjusting the rules for $B_{H,t}^H, \mathcal{E}_t^{H,F}, R_{H,t}$ and $R_{F,t}$

errors on the Euler equations, equivalent to nearly two basis points per quarter. This means that in the long run, households are incurring substantial losses relative to their optimal portfolio by following the policy rules computed in the local approximations. Not only is the local solution highly sensitive to changes in the stabilizing assumptions, it is also systematically wrong.

In the global quadratic approach, however, there is almost no bias at all; the average error on the Euler equations is in the order of one hundredth of a basis point. The global solution does not suffer from the systematic errors displayed by the local one.

The quadratic global solution method also generates very small absolute equation errors. The results from our method produce absolute log errors on the Euler equations that average to less than 10^{-5}, or below one tenth of one basis point per quarter. At least on some equations, this is an order of magnitude smaller than the alternative solution methods.

5   Parameter Sensitivity

In this section we examine how the equilibrium of the model varies with the chosen calibration. We find that the equilibrium correlations, especially the Backus-Smith correlation, are highly sensitive to parameter values. This includes parameter values that are not well identified in the literature, such as the risk aversion coefficient γ, the elasticity of substitution between foreign and domestic tradables η, and the elasticity of substitution between tradables and nontradables ξ. Figure 8 plots the equilibrium Backus-Smith correlation versus values for these three parameters.

The Backus-Smith correlation is especially sensitive to η, the elasticity of substitution between foreign and domestic tradables. Values of η much larger than 2, as is commonly estimated in the trade literature, imply that consumption and real exchange rates are almost perfectly correlated, contrary to the data. However, when the elasticity of substitution is much less than
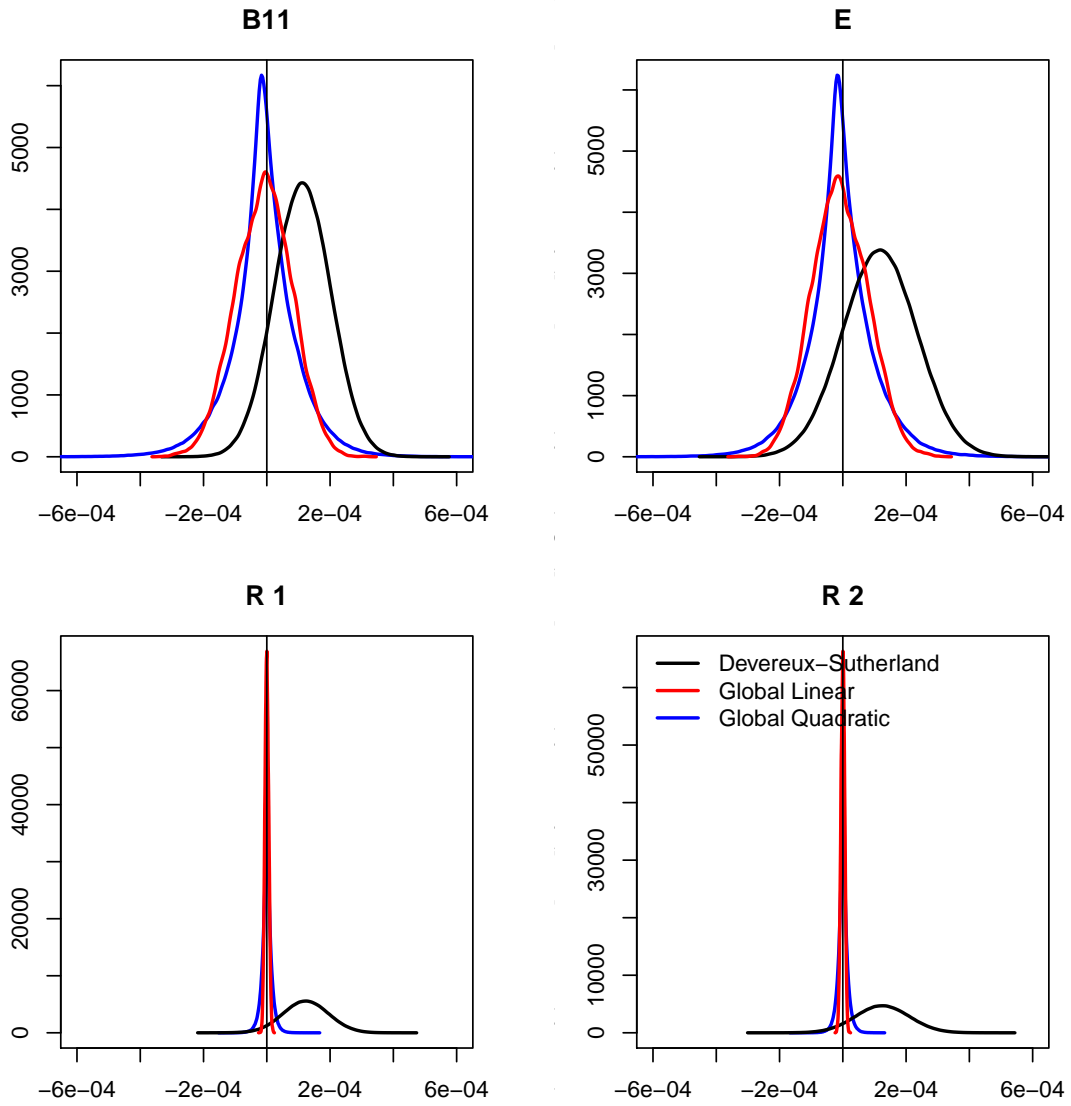
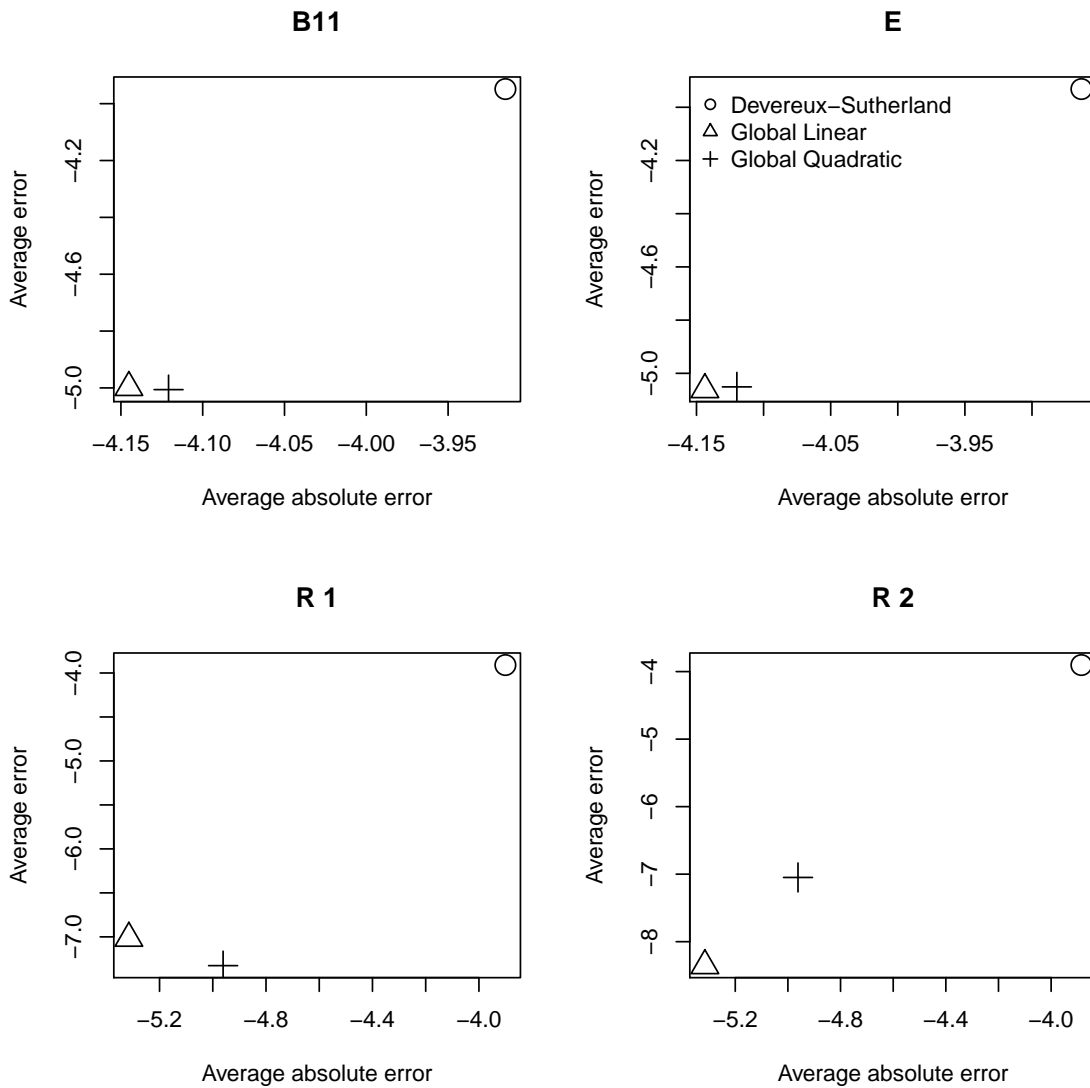Figure 6: Distribution of log errors on Euler equations

