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On the use of factor betas versus characteristics in the performance evaluation of mutual funds

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Abstract

This paper introduces a new approach for estimating mutual fund performance that simultaneously controls for both factor model betas and firm characteristics. Our double-adjusted performance measure is motivated by growing concerns in the literature regarding the ability of traditional Fama-French factor models to adjust returns for the main anomalies. We propose a hierarchical Bayes approach to model conditional multi-factor model alphas as a linear combination of firm characteristics. We find that traditional alphas are significantly associated with firm characteristics, even when the factor model explicitly adjusts returns for those characteristics. Double-adjusted performance provides new evidence of mutual fund performance persistence, as we remove the noisy component of performance associated with passive loadings on characteristics. Moreover, we find that previous relations between traditional performance estimates and specific fund features, e.g., mutual fund selectivity and mutual fund flows, are partially driven by the characteristic component of performance.

Keywords: Mutual fund performance, double-adjusted performance, firm characteristics, hierarchical Bayes

1 Introduction

Most studies on the performance evaluation of mutual funds resort to factor models such as the Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM) or the model of Carhart (1997). Recently, the beta-pricing relation underlying these models have been put under scrutiny, as the empirical asset pricing literature has looked beyond a unilateral explanation of cross-sectional variation in returns by factor exposures (betas). Instead, considerable evidence indicates that individual firm characteristics such as market capitalization, book-to-market ratios, and past returns are better predictors of expected asset returns. This calls into question the usage of standard factor models to evaluate mutual fund performance.

The drivers behind asset returns have been a staple of modern finance. The CAPM has become a pivotal model in asset pricing theory, explaining asset returns solely by the exposure to the market. Later, considerable evidence of cross-sectional patterns (so-called anomalies) in asset returns raised doubts about the CAPM. Size (Banz, 1981) and book-to-market (Fama & French, 1992) effects arose; returns on stocks with a small market capitalization have historically exceeded returns on stocks with a large market capitalization, and high book-to-market (value) stocks displayed better performance relative to low book-to-market (growth) stocks. Jegadeesh & Titman (1993) document price momentum, as past winning stocks show strong abnormal performance relative to past losing stocks. Moreover, recent literature find high abnormal returns obtained by high quality stocks.¹

Several prominent studies have proposed multi-factor models, which incorporate risk factors that can parsimoniously account for the aforementioned anomalies simultaneously. In particular, Fama & French (1993) advocate a three-factor model that includes risk factors adjusting for size- and value-effects. The size and value factors are the excess returns on the factor-mimicking portfolios for market capitalization (small minus big, SMB) and book-to-market (high minus low, HML), respectively. Carhart (1997) adds the momentum factor, WML, which is the return spread between past winning stocks and past losing stocks. Fama & French (2015) have proposed the profitability (robust minus weak, RMW) and investment (conservative minus aggressive, CMA) factors.

Despite the widespread use of these multi-factor models, we beg the question whether the risk factors fully account for the anomalies underlying these factors. Recent studies have shown that stock returns with high factor betas do not necessarily imply high values for the corresponding

¹Quality is measured by accruals in Bender & Nielsen (2013) and by profitability, stable growth, and a high payout ratio in Asness et al. (2014).

firm characteristics underlying these factors.² Similar to the evidence on stock returns, we find that mutual fund factor betas and holdings characteristics are correlated, and the correlations are modest in magnitude (e.g., the average of the absolute value is roughly 0.4), implying that factor betas and characteristics do not convey identical information. Moreover, Brennan et al. (1998) find that characteristics explain the cross-section of risk-adjusted returns (alphas), while Busse et al. (2017) reach the same conclusion using the returns of mutual funds.

This paper applies previous findings of both factor betas and firm characteristics explaining cross-sectional variation in stock returns to the returns of mutual funds. In the context of mutual fund performance we propose a novel performance measure that controls for both types of exposures. Specifically, we decompose alpha into two components: (1) characteristic-driven performance, the component which is associated with passive loadings on firm characteristics and (2) our double-adjusted performance measure, which we define as the difference between alpha and characteristic-driven performance. To do this, we propose a hierarchical Bayes approach to simultaneously estimate (1) conditional factor model parameters for each fund using daily returns in a rolling-window scheme, (2) the cross-sectional relation between conditional alphas and firm characteristics in each month, and (3) the systematic relation between alphas and firm characteristics across the entire sample period. The main advantage of our approach is the simultaneous estimation of the model which mitigates the measurement error problem the traditional two-pass procedures are prone to (e.g., Brennan et al. (1998), Avramov & Chordia (2006) and Busse et al. (2017)).

To understand the importance of adjusting fund performance to characteristics, consider the following example. Assume that we estimate the Carhart four-factor model for a certain fund and obtain an estimated monthly alpha of 10 basis points. Now consider that this fund follows a momentum strategy, and further suppose that it is common knowledge that in the universe of mutual funds, the momentum premium earned by funds exceeds that projected by the WML factor (see, Huij & Verbeek (2009)). This implies that the momentum factor under-adjusts for momentum effects, such that fund managers can generate alpha by simply taking positions in high momentum stocks. That is, the four-factor model "falsely" awards superior skill to funds following a momentum strategy, which is not founded on special information or skill to exploit mispricing. Thus, it is important to properly adjust for exposures to these investment styles to evaluate the fund manager's true skill and, in turn, managerial compensation.

²Chordia et al. (2015) and Chen et al. (2018) both find that the cross-sectional correlations between factor betas and underlying characteristics of stocks are below 0.5 in absolute value.

In the first part of this paper we use the net shareholder returns for a sample of actively managed U.S. domestic equity mutual funds to run monthly cross-sectional regressions (CSRs) of mutual fund returns on factor betas and characteristics. We aggregate the firm characteristics of a fund's holdings to compute aggregate monthly fund-level characteristics. The factor betas are estimated from the CAPM, the Fama-French three- and five-factor models, and models which added the momentum factor to the Fama-French factors. Since factor betas are estimated with error, the CSRs are inherently subject to the errors-in-variable bias (EIV bias), which leads to a negative bias in estimated risk premia. We address the EIV bias with the EIV-corrected estimator of Chordia et al. (2015). The cross-sectional regressions provide evidence that market capitalization and momentum return yield economically significant coefficients, even in a joint model with the size and momentum betas. The estimated risk premia of all factor betas decrease in magnitude when their underlying characteristics are added to the model. Moreover, we find that factor betas and characteristics both account for about half of the model explained variation.

In the second part of this paper we use the hierarchical Bayes approach to adjust alphas for five characteristics over the period 2001 to 2016: market capitalization, book-to-market, momentum, operating profitability, and asset growth. When we examine the relation between conditional Fama-French six-factor alphas and each characteristic in isolation, we find that each characteristic except operating profitability is significantly related to alphas. Considering all characteristics simultaneously we find that estimates are similar to the corresponding univariate estimates. When we estimate the relation between alphas and characteristics using the traditional OLS two-step procedure, we find insignificant relations between alphas and the size and momentum characteristics. To ensure the robustness of our results, we estimate the Bayesian model for the other multi-factor models (mentioned above). The results are qualitatively similar across factor models, such that we find statistical significance for all characteristics except operating profitability. Thus, funds can exhibit higher relative performance based on standard factor model alpha by passively loading on characteristics, even when these factor models explicitly adjust returns for those characteristics.

In the third part of this paper we analyze the impact of our double-adjusted performance measure on previous studies examining relative mutual fund performance. To provide an indication of the impact of the characteristic-adjustment of alpha on relative performance, we find that the median change in percentile performance ranking is roughly 9%. That is, a fund ranked in the median percentile according to six-factor alpha would be ranked in the 41th or 59th percentile based on our double-adjusted measure. Furthermore, we find that a large number of funds exhibit dramatic changes in percentile ranks, with 10 (5) percent of funds exhibiting a mean change in percentile ranking greater than 22.99% (27.24%).

One can anticipate that changes in relative performance of this magnitude might alter inference regarding relative mutual fund performance, which in the majority of past literature has been based on Fama-French alphas. Central to the mutual fund literature are studies on persistence in fund performance (e.g., Carhart (1997), Bollen & Busse (2004)). When we adjust performance for both factor exposure and characteristics, we find that our new performance measure predicts post-ranking performance up to six years. In line with the results of Busse et al. (2017), the double-adjusted performance measure reflects true skill, which persists in the long run such that the documented persistence in standard alpha is mostly attributable to the component of alpha corrected for loadings on characteristics. In addition to performance persistence, past literature on relative fund performance also includes numerous studies which examine the relation between fund performance and a specific fund feature, such as a fund's factor model R-squared (Amihud & Goyenko, 2013), or the capital flow of a fund (Barber et al., 2016), among others. We replicate parts of the analysis of these two studies using our decomposition of alpha as performance measures. We find that the inverse relation between fund performance and R-squared found in the original study is mostly driven by the characteristic-driven component of alpha. Similarly, we find that components of alpha driven by size and momentum characteristics are significant predictors of future fund flows, suggesting that investors tend to these characteristics when assessing fund performance.

Our paper has a niche in the intersection between the asset pricing literature and the mutual fund performance literature. Fama & French (1993) and Davis et al. (2000), among many others, argue that it is factor betas that explain expected returns, while Daniel et al. (1997) contend that it is characteristics. Brennan et al. (1998) is the forerunner in the literature which considers both factor betas and characteristics explaining returns. Their main finding was that characteristics such as market capitalization and book-to-market ratio explained deviations from the Fama-French three-factor model. This study paved the way for others, including the work of Chordia et al. (2015), which was the first study to directly evaluate the fraction of explained variance of both factor betas and characteristics in a joint model. Inspired by their work are the cross-sectional regressions in this paper, however, we know of no study which analyze the role of factor betas and characteristics in explaining the returns of mutual funds in a joint model. Our analysis shows that previous findings of firm characteristics explaining a large fraction of the variation in expected stock returns can be extended to the returns of mutual funds.

The closest work to this paper is Busse et al. (2017), who construct a performance measure adjusting for both factor betas and characteristics, and study the implications of their doubleadjusted measure on previous findings in the mutual fund literature. The setup and goal of this paper are similar, but the execution differs in a number of ways. The first part of our paper serves as a theoretical foundation for the characteristic-adjustment of alpha by examining the relation between fund returns and characteristics in greater detail. Moreover, our paper extends the doubleadjusted performance measure with the profitability and investment factors. Jordan & Riley (2016) advocate the use of these quality factors as they uncover more distinct patterns in mutual fund performance which are masked when using three- or four-factor alphas. Most importantly, our Bayesian estimation does not only circumvent the measurement error problem from the two-step OLS procedure in Busse et al. (2017), it also increases precision of alpha estimates by exploiting cross-sectional information. Finally, our Bayesian estimation benefits from combining data sampled at different frequencies, similar to the hybrid estimator proposed by Cosemans et al. (2015) for modelling conditional factor betas.³ By using daily returns, we obtain more precise rolling factor beta estimates than those used in the majority of previous studies which are based on monthly returns.

This paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 describes the data set and the construction of the fundlevel characteristics. Section 3 presents the cross-sectional regressions of mutual fund returns on factor betas and characteristics. Section 4 describes our hierarchical Bayes approach to obtain our double-adjusted performance measure. Section 5 examines the implications of this new performance measure on previous findings in the mutual fund literature. Section 6 contains robustness checks. Finally, Section 7 concludes.

2 Data

This section describes our data set and sample selection criteria, followed by summary statistics for the mutual fund sample including the firm characteristics obtained from the holdings of mutual funds.

³An attractive feature of both our models is the use of daily returns to obtain rolling estimates from a multi-factor model and the use of cross-sectional data at a monthly frequency. Apart from the fact that Cosemans et al. (2015) condition factor betas rather than alpha on a set of conditioning variables, they also specify a time-invariant relation between the factor betas and conditioning variables, whereas we allow the relation between alpha and characteristics to vary across time.

2.A Data Selection

The mutual fund database is constructed by combining the Center for Research in Security Prices (CRSP) Survivor-Bias-Free U.S. Mutual Fund database with the Thomson Reuters Mutual Fund Holdings S12 database, formerly known as CDA/Spectrum. To combine these databases, we rely on the MFLINKS database provided by Russ Wermers on Wharton Research Data Services (WRDS). The main focus is on U.S. equity actively managed mutual funds, for which the data on holdings is the most complete and reliable; we eliminate balanced, bond, money market, international, index, and sector funds, as well as funds not invested primarily in common stocks (for details on our selection, see Appendix A).

We obtain both monthly and daily mutual fund returns from the CRSP mutual fund database. Additional stock-level information on the fund holdings are retrieved from the CRSP monthly stock file and the Compustat database. Consistent with previous literature, this study only considers common stocks traded on the New York Stock Exchange (NYSE), American Stock Exchange and NASDAQ; we excluding real estate trusts, foreign companies, closed-end funds and primes (we only retain shares codes 10 or 11). The final database for the empirical analysis consists of monthly panel data on mutual fund holdings at the intersection of CRSP, Compustat and Thomson Reuters, spanning the period from January 2001 to December 2016.

2.B Mutual Fund Holdings Characteristics

For each stock in a fund's portfolio, we obtain firm characteristics, including market capitalization, book-to-market ratio, momentum return, operating profitability and asset growth. Market capitalization (Mcap) is defined as the product between the previous month-end stock price and the previous month-end total shares outstanding. Book-to-Market (B/M) is the ratio between the most recently available book value of equity and the previous month-end market capitalization.⁴ Momentum (Mom12) is the past twelve-month cumulative return over the period from month $t-12$ to $t - 2$, where the most recent month is excluded to avoid short-term reversal effects. Operating profitability (Profit) is the current revenues minus costs of goods sold, interest expense, selling, general, and administrative expenses, divided by book equity for the last fiscal year $t - 1$. Asset growth (Invest) is the percentage change in total assets from fiscal year $t-2$ to fiscal year $t-1$.

⁴We supplement the book values from Compustat with hand-collected data provided by Moody's. It includes the data used in Davis et al. (2000) and contains data ranging from 1926 to 2001. The data is available on http://mba.tuck.dartmouth.edu/pages/faculty/ken.french/data library.html.

Table 1: Summary statistics of equity mutual fund sample

This table presents the summary statistics for the equity mutual funds sample over the period January 2001 to December 2016. Panel A reports statistics on the sample size. Panel B reports additional information on the funds. Panel C reports the cross-sectional distribution of characteristics averaged across all sample months. We weight each firm characteristic according to its current portfolio weight and calculate a fund's portfolio-weighted average characteristic. Market capitalization (Mcap) is the product between the previous month-end stock price and the previous month-end total shares outstanding. Book-to-Market (B/M) is the ratio between the most recently available book value of equity and the previous month-end market capitalization. Momentum (Mom12) is the past twelve-month cumulative return excluding the most recent month. Operating profitability (Profit) is the current revenues minus costs of goods sold, interest expense, selling, general, and administrative expenses, divided by book equity for the last fiscal year $t-1$. Asset growth (Invest) is the percentage change in total assets from fiscal year $t-2$ to fiscal year $t - 1$. Panel D reports the time series averages of the cross-sectional distributions of six-factor betas, which are estimated from rolling time series regressions using the past two years of daily fund returns. Panel E reports the time series averages of the cross-sectional correlations between factor betas and characteristics.

We assume that all the accounting variables, e.g., book value of equity, operating profitability and asset growth, are publicly available six months after the fiscal year-end.

For each fund in our sample, we use individual stock holdings to compute the monthly fund-level market capitalization, book-to-market ratio, momentum return, operating profitability, and asset growth. We weight each firm characteristic according to its current portfolio weight and calculate a fund's portfolio-weighted average characteristic. For each characteristic, values greater than the 0.995 percentile or less than the 0.005 percentile are set equal to the 0.995 and the 0.005 percentiles each month.