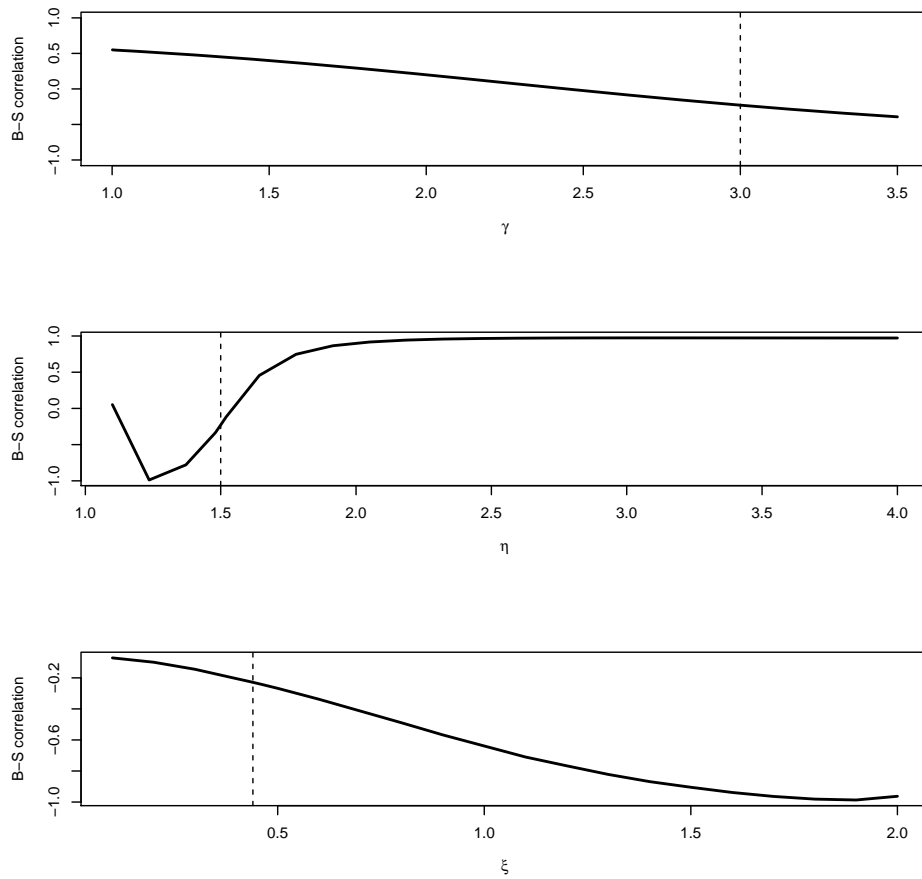Figure 7: Log errors on Euler equations (expressed in $\log_{10}$ units)

Figure 8: Parameter Sensitivity: Backus-Smith Correlation

2, as commonly assumed in the international macro literature[39], the correlation is negative, approaching -1.