Table 1 reports statistics on the characteristics and the factor betas. Each month, we calculate the cross-sectional mean, standard deviation and percentiles for each characteristic and factor beta. We report the time series averages of the monthly cross-sectional distribution for characteristics in Panel C and for factor betas in Panel D. The factor betas are estimated from a six-factor model which augments the Carhart (1997) four-factor model with the profitability and investment factors from Fama & French (2015) .⁵ The factor betas are derived from rolling-window regressions using daily returns of the past two years.

Panel E of Table 1 reports the cross-sectional correlations between the factor betas and the characteristics averaged across all sample months. Conform to expectations, the betas for SMB and CMA are negatively correlated with their underlying characteristics, while the betas for HML, WML, and RMW are positively correlated with their underlying characteristics. The correlations vary in magnitude, with the highest correlations for the size and value factors (-0.82 and 0.75), the momentum and investment factors yield slightly lower correlations $(0.57 \text{ and } -0.47)$, and a modest correlation of 0.14 for the profitability factor. These correlations suggest that there is substantial independence in variation of the factor betas and their underlying characteristics, such that both variables do not convey identical information on the expected return. As a consequence, regressing fund returns on the risk factors may not fully adjust performance for the main anomalies.

⁵The risk factor returns for all factor models are provided on Ken French's Website.

Table 1 (Continued)

	β_{SMB}	βHML	β_{WML}	β_{RMW}	β_{CMA}	Mcap	B/M	Mom12	Profit	Invest
β_{MKT}	0.096	-0.093	0.113	-0.204	-0.173	-0.023	-0.114	0.170	-0.004	0.077
β_{SMB}		0.095	0.043	-0.142	-0.075	-0.816	0.110	0.283	-0.255	-0.064
β_{HML}			-0.315	0.610	0.328	-0.042	0.746	-0.236	-0.079	-0.452
β_{WML}				-0.231	-0.270	-0.054	-0.469	0.568	0.103	0.191
β_{RMW}					0.361	0.246	0.367	-0.283	0.136	-0.274
β_{CMA}						0.049	0.354	-0.215	-0.004	-0.470
Mcap							0.049	0.354	-0.215	-0.004
B/M								-0.363	-0.189	-0.486
Mom12									-0.003	0.054
Profit										0.049

Panel E: Cross-correlations between six-factor betas and characteristics

3 Explaining Mutual Fund Returns: Betas vs. Characteristics

In this section, we examine the role of both factor betas and firm characteristics in explaining the returns of mutual funds. For this purpose we run cross-sectional regressions of individual mutual fund returns on their factor betas and characteristics. We conduct the traditional two-pass procedure of Fama & MacBeth (1973) with rolling estimation of factor betas. To address the inherent errorsin-variables (EIV) bias, we use the EIV-corrected estimator of Chordia et al. (2015). Using the metric of Lindeman & Lindeman (1980), we obtain the relative contributions of factor betas and characteristics to the explanatory power of the joint model.

3.A Two-pass Procedure

An asset pricing model seeks to explain the cross-section of expected asset returns in terms of their covariances with certain risk factors. Let $F_t = [F_{1t},...,F_{Kt}]$ be a $K \times 1$ vector of observed factors at time t and let R_{it} be the return of fund i in excess over the market return. Assume that asset returns are governed by the following factor model:

$$
R_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_i' F_t + \epsilon_{it},\tag{1}
$$

where α_i is the asset return unexplained by the factor model, $\beta_i = [\beta_{i1},...,\beta_{iK}]$ is a $K \times 1$ vector with factor loadings (betas), and ϵ_{it} are the model residuals.

Many empirical tests of asset pricing models employ the Fama & MacBeth (1973) two-stage regression to test whether risk factors bear a risk premium in the cross-section of assets. Considering the possibility that the zero-beta rate differs from the risk-free rate, a general specification of a K- factor asset pricing model can be written as

$$
E_{t-1}(R_{it}) = \gamma_{0t} + \beta'_{it-1}\gamma_{1t},\tag{2}
$$

where $E_{t-1}(R_{it})$ are expected excess returns, γ_0 is the excess zero-beta rate over the risk-free rate, and γ_1 is a K × 1 vector of risk premia. The superscript $t-1$ denotes that β_{it-1} is estimated with excess returns up until time $t-1$.

The first stage of the Fama-MacBeth procedure is to estimate the factor betas through time series regressions in a factor model as presented in Eq.(1). In this regression we can include the entire time series (Jensen et al., 1972) or rolling windows (Fama & MacBeth, 1973). We use the latter approach as this allows for time variation in factor betas. This paper employs a rolling window length of two years for the estimation of factor betas. Employing a shorter period of time increases the estimation error in the factor betas, while a longer period leads to a slow variation in the factor betas. The second stage of the Fama-MacBeth procedure is to obtain risk premiums of the estimated factor betas. This entails a cross-sectional regression of excess returns on estimated factor betas at each time t, as displayed by $Eq.(2)$. The time series average of these estimates yields the overall estimated risk premia. We consider models with constant risk premia as this is more accustomed in existing literature.

3.B Cross-sectional Regressions

We estimate the risk premia harvested by funds following the Fama & MacBeth (1973) two-pass procedure described in Section 3.A. Estimated factor betas will serve as explanatory variables alongside characteristics underlying these factors in monthly cross-sectional regressions. For each fund i in a given month t, we estimate Eq. (1) using past daily returns over a period of two years ending with month $t-1$. This results, given N_t individual funds, into a $N_t \times K$ matrix of estimated factor betas \hat{B}_{t-1} . In addition, let Z_{t-1} be a $N_t \times L$ matrix of lagged characteristics. The characteristics (Z) include the logarithm of market capitalization (Mcap), the logarithm of book-tomarket ratio (B/M) , the logarithm of one plus the past twelve-month cumulative return (Mom12), operating profitability (Profit), and asset growth (Invest). Beginning with the second month of our sample, risk premia are estimated over the period February 2001 to December 2016, consisting of 191 months.

For the monthly cross-sectional regressions, define the matrix of (lagged) regressors in month t

as

$$
\hat{X}_{t-1} = [1_{N_t} \; \hat{B}_{t-1} \; Z_{t-1}],\tag{3}
$$

where 1_{N_t} is a $N_t \times 1$ vector of ones. Each month, we define a $1 \times (1 + K + L)$ vector of coefficient estimates as $\hat{\Gamma}_t = (\hat{\gamma}_{0t}, \hat{\gamma}_{1t}, \hat{\gamma}_{2t})$, where $\hat{\gamma}_{0t}$ is the zero-beta rate, $\hat{\gamma}_{1t}$ contains the risk premia on factor betas, and $\hat{\gamma}_{2t}$ contains the coeffcients on characteristics. The OLS estimator is given by

$$
\hat{\Gamma}_t^{OLS} = (\hat{X}'_{t-1}\hat{X}'_{t-1})^{-1}\hat{X}'_{t-1}R_t,\tag{4}
$$

where R_t is a $N_t \times 1$ vector of excess fund returns. The time series average of $\hat{\Gamma}_t$ yields the final coefficient estimates. Traditional asset pricing theories validate factor models by rejecting the hypothesis of $\gamma_1 = 0$. A joint rejection of $\Gamma = 0$ economically implies that the factor model does not fully explain the cross-sectional differences among returns, but exposure to the risk factors partially accounts for the expected returns of assets relative to each other.

3.B.1 Errors-in-variables (EIV) Bias

The second-pass cross-sectional regression is inherently subject to the EIV bias, since the explanatory variables are estimations resulting from the first-pass time series regressions. Since \hat{B}_{t-1} is estimated with error, the OLS-estimator of Γ will be biased downwards. We describe the EIV bias thoroughly in Appendix B.

Chordia et al. (2015) propose the following bias-corrected estimator of Γ_t

$$
\hat{\Gamma}_t^{EIV} = \left[\hat{X}'_{t-1} \hat{X}'_{t-1} - \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} M' \hat{\Sigma}_{\beta_{it-1}} M \right]^{-1} \hat{X}'_{t-1} R_t,
$$
\n(5)

where M is a $K \times (1+K+L)$ matrix defined as $M = [0_{Kx1} \ 1_{KxK} \ 0_{KxL}],$ and $\hat{\Sigma}_{\beta_{it-1}}$ is the heteroskedasticity-consistent $K \times K$ covariance matrix estimator of White (1980) for the firstpass estimation of β_{it-1} . The matrix M ensures that the bias-correction only affects the K × K submatrix $\hat{B}_{t-1}'\hat{B}_{t-1}$ of X_{t-1} .

This bias-corrected estimator was originally proposed by Theil & Theil (1971) and Litzenberger & Ramaswamy (1979). Shanken (1992) generalize the EIV-corrected estimator and show that this estimator is consistent when N_t diverges. Chordia et al. (2015) gauge the statistical properties of the EIV-corrected estimator in simulations and show that the negative bias is reduced in comparison to the OLS estimator. Raponi et al. (2017) employ this estimator in a small T environment to test several prominent beta-pricing specifications of Fama-French using individual stocks. They find significant pricing ability of all factors, while the same risk premia often appear insignificantly different from zero when estimated using the traditional approach.

The EIV-corrected estimator subtracts the estimated covariance matrix of the estimator of β_{it} from $\hat{B}'_{t-1}\hat{B}_{t-1}$, to better approximate the true value of $B'_{t-1}B_{t-1}$. However, under a finite T there is the possibility that this correction will overshoot, turning the matrix in parenthesis nearly singular or even not positive definite. This may lead to extreme estimates of Γ_t and nonsensical inference.

To prevent this we apply the following procedure. Following Chordia et al. (2015), we reduce the likelihood of overshooting due to outliers by winsorizing each element of the estimated covariance matrix at the 5% and 95% levels across the cross-section of funds at each time t. Then, we apply the shrinkage procedure of Raponi et al. (2017) using a shrinkage scalar λ ($0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$):

$$
\hat{\Gamma}_t^{\text{EIV}} = \left[\hat{X}'_{t-1} \hat{X}_{t-1} - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} M' \hat{\Sigma}_{\beta_{it-1}} M \right]^{-1} \hat{X}'_{t-1} R_t.
$$
\n(6)

When λ is one we obtain the estimator in Eq.(5), whereas when λ is zero, we obtain the OLS estimator. The choice of shrinkage parameter λ is dependent on the eigenvalues of the matrix in parenthesis. Starting from $\lambda = 1$, if the minimum eigenvalue of this matrix is negative, we lower λ by an arbitrary small amount set to 0.05. We also apply this shrinkage in case the difference between the EIV-corrected and OLS coefficients is bigger than 100%.

To evaluate the statistical properties of the bias-corrected estimators of Γ , we conduct a battery of simulations using parameters based on the real data. We investigate the bias and the rootmean-squared error (RMSE) of the estimators in Eqs. (4) and (6) . The set-up and results of the simulations are presented in Appendix C.

3.C Relative Contribution of Betas and Characteristics

We aim to calculate measures of the relative contributions of factor betas and characteristics to the explanatory power of the combined model in explaining the cross-sectional differences in expected returns. For this purpose, we conduct the measure of Lindeman $\&$ Lindeman (1980), henceforth $LMG⁶$ which suggests using sequential sums of squares from the linear model. The relative contri-

⁶The measure of Lindeman & Lindeman (1980) is made known by Kruskal (1987) and generalized by Chevan & Sutherland (1991) to multiple classes of regression models. More recently, Lipovetsky & Conklin (2001) reinvented LMG from a game-theory perspective; Azen & Budescu (2003) propose dominance analysis, which generalizes LMG to other metrics of model fit than R^2 .

bution of predictor j is measured by averaging over all possible permutations of the p regressors the increase of R^2 when regressor j is added to the model based on the other regressors entered before i in the model.

Specifically, let the increase in R^2 by adding j be

$$
\Delta_j(r) = R_{+j}^2(S_j(r)) - R^2(S_j(r)),\tag{7}
$$

where $R^2(S_j(r))$ denotes the R^2 of the model including a set of regressors entered before j in the permutation r, and $R_{+j}^2(S_j(r))$ denotes the R^2 of the model with the regressors in $S_j(r)$ including j. The contribution of j is the increase of R^2 averaged on all 2^p permutations of the p regressors as

$$
LMG(j) = \frac{1}{p!} \sum_{\text{permutation}} \Delta_j(r). \tag{8}
$$

This formula can be rewritten in different forms. An intuitive manner is LMG as the average over model sizes i of average improvements in R^2 when adding regressor j to a model of size i without i (see, Christensen (1992)), that is,

$$
LMG(j) = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \left(\sum_{\substack{S \subseteq \{1, \dots, j-1, j+1, \dots, p\} \\ n(S) = i}} \Delta_j(S) / \binom{p-1}{i} \right),\tag{9}
$$

where S is a set of i regressors excluding regressor j .

Each month t , we compute the relative contribution of each variable in the second-pass regression of the Fama-MacBeth procedure. In particular, we estimate this regression repeatedly for different permutations of the regressors to compute the contribution of each regressor using Eq.(9). These values are averaged over all months to obtain a more precise aggregate measure. Due to a high computational burden, LMG is only computed using OLS without the bias-correction. By ignoring the EIV bias, the variance of the estimated factor betas is exaggerated, leading to a minor overestimation of the relative contribution of factor betas.

3.D Cross-sectional Results

We present the results for the CAPM, the Fama & French (1993) three-factor model, the Carhart (1997) four-factor model, the Fama & French (2015) five-factor model and a six-factor model with all factors. This allows us to assess the cross-sectional power of each factor to explain mutual

fund returns and to determine whether these are priced in the cross-section. First, we examine the untabulated results of the factor models in the absence of characteristics. Estimated with OLS, the risk premium of the market beta is statistically indistinguishable from zero in all factor models, which is consistent with previous studies which find that the market factor is not priced. In the three-factor model, the risk premia (corrected for the EIV bias) on the size and value factors equal 0.32% (t = 1.79) and 0.36% (t = 1.76), respectively. Exposure to the momentum factor yields similar rewards. A portfolio of funds with a unit exposure to the momentum factor earns an average monthly premium of 0.28% ($t = 1.53$). The two added factors RMW and CMA exhibit insignificant risk premia in both the five-factor model and six-factor model. The intercepts are also noteworthy, as the zero-beta rates range between 0.19% and 0.48%, with t-statistics above 2. Large differences between the zero-beta rate and the risk-free rate are also found in earlier works including Lewellen et al. (2010) and Frazzini & Pedersen (2014).

Table 2 reports the estimated coefficients on both factor betas and characteristics with the EIV bias correction and without. We find that the market factor remains unpriced in the cross-section when the characteristics are included. The size premium also remains indistinguishable from zero in all factor models and has decreased when market capitalization (Mcap) is added to the model. The coefficient on Mcap is economically significant in all factor models and has a negative sign in all cases, as funds holding positions in smaller stocks earn higher returns. The premium on the value factor is significant in the three-factor model and in the four-factor model, while the coefficient on book-to-market (B/M) is insignificant in all cases. The value premium becomes insignificant in the five-factor model and the six-factor model, possibly due to correlation between the value factor and the quality factors.

The estimated risk premium (in the absence of characteristics) on the momentum factor suggests that exposure to this factor is priced in the cross-section, but it may also indicate a mechanical relation between a factor beta and the underlying characteristic, such that factor betas are mere signals of the "true" risk factors determining expected returns. Considering the four-factor model, the premium on WML has decreased, possibly due to competition between the WML beta and momentum return (Mom12). Mom12 is significant in all factor models excluding the momentum factor, with t-statistics just above 2. Lou (2012) and Vayanos & Woolley (2013) argue that winning funds, by scaling up their existing holdings that are concentrated in past winning stocks, drive up the returns of past winning stocks and thereby enhance the subsequent return of past winning stocks. This self-enhancing mechanism may lead to higher momentum returns for funds.