Why is it so sensitive to η? When foreign and domestic tradables are more substitutable, changes in relative quantities have smaller effects on relative prices. So as η gets larger, domestic productivity shocks are associated with smaller real exchange rate depreciations. Accordingly, a home biased bond portfolio becomes less effective at insuring productivity shocks. Choosing more home bias to achieve the same insurance from real shocks would expose country portfolios to greater nominal risk, so households choose less home bias (Figure 9). With less home bias, countervailing valuation effects from productivity shocks are reduced, so productivity shocks and real exchange rate depreciations are associated with higher consumption. Thus the Backus-Smith correlation increases with η.

The elasticity of substitution between tradables and nontradables, ξ, is also poorly identified in the literature and has opposite effects as η. When tradables are complements, as commonly assumed, real exchange rates and consumption growth are loosely negatively correlated. But as ξ rises, the correlation approaches -1. A higher ξ increases the response of the real exchange rate to a change in the terms of trade. When domestic productivity increases, the real exchange rate depreciates by more when ξ is larger. This increases the valuation effect of a productivity shock. The home biased portfolio loses more money when the exchange rate depreciates, so consumption decreases by more. The reduces the Backus-Smith correlation (an exchange rate depreciation is an increase in q).

Bond home bias is increasing in risk aversion, γ (Figure 9). As risk aversion rises, households are less willing to consume out of an income shock. Productivity shocks generate smaller changes in relative consumptions across countries, so the real exchange rate is less responsive to real shocks. This makes a home biased bond portfolio less effective at insuring against

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[39]Macroeconomic papers estimate this parameter in a broad range: Taylor (1993) estimates .4, Heathcote and Perri (2002) estimate .9, Whalley (1985) estimates 1.5, and Corsetti, Dedola, and Leduc (2008) estimate 3.3.

real shocks. Households reduce their home bias, as a given portfolio position conveys less real income insurance for the same exposure to nominal shocks. A higher γ also decreases the Backus-Smith correlation (Figure 8), because as consumption becomes less responsive to productivity shocks, valuation effects begin to dominate.

Uncovered interest rate parity (UIP) does not hold exactly in our model. Figure 10 plots the UIP coefficient for different parameter values. When the UIP coefficient is one, interest rate differentials are perfectly offset by expected exchange rate growth, and uncovered interest rate parity holds. When the coefficient is zero, interest rate differentials do not predict exchange rate growth at all. The empirical UIP puzzle is that the coefficient is much less than one[40], which is difficult to reconcile with standard international macro models when solved with linearization. In our model, the relative demands for domestic and foreign bonds move in response to shocks, which requires small differences in expected returns to clear the bond market. Quantitatively, our model exhibits the UIP puzzle because the UIP coefficient is near one. But it also features small regular deviations from UIP, which suggest that global solution methods with endogenous portfolios might be a promising set of tools for researchers working to understand the uncovered interest rate parity puzzle.

6   Concluding Remarks

We have shown that a standard international macroeconomic model can jointly explain home bias in bonds and the Backus-Smith puzzle by incorporating incomplete asset markets and nominal non-contingent bonds. Home bias in bonds exposes a country's balance sheet to nominal exchange rate movements. The portfolio position occurs because household use home bias in bonds to partially insure against real income shocks, which are negatively correlated

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[40]A long literature following Bilson (1981) and Fama (1984) tests UIP and typically finds that the correlation is zero or negative. Engel (1996) surveys this evidence and many papers such as Burnside, Eichenbaum, Kleshchelski, and Rebelo (2011) and Menkhoff, Sarno, Schmeling, and Schrimpf (2012) demonstrates that the puzzle still holds in recent data.
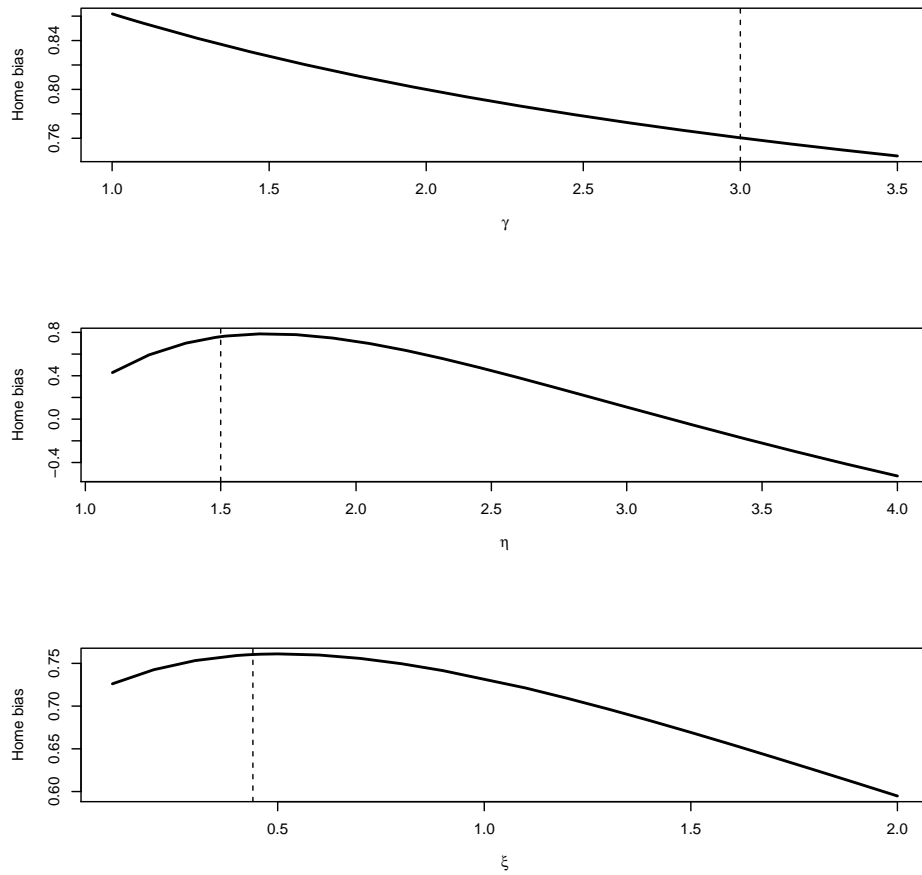
Figure 9: Parameter Sensitivity: Bond Home Bias
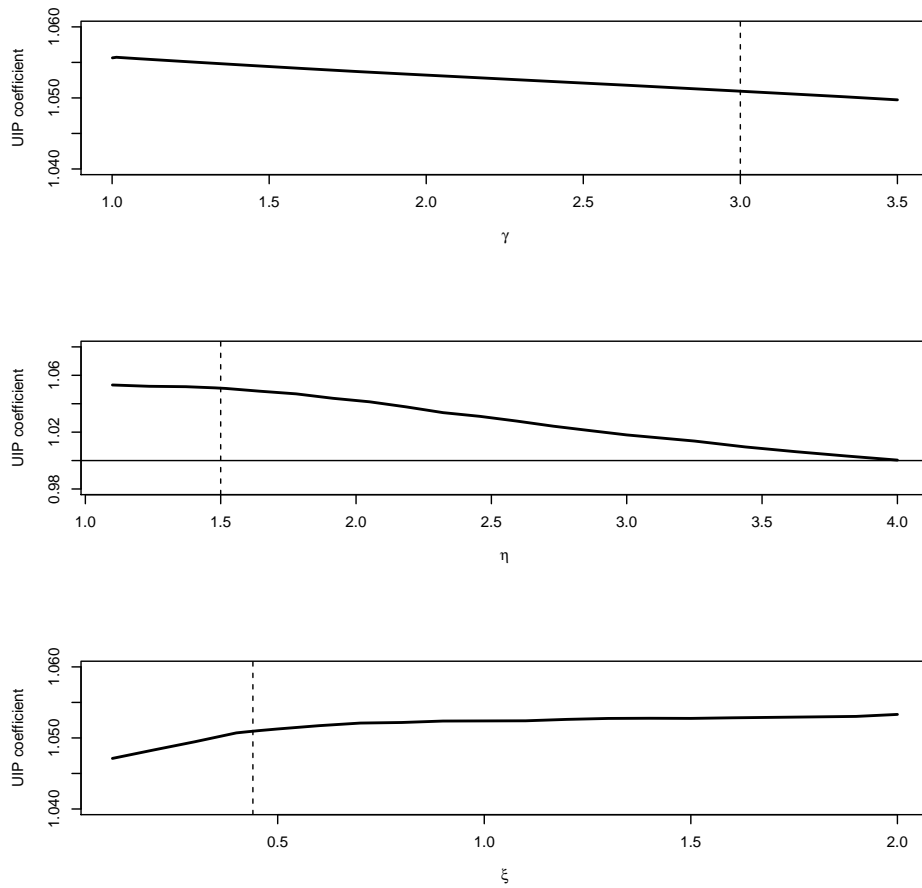
Figure 10: Parameter Sensitivity: Uncovered Interest Rate Parity

with exchange rates. This exchange rate exposure is large in the data, so macroeconomic models should incorporate endogenous portfolio choice to capture this channel. The asset market incompleteness must also be realistic, to yield accurate dynamics - in this case, the consumption-real exchange rate correlation.

We also show that solution methods are crucial to drawing accurate conclusions from a model with endogenous portfolios. Standard linear methods fail in this situation. The Devereux-Sutherland algorithm can correctly recover average portfolio holdings, but using it in conjunction with linearization and endogenous discount factors yield inaccurate predictions for macroeconomic dynamics.

Instead, we employed a global solutions method which generalizes the projections approach of Maliar and Maliar (2015). We show that our method is highly accurate and may be useful for research a variety of international macroeconomic puzzles. There are many cases in which linear methods are insufficient to capture crucial economic forces - particularly when risk and portfolio choice are involved. Our method is general, efficient, and easily implemented. We provide the code and documentation on our websites.

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A Approximations

Any asset with return X_{t+1} satisfies the pricing equation for the household in country i:

$$1 = \beta \mathbb{E}_t \left(X_{t+1} \left(\frac{C_{i,t+1}}{C_{i,t}} \right)^{-\gamma} \right) \tag{29}$$

Define $c_{i,t+1} = \log (C_{i,t+1}/C_{i,t})$, $x_{t+1} = \log X_{i,t+1}$, $\bar{x}_t = \mathbb{E}_t x_{t+1}$, and $\bar{c}_t = \mathbb{E}_t c_{t+1}$. Then the second-order expansion of the integrand in the pricing equation is:

$$X_{t+1} \left(\frac{C_{i,t+1}}{C_{i,t}} \right)^{-\gamma} = e^{x_t - \gamma c_{i,t+1}}$$

$$= e^{\bar{x}_{t+1} - \gamma \bar{c}_t} \left[\begin{array}{l} 1 + (x_{t+1} - \bar{x}_t) - \gamma(c_{i,t+1} - c_{i,t}) + \frac{1}{2}(x_{t+1} - \bar{x}_t)^2 \\[2mm] \qquad + \frac{\gamma^2}{2}(c_{i,t+1} - \bar{c}_t)^2 - \gamma(x_{t+1} - \bar{x}_t)(c_{i,t+1} - \bar{c}_t) \end{array} \right]$$