Table 2: Cross-sectional regressions of mutual fund returns

This table presents the time series averages of risk premia (γ) estimated using the cross-section of mutual fund (monthly) returns following the Fama & MacBeth (1973) procedure. The monthly regressions are of the form:

$$
R_t = \gamma_{0t} + \gamma_{1t}\hat{B}_{t-1} + \gamma_{2t}Z_{t-1} + \xi_t, \ t = 1, ..., T.
$$

We employ the CAPM, the Fama & French (1993) three-factor model, the Carhart (1997) four-factor model, the Fama & French (2015) five-factor model and a six-factor model combining all factors. Factor betas (B) are estimated from rolling time series regressions using daily returns from the past two years. The characteristics (Z) are the logarithm of market capitalization (Mcap), the logarithm of book-to-market ratio (B/M) , the logarithm of one plus the cumulative past twelve-month cumulative return (Mom12), operating profitability (Profit) and asset growth (Invest). Each characteristic is winsorized at the 0.5% and the 99.5% levels. To address the EIV bias, we employ the EIV-corrected estimator of Chordia et al. (2015). Risk premia (in percent per month) are fitted using OLS, both with EIV-correction and without. Fama & MacBeth (1973) t-statistics are reported in parenthesis. Estimates significant at the 5% are in bold font. Risk premia are estimated over the period February 2001 until December 2016.

The estimates of risk premia on RMW and CMA are positive and statistically insignificant, with respective estimates of 0.22% (t = 1.16) and 0.14% (t = 0.90) in the five-factor model, and estimates of 0.27 (t = 1.32) and 0.16% (t = 1.09) in the six-factor model. Interestingly, the value and

momentum premia exhibit a sharp reduction when adding the profitability and investment factors. In line with the other factors, we find that the estimated risk premia on exposures to the RMW and CMA factors are lower in the presence of their underlying characteristics, neither of which yielding significant estimates. The sign of the estimates are as expected; funds holding profitable stocks which invest conservatively earn higher returns.

The simulations (see Appendix C) show strong results in favor of the bias-corrected estimator. The downward bias on the estimated risk premia is partially eliminated while the root-mean-squared errors (RMSEs) are of similar magnitude between the two estimators. Regarding the empirical results, we find that correcting the EIV bias generally increases the risk premia estimates, occasionally up to 40% .

Table 3: Relative contributions of factor betas and characteristics

This table presents the relative contributions to the explained model variance using the metric of Lindeman & Lindeman (1980), which decomposes the model R^2 into the relative contributions of each variable to the explanatory power of the model. Each month t , we compute the relative contribution of each regressor (factor betas and characteristics) in the second-pass regression of the Fama-MacBeth procedure. We report the time series averages of the LMG metric for each variable. Relative contributions are estimated over the period February 2001 until December 2016.

	CAPM	FF 3FM	Carhart 4FM	$\rm FF$ $\rm 5FM$	FF $6FM$					
Panel A: Relative contributions (only betas)										
β_{MKT}	0.164	0.083	0.073	0.049	0.044					
β_{SMB}		0.196	0.193	0.181	0.176					
β_{HML}		0.124	0.113	0.092	0.076					
β_{WML}			0.068		0.065					
β_{RMW}				0.076	0.073					
β_{CMA}				0.053	0.049					
Panel B: Relative contributions (all characteristics)										
β_{MKT}	0.108	0.066	0.060	0.044	0.041					
β_{SMB}		0.099	0.096	0.091	0.088					
β_{HML}		0.069	0.063	0.053	0.047					
β_{WML}			0.050		0.042					
β_{RMW}				0.056	0.056					
β_{CMA}				0.039	0.037					
Mcap	0.138	0.092	0.088	0.087	0.085					
B/M	0.073	0.052	0.050	0.047	0.043					
Mom12	0.069	0.056	0.050	0.051	0.046					
Profit	0.014	0.010	0.010	0.010	0.010					
Invest	0.033	0.026	0.025	0.023	0.022					

Table 3 reports the average relative contributions of both factor betas and characteristics. Measured by Eq.(9), the Lindeman $&$ Lindeman (1980) metric is the contribution of each variable to the total explained variance in the model. Firstly, Panel A reports the average relative contributions of factor betas in the absence of characteristics. The size factor accounts for the largest fraction of the model \mathbb{R}^2 , which remains stable across factor models. Including the profitability and investment factors leads to a minor reduction in explanatory power of the other factors, which indicates these factors convey new information.

Panel B reports the average relative contributions in a joint model of factor betas and characteristics. We find that in each factor model, almost 50% of the model R^2 is attributed to the characteristics. The relative contributions of the size and value betas decrease by roughly 50% when Mcap and B/M are added. The RMW and CMA betas contribute roughly twice as much as their respective characteristics.

To sum up, the factor betas and characteristics both account for roughly half of the model explained variation in fund returns. These findings are consistent with those of Chordia et al. (2015), which find that in a joint model, firm characteristics explain a majority of cross-sectional variation in stock returns. In the remainder of this paper, we will explore the implications of the equal explanatory power of factor betas and characteristics for the performance evaluation of mutual funds.

4 Double-adjusted Mutual Fund Performance Measure

In this section, we describe our new mutual fund performance measure which adjusts fund returns for both factor betas and characteristics. Section 4.A discusses the model used to obtain the doubleadjusted performance measure. Section 4.B describes the Bayesian techniques used to estimate the model. Section 4.C discusses the main results from the model estimation.

4.A Double-adjusted Alpha

There are many alternatives to evaluate the performance of mutual funds. A common performance measure is a fund's alpha, the return adjusted for exposures to risk factors that drives most of the fund's return. The intercept (alpha) is then interpreted as the abnormal return reflecting the ability of the fund manager. Alternatively, funds are evaluated relative to the characteristic-based benchmark approach of Daniel, Grinblatt, Titman, and Wermers (DGTW; 1997). The DGTW measure controls for the main anomalies through characteristic-sorted portfolio returns.

Brennan et al. (1998) was the first to look beyond a unilateral explanation of cross-sectional variation in expected returns by either factor betas or characteristics. They run the following cross-sectional regressions

$$
\alpha_{it} = \delta_{0t} + \delta'_{1t} Z_{it-1} + \eta_{it},\tag{10}
$$

where α_{it} is the standard factor model alpha of stock i estimated with returns up until time t and Z_{it-1} are lagged characteristics. They find that characteristics (e.g., size, book-to-market, momentum) remain significantly related to expected returns even after the risk-adjustment by a factor model with risk factors based on those same characteristics. However, analysis based on the cross-sectional regression in Eq.(10) is complicated due to the fact that the dependent variable, α_{it} , is a latent variable estimated with error.

In the spirit of Eq.(10), we develop a new double-adjusted performance measure. Specifically, we propose a system of equations in which we simultaneously model conditional factor model alphas and analyze the cross-sectional relation between fund alphas and characteristics. The model takes on the following structure:

$$
R_{i\tau,t} = \alpha_{it} + \beta'_{it} F_{\tau,t} + \epsilon_{i\tau,t}, \quad \epsilon_{i\tau,t} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2), \quad \tau = t - \mathcal{T} + 1, \dots, t, \quad i = 1, \dots, N_t \tag{11}
$$

$$
\alpha_{it} = \delta_{0t} + \delta'_{1t} Z_{it-1} + \eta_{it}, \ \ \eta_{it} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\eta t}^2), \ t = 1, ..., T,
$$
\n(12)

where $R_{i\tau,t}$ and $F_{\tau,t}$ are daily excess returns of fund i and daily factor returns, respectively. The superscript τ is used to index the daily returns in the rolling window ending in month t and τ is the length of the rolling window, that is, two years ($\mathcal{T} \approx 500$ trading days). α_{it} and $\delta_t = [\delta_{0t} \ \delta_{1t}]'$ are latent variables, and Z_{it-1} is a vector of lagged characteristics. We estimate this model over the period February 2001 to December 2016, rolling the window a month at a time totalling $T = 191$ months.

 $Eq.(11)$ represents the factor model for each fund i based on daily fund returns from the rolling window. In our empirical analysis we use a six-factor model which augments the Carhart (1997) four-factor model with the profitability and investment factors from Fama & French (2015). In Eq. (12) , we relate the cross-section of alphas to the characteristics from the previous month. In Z we include the logarithm of market capitalization (Mcap), the logarithm of book-to-market ratio (B/M), the logarithm of one plus the past twelve-month cumulative return (Mom12), operating profitability (Profit), and asset growth (Invest). Before including them in the regressions, each characteristic is standardized by subtracting the cross-sectional mean in each month.

We define the double-adjusted performance measure of fund i in month t as

$$
\alpha_{it}^* = \alpha_{it} - \delta_{1t}' Z_{it-1} = \delta_{0t} + \eta_{it}.
$$
\n(13)

In this way we control for both the exposures to risk factors through α_{it} and the effects of firm characteristics by subtracting the component of alpha attributable to passive exposures to firm characteristics. Characteristic-driven performance is defined as

$$
\alpha_{it}^{char} = \alpha_{it} - \alpha_{it}^* = \delta_{1t}' Z_{it-1}.
$$
\n(14)

The variable δ_t measures the relation between alphas and characteristics in month t. If the asset-pricing model holds, fund alphas should not be associated with characteristics. In a given month, however, risk-adjusted returns may be related to characteristics purely by chance. To examine whether there is a systematic relation between firm characteristics and alphas throughout the entire sample period, we add an additional layer to the model hierarchy:

$$
\delta_t = \overline{\delta} + v_t, \quad v_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_{\delta}), \quad t = 1, \dots, T. \tag{15}
$$

In particular, we assume that the parameter vectors, $\{\delta_t\}_{t=1}^T$, are drawn from a multivariate normal distribution centered at $\bar{\delta}$ with covariance matrix Σ_{δ} . We treat $\bar{\delta}$ as an unknown parameter and aggregate the evidence about δ_t across time to estimate $\bar{\delta}$. If an element of $\bar{\delta}$ is focused away from zero, there is evidence that the factor model inadequately adjusts for exposure to a certain characteristic, such that this characteristic anomaly persists through time. In our empirical analysis, we analyze $\overline{\delta}$ when assessing the importance of adjusting alpha for passive exposures to characteristics.

Errors in Eqs.(11) and (12) are assumed to be independent and normally distributed, such that excess returns are conditionally independent across funds and within rolling windows. Similarly, alphas are conditionally independent across funds and the monthly relations δ_t are independent conditional on $\bar{\delta}$. The main advantage of specifying independent errors in returns and alphas is that we can consider a large number of test assets without estimating large variance-covariance matrices to capture autocorrelations and cross-sectional correlations.

4.B Model Estimation

We adopt a hierarchical Bayes approach to estimate Eqs.(11), (12) and (15) simultaneously.⁷ This approach yields several advantages over the alternatives, as the Bayesian approach is computationally more attractive than maximum likelihood estimation, and yields better finite sample properties than General Method of Moments (GMM) .⁸ Another main advantage or our model is that we estimate all model parameters simultaneously. In contrast, a majority of previous studies employ a two-pass procedure to estimate the relation between alphas and characteristics (e.g., Brennan et al. (1998), Avramov & Chordia (2006) and Busse et al. (2017)). The two-step procedure includes the estimation of a factor model before regressing the resulting estimates of alpha on the firm characteristics. In the first step alphas are estimated with error such that the variance of these estimates equal the variance of the true alphas plus a measurement error term. Consequently, the standard errors of the estimated coefficients in the second-step regression are overstated. This measurement error may lead to insignificant coefficients even if the data conveys a significant relation between alphas and characteristics. A simultaneous estimation of all model parameters mitigates this measurement error problem.

4.B.1 Prior Distributions

To conduct Bayesian estimation techniques, we need to specify prior distributions for the model parameters. A prior distribution incorporates a researcher's belief about the parameter of interest, often founded on empirical research or economic theory. We specify proper, but relatively uninformative, priors for all parameters.⁹

Regarding the loadings on characteristics, the expression in Eq.(15) implies the following hierarchical prior¹⁰ on δ_t

$$
\delta_t|\bar{\delta}, \Sigma_{\delta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{\delta}, \Sigma_{\delta}),\tag{16}
$$

⁷The first examples of Bayesian inference in asset pricing models are presented in McCulloch & Rossi (1990) and Harvey & Zhou (1990). More recently, Cremers (2006) propose Bayesian tests for the mean-variance efficiency of a given portfolio. Ang & Chen (2007) use Bayesian methods to examine whether the conditional CAPM can explain the value premium. Cosemans et al. (2015) propose a hybrid approach for estimating market beta by shrinking rolling window estimates toward a firm-specific prior motivated by economic theory.

⁸Ferson & Foerster (1995) demonstrate that GMM has poor finite sample properties in the context of latent variable asset pricing models.

⁹Hobert & Casella (1996) advocate the use of proper priors in estimating hierarchical models. They find that using improper priors may lead to improper posterior distributions which is difficult to detect from posterior draws.

¹⁰Examples of Bayesian estimation with hierarchical priors are presented in Cederburg & ODoherty (2015), which specify a hierarchical prior on the parameters in their conditional CAPM alpha model, and Cosemans et al. (2015), which specify a hierarchical prior on the parameters in their conditional factor beta model.

which is a normal distribution with location parameter $\bar{\delta}$ and covariance matrix Σ_{δ} . We treat $\bar{\delta}$ and Σ_{δ} as unknown parameters and assume the following uninformative priors

$$
\bar{\delta} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(d, \Sigma_d\right),\tag{17}
$$

$$
\Sigma_{\delta} \sim \text{IW} \left([\psi_{\delta} S_{\delta}], \psi_{\delta} \right), \tag{18}
$$

where IW denotes the inverted Wishart distribution with degrees of freedom ψ_{δ} and scale matrix $[\psi_{\delta}S_{\delta}]$. We specify an uninformative prior for $\bar{\delta}$ by setting d equal to the zero vector and Σ_d to $100I$, where I is the identity matrix. Setting d equal to the zero vector implies that alphas are not associated with characteristics, which contradicts previous empirical findings. However, by setting the diagonal elements of Σ_d to large values we minimize the influence of the prior on the posterior distribution of δ . ψ_{β} is set to the dimension of Σ_{δ} , since this value gives the lowest weight to the prior (see, Gelman et al. (2014)). The matrix S_{δ} is the prior mean of Σ_{δ} and is set to I.

Regarding the fund-specific parameters, the hierarchical structure of our model implies the following prior on α_{it}

$$
\alpha_{it}|\delta_t, \sigma_{\eta t}^2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\delta_{0t} + \delta_{1t}' Z_{it-1}, \sigma_{\eta t}^2), \tag{19}
$$

in which the prior mean is dependent on characteristics. The posterior of α_{it} combines information from both the fund-specific time series of returns and from the cross-section of alphas. The relative importance of both components depends on the rolling window size $\mathcal T$ and the cross-sectional residual variance $\sigma_{\eta t}^2$. We specify a conjugate prior for β_{it} as

$$
\beta_{it} \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{\beta}, \Sigma_{\beta}),\tag{20}
$$

where we set $\bar{\beta}$ equal to the sample mean of rolling window estimates of fund betas (see Panel D of Table 1). We define Σ_{β} equal to 10*I* to let the data speak for itself.

We complete the prior specification of our model by specifying conjugate priors for the idiosyncratic variances $\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2$ and $\sigma_{\eta t}^2$ as

$$
\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2 \sim IG2(v_{\epsilon}, s_{\epsilon})
$$
\n(21)

$$
\sigma_{\eta t}^2 \sim IG2(v_{\eta}, s_{\eta}),\tag{22}
$$

where $IG2$ denotes the inverted Gamma-2 distribution. We specify relative uninformative priors by setting the degrees of freedom parameters v_{ϵ} and v_{η} equal to 3 and the scale parameters s_{ϵ} and s_{η} equal to 10^{-3} .