Substituting into (29) gives

$$\beta^{-1} e^{-(\bar{x}_t - \gamma \bar{c}_t)} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}\text{Var}_t\ x_{t+1} + \frac{\gamma^2}{2}\text{Var}_t\ c_{i,t+1} + \gamma\text{Cov}_t(x_{t+1}, c_{i,t+1})$$

$$\simeq \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\text{Var}_t\ x_{t+1} + \frac{\gamma^2}{2}\text{Var}_t\ c_{i,t+1} + \gamma\text{Cov}_t(x_{t+1}, c_{i,t+1}) \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad -\log \beta \simeq \bar{x}_t - \gamma c_{i,t} + \frac{1}{2}\text{Var}_t\ x_{t+1} + \frac{\gamma^2}{2}\text{Var}_t\ c_{i,t+1} + \gamma\text{Cov}_t(x_{t+1}, c_{i,t+1})$$

For the foreign bond,

$$X_t = \frac{1}{R_{t+1}^j} \frac{\mathcal{E}_{t+1}^{ij}}{\mathcal{E}_t^{ij}} \frac{P_t^i}{P_{t+1}^i}$$

Let $r_{t+1}^j = \log R_{t+1}^j$, $e_{t+1}^{ij} = \log \left(\mathcal{E}_{t+1}^{ij}/\mathcal{E}_t^{ij} \right)$, and $\pi_{i,t+1} = \log \left(P_{t+1}^i/P_t^i \right)$. Then:

$$\text{Var}_t x_{t+1} = \text{Var}_t e_{t+1}^{ij} + \text{Var}_t \pi_{i,t+1} - 2\text{Cov}_t(e_{t+1}^{ij}, \pi_{i,t+1})$$

Substituting in for this then gives equation (23)

$$0 \approx \log R_{t+1}^j + \log \beta + E_t e_{t+1}^{i,j} - \gamma E_t c_{i,t+1} - E_t \pi_{i,t+1} + \frac{Var_t(e_{t+1}^{i,j})}{2} + \gamma^2 \frac{Var_t(c_{i,t+1})}{2} + \frac{Var_t(\pi_{t+1})}{2}$$

$$- \gamma Cov_t(e_{t+1}^{i,j}, c_{i,t+1}) - Cov_t(e_{t+1}^{i,j}, \pi_{i,t+1}) + \gamma Cov_t(c_{t+1}, \pi_{i,t+1}) \quad (30)$$

Likewise for the domestic Euler equation, we recover equation (22):

$$0 \approx \log R_{t+1}^i + \log \beta - \gamma E_t c_{i,t+1} - E_t \pi_{i,t+1} + \gamma^2 \frac{Var_t(c_{i,t+1})}{2} + \frac{Var_t(\pi_{i,t+1})}{2} + \gamma Cov_t(c_{i,t+1}, \pi_{i,t+1})$$

(31)

B   Computation

B.1   Model Specification

The method we develop can be used to solve a general model with exogenous state X_t, endogenous state Y_t and controls $C_t = (C_t^1, C_t^2)$, where the equilibrium conditions can be written as:

$$X_{t+1} = \Theta(X_t, \epsilon_{t+1}) \qquad\qquad \epsilon_{t+1} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$$

$$Y_t = f_1 \left(Y_{t-1}, X_t, C_t, Y_t, \mathbb{E}_t g_1 \left(X_{t+1}, C_{t+1}\right)\right)$$

$$C_t^1 = f_2 \left(Y_{t-1}, X_t, C_t, Y_t, \mathbb{E}_t g_2 \left(X_{t+1}, C_{t+1}\right)\right)$$

$$C_t^2 = h(Y_{t-1}, X_t, Y_t, C_t)$$

Here, the partition of the control space allows for more model descriptions with more forward-looking equations than endogenous states, as is the case ni our model when $B_{21,t}$ and $B_{12,t}$ are written out via the market clearing conditions. A solution to this model is a pair of functions $Y_t = y(X_t, Y_{t-1})$ and $C_t = c(X_t, Y_{t-1})$ satisfying:

$$y(X_t, Y_{t-1}) = f_1 \left(Y_{t-1}, X_t, c(X_t, Y_{t-1}), y(X_t, Y_{t-1}), \mathbb{E}_t g_1 \left(X_{t+1}, c(X_{t+1}, y(X_t, Y_{t-1}))\right)\right)$$

$$c^1(X_t, Y_{t-1}) = f_2 \left(Y_{t-1}, X_t, c(X_t, Y_{t-1}), y(X_t, Y_{t-1}), \mathbb{E}_t g_2 \left(X_{t+1}, c(X_{t+1}, y(X_t, Y_{t-1}))\right)\right)$$

$$c^2(X_t, Y_{t-1}) = h(Y_{t-1}, X_t, y(X_t, Y_{t-1}), c(X_t, Y_{t-1}))$$

Where $C(\cdot) = (c^1(\cdot), c^2(\cdot))$. We can write the model in this paper in this form by letting:

$$X_t = (a_t^1, a_t^2)$$

$$Y_t = (B_{1,t+1}^1, B_{2,t+1}^2)$$

$$C_t^1 = (r_{t+1}^1, r_{t+1}^2)$$

$$C_t^2 = (c_{1,t}, c_{2,t}, x_{1,t}^1, x_{2,t}^2, x_{1,t}^2, x_{2,t}^1, n_{1,t}, n_{2,t}, p_{1,t}, p_{2,t}, p_{1,t}^2, p_{2,t}^1, e_t^{12})$$

Where lower case variables are the logarithms of their upper case counterparts (this is simply a change of variables that improves the accuracy of the resulting solution). The forward-looking equations for the endogenous states are defined by:

$$f_1\left(Y_{t-1}, X_t, C_t, Y_t, \mathbb{E}g_1\right) = \begin{bmatrix} B_{1,t+1}^1 - \left(\gamma c_{2,t} - \rho + r_{1,t+1} + e_t^{12} + p_{2,t} + \log \mathbb{E}g_1^1\right) \\ B_{2,t+2}^1 - \left(\gamma c_{1,t} - \rho + r_{2,t+1} - e_t^{12} + p_{1,t} + \log \mathbb{E}g_1^2\right) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$g_1(X_{t+1}, C_{t+1}) = \begin{bmatrix} \exp\left(-e_t^{12} - \left(\gamma c_{2,t+1} + p_{2,t+1}\right)\right) \\ \exp\left(e_t^{12} - \left(\gamma c_{1,t+1} + p_{1,t+1}\right)\right) \end{bmatrix}$$

So these reduce to $B_{1,t+1}^1 = B_{1,t+1}^1$ and $B_{2,t+1}^2 = B_{2,t+1}^2$ if and only if the two international Euler equations hold. For the forward-looking controls:

$$f_1\left(Y_{t-1}, X_t, C_t, Y_t, \mathbb{E}g_1\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \rho - \gamma c_{1,t} - p_{1,t} - \log \mathbb{E}g_2^1 \\ \rho - \gamma c_{2,t} - p_{2,t} - \log \mathbb{E}g_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$g_1(X_{t+1}, C_{t+1}) = \begin{bmatrix} \exp\left(-\left(\gamma c_{1,t+1} + p_{1,t+1}\right)\right) \\ \exp\left(-\left(\gamma c_{2,t+1} + p_{2,t+1}\right)\right) \end{bmatrix}$$

And the function $h(\cdot)$ is given by the remaining contemporaneous identities.

B.2 Functional forms

We approximate the functional solutions $y(X, Y)$ and $c(X, Y)$ with polynomials. The notation $d = \phi(\delta)$ means that the function $d(X, Y)$ is defined by the sum over the polynomials of (X, Y)

with weights given by the elements of the vector $\boldsymbol{\delta}$. That is:

$$d(X, Y) = \sum_i \delta_i q_i^n((X, Y))$$

Where $q^n(\mathbf{z})$ is the vector of all possible n^{th}-order combinations of the elements of $\mathbf{z}$. For example, if $\mathbf{z} = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, then:

$$q^2(\mathbf{z}) = (1, x, y, x^2, xy, y^2)$$

So the approximate solutions for $y(X, Y)$ and $c(X, Y)$ can be described by vectors $\boldsymbol{\delta}^y$ and $\boldsymbol{\delta}^c$[41].

In our calculations we use standard polynomials to approximate the functional forms of the solution, but in general one can use Chebychev or other polynomials as instead[42]. We also scale the basis polynomials depending on the expected variance of the states.

B.3 The algorithm

Given guesses $\boldsymbol{\delta}_j^y$ and $\boldsymbol{\delta}_j^c$, the instructions for updating them to coefficient guesses $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{j+1}^y$ and $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{j+1}^c$ are:

1. Simulate $(X_{t-1}, Y_{t-1}, X_t, Y_t)$ for a very large number of points. In the paper we use a simulation of 1,000,000 points, discarding the first 10,000 periods.

2. Use the EDS algorithm of Maliar and Maliar (2015), reduce this to an almost-ergodic set of many fewer points, denoted $\xi^j = \{X_\ell^j, Y_\ell^j, X_\ell^{j'}, Y_\ell^{j'}\}_{\ell=1}^m$. In the paper we use a target of $m = 1000$ points.

3. Solve for the set $\{\tilde{C}_{j,\ell}^2\}_{\ell=1}^m$ satisfying $\tilde{C}_{j,\ell}^2 = h(Y_\ell^j, X_\ell^{j'}, Y_\ell^{j'}, \tilde{C}_{j,\ell})$

4. Regress the $\{\tilde{C}_{j,\ell}^2\}_{\ell=1}^m$ on $q^2(Y_\ell^j, X_\ell^{j'})$ to get updated coefficients $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{j+1}^{c,2}$.

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[41]The same notation can be easily extended to vector-valued functions $y(X, Y)$ and $c(X, Y)$ by stacking the coefficients into the vectors $\boldsymbol{\delta}^y$ and $\boldsymbol{\delta}^c$.

[42]Regularized polynomials often have superior performance for approximations of order three and higher. This is because near zero, x^n looks very similar for $n \geq 2$. As we approximate only to second order, though, we use "raw" unsclaed polynomials.

5. Using monomial integration to evaluate the integrals, solve for $\{\tilde{Y}_\ell^{j'}, \tilde{C}_{j,\ell}^1\}_{\ell=1}^m$ solving:

$$\tilde{Y}_\ell^{j'} = f_1\left(Y_\ell^j, X_\ell^{j'}, \hat{c}_{j+1}(X_\ell^{j'}, Y_\ell^j), \tilde{Y}_\ell^{j'}, \mathbb{E}_t g_1\left(X_{t+1}, \hat{c}_{j+1}(X_t^{j'}, \tilde{Y}_\ell^{j'}))\right)\right)$$

$$\tilde{C}_{j,\ell}^1 = f_1\left(Y_\ell^j, X_\ell^{j'}, \hat{c}_{j+1}(X_\ell^{j'}, Y_\ell^j), \tilde{Y}_\ell^{j'}, \mathbb{E}_t g_1\left(X_{t+1}, \hat{c}_{j+1}(X_t^{j'}, \tilde{Y}_\ell^{j'}))\right)\right)$$

6. Regress $\{\tilde{Y}_\ell^{j'}, \tilde{C}_{j,\ell}^1\}_{\ell=1}^m$ on $q^2(Y_\ell^j, X_\ell^{j'})$ to get updated coefficients $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{j+1}^y, \boldsymbol{\delta}_{j+1}^{c,1}$.

The preceding description outlines the simplest way to update the vectors of coefficients that describe the model solution. However, in practice, a number of additional complications arise, omitted from the algorithm description for clarity. The first of these is the stopping rule. In the implementation used in the paper we terminate the algorithm when successive updates of the solution coefficients are sufficiently close. However, the ultimate test of convergence is the error on the model equations. With a novel method, such as this, evaluating the solution errors is of primary importance. Hence further discussion of them is promoted to the main body of the text.