4.B.2 Markov Chain Monte Carlo Gibbs Sampler

We employ the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) Gibbs sampler¹¹ to estimate the model. An attractive feature of MCMC techniques is that samples of random drawings of the model parameters θ can be generated from the joint posterior indirectly, without the need to specify the exact form of this joint distribution directly. The Gibbs sampler uses an iterative procedure to create Markov chains by simulating from full conditional posteriors instead which are typically much easier to derive. In particular, the parameter vector θ is partitioned into B blocks $(\theta^{(1)},...,\theta^{(B)})$. At each iteration of the Gibbs sampler each block is sampled from its posterior distribution conditioned on the other blocks and the data. After the Markov chains have converged, the sets of draws that are obtained from the conditional posteriors can be effectively considered as samples from the joint posterior. Algorithm 1 summarizes the steps in the Gibbs sampler. We provide the joint posterior distribution and the derivation of the full conditional posterior distributions in Appendix E.

To initialize the Gibbs sampler, we require starting values for the model parameters. For the fund-specific parameters, we estimate $Eq.(11)$ for each fund in each rolling window and use the estimates as starting values for α_{it} and β_{it} . Each month t, we regress the estimates of alpha on a constant and the lagged characteristics using the cross-section of funds. The resulting estimates are used as starting values for δ_t . The starting values for $\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2$ and $\sigma_{\eta t}^2$ are set to the sample residual variance estimator from the corresponding regressions. For the hyperparameters $\bar{\delta}$ and Σ_{δ} , we set the starting values equal to the sample mean and covariance matrix of the estimates $\{\delta_t\}_{t=1}^T$, respectively.

To check the convergence of the Gibbs sampler, we turn to standard diagnostics tests, including the partial means test of Geweke (1992) and the Gelman-Rubin statistic described in Gelman et al. (2014). Both tests indicate that the Markov Chains have converged after 2500 iterations. Therefore, in our empirical analysis we run 5000 iterations of the Gibbs sampler and discard the first 2500 iterations as burn-in period. The remaining draws are used to derive posterior results.

 11 For an extensive reading on the application of the Gibbs sampler in several econometric models, we refer to De Pooter et al. (2006).

Algorithm 1 MCMC Gibbs sampler

INPUTS: {{ ${R_{i\tau,t}, Z_{it-1}, F_{\tau,t}}_{i=1}^{N_t}$ } $_{\tau=t-\mathcal{T}+1}^{t}$ } $_{t=1}^{T}$ (data) OUTPUTS: $\{\theta^{(m)}\}_{m=1}^{M}$ (approximate sample from the joint posterior)

- 1: Set starting values for model parameters: $\theta^{(0)} = \{\{\{\alpha_{it}^{(0)}, \beta_{it}^{(0)}, \sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2^{(0)}\}_{i=1}^{N_t}, \delta_t^{(0)}, \sigma_{\eta t}^2^{(0)}\}_{t=1}^{T}, \bar{\delta}^{(0)}, \Sigma_{\delta}^{(0)}$ $\delta^{(0)}$ } and set m to 0.
- 2: Update parameters given current draws $\theta^{(m)}$:
- (i) Sample $\alpha_{it}^{(m+1)}$, $\beta_{it}^{(m+1)} \mid \sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2{}^{(m)}$, $\delta_t^{(m)}$ $t_t^{(m)}, \sigma_{\eta t}^2^{(m)}, \text{ for } i = 1,...,N_t, t = 1,...,T.$ (ii) Sample $\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2^{(m+1)} | \alpha_{it}^{(m+1)}, \beta_{it}^{(m+1)}, \text{ for } i = 1,...,N_t, t = 1,...,T.$ (iii) Sample $\delta_t^{(m+1)}$ $\{ a_{it}^{(m+1)} \mid \{ a_{it}^{(m)} \}_{i=1}^{N_t}, \sigma_{\eta t}^2^{(m)}, \bar{\delta}^{(m)}, \Sigma_{\delta}^{(m)}, \text{ for } t = 1,...,T. \}$ (iv) Sample $\sigma_{\eta t}^2{}^{(m+1)} | {\alpha_{it}^{(m+1)}}_{i=1}^{N_t} , \delta_t^{(m+1)}$ $t^{(m+1)}$, for $t = 1,...,T$. (v) Sample $\bar{\delta}^{(m+1)}$ | $\{\delta_t^{(m+1)}\}$ $\{m+1\atop t\}^T_{t=1},\ \Sigma^{(m)}_{\delta}.$ (vi) Sample $\Sigma_{\delta}^{(m+1)} \mid {\delta_t^{(m+1)}}$ $\{m+1\atop t\}^T_{t=1}, \bar{\delta}^{(m+1)}.$ 3: Set $m = m + 1$, and go to step 2.

4.C Estimation Results

Table 4 summarizes the relation between six-factor alphas and fund-level characteristics. In Panel A, we report the posterior estimates of the distribution of $\bar{\delta}$, which measures the systematic relation between alphas and characteristics over the entire sample period. When we estimate the model for each characteristic in isolation, we find that market capitalization (Mcap) and book-to-market (B/M) are negatively associated with alpha, while momentum return (Mom12) and asset growth (Invest) are positively associated with alpha. Alphas are unrelated to the profitability characteristic. If the characteristics are correlated with each other and offer little unique information about alphas then studying each characteristic in isolation will overstate the failings of the factor model. If we specify alpha as a linear combination of all characteristics, Mcap, B/M , Mom12 and Invest remain significantly associated with alphas.

Recall that the six-factor model adjusts returns for exposures to factors based on Mcap, B/M, Mom6, Profit, and Invest. The results in Panel A suggest that the six-factor model under-adjusts for exposures to the size and momentum factors, while the model appears to over-adjust for influences related to the value and investment factors. In other words, funds holding small (high-momentum) stocks show higher abnormal return despite the risk-adjustment to the SMB (WML) factor. Conversely, funds holding positions in high book-to-market (conservative investment) stocks under perform, contradictory to previous findings on value and investment effects. Similar conclusions are

Table 4: Six-factor alpha vs. characteristics

This table presents the results of the estimation of the model in Eqs.(11), (12) and (15). We estimate this model in each month during the period February 2001 to December 2016, using an estimation period of two years to estimate the six-factor model in $Eq.(11)$, rolling the window a month at a time. The characteristics (Z) are the logarithm of market capitalization (Mcap), the logarithm of book-to-market ratio (B/M), the logarithm of one plus the past twelve-month cumulative return (Mom12), operating profitability (Profit) and asset growth (Invest). Each characteristic is standardized by subtracting the cross-sectional mean each month. We estimate the model for each characteristic in isolation and for all characteristics in a joint model. Panel A presents the posterior mean and standard deviation for the aggregate-level parameters in δ , based on the posterior distribution of the parameters constructed from 5000 iterations of the Gibbs sampler with the first 2500 iterations discarded as a burn-in period. Panel B presents Fama & MacBeth (1973) estimates and Fama & MacBeth (1973) t-statistics with the Newey & West (1986) correction of 12 lags. In Panel A, estimates in bold font indicate that the 95% credible interval of the posterior distribution does not include zero. In Panel B, estimates in bold font indicate significance at the 5% level.

drawn by Huij & Verbeek (2009), which find that fund managers following a value-orientated strategy earn a substantially lower premium than those projected by the hypothetical hedge portfolio HML, while the momentum premium earned by funds is larger than that projected by the WML

 \overline{a}

factor.

In Panel B we report the estimates from a standard OLS two-step procedure. In each month t , we estimate the six-factor model for each fund i . We then regress cross-sectionally the estimated alphas on a constant and lagged characteristics. In the style of Fama & MacBeth (1973) we report the time series averages of the cross-sectional coefficients. The estimation results using OLS lead to several differences in comparison to the Bayesian estimation. While the inferences regarding B/M, Mom12 and Invest are similar between the two estimation methods, alpha becomes unrelated to Mcap using the two-step OLS approach. Moreover, if we consider all characteristics simultaneously we find that all characteristics but B/M become unrelated with alphas using the two-step OLS approach.

Inferences for the hierarchical Bayes and two-step OLS approach may differ due to way information from both the cross-section and time series is combined. In the hierarchical Bayes approach, the estimated factor model alphas are a weighted average of fund-specific time series information and cross-sectional information, with the precision (the inverse of the variance) as weights. Conversely, the two-step approach directly uses parameter estimates into the second-stage regression, thereby not exploiting information from the cross-section of funds, which makes the two-step approach more prone to the influence of outliers. As these outliers are marked by considerable uncertainty, the hierarchical Bayes approach is more suitable to combine multiple sources of information with varying degrees of precision.

Figure 1 graphs the time series plots of the posterior mean and 95% credible interval of $\{\delta_t\}_{t=1}^T$, obtained from estimating the model using all characteristics. As expected, we find the relation between six-factor alpha and a given characteristic to be varying across our sample. For instance, we find that δ_t for the momentum characteristic is negative in times when momentum stocks perform poorly (e.g., the internet bubble (post 2001) and the financial crisis of 2007-2008). Moreover, we find that the monthly posterior distributions for the size, value and momentum characteristics exhibit higher precision in comparison to the posteriors of the other two characteristics.

Finally, we examine whether our results are robust to the risk factors included in Eq.(11). In Table 5 we add the posterior results from the model using alphas from the CAPM, the Fama-French three-factor model, the Carhart (1997) four-factor model and the Fama & French (2015) five-factor model. The systematic relation between alphas and characteristics are similar across factor models. The posterior means of B/M, Mom12 and Invest vary the most across the factor models, indicating that cross-correlations are the largest between the value, momentum and investment effects, both

Figure 1: Time series plots of the posterior means of the time-varying relation between six-factor alphas and characteristics δ_t

The figure presents estimation results of the model in Eqs. (11) , (12) and (15) examining the crosssectional relation between six-factor alphas and all characteristics simultaneously. In each plot we report posterior results for a given characteristic across our sample period February 2001 to December 2016. The solid line is the posterior mean of δ_t and the dashed lines represent the 95% credible interval.

through the risk factors and the characteristics. Interestingly, we find that the posterior mean of B/M changes sign when the quality factors are considered. The value factor in the three- and fourfactor models under-adjusts for the value factor, as alphas are positively related to funds holding value stocks. Conversely, alphas from the five- and six-factor models are positively related to funds holding growth stocks. This contradiction is possibly caused by the interaction between the value factor and the quality factors, which is a negative correlation between the two. All in all, we conclude that the traditional Fama-French risk factors (jointly) insufficiently adjust returns for the main anomalies.

Table 5: Multi-factor model alphas vs. characteristics

This table presents the results of the estimation of the model in Eqs.(11), (12) and (15) based on several Fama-French models. We employ the CAPM, the Fama & French (1993) three-factor model, the Carhart (1997) four-factor model, the Fama & French (2015) five-factor model and a six-factor model combining all factors. We estimate the model in each month during the period February 2001 to December 2016, using an estimation period of two years to estimate the factor model in Eq.(11), rolling the window a month at a time. The characteristics (Z) are the logarithm of market capitalization (Mcap), the logarithm of book-to-market ratio (B/M) , the logarithm of one plus the past twelve-month cumulative return (Mom12), operating profitability (Profit) and asset growth (Invest). Each characteristic is standardized by subtracting the cross-sectional mean each month. We report the posterior mean and standard deviation for the aggregate-level parameters in $\bar{\delta}$, based on the posterior distribution of the parameters constructed from 5000 iterations of the Gibbs sampler with the first 2500 iterations discarded as a burn-in period. Estimates in bold font indicates that the 95% credible interval of the posterior distribution does not include zero.

5 Impact on Relative Mutual Fund Performance

In Section 3, we have established the importance of incorporating characteristics in explaining the returns of mutual funds. The results in the previous section have demonstrated an important flaw of the Fama-French factor model alphas, insofar as they attribute skill to passive exposures to characteristics. Therefore, we have proposed a new mutual fund performance measure which adjusts performance for exposures to both factor betas and characteristics.

In this section, we examine the extent to which our new double-adjusted alpha affects inference relating to relative mutual fund performance. We replicate the work of several mutual fund performance studies using six-factor alpha as our baseline measure of performance. We compute alpha using the traditional time series regression approach.¹² Since we use alpha as our baseline

 12 Even though the hierarchical Bayes model also provides estimates of fund alphas, we choose the time series regression approach as this is standard in previous literature. Moreover, the Bayesian estimate of standard alpha makes use of cross-sectional information. To highlight the difference made by adjusting performance for characteristics,

performance measure, we can easily extend previous analysis with the two components of alpha, our double-adjusted measure and the portion of alpha associated with characteristics (see Eqs.(13) and (14)). The decomposition of alpha will indicate the extent to which both components contribute to the main findings of previous studies.¹³

We begin by calculating the difference in fund percentile performance rankings between using double-adjusted alpha in comparison to those based on alpha. Next, central to the mutual fund performance literature are studies that analyze persistence in fund performance, e.g., Carhart (1997). Other studies examine the relation between fund performance and certain fund features, such as a fund's factor model R-squared (Amihud & Goyenko, 2013) and a fund's investors cash flows (Barber et al., 2016).

5.A Relative Mutual Fund Performance Rankings

We examine the degree to which our new performance measure alters the performance rankings of funds. In each month in our sample, we sort funds into percentiles based on six-factor alpha (α) and on double-adjusted six-factor alpha (α^*) . Given a number of N_t funds in month t, we obtain pairs of percentile ranks for each fund $\{(P_{1t}^{\alpha},P_{1t}^{\alpha^*}% ,P_{2t}^{\alpha^*}\}_{t=1}^{t}$ $P^{\alpha^*}_{1t}$, ..., $(P^{\alpha}_{N_t t}, P^{\alpha^*}_{N_t})$ $\binom{\alpha^*}{N_t}$. Using the percentile rank pairs we compute Kendall's tau coefficient, which is a correlation coefficient between two rankings. We find a time series average of Kendall's tau equal to 0.70, which indicates differences between the two rankings.

To examine the impact of double-adjusted alpha on performance rankings in more detail, we compute the difference between the performance ranks P_t^{α} and $P_t^{\alpha^*}$ for each fund in each month t. Table 6 presents the time series average distribution (across all months in our sample) of the difference in percentile performance rankings. We find that the median change in percentile rankings is roughly 9%, i.e., a fund which is ranked in the median percentile according to alpha is ranked in either the 41th or 59th percentile based on double-adjusted alpha. Moreover, many funds exhibit dramatic changes in percentile ranking, with 10 (5) percent of funds exhibiting a mean change in percentile ranking of at least 22.99% (27.24%).

we compare our double-adjusted alpha to a performance measure which is not influenced by these characteristics.

¹³We follow Busse et al. (2017) in reassessing previous findings in the mutual fund literature using the doubleadjusted performance measure. In addition to the analyses in this paper, they also reevaluated the relation between fund performance and the industry concentration (Kacperczyk et al., 2005), the return gap (Kacperczyk et al., 2008), and active share (Cremers & Petajisto, 2009).

Table 6: Change in performance percentile rankings

This table presents the differences between the performance percentile ranks based on double-adjusted six-factor alpha (α^*) relative to six-factor alpha (α) . These performance measures are calculated using rolling windows with a window size of 24 months (see section 4.A). Each month in our sample period we compute the difference between the percentile ranking based on alpha (P^{α}) and the percentile ranking based on double-adjusted alpha (P^{α^*}) . We report the time series average distribution of the difference between performance rankings. The sample period is February 2001 to December 2016.

5.B Mutual Fund Return Persistence

Mutual fund persistence is well documented in the finance literature. Early works include Grinblatt & Titman (1992), Brown & Goetzmann (1995) and Wermers (1997), which document significant persistence in mutual fund rankings based on returns after adjustment for risk. This persistence lasts over horizons of one to three years, and they attribute the persistence to "hot hands" or common investment strategies. Carhart (1997) add stock momentum as an additional risk factor and find a significant difference in abnormal returns of more than 4% on an annual basis. Drawing on Carhart's findings, Bollen & Busse (2004) find an average abnormal return of 39 basis points for the top quintile in the post-ranking quarter. This post-ranking abnormal return disappears when evaluated over longer periods.

We examine return persistence in several performance measures: six-factor alpha (α) , doubleadjusted six-factor alpha (α^*) and characteristic-driven performance (α^{char}) . If our new performance measure, which accounts for characteristics, is a better indicator of true skill, we expect double-adjusted alpha to account for most of the persistence in alpha, such that double-adjusted alpha persists for a longer period. In this case, there should be no distinct return pattern using characteristic-driven performance. That is, if true skill goes beyond the premia which is passively associated with characteristics.

We replicate the studies on return persistence.¹⁴ Each quarter-end, we sort funds into deciles using the aforementioned performance measures; decile 10 contains the best performing funds and decile 1 contains the worst performing funds. We hold the sorted portfolios for up to six years

 14 This paper adopts a similar approach to the one used in Carhart (1997). The only difference is the frequency of rebalancing, which is set to a quarterly basis in this work. Busse et al. (2017) analyzed persistence in their double-adjusted performance measure. They adopted a monthly rebalancing of portfolios and found new evidence of persistence in mutual fund skill based on their double-adjusted performance measure.

and compute the equal-weighted return in each decile in the post-ranking period. To deal with overlapping decile portfolios formed in different quarters, we compute the equal-weighted return across overlapping periods. We examine the post-ranking performance by concatenating the returns of all post-ranking periods for each decile and estimate six-factor alpha using the resulting time series of post-ranking (monthly) returns for each decile.

Table 7 presents the persistence results. Panel A shows strong evidence of persistence in standard six-factor alpha. In the short term, the average difference in alpha between the top and bottom deciles is 0.28 (t = 3.62) in the following quarter and 0.27 (t = 3.85) in the following year, both of which significant from a statistical and an economic perspective. This abnormal return difference remains statistically significant in the second and third year after formation, followed by a decrease in the top-minus-bottom post ranking abnormal return from the fourth year onwards. Consistent with the findings of Carhart (1997), we find that the majority of the return spread is driven by past losing funds in the bottom deciles. In untabulated results, we find significant negative alphas in the bottom decile with t-statistics below -3.

The results in Panel B show strong evidence that the double-adjusted six-factor alpha predicts future fund performance. We find a distinct return pattern across deciles sorted on our doubleadjusted performance measure, as post-ranking alpha increases nearly monotonically across deciles and indicates a sizable return spread of 0.19 (t = 5.31) in the post-ranking quarter. The top-minusbottom portfolios yield statistical significant alphas between 0.05 and 0.17, which persist up to six years. In Figure 2, we analyze return persistence on the long term. We graph the cumulative six-factor alpha of the top-minus-bottom portfolios, where the three plots lines represent alternative sorts on six-factor alpha, double-adjusted six-factor alpha, and characteristic-driven performance. The plots indicate an upward trend in the cumulative performance of both alpha and doubleadjusted alpha, which lasts for the entire holding period of ten years. The results in Panel B of Table 7 combined with the plots from Figure 2 suggest that double-adjusted alpha reflects true skill, which pays off in the long run such that persistence in this component of alpha causes most of the persistence in alpha.

In Panel C of Table 7 we turn to the component of alpha driven by passively loading on characteristics. The average return difference in alpha in the first year after formation is 0.16 with insignificant t-statistics, followed by a slight reversal from the second year onwards. The graph in Figure 2 shows that sorts on characteristic-driven performance does not exhibit a distinct return pattern after formation in the long term. These results indicate that returns associated with

characteristics do not convey information about future fund performance. This supports the claim that evidence of return predictability in alpha is mostly accounted for by the component adjusted for passive loadings on characteristics. By removing this noisy component, which does not detect skill, double-adjusted alpha is a more precise measurement of skill, leading to stronger evidence of persistence in mutual fund performance.

Table 7: Mutual fund performance persistence

This table presents the returns of decile porfolios sorted by six-factor alpha (Panel A), double-adjusted six-factor alpha (Panel B) and characteristic-driven performance (Panel C). These performance measures are calculated using rolling windows with a window size of 24 months (see section 4.A). Portfolios are rebalanced every quarter-end and are held for up to six years. To deal with overlapping portfolios, we follow Jegadeesh & Titman (1993) to take the equal-weighted return across overlapping portfolios formed in different quarters. Two different returns are reported: the excess (monthly) return over the risk-free rate and the Fama-French six-factor alpha. T-statistics, shown in parenthesis, are computed using White's standard errors. Estimated significant at the 5% level are in bold font. The sample period is February 2001 to December 2016.

	Otr 1		$Qtr 1-4$			Otr $5-12$		Otr 13-24	
Decile	Excess	$6F$ alpha	Excess	$6F$ alpha	Excess	$\overline{6F}$ alpha	Excess	6F alpha	
		Panel C: Characteric-driven performance (α^{char})							
	0.48	-0.18	0.44	-0.22	0.47	-0.15	0.58	-0.09	
$\overline{2}$	0.47	-0.16	0.46	-0.17	0.47	-0.14	0.56	-0.09	
3	0.46	-0.16	0.45	-0.16	0.48	-0.13	0.55	-0.10	
4	0.44	-0.16	0.45	-0.15	0.48	-0.13	0.55	-0.10	
5	0.42	-0.18	0.44	-0.15	0.50	-0.12	0.55	-0.11	
6	0.45	-0.14	0.46	-0.13	0.52	-0.11	0.55	-0.11	
7	0.52	-0.10	0.52	-0.10	0.55	-0.09	0.58	-0.10	
8	0.59	-0.06	0.57	-0.08	0.59	-0.06	0.61	-0.08	
9	0.62	-0.05	0.62	-0.05	0.60	-0.08	0.61	-0.07	
10	0.63	-0.02	0.65	-0.02	0.60	-0.08	0.60	-0.07	
$10-1$	0.15	0.16	0.20	0.20	0.13	0.07	0.02	0.02	
	(0.97)	(1.28)	(1.44)	(1.91)	(1.11)	(0.84)	(0.20)	(0.32)	

Table 7 (Continued)

Figure 2: Cumulative alphas for top-minus-bottom portfolios

This figure presents the cumulative post-ranking Fama-French six-factor alpha for top-minus-bottom portfolios sorted on one of the following performance measures: six-factor alpha (α), double-adjusted six-factor alpha (α^*), or characteristic-driven performance (α^{char}). These performance measures are calculated using rolling windows with a window size of 24 months (see section 4.A). Portfolios are rebalanced every quarter-end and held up to 40 quarters. The horizontal axis shows the post-ranking holding period in quarters.

5.C Mutual Fund's R-squared

Recent studies show that fund performance is positively affected by fund selectivity or active fund management, which is measured by the deviation of fund holdings from a diversified benchmark portfolio. This selectivity measure requires data on the holdings of funds and knowledge on the benchmark indices of funds, which are difficult to obtain. In addition, the benchmark portfolio is not always accurately defined. Amihud & Goyenko (2013) propose a simple and intuitive measure of mutual fund selectivity:¹⁵ the fund's R-squared (R^2) , the proportion of the return variance that is explained by the benchmark portfolios, estimated from a multi-factor model. Amihud & Goyenko (2013) hypothesize that a low R^2 corresponds to high stock selectivity, as a low R^2 indicates that mutual returns are not well explained by the Fama-French risk factors. In this respect, they find that $R²$ has a negative and significant predictive effect on fund performance.

We replicate the work of Amihud $& Govenko (2013)$ by examining the relation between a fund's factor model R^2 and fund performance. Each month, we calculate a fund's R^2 from a six-factor model over a 24-month estimation period using daily returns. Following Amihud & Goyenko (2013), since the distribution of R^2 is negatively skewed, we apply the log transformation of R^2 : \tilde{R}^2 = $\log \left[\frac{\sqrt{R^2}}{4} \right]$ $\frac{\sqrt{R^2}}{(1-\sqrt{R^2})}$. We test whether fund selectivity explains fund performance by the following panel regression

$$
\begin{aligned} \text{Performance}_{it} &= c_{0t} + c_{1t}\tilde{R}_{it}^2 + c_{2t}\text{ExpRatio}_{it-1} + c_{3t}\text{Turnover}_{it-1} + c_{4t}\log(\text{TNA})_{it-1} \\ &+ c_{5t}\log(\text{FundAge})_{it-1} + v_{it}, \end{aligned} \tag{23}
$$

where Performance_{it} refers to fund i's six-factor alpha (α) , double-adjusted six-factor alpha (α^*) , or characteristic-driven performance (α^{char}) , all estimated over a rolling window of 24 months ending in month t. We relate fund performance to the contemporaneous log-transformed R-squared, \tilde{R}^2 , which is measured over the same rolling window period. Lagged control variables are included in the regression comprising ExpRatio, the total expenses divided by a fund's Total Net Assets (TNA); Turnover, defined as the minimum of aggregated sales or aggregated purchases divided by TNA; TNA in logarithm; and FundAge in logarithm, computed as the difference in years between the current date and the date the fund was first offered. The model residuals are given by v_{it} . We estimate this regression in each month in our sample.

Table 8 reports the averaged cross-sectional regression coefficients along with Fama-MacBeth t-statistics with the Newey & West (1986) correction for time series correlation with 12 lags. Firstly, similar to the findings of Amihud & Goyenko (2013) , we find that alpha is higher for funds with

¹⁵Amihud & Goyenko (2013) define fund selectivity as $1 - R^2 = \frac{RMSE^2}{TotalVariance} = \frac{RMSE^2}{SystemeticRisk + RMSE^2}$. RMSE is the idiosyncratic volatility, which is the volatility of the factor model residuals. SystemeticRisk is the return variance that is due to the risk factors. Fund selectivity is greater if the fund's idiosyncratic volatility is higher relative to its total variance, meaning that the fund's volatility is less driven by factor-based (systematic) volatility.

lower R-squared, that is, funds with high stock selectivity. The control variables yield no significant estimates. When we consider double-adjusted alpha we find no significant relation with \tilde{R}^2 . However, the results indicate a significant (inverse) relation between the characteristic-driven component of alpha and R-squared, with t-statistics well above two. A potential reason might be that characteristics can help explain fund returns in cases where the Fama-French factors fail to do so, such that we find a strong inverse relation between characteristic-driven performance and R-squared. Thus, using our decomposition of alpha, we find that the component of alpha associated with passive loadings on characteristics is the main driver of the inverse relation between alpha and R-squared.

Table 8: Relation between mutual fund performance and R^2

This table presents the time series averages of monthly cross-sectional regressions of mutual fund performance measures on fund selectivity, measured by the contemporaneous log-transformed R-squared (\tilde{R}^2) . As (annualized) performance measures we employ six-factor alpha (α) , double-adjusted six-factor alpha (α^*) and characteristic-driven performance (α^{char}) . These performance measures are calculated using rolling windows with a window size of 24 months (see section 4.A). We estimate the regressions with and without a set of control variables. Fama $\&$ MacBeth (1973) t-statistics with the Newey & West (1986) correction of 12 lags are reported in parenthesis. Estimates significant at the 5% are in bold font. The monthly regressions cover the period February 2001 until December 2016.

	α			α^*	α^{char}		
Cnst	4.770	4.778	-0.518	-0.540	1.073	1.110	
	(2.01)	(1.98)	(-2.12)	(-2.20)	(2.76)	(2.61)	
$\tilde{R}2$	-1.148	-1.269	-0.018	-0.021	-0.314	-0.306	
	(-2.12)	(-2.36)	(-1.02)	(-1.18)	(-2.67)	(-2.55)	
ExpRatio		8.112		0.848		-0.548	
		(1.30)		(1.62)		(-0.37)	
Turnover		-0.081		0.001		-0.002	
		(-1.78)		(0.32)		(-0.29)	
Log(TNA)		-0.014		-0.001		-0.002	
		(-1.07)		(-0.23)		(-0.45)	
Log(FundAge)		0.015		0.006		-0.010	
		(0.48)		(1.45)		(-0.60)	

5.D Mutual Fund Flows

There is no shortage of literature on mutual fund flows. The first stream of literature (e.g., Warther (1995), Edelen & Warner (2001), Brown et al. (2003)) have focused on aggregate fund flows to the equity market, documenting a positive correlation with contemporaneous stock returns. Early works of Ippolito (1992), Gruber (1996) and Sirri & Tufano (1998) find that capital flows to and
from funds are strongly related to past fund performance. The general consensus is that the flowperformance relation is positive, asymmetric and convex; positive returns garner more inflows than those lost to negative returns. The establishment of a convex flow-performance relation is generally robust to different performance measures varying from raw returns to multi-factor model alphas.

More recently, a second stream of literature goes beyond the simple flow-performance relations.¹⁶ A recent paper of Barber et al. (2016) investigate which risk factors are used by investors to adjust raw returns when evaluating fund performance. They run linear regressions of fund flows on fund alphas obtained from several Fama-French factor models and conclude that CAPM alphas are the best predictor of flows among all factor model alphas. In additional analysis, they decompose fund returns into alpha and returns resulting from factor tilts. They conclude that alpha generates the largest flow response, closely followed by a fund's momentum related return, while flows are least sensitive to fund returns traced to market beta.

We aim to replicate the work of Barber et al. (2016) using our decomposition of six-factor alpha (α) . Using fund flows, we investigate whether investors tend toward the double-adjusted component of six-factor alpha (α^*) or toward the characteristic-driven component (α^{char}) when assessing fund managers. For this purpose, we follow the majority of the prior literature on fund flows and calculate net capital flow¹⁷ to fund i during month t as

$$
\text{flow}_{it} = \frac{\text{TNA}_{it} - \text{TNA}_{it-1}(1 + R_{it})}{\text{TNA}_{it-1}},\tag{24}
$$

where TNA_{it} is fund i's total net assets at the end of month t and R_{it} is the monthly net return of fund i in month t^{18} . The variable flow reflects the percentage growth of a fund that is due to new investment (under the assumption of dividends being reinvested in the fund).

Similar to Barber et al. (2016), we further decompose characteristic-driven performance into alpha related to each individual characteristic. Recall that characteristic-driven performance (see

 $16A$ mutual fund's investment style is an important source of information to investors. Cooper et al. (2005) document an increase in fund flows to funds adopting the current hot investment style in their names. They find that these inflows are similar across funds who alter their positions matching their new name and those who do not, suggesting that investors are irrationally influenced by cosmetic effects. Guo (2016) use a fund's reported holdings to determine a fund's investment style and find that funds adopting a more volatile implementation of style strategy garner higher inflows.

¹⁷Frazzini & Lamont (2008) and Lou (2012) correct for fund mergers when calculating fund flows. As fund mergers are quite rare, this study ignores them.

¹⁸Fund flows are dropped if the percentage difference in TNA in between two months is greater than 200% or less than -50%. These extreme flows are rare and are typically related to structural changes within funds, e.g., mergers.