Also omitted from this description is the role of damping. The method is, at heart, a policy function iteration algorithm. As is well know, policy function iteration often requires very heavy damping in order to converge, as discussed in Judd (1998). When solving the model in this paper, the initial gain is set to between 0.02 and 0.5 depending on the particular problem. Finally, to partially offset the slow convergence induces by damped policy function iteration we also allow for an adaptive gain. By making the gain a decreasing function of the distance between successive coefficient updates, we reduce the extent of the damping as the model converges.

Because solution can be expressed as a coefficient vector, this method also enables the enforcement symmetry of symmetry. We simply identify the symmetry restrictions that we wish to enforce and average out any deviations in the coefficients from symmetry. This also diminishes error propagation - small solution asymmetries can quickly lead to divergence.

To aid performance, we also write most of the solution code in C++. This leads to fairly swift solutions. A modern laptop takes approximately 2 minutes to produce a second-order solution to the six-state model in this paper. Linear solutions are much faster, but (as discussed in the body of the paper) are also less accurate, producing larger average Euler equation errors.

C   Further comparisons of the approximate solutions

Table 6 shows that the Backus-Smith correlation is not the only model moment which is sensitive to how the model is closed. It duplicates the correlations in Table 5, showing that they too depend on the choice of θ, both in terms fof their magnitudes and signs (see the correlation between the nominal exchange rate and output). The choices for θ are all *a priori* reasonable, and match those shown in Figure 3. Specifically, $\theta = 0.01$ and $\theta = 0.02$ match the mean and median standard deviation of net foreign assets, and $\theta = 0.12$ matches the dynamic autocorrelation for US net foreign assets.

Variable 1	Variable 2	Exact	$\theta = 0.01$	$\theta = 0.02$	$\theta = 0.12$
Real exchange rate	Output	-0.36	-0.35	-0.45	-0.66
Nominal exchange rate	Output	0.09	0.05	0.04	-0.04
Consumption	Output	0.65	0.63	0.70	0.89
Real exchange rate	Consumption	-0.53	-0.57	-0.47	-0.45
Real exchange rate	Nominal exchange rate	0.36	0.41	0.36	0.27

Table 6: Model Correlations. Choices of θ match those shown in Figure 3

D Country-Level Statistics

This Appendix reports the aggregate statistics of Table 1 at the country level. Portfolio statistics are calculated using the Benetrix, Lane, and Shambaugh (2015) dataset, while the Backus-Smith correlations use data form the Penn World Tables (Feenstra, Inklaar, and Timmer, 2015). Developed and Emerging economies are categorized as in Benetrix, Lane, and Shambaugh (2015).

County Name	Net Foreign Currency Debt	Net Domestic Currency Debt	Bond Home Bias	Backus-Smith Correlation	
Australia	-0.09	-0.35	0.24	-0.04	0.07
Austria	0.15	-0.39	0.47	0.05	0.29
Belgium	0.22	-0.11	0.45	-0.04	0.53
Canada	-0.10	-0.28	0.23	-0.13	-0.09
Denmark	-0.06	-0.38	0.34	0.03	0.40
Finland	0.12	-0.39	0.45	-0.26	-0.13
France	0.05	-0.16	0.26	0.04	0.63
Germany	0.18	-0.17	0.33	-0.19	0.08
Greece	-0.38	-0.09	-0.18	-0.07	0.09
Iceland	-0.07	-2.12	1.01	-0.33	-0.22
Ireland	1.17	0.10	1.16	-0.05	0.23
Israel	0.00	-0.19	0.24	-0.16	0.23
Italy	-0.14	-0.13	0.10	-0.03	0.19
Japan	0.05	0.15	-0.11	-0.10	-0.15
Netherlands	0.09	-0.26	0.43	0.01	0.48
New Zealand	-0.01	-0.59	0.57	-0.13	-0.20
Norway	-0.01	-0.04	0.06	-0.04	0.36
Portugal	-0.32	-0.09	-0.02	-0.25	0.19
Spain	-0.23	-0.13	0.01	-0.20	0.19
Sweden	-0.08	-0.44	0.44	0.00	0.14
Switzerland	-0.06	0.87	-1.00	0.18	0.32
United Kingdom	-0.26	0.00	-0.16	-0.26	0.22
United States	-0.16	-0.08	-0.06		
Sample period	1990-2012	1990-2012	1990-2012	1950-2014	1990-2012

Table 7: Developed Country Statistics on International Portfolios and the Backus-Smith Correlation