 $Eq.(14)$) is defined as

$$
\alpha_{it}^{char} = \delta'_{1t} Z_{it-1}
$$

= $\delta^{Mcap}_{1t} \text{Mcap}_{it-1} + \delta^{B/M}_{1t} B/M_{it-1} + \delta^{Mom12}_{1t} \text{Mom12}_{it-1} + \delta^{Profit}_{1t} \text{Profit}_{it-1} + \delta^{Invest}_{1t} \text{Invest}_{it-1}$ (25)

which is the sum of lagged (standardized) characteristics multiplied by the corresponding crosssectional premia. With this decomposition, we gauge whether fund flows are distributed differently across the characteristic components of alpha by estimating the following panel regression

$$
\begin{split} \text{flow}_{i,t+1:t+12} &= c_{0t} + c_{1t}\alpha_{it}^* + c_{2t}[\delta_{1t}^{\text{Mcap}}\text{Mcap}_{it-1}] + c_{3t}[\delta_{1t}^{\text{B/M}}\text{B/M}_{it}] + c_{4t}[\delta_{1t}^{\text{Mom12}}\text{Mom12}_{it-1}] \\ &+ c_{5t}[\delta_{1t}^{\text{Profit}}\text{Profit}_{it-1}] + c_{6t}[\delta_{1t}^{\text{Invest}}\text{Invest}_{it-1}] \\ &+ c_{7t}\text{ExpRatio}_{it} + c_{8t}\text{Turnover}_{it} + c_{9t}\log(\text{TNA})_{it} + c_{10t}\log(\text{FundAge})_{it} + v_{it}, \quad (26) \end{split}
$$

where the dependent variable is the average monthly fund flow of fund i in the following year. The independent variables include double-adjusted alpha (α_{it}^*) and alpha related to a fund's size, value, momentum, profitability and investment characteristics (see Eq.(25)). We include the same control variables as in Eq. (23). The model residuals are given by v_{it} . We estimate this regression at each year-end. We expect that managerial skill attracts fund, such that there is no capital directed towards abnormal return related to known characteristics. That is, we expect that the parameters related to the characteristic components to be indistinguishable from zero. Contrary evidence implies that either investors are not considering known factors when assessing fund performance, or alpha provides an incomplete risk-adjustment for these characteristics.

Table 9 reports the cross-sectional regression coefficients averaged across time along with Fama-MacBeth t-statistics with the Newey & West (1986) correction for time series correlation with 3 lags. In the first two columns, we specify future fund flows as a linear combination of doubleadjusted alpha and characteristic-driven performance, with and without the set of control variables. We find strong positive relations between both performance measures and fund flows, where the double-adjusted component garners the most inflows. Among the set of control variables, we find positive but statistically insignificant coefficients for ExpRatio and log(FundAge). Of interest are the estimated sensitivities of flows to the characteristic components of alpha. Generally, fund returns related to characteristics do not garner the same magnitude of flows as double-adjusted

Table 9: Response of fund flows to components of alpha

This table presents the time series averages of annual cross-sectional regressions of the one-year ahead average of monthly fund flows on double-adjusted six-factor alpha (α^*) and characteristic-driven performance (α^{char}) . These performance measures are calculated using rolling windows with a window size of 24 months (see section 4.A). We also estimate the regressions in which we further decompose α^{char} into alpha related to each individual characteristic. We estimate the regressions with and without a set of control variables. Fama $\&$ MacBeth (1973) t-statistics with the Newey & West (1986) correction of 3 lags are reported in parenthesis. Estimates significant at the 5% are in bold font. We estimate these annual regressions at the end of each year, covering 16 years from 2001 to 2016.

alpha does. The coefficients on the value and profitability characteristics are both statistically and economically insignificant. However, we do find evidence of investors tending to size and momentum characteristics, which yield significant parameter estimates of about half of that of double-adjusted alpha (in absolute value). Thus, in aggregate, we find that investors allocate their investment toward funds with favourable characteristics in the size and momentum dimensions.

6 Robustness Checks

6.A Overlapping Rolling Windows

In a recent paper, Britten-Jones et al. (2011) examine the impact of overlapping dependent variables on the inference from standard Fama-MacBeth cross-sectional regressions. The overlap induces an autocorrelation pattern in the standard errors of the cross-sectional regressions and commonly used methods (e.g., White or common Newey-West standard errors) to deal with this autocorrelation are inadequate and can lead to misleading estimates of the confidence intervals associated with coefficient estimates obtained from finite samples.¹⁹ As the rolling windows overlap in our model in Eqs.(11), (12) and (15), we check the robustness of our results in Section 4.C. Specifically, we re-estimate our model using different frequencies of the cross-sectional regressions in Eq.(12).

Table 10 reports the results. In Panel A, we estimate the cross-sectional regressions at each quarter-end rolling the window three months at a time. The results are very similar compared to the results using monthly cross-sectional regressions (see Table 4).²⁰ All characteristics except operating profitability remain significantly associated with six-factor alphas. Moreover, we find an increase in the posterior standard deviations for the momentum, profitability and investment characteristics. In Panel B, we estimate the cross-sectional regressions at a semi-annual frequency. We use less periods to estimate the systematic relation between alphas and characteristics, which leads to a further increase in posterior standard deviations. Consequently, we find more tenuous relations between six-factor alphas and the momentum and investment characteristics.

Another factor to consider is the frequency of mutual fund portfolio disclosure. The Thomson Reuters database provides quarterly snapshots of fund portfolios, which we keep constant between quarters to create a monthly time series of fund holdings (see Appendix A). Consequently, the variation in fund-level characteristics within quarters is only caused by the monthly variation in firm characteristics of each fund position. The staleness in our holdings data might compound the autocorrelation in the standard errors described above. While our analysis would benefit from portfolio disclosure at a higher frequency, the potential effects of frequent mutual fund portfolio disclosure remains the focus of a longstanding debate among practitioners, regulators, and academics.

 19 Britten-Jones et al. (2011) transform original regressions into an equivalent representation in which the dependent variables are non-overlapping to remove the autocorrelation. Their method is easily applicable within standard frequentist analyses and they show that conventional inference procedures (OLS-, White-, Newey-West- standard errors) are asymptotically valid when applied to the transformed regression.

 20 We repeated the analysis of Section 5 using double-adjusted alpha obtained from quarterly cross-sectional regressions. In untabulated results, we find that inference is qualitatively similar to that based on double-adjusted alpha from monthly cross-sectional regressions.

Table 10: Rolling window frequency robustness

This table presents the results of the estimation of the model in Eqs. (11) , (12) and (15) using different frequencies of the cross-sectional regressions in Eq.(12). We estimate this model during the period February 2001 to December 2016, using an estimation period of two years to estimate the six-factor model in Eq.(11), rolling the window three months at a time between quarter-ends in Panel A and six months at a time in Panel B. The characteristics (Z) are the logarithm of market capitalization (Mcap), the logarithm of book-to-market ratio (B/M) , the logarithm of one plus the past twelve-month cumulative return (Mom12), operating profitability (Profit) and asset growth (Invest). Each characteristic is standardized by subtracting the cross-sectional mean each month. We estimate the model for each characteristic in isolation and for all characteristics in a joint model. We presents the posterior mean and standard deviation for the aggregate-level parameters in δ , based on the posterior distribution of the parameters constructed from 5000 iterations of the Gibbs sampler with the first 2500 iterations discarded as a burn-in period. Estimates in bold font indicate that the 95% credible interval of the posterior distribution does not include zero.

6.B Characteristic-based Benchmark Approach

Daniel et al. (1997) develop a new measure of mutual fund performance which use benchmarks based on the firm characteristics of mutual fund holdings. The benchmarks are constructed from the returns of passive portfolios sorted on characteristics that are matched with the characteristics of the evaluated fund's holdings. Specifically, the DGTW characteristic selectivity (CS) measure is calculated as

$$
CS_{it} = \sum_{j=1}^{N_{it}} w_{jt-1} (R_{jt} - R_t^{b_{jt}}), \qquad (27)
$$

where w_{jt-1} is the portfolio weight on stock j at the end of month $t-1$, R_{jt} is the month t return of stock $j, R_t^{b_{jt}}$ t_t^{i} is the month t return of the characteristic-based benchmark portfolio that is matched to stock j, and N_{it} is the number of holdings of fund i in month t. We use the DGTW CS measure to adjust fund returns for size, value, momentum, profitability and investment effects. In Appendix F, we describe in more detail the construction of the characteristic-based benchmark portfolios.

To test whether this characteristic-based performance measure fully adjusts fund returns for the main anomalies, we regress cross-sectionally the DGTW CS measure on the factor betas from the Fama-French six-factor model. Particularly, we conduct the following panel regression

$$
CS_{i,t-23:t} = c_{0t} + \sum_{k=1}^{6} c_{kt} \beta_{ikt} + v_{it},
$$
\n(28)

where the dependent variable is the average DGTW CS measure of fund i across a 24-month period ending in month t . The independent variables include the six-factor betas of fund i estimated over the same 24-month period using daily fund returns. The model residuals are given by v_{it} . Beginning with the 24th month of our sample, we estimate the monthly cross-sectional regressions over the period December 2002 to December 2016, consisting of 169 months.

Table 11 reports the results. In Panel A, we only adjust returns for size, value and momentum effects. When considered in isolation, we find significant relations between the DGTW CS measure and the market, momentum and profitability betas. That is, the characteristic-based measure underadjusts for exposures to the momentum and profitability factors. When we consider all factor betas together, the profitability beta is no longer significantly related with characteristic-adjusted fund performance. In Panel B, we adjust returns for all characteristics and the results are qualitatively similar.

In sum, we conclude that the characteristic-based measure of Daniel et al. (1997) does not fully adjust fund performance for the main anomalies. Controlling only for factor betas, as in Fama-French factor models, or only for characteristics, as in DGTW, may overlook the other effect, and in so doing materially impact estimates of fund manager skill.

Table 11: DGTW CS measure vs. six-factor betas

This table presents the time series averages of monthly cross-sectional regressions of the DGTW characteristic selectivity (CS) measure on the Fama-French six-factor betas. We calculate the average DGTW CS measure across the past 24 months. We estimate the six-factor model over the same 24-month period using daily fund returns. In Panel A, the DGTW CS measure controls for the size, value and momentum characteristics. In Panel B, the DGTW CS measure also controls for the profitability and investment characteristics. Fama & MacBeth (1973) t-statistics with the Newey & West (1986) correction of 12 lags are reported in parenthesis. Estimates significant at the 5% are in bold font. Starting with the $24th$ month in our sample, the monthly regressions cover the period December 2002 to December 2016.

7 Conclusion

Growing concerns arise among academics and practitioners alike regarding the portfolio-based approach for identifying anomalies and, more generally, for testing asset-pricing models. This approach sorts stocks on a firm characteristic and constructs a zero-cost hedge portfolio which reflects the return differential between stocks in the top characteristic decile and stocks in the bottom character-

istic decile. Ang et al. (2008) and Fama & French (2008), among many others, argue that grouping stocks into portfolios and aggregating returns wastes and potentially distorts cross-sectional patterns in stock returns. Consequently, the Fama-French multi-factor models, that incorporate these portfolios as risk factors, do not fully adjust returns for the main anomalies. Instead of estimated factor betas many studies (e.g., Avramov & Chordia (2006), Chordia et al. (2015)) have opted for individual firm characteristics to explain expected returns.

Our paper moves the debate of factor betas versus characteristics to the returns of mutual funds. We conduct monthly cross-sectional regressions of fund returns on estimated factor betas and firmlevel characteristics (aggregated to a fund-level statistic from a fund's holdings). Similar to the evidence on stock returns, we find that factor betas and characteristics each account for about half of the total model explained variation in fund returns. Thus, despite the mechanical relation one might expect between factor betas and their underlying characteristics, our results imply they do not convey identical information.

An important application of the Fama-French factor models is the performance evaluation of mutual funds. Since these factor models do not fully account for the main anomalies, they only partially control for passive influences on fund returns. Our paper proposes a new performance measure that adjusts fund returns for both factor exposures and characteristics simultaneously. While it is debatable whether fund managers that actively shift their portfolios towards a certain characteristic dimension qualifies as skill, we belief that a performance measure should fully adjust for a particular anomaly.

To calculate our double-adjusted performance measure, we propose a hierarchical Bayes structure in which we simultaneously model conditional factor model alphas and analyze the crosssectional relation between fund alphas and characteristics. We find that characteristics are statistically significantly related to fund returns even after controlling for factor model betas, suggesting that performance identified via Fama-French factor models could be attributable to loadings on characteristics. When we reassess several previous studies on mutual fund relative performance, we find that our double-adjusted performance measure is a purer measure of skill when we analyze persistence in fund performance. Moreover, we find that relations between specific fund features (fund selectivity and fund flows) and fund performance is partially driven by the characteristic component of performance. All in all, by more fully adjusting performance for the influence of characteristics we might alter previous inference on relative mutual fund performance.

Our hierarchical Bayes model can be extended in various directions. For example, the MIDAS

approach of Ghysels et al. (2005) can be adopted to assign optimal weights to the daily returns in the window used to estimate the rolling window factor betas. In addition, one can impose a common structure on the factor betas too, rather than just the alphas, to further exploit information from the cross-section of funds. Furthermore, while we focus on the characteristics underlying the Fama-French factors because of the widespread use of the Fama-French models, our model can be readily extended to adjust performance for other characteristics such as those underlying the q-factors from Hou et al. (2015) or underlying the short- and long-run behavioral factors from Daniel et al. (2017).

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Appendices

Appendix A: Mutual Fund Selection

Our sample contains U.S. equity actively managed funds at the intersection of the CRSP Survivor-Bias-Free U.S. Mutual Fund database with the Thomson Reuters Mutual Fund Holdings S12 database. We use the MFLINKS database available from Wharton Research Data Services (WRDS) to combine both databases. Our final database contains mutual fund holdings spanning the period from January 2001 to December 2016.

A.1 CRSP Mutual Fund Database

Since we wish to capture active mutual funds that invest primarily in U.S. equities, we follow Kacperczyk et al. (2008) and Lou (2012), by eliminating balanced, bond, money market, international, index, and sector funds, as well as funds that do not primarily invest in U.S. common equity. We base our mutual fund selection on identifiers provided in the CRSP mutual fund database. Specifically, we select funds with the following Lipper Objective codes: EI, EIEI, EMN, FLX, G, GI, I, LCCE, LCGE, LCVE, LSE, MC, MCCE, MCGE, MCVE, MLCE, MLGE, MLVE, SCCE, SCGE, SCVE, SESE, SG. If a fund's Lipper Objective code is missing, we pick funds with the following Strategic Insight Objective codes: SCG, GRO, AGG, ING, GRI, GMC. If both codes are missing for a fund, we select funds with the following Wiesenberger Fund Type codes: SCG, AGG, G, G-S, S-G, GRO, LTG, I, I-S, IEQ, ING, GCI, G-I, G-I-S, G-S-I, I-G, I-G-S, I-S-G, S-G-I, S-I-G, GRI, MCG.

Since some funds misreport their objective code, we require funds to hold at least 80% and at most 105% in common stocks, on average. Index funds are eliminated based on the CRSP index fund flags (provided since 2003) and by screening fund names. In particular, funds are dropped if the fund name contains the following strings: INDEX, IND, INDX, IDX, IDX, MKT, MARKET, SP, SP, MSCI, NYSE, RUSSELL, NASDAQ, ISHARES, DOWJONES, SPDR, ETF, 100, 400, 500, 600, 1000, 1500, 2000, 3000, 5000. Following Kacperczyk et al. (2008), to address the incubation $bias²¹$ we delete observations for which the date of the observation is prior to the reported fund start-date and we delete observations with missing fund names. Other data from the CRSP mutual fund database include the total net assets (TNA), net returns (both monthly and daily), fees, and

 21 Evans (2004) and Kacperczyk et al. (2008) detect a form of survival bias in the CRSP mutual fund database. which stems from fund families sugarcoating their past performance. Fund families incubate private funds and only report the returns of the surviving incubated funds and do not disclose the past performance of terminated funds.

other qualitative fund data. We aggregate all different share classes belonging to a single fund at each point in time into one observation. Regarding the quantitative attributes of funds, we sum the TNA and we take a weighted average of the fund returns, expense ratio, turnover ratio and fees, using the lagged TNAs of each individual share class as weights. Regarding the qualitative attributes of funds (e.g., fund name, CRSP objective code, year of origin), the data of the oldest fund is retained.

A.2 Thomson Reuters Database

Mutual fund holdings are provided by Thomson Reuters and are compiled from mandatory SEC fillings²² and voluntary disclosures. From this database we exclude funds with the following objective codes: International, Municipal Bonds, Bond & Preferred, Balanced and Metals. Every fund files the SEC form at the end of a quarter (the file date), which is often in the same quarter as the report date; the date for which the holdings are actually held (adjusted for stock splits²³). To create a monthly time series of fund holdings, we keep reported holdings constant between report dates (e.g., holdings reported at the end of September are valid in October, November and December). A majority of funds report holdings on a quarterly basis, while a small number of funds have gaps between report dates of more than two quarters. To fill these gaps (of no more than two quarters), we impute holdings of missing quarters using the most recently available report date, assuming that these funds adopt a buy-and-hold strategy. In the final database about 65% of the funds disclose their holdings quarterly, 34% semi-annually, and 1% on a less frequent basis.

A.3 MFLINKS

To combine the CRSP mutual fund database with the Thomson Reuters database, we use the MFLINKS provided by Russ Wermers on Wharton Research Data Services (WRDS). MFLINKS maps CRSP fund identifiers to Thomson Reuters fund identifiers, covering approximately 98% of the domestic equity mutual funds. We manage to link about 92% of the target universe in the CRSP mutual fund database to holdings data from Thomson Reuters. To ensure a reliable linkage between the two databases, we require that the TNAs reported by both databases do not differ by more than a factor of two. Finally, funds with less than 10 identified stock positions and less than

²²Investment companies, which include mutual funds, insurance companies, banks, pension funds, and numerous other institutions are often called 13f institutions. These institutions are required to fill in a form with the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) on a semiannual basis.

 23 Adjustments are made using the cumulative adjustment factor for shares in the CRSP monthly file.

\$5 million assets under management are excluded.

The final mutual fund database contains 2,871 distinct mutual funds including 92,903 fundreport dates and 314,362 fund-month observations. Table A1 presents the number of funds at the end of each year along with the TNA and number of holdings reported by Thomson Reuters. There is a rising trend in both the number of funds, the average fund size, and the market share held.

Table A1: End of year summary statistics of the equity mutual fund sample

This table presents summary statistics for the mutual fund database as of December each year. $#Holdings$ is the number of reported holdings in Thomson Reuters. $#Distinct stocks$ contains the number of unique stocks held by the funds in the sample and the aggregated percentage market share held. TNA is the total net assets under management reported by CRSP, expressed in millions USD.

Appendix B: Errors-in-variables (EIV) Bias

The estimation of risk premia is subjected to the EIV bias, because the set of regressors include estimations of factor betas. The OLS estimator for the factor betas for fund i in month t can be written as

$$
\hat{\beta}_{it} = (F'_{\tau,t}F_{\tau,t})^{-1}F'_{\tau,t}R_{i\tau,t}, \ \ \tau = t - \mathcal{T} + 1, ..., t.
$$
\n(A.1)

The superscript τ is used to index the daily fund returns in the rolling window ending in month t and T is the length of the rolling window, that is, two years ($\mathcal{T} \approx 500$ trading days). The estimation error in the first stage is

$$
u_{it} = \hat{\beta}_{it} - \beta_{it} = (F'_{\tau,t}F_{\tau,t})^{-1}F'_{\tau,t}\epsilon_{i\tau,t}, \ \ \tau = t - \mathcal{T} + 1, ..., t.
$$
 (A.2)

We stack the excess returns, factor betas estimates, residual returns, and estimation errors for all funds at each time t. Denote $R_s = [R_{1s},...,R_{N_ts}]$, $\hat{B}_t = [\hat{\beta}_{1t},...,\hat{\beta}_{N_tt}]$, $\epsilon_s = [\epsilon_{1s},...,\epsilon_{N_ts}]$, and U_t $=[u_{1t},...,u_{N_t}]'$, given a total number of N_t funds in the cross-section at time t. The second-pass regression in the Fama-MacBeth procedure is of the form $R_s = \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{B}_t \hat{\gamma} + \xi_s$, with time s often simply one period ahead t+1. If we assume that the factor model holds ($\alpha = 0$), the true model is $R_s = B_t \gamma + \epsilon_s$. The cross-sectional residuals are expressed as $\xi_s = (B_t - \hat{B}_t)\gamma + \epsilon_s$, which are correlated with the estimated factor betas. This endogeneity problem induces a downward bias in the estimated $\hat{\gamma}$.

Specifically, let 1_{N_t} be a $N_t \times 1$ column vector of ones and define \hat{B}_t^* as $[1_{N_t} \hat{B}_t]$. Then the OLS estimator of γ is written as

$$
\hat{\gamma}_{t+1} = (\hat{B}_t^{*'} \hat{B}_t^*)^{-1} \hat{B}_t^* R_{t+1}.
$$
\n(A.3)

The expected value of the matrix in parenthesis is written as

$$
E(\hat{B}_{t}^{*'}\hat{B}_{t}^{*}) = B_{t}^{*'}B_{t}^{*} + \Lambda_{t} \text{ with}
$$

$$
\Lambda_{t} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0_{1 \times K} \\ 0_{K \times 1} & E(U_{t}'U_{t}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0_{1 \times K} \\ 0_{K \times 1} & \sum_{i=1}^{N_{t}} E(u_{it}'u_{it}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0_{1 \times K} \\ 0_{K \times 1} & \sum_{i=1}^{N_{t}} V(u_{it}') \end{bmatrix}.
$$
(A.4)

Notice that the cross-products in the expectation of $\hat{B}^{*'}_t \hat{B}^*_t$ disappear as the estimate \hat{B}_t is an

unbiased estimator of B_t . The term $V(u'_{it})$ is

$$
V(u'_{it}) = E(u_{it}u'_{it}) = (F'_{\tau,t}F_{\tau,t})^{-1}F'_{\tau,t}E(\epsilon_{i\tau,t}\epsilon'_{i\tau,t})F_{\tau,t}(F'_{\tau,t}F_{\tau,t})^{-1}, \ \ \tau = t - \mathcal{T} + 1, ..., t,
$$
 (A.5)

which is simply the covariance matrix of the estimator of β_{it} , denoted by $\Sigma_{\beta_{it}}$.

The right-bottom term of Λ_t is the summation of covariance matrices of N_t assets, which is positive semi-definite such that $\hat{B}^{*t}_{t} \hat{B}^{*t}_{t} > B^{*t}_{t} B^{*t}_{t}$, leading to a negative bias in the estimated risk premia $\hat{\gamma}$. Notice that the second term in Eq.(A.3), $\hat{B}_t^* R_t = B_t^* R_t + U_t R_t$ does not systematically deviate from zero as $E(U_t'R_t) = 0$. The EIV bias is less severe when the estimation of B_t is more precise. Assuming the true value of B_t is time invariate, a way to improve precision is to increase the rolling window length $\mathcal T$. Asymptotically, the smaller measurement error in the first-pass regression reduces the bias in the second stage.

A large stream of literature have followed Jensen et al. (1972) and Fama & MacBeth (1973), among many others, in mending the EIV bias by grouping assets into portfolios. The underlying motivation of grouping assets is to decrease idiosyncratic risk in the first-pass regression. Assuming unbiased estimates of the true factor betas and the estimation error being independent across different assets, the estimated factor betas of portfolios, which merely constitutes a weighted average of individual factor beta estimates, tend to become smaller as the portfolio contains a larger number of assets. Intuitively, the errors in estimated factor betas of individual assets tend to offset one another. Thus, creating portfolios allows for more efficient estimates of factor betas.

But using portfolios, rather than individual assets, has its own shortcomings. The number of test assets is dramatically reduced, such that there is less cross-sectional variation in factor betas to form risk premia estimates. Perhaps more alarming is that diversification into portfolios can mask cross-sectional phenomena in individual assets. Liang (2000) argue that measurement errors in the sorting variables can compound the EIV problem and further bias test results. Ang et al. (2008) show that the smaller standard errors of portfolio betas do not lead to smaller standard errors of the cross-sectional estimated risk premia.

Therefore, this paper will work with individual funds. This is in line with recent literature including the works of Chordia et al. (2015), Jegadeesh et al. (2016), and Raponi et al. (2017). We employ the EIV-corrected estimator of Chordia et al. (2015), described in Section 3.B.1.

Pukthuanthong et al. (2014) and Jegadeesh et al. (2016) have proposed an instrumental variables approach to mitigate the EIV bias. Recall that the explanatory variables in the second-pass

regression suffer from endogeneity. A standard econometric solution is to define a particular set of well-behaved instruments which meet two conditions: (1) the instruments are correlated with the endogenous variables and (2) the instruments are uncorrelated with the residuals. They propose estimated factor betas from non-overlapping observations to serve as instruments for the secondpass regression. We have explored the IV estimator in simulations. The IV estimator did reduce the negative bias on $\gamma,$ but exhibits the highest variability among all estimators. 24

²⁴In untabulated simulation results, the IV estimator ranked second behind the EIV-corrected estimator of Chordia et al. (2015). A major pitfall of instrumental variable estimation is the "weak instrument" problem, which is caused by low cross-correlations between endogenous variables and instruments, which may cause nonsensical estimates. Factor betas on value and momentum factors are most prone to time variation, due to the volatile nature of these anomalies. In simulations, these factors exhibit the highest variability due to low correlated instruments.

Appendix C: Simulation Experiments

In order to gauge the statistical properties of the proposed estimators of Γ under small T and large N_t , we resort to simulations with parameters matched to the real data. We investigate the bias and the root-mean-squared error (RMSE) of the OLS estimator and the EIV-corrected estimator. For this purpose a simple data-generating process is set, in which fund returns follow a six-factor model with time invariant factor betas:

$$
R_{it} = \beta_{i1} \text{RMRF}_t + \beta_{i2} \text{SMB}_t + \beta_{i3} \text{HML}_t + \beta_{i4} \text{WML}_t + \beta_{i5} \text{RMW}_t + \beta_{i6} \text{CMA}_t + \epsilon_{it}, \tag{A.6}
$$

where $RMRF_t$ is the excess return on the market portfolio on day t. SMB, HML and WML are the factors from Carhart (1997) and are excess returns on the factor mimicking portfolios for size (small minus big), book-to-market (high minus low) and one-year momentum (winners minus losers). The two additional factors RMW and CMA from Fama & French (2015) are factor returns for profitability (robust minus weak) and investment (conservative minus aggressive). The benchmark returns of RMRF, SMB, HML, WML, RMW and CMA are provided on Ken French's Website.

The simulation parameters are set equal to the corresponding parameters in the actual data covering the sample period of January 2001 to December 2016. For each fund, we estimate the sixfactor model using rolling time series regressions based on the past two years of daily return data. For the sake of simplicity, we assume the residuals are homoskedastic and compute the variance of residuals as $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}^2 = \frac{\epsilon' \epsilon}{T-K}$. This results in a set of factor betas and residual variances from which we calculate the first two sample moments.

We conduct a simulation with 1000 replications where fund returns are randomly generated on a daily basis using the following procedure:

- 1: For each replication, we randomly generate daily factor returns for RMRF, SMB, HML, WML, RMW and CMA from normal distributions $\mathcal{N}(0.025, 1.520), \, \mathcal{N}(0.017, 0.331), \, \mathcal{N}(0.014, 0.398),$ $\mathcal{N}(0.012, 0.984), \mathcal{N}(0.019, 0.200)$ and $\mathcal{N}(0.013, 0.131)$, respectively. These parameters are calculated using actual data on daily factor returns during our sample period.
- 2: For each fund i, we randomly generate six-factor betas and $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon_i}$, which we keep constant over the entire sample period. The factor betas are generated from normal distributions $\mathcal{N}(0.980, 0.010), \ \mathcal{N}(0.197, 0.114), \ \mathcal{N}(0.000, 0.046), \ \mathcal{N}(0.021, 0.015), \ \mathcal{N}(-0.057, 0.043), \text{ and } \mathcal{N}(-0.057, 0.045)$ 0.037,0,044). $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon_i}$ is generated from $\mathcal{N}(0.293,0.031)$. All parameters are obtained from real

data.

3: For each fund i and each day t, we randomly generate residual returns ϵ_{it} from independent normal distributions $N(0,\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon_i}^2)$.

Then for each fund i and each day t, we calculate the fund return according to Eq.(A.6), using the realized factors (from step 1), the fund's factor betas (from step 2), and the residual return (from step 3).

We estimate the Fama-French six-factor model (first-stage regression) for each fund using a rolling window of the past two years of daily returns. The data is then aggregated to monthly frequency and the estimated betas are used in the second-stage cross-sectional regression (monthly fund returns on estimated factor betas) using the OLS and the EIV-corrected estimator. We roll the two-year estimation window forward by one month and repeat the risk premia estimation over the period February 2001 to December 2016, totalling 191 months. The final risk premia estimates are the time series averages of the $\hat{\gamma}_t$ s.

We present the simulation results relative to the ex-ante risk premia (the true values) and also relative to the ex-post risk premia, which equal the time series means of the real factors and the simulated factor returns, respectively. Shanken (1992) derive an expression for the ex-post risk premia as $\gamma^{ex-post} = \gamma + \bar{f}$ - E(f). As the true premium is the factor's expected value, the expost premium is simply the realized factor's sample mean. The notion of an ex-post premium is meaningful only conditional on the factor's realizations; as T diverges, \bar{f} will converge to E(f) and $\gamma^{ex-post}$ converges to the true value. However, under a finite T, γ and $\gamma^{ex-post}$ will differ in general. The ex-post perspective is informative since it largely removes the component of estimation variance corresponding to factor outcomes, such that the performance of the EIV-correction relative to the residual variance component is highlighted. The ex-ante perspective presents the total picture, including factor surprises. Both the average bias and the average RMSE are reported from both perspectives.

Table C1 reports the average bias and the average RMSE across 1000 replications, using $N \in$ [250, 500, 1000, 2000] funds using a rolling window of the past two years to estimate factor betas.²⁵ Considering the bias relative to the ex-ante risk premia, the OLS estimations are, on average, always below the true risk premia, ranging from a negative bias between roughly 6% for the size factor to a negative bias of roughly 23% for the investment factor. This negative bias remains relatively

 25 In untabulated results, we find similar results when using rolling window sizes of one year, three years and five years.

stable when increasing the number of funds in the cross-section. The negative bias is similar when calculated relative to the ex-post risk premium. The negative bias is partially eliminated by the bias-corrected estimator, leading to a negative bias in the estimated risk premia ranging from 2% to 7%.

Next, we turn to the average RMSEs. Considering the ex-ante premia, the differences between the estimators are modest, almost equal for most factors. Recall that the RMSE is a function of both the bias and the variability of the estimator. Evidently, the OLS estimator has the smallest standard deviation, but it exhibits a more severe negative bias such that the RMSEs are similar. When considering the ex-post premia, there is a sharp reduction in RMSEs for both estimators, especially when correcting for the EIV bias. This indicates that a large part of the estimator's variability is caused by variability in factor outcomes.