County Name	Net Foreign Currency Debt	Net Domestic Currency Debt	Bond Home Bias	Backus-Smith Correlation	
Albania	0.00	-0.16	0.14	-0.06	-0.13
Algeria	0.00	-0.29	0.30	-0.07	-0.42
Argentina	0.00	-0.11	0.11	-0.30	-0.21
Armenia	0.00	-0.36	0.37	-0.65	-0.66
Azerbaijan	0.00	0.05	0.11	-0.65	-0.65
Bangladesh	0.00	-0.31	0.30	-0.12	-0.01
Belarus	0.00	-0.19	0.14	-0.83	-0.83
Benin	0.00	-0.42	0.51	0.14	-0.50
Bolivia	0.00	-0.40	0.51	-0.28	-0.41
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.00	-0.38	0.37	-0.06	-0.07
Botswana	0.00	-0.16	0.15	0.11	-0.10
Brazil	0.00	-0.20	0.16	-0.08	0.00
Burkina Faso	0.00	-0.34	0.37	-0.33	-0.61
Cambodia	0.00	-0.05	0.01	0.01	-0.38
Cameroon	0.00	-0.40	0.44	0.25	-0.26
Chad	0.00	-0.40	0.35	0.32	0.08
Chile	0.01	-0.21	0.22	-0.65	-0.54
China	0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.21	-0.15
Colombia	0.00	-0.17	0.15	-0.44	-0.60
Congo	0.00	-1.36	1.49	0.32	0.04
Cote d'Ivoire	0.00	-0.87	0.83	0.04	-0.11
Croatia	0.00	-0.48	0.46	-0.59	-0.59
Czech Republic	0.00	-0.04	0.05	-0.47	-0.52
Dominican Republic	0.00	-0.22	0.21	-0.17	-0.56
Egypt	0.00	-0.07	0.09	0.13	-0.15
El Salvador	0.00	-0.30	0.32	0.44	0.57
Equatorial Guinea	0.00	-0.48	-0.03	0.12	-0.03
Estonia	-0.02	-0.21	0.18	-0.67	-0.67
Ethiopia	0.00	-0.58	0.63	0.23	0.03
Fiji	0.00	-0.10	0.08	-0.17	-0.40
Gabon	0.00	-0.26	0.46	0.14	-0.13
Georgia	0.00	-0.46	0.50	-0.78	-0.78
Ghana	0.00	-0.41	0.40	-0.09	-0.29
Guatemala	0.00	-0.09	0.12	-0.11	-0.30
Guinea	0.00	-0.74	0.81	-0.14	-0.09
Haiti	0.00	-0.39	0.28	0.01	-0.04
Honduras	0.00	-0.60	0.60	-0.13	-0.54
Hong Kong	0.40	1.00	-0.58	-0.17	-0.16
Hungary	0.00	-0.54	0.50	-0.17	-0.01
India	0.00	-0.20	0.19	0.00	-0.33
Indonesia	0.00	-0.52	0.52	-0.47	-0.54
Iran	0.00	0.03	-0.06	0.12	0.29
Jamaica	0.00	-0.54	0.51	-0.34	-0.40
Jordan	0.00	-0.59	0.58	0.13	0.46
Kazakhstan	0.00	-0.07	0.08	-0.65	-0.65
Kenya	0.00	-0.30	0.25	-0.12	-0.33
Kyrgyzstan	0.00	-0.78	0.70	-0.60	-0.60
Sample period	1990-2012	1990-2012	1990-2012	1950-2014	1990-2012

Table 8: Emerging Economy Statistics on International Portfolios and the Backus-Smith Correlation (Part 1 of 2)

County Name	Net Foreign Currency Debt	Net Domestic Currency Debt	Bond Home Bias	Backus-Smith Correlation	
Latvia	0.00	-0.33	0.29	-0.87	-0.87
Lithuania	0.00	-0.29	0.26	-0.68	-0.67
Macedonia	0.00	-0.27	0.27	-0.39	-0.39
Madagascar	0.00	-0.76	0.82	0.48	0.59
Malawi	0.00	-0.82	0.98	0.00	-0.02
Malaysia	0.00	-0.26	0.27	-0.46	-0.82
Mali	0.00	-0.60	0.76	0.25	-0.11
Mexico	0.00	-0.17	0.17	-0.62	-0.82
Moldova	0.00	-0.62	0.57	-0.74	-0.74
Morocco	0.00	-0.32	0.28	0.22	0.08
Mozambique	0.00	-1.16	1.10	-0.06	-0.22
Nepal	0.00	-0.31	0.36	0.01	0.20
Nicaragua	0.00	-1.36	1.23	-0.09	0.01
Niger	0.00	-0.57	0.66	0.16	-0.56
Nigeria	0.00	-0.50	0.54	0.01	0.29
Oman	0.00	0.09	-0.06	0.16	0.28
Pakistan	0.00	-0.34	0.34	-0.20	-0.24
Paraguay	0.00	-0.75	0.45	-0.42	-0.64
Peru	0.00	-0.43	0.44	-0.59	-0.44
Philippines	0.00	-0.41	0.42	-0.31	-0.38
Poland	0.00	-0.34	0.28	-0.44	-0.58
Romania	0.00	-0.21	0.19	-0.38	-0.67
Russian Federation	0.00	-0.01	0.04	-0.50	-0.50
Rwanda	0.00	-0.37	0.46	0.25	0.18
Senegal	0.00	-0.54	0.56	0.00	-0.60
Singapore	-0.01	0.77	-0.82	0.17	0.41
Slovakia	-0.06	-0.14	0.21	-0.58	-0.59
Slovenia	-0.14	-0.04	0.07	-0.49	-0.50
South Africa	0.00	-0.13	0.16	-0.23	-0.13
South Korea	0.00	-0.15	0.13	-0.10	-0.49
Sri Lanka	0.00	-0.46	0.44	-0.20	-0.45
Syria	0.00	-0.73	0.91	0.16	0.07
Tanzania	0.00	-0.65	0.58	-0.28	-0.47
Thailand	0.00	-0.30	0.30	0.09	-0.67
Togo	0.00	-0.78	0.82	0.04	0.07
Trinidad and Tobago	0.00	-0.12	0.12	-0.10	-0.07
Tunisia	0.00	-0.49	0.48	0.08	-0.11
Turkey	0.00	-0.29	0.28	-0.17	-0.48
Turkmenistan	0.00	-0.10	0.01	-0.51	-0.50
Uganda	0.00	-0.44	0.48	-0.15	-0.14
Ukraine	0.00	-0.21	0.21	-0.70	-0.70
Uruguay	0.00	-0.10	0.12	-0.55	-0.54
Venezuela	0.00	0.08	-0.10	-0.17	-0.43
Vietnam	0.00	-0.40	0.34	-0.22	-0.18
Yemen	0.00	-0.33	0.26	0.26	0.15
Zambia	0.00	-1.03	1.47	-0.08	-0.21
Sample period	1990-2012	1990-2012	1990-2012	1950-2014	1990-2012

Table 9: Emerging Economy Statistics on International Portfolios and the Backus-Smith Correlation (Part 2 of 2)