Table C1: Simulation results

We simulate daily fund returns from the six-factor model:

$$
R_{it} = \beta_{i1} \text{RMRF}_{t} + \beta_{i2} \text{SMB}_{t} + \beta_{i3} \text{HML}_{t} + \beta_{i4} \text{WML}_{t} + \beta_{i5} \text{RMW}_{t} + \beta_{i6} \text{CMA}_{t} + \epsilon_{it}.
$$

At the beginning of each replication, we simulate daily factor returns from normal distributions with moments matched to sample moments from February 2001 to December 2016. Factor betas are drawn from normal distributions $\mathcal{N}(0.980,0.010)$, $\mathcal{N}(0.197,0.114)$, $\mathcal{N}(0.000,0.046)$, N(0.021,0.015), N(-0.057,0.043), and N(-0.037,0,044), respectively. We generate the residual variance $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon_i}$ from $\mathcal{N}(0.293, 0.031)$ and draw a residual return from $N(0, \hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon_i}^2)$. For each fund i, factor betas are estimated from a rolling time series regression using the past two years of simulated daily fund returns. This table presents average biases and root-mean-squared errors (RMSEs) in risk premia estimated when the second stage regressions are fitted using the OLS and the EIV-corrected estimators, across 1000 replications. The bias and RSMEs are presented relative to the true risk premium (time series mean factor) and the ex-post risk premium of Shanken (1992). The latter is the time series averages of factor returns in each replication.

Panel E: γ_{RMW}								
250	-0.070	-0.010	0.170	0.184	-0.063	-0.003	0.119	0.116
500	-0.067	-0.006	0.150	0.158	-0.064	-0.004	0.096	0.079
1000	-0.067	-0.007	0.152	0.161	-0.064	-0.004	0.085	0.059
2000	-0.071	-0.013	0.149	0.154	-0.064	-0.006	0.077	0.042
Panel F: γ_{CMA}								
250	-0.064	-0.005	0.147	0.170	-0.062	-0.003	0.120	0.128
500	-0.066	-0.008	0.135	0.150	-0.062	-0.004	0.101	0.094
1000	-0.063	-0.006	0.123	0.134	-0.065	-0.007	0.086	0.063
2000	-0.065	-0.009	0.120	0.127	-0.066	-0.009	0.080	0.044

Table C1 (Continued)

Appendix D: Probability Density Functions

In this appendix several univariate and multivariate probability density functions are given which are used throughout this paper. For univariate densities, we indicate the first moment around the mean by μ , whereas for multivariate densities this is indicated by μ .

D.1 Univariate Distributions

Normal density:

The pdf of a normal distributed random variable Z with mean μ and variance σ^2 , that is, Z ∼ $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ is given by

$$
p(Z|\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(Z-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right). \tag{A.7}
$$

Inverted Gamma-2 density:

The pdf of an inverted Gamma-2 distributed random variable Z with scale parameter $s > 0$ and degrees of freedom $v > 0$, that is, $Z \sim IG2(s, v)$ is given by

$$
p(Z|s,v) = c^{-1}Z^{-\frac{v+2}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{s}{2Z}\right),
$$
 (A.8)

where $c = \Gamma(v/2) \left(\frac{2}{s}\right)$ $\frac{2}{s}$, v^{2} . The mean and variance of Z are given by

$$
E[Z] = \frac{s}{v - 2} \qquad \text{for } v > 2
$$

$$
Var[Z] = \frac{2}{v-4}(E[Z])^2
$$
 for $v > 4$.

D.2 Multivariate Distributions

Multivariate Normal density:

The pdf of a multivariate normal distributed random variable Z with k-dimensional location parameter μ and k x k positive definite symmetric covariance matrix Σ , that is, $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ is given by

$$
p(Z|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^k |\Sigma|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(Z - \boldsymbol{\mu})'\Sigma^{-1}(Z - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right),\tag{A.9}
$$

where the mean and variance of Z are μ and Σ , respectively.

Inverted Wishart density:

The pdf of an inverted Wishart distributed $k \times k$ symmetric positive definite matrix Z with degrees of freedom $v \geq k$ and symmetric positive definite scale matrix S, that is, $Z \sim IW(S, v)$ is given by

$$
p(Z|S,v) = c^{-1} \frac{|S|^{v/2}}{|Z|^{(v+k+1)/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(Z^{-1}S)\right),\tag{A.10}
$$

where $c = 2^{\frac{vk}{2}} \Gamma_k \left(\frac{v}{2}\right)$ $\frac{v}{2}$). The mean of Z is given by

$$
E[Z] = \frac{S}{v - k - 1} \quad \text{for } v > k + 1.
$$

For a nice representation of the variance of Z, we refer to Nydick (2012).

Appendix E: Posterior Distributions

We provide the posterior distributions of the parameters in our model in Eqs.(11), (12) and (15), which we repeat here for convenience

$$
R_{i\tau,t} = \alpha_{it} + \beta'_{it} F_{\tau,t} + \epsilon_{i\tau,t}, \ \ \epsilon_{i\tau,t} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2), \ \tau = t - \mathcal{T} + 1, ..., t, \ i = 1, ..., N_t \tag{A.11}
$$

$$
\alpha_{it} = \delta_{0t} + \delta'_{1t} Z_{it-1} + \eta_{it}, \quad \eta_{it} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\eta t}^2), \ t = 1, ..., T,
$$
\n(A.12)

$$
\delta_t = \overline{\delta} + v_t, \quad v_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_{\delta}), \quad t = 1, \dots, T. \tag{A.13}
$$

For the sake of convenience, we can write the model in matrix form as

$$
R_{i,t} = X_t B_{it} + \epsilon_{i,t} \tag{A.14}
$$

$$
\alpha_t = Y_{t-1}\delta_t + \eta_t \tag{A.15}
$$

$$
\delta_t = \bar{\delta} + v_t,\tag{A.16}
$$

where $R_{i,t}$ is a $\mathcal{T} \times 1$ vector with daily returns of fund i during the rolling window ending in month t, X_t is a $\mathcal{T} \times (K+1)$ matrix with a column of ones and the corresponding factor returns, $B_{it} =$ $[\alpha_{it}, \beta_{it}]'$ contains the parameters of the factor model, and $\epsilon_{i,t}$ is a $\mathcal{T} \times 1$ vector with residuals. In the second equation, α_t is a $N_t \times 1$ vector with factor model alphas in month t, Y_{t-1} is a $N_t \times$ $(L+1)$ matrix with a column of ones and the lagged fund-level characteristics for each fund, and η_t is a $N_t \times 1$ vector with residuals.

E.1 Joint Posterior Distribution

The joint posterior distribution is proportional to the product of the likelihood function of the data and the prior distributions. Denote $\theta = \{\{\{\alpha_{it}, \beta_{it}, \sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2\}_{i=1}^{N_t}, \delta_t, \sigma_{\eta t}^2\}_{t=1}^T, \overline{\delta}, \Sigma_{\delta}\}\$ as the model parameters. Denote R as the matrix which stacks the returns in the rolling windows across all funds over the entire sample period. Substituting the prior specifications as in Section 4.B.1, the joint posterior is given by:

$$
p(\theta|R) \propto p(R|\theta)p(\theta)
$$

\n
$$
\propto \prod_{t=1}^{T} \prod_{i=1}^{N_t} (\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2)^{-\frac{T}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2} (R_i - X_t B_{it})'(R_i - X_t B_{it})\right]
$$

\n
$$
\times \prod_{t=1}^{T} (\sigma_{\eta t}^2)^{-\frac{N_t}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{\eta t}^2} (\alpha_t - Y_{t-1}\delta_t)'(\alpha_t - Y_{t-1}\delta_t)\right]
$$

\n
$$
\times \prod_{t=1}^{T} \prod_{i=1}^{N_t} |\Sigma_{\beta}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\beta_{it} - \bar{\beta})' \Sigma_{\beta}^{-1}(\beta_{it} - \bar{\beta})\right]
$$

\n
$$
\times \prod_{t=1}^{T} |\Sigma_{\delta}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\delta_t - \bar{\delta})' \Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}(\delta_t - \bar{\delta})\right]
$$

\n
$$
\times |\Sigma_{d}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\bar{\delta} - d)' \Sigma_{d}^{-1}(\bar{\delta} - d)\right]
$$

\n
$$
\times |\Sigma_{\delta}|^{-\frac{\psi_{\delta} + k + 1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}[\psi_{\delta}S_{\delta}])\right]
$$

\n
$$
\times \prod_{t=1}^{T} \prod_{i=1}^{N_t} \sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^{(\upsilon_t + 2)} \exp\left(-\frac{s_{\epsilon}}{2\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2}\right)
$$

\n
$$
\times \prod_{t=1}^{T} \sigma_{\eta t}^{(\upsilon_{\eta} + 2)} \exp\left(-\frac{s_{\eta}}{2\sigma_{\eta t}}\right), \qquad (A.17)
$$

where k denotes the dimension of Σ_{δ} .

E.2 Conditional Posterior Distributions

In order to implement the MCMC Gibbs sampler, we need to derive the full conditional posterior distributions for each block of model parameters. The conditional densities can be obtained from the joint posterior density by gathering all the terms that depend on the parameters of interest and ignore all the remaining parameters. We then obtain the conditional density for each block of parameters by rearranging the remaining terms into the kernel of a known distribution.²⁶ We partition the model parameters θ into the following blocks:

- $\theta^{(1)}$: Fund-specific factor model parameters $(\alpha_{it}, \beta_{it})$
- $\theta^{(2)}$: Fund-specific idiosyncratic variance $(\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2)$
- $\theta^{(3)}$: Characteristic loadings $(\delta_{0t}, \delta_{1t})$
- $\theta^{(4)}$: Cross-sectional idiosyncratic variance $(\sigma_{\eta t}^2)$
- $\theta^{(5)}$: Time series mean of characteristic loadings $(\bar{\delta})$
- $\theta^{(6)}$: Time series covariance matrix of characteristic loadings (Σ_{δ})

The conditional posteriors for all parameters have convenient functional forms which trace back to a known distribution. Therefore, we use the Gibbs sampler to iteratively draw from the full conditional distributions of $\theta^{(1)}, \theta^{(2)}, \theta^{(3)}, \theta^{(4)}, \theta^{(5)}$, and $\theta^{(6)}$. Using the joint posterior distribution in Eq.(A.17), we will derive the full conditional posteriors for each block.

 26 Appendix D provides the probability density functions (pdfs) of the distributions used in our analysis.

E.2.1 Conditional Posterior $[\alpha_{it} \ \beta_{it}]'$

In order to derive the full conditional posterior of $[\alpha_{it} \beta_{it}]$ ', we require the following mathematical relations. First, we require

$$
B^{-1} = B^{-\frac{1}{2}}{}'B^{-\frac{1}{2}},\tag{A.18}
$$

which is denoted the Cholesky decomposition, i.e., the decomposition of a positive-definite matrix into the product of a lower triangular matrix and its conjugate transpose. We also require the decomposition rule:

$$
(y - X\beta)'(y - X\beta) = (y - X\hat{\beta})'(y - X\hat{\beta}) + (\beta - \hat{\beta})'X'X(\beta - \hat{\beta}),
$$
\n(A.19)

where $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'y$ is the OLS estimator of β .

Following Bayes' theorem, we can write

$$
p(B_{it}|R) \propto p(R|B_{it})p(B_{it})
$$

\n
$$
\propto \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^{2}}(R_{i,t} - X_{t}B_{it})'(R_{i,t} - X_{t}B_{it})\right] \times \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(B_{it} - \bar{B}_{it})'\Sigma_{B_{it}}^{-1}(B_{it} - \bar{B}_{it})\right],
$$

\nwhere $\bar{B}_{it} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_{0t} + \delta'_{1t}Z_{it-1} \\ \bar{\beta} \end{bmatrix}$ and $\Sigma_{B_{it}} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{\eta t}^{2} & 0_{1 \times K} \\ 0_{K \times 1} & \Sigma_{\beta} \end{bmatrix}$
\n
$$
= \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^{2}}(R_{i,t} - X_{t}B_{it})'(R_{i,t} - X_{t}B_{it}) + (\Sigma_{B_{it}}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\bar{B}_{it} - \Sigma_{B_{it}}^{-\frac{1}{2}}B_{it})'(\Sigma_{B_{it}}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\bar{B}_{it} - \Sigma_{B_{it}}^{-\frac{1}{2}}B_{it})\right)\right]
$$

\nusing Eq.(A.18)
\n
$$
= \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(w_{it} - V_{it}B_{it})'(w_{it} - V_{it}B_{it})\right],
$$

\nwhere $w_{it} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^{-1}R_{i,t} & \Sigma_{B_{it}}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\bar{B}_{it} \end{bmatrix}'$ and $V_{it} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^{-1}X_{t} & \Sigma_{B_{it}}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \end{bmatrix}'$
\n
$$
\propto \exp\left[(B_{it} - \hat{B}_{it})'V'_{it}V_{it}(B_{it} - \hat{B}_{it})\right],
$$
 using Eq.(A.19),
\nwhere $\hat{B}_{it} = (V'_{it}V_{it})^{-1}V'_{it}w_{it}$, (A.20)

which is the kernel of a normal distribution with mean \hat{B}_{it} and variance $(V'_{it}V_{it})^{-1}$, that is, the full

conditional posterior²⁷ of $B_{it} = [\alpha_{it} \ \beta_{it}]$ ' follows a multivariate normal distribution and is given by

$$
\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{it} \\ \beta_{it} \end{bmatrix} | \theta^{-(\alpha_{it}, \beta_{it})}, R \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\tilde{B}_{it}, \left[\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^{-2} X_t' X_t + \Sigma_{B_{it}}^{-1} \right]^{-1} \right), \tag{A.21}
$$

with

$$
\tilde{B}_{it} = \left[\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^{-2} X_t' X_t + \Sigma_{B_{it}}^{-1}\right]^{-1} \left[\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^{-2} X_t' R_t + \Sigma_{B_{it}}^{-1} \bar{B}_{it}\right].\tag{A.22}
$$

We derive the full conditional posteriors of δ_t and $\bar{\delta}$ in the same way, leading to the following results.

E.2.2 Conditional Posterior δ_t

The full conditional posterior of δ_t follows a multivariate normal distribution and is given by

$$
\delta_t | \theta^{-(\delta_t)}, R \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\tilde{\delta}_t, \left[\sigma_{\eta t}^{-2} Y_{t-1}^{\prime} Y_{t-1} + \Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}\right]^{-1}\right), \tag{A.23}
$$

with

$$
\tilde{\delta}_t = \left[\sigma_{\eta t}^{-2} Y_{t-1}' Y_{t-1} + \Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}\right]^{-1} \left[\sigma_{\eta t}^{-2} Y_{t-1}' \alpha_t + \Sigma_{\delta}^{-1} \overline{\delta}\right]. \tag{A.24}
$$

E.2.3 Conditional Posterior $\bar{\delta}$

The full conditional posterior of $\bar{\delta}$ follows a multivariate normal distribution and is given by

$$
\bar{\delta}|\theta^{-(\bar{\delta})}, R \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\tilde{\bar{\delta}}, \left[T\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1} + \Sigma_{d}^{-1}\right]^{-1}\right),\tag{A.25}
$$

with

$$
\tilde{\delta} = \left[T\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1} + \Sigma_{d}^{-1}\right]^{-1} \left[\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \delta_{t} + \Sigma_{d}^{-1} d\right].
$$
\n(A.26)

²⁷Let $\theta^{-(x)}$ denote the model parameters excluding the set x.

E.2.4 Conditional Posterior Σ_{δ}

In order to derive the full conditional posterior of Σ_{δ} , we require the following mathematical relations. First, we require

$$
A = \text{tr}(A) \tag{A.27}
$$

$$
tr(ABC) = tr(CAB) = tr(BCA)
$$
\n(A.28)

$$
tr(A) + tr(B) = tr(A + B),
$$
\n(A.29)

where tr denotes the trace of a matrix. The above relations state that the trace of a scalar is equivalent to the scalar itself, that the trace is invariant under cyclic permutations, and that the sum of traces equals the trace of the sum.

Following Bayes' theorem, we can write

$$
p(\Sigma_{\delta}|R) \propto p(\Sigma_{\delta})p(\delta_{t})
$$

\n
$$
\propto |\Sigma_{\delta}|^{-\frac{\psi_{\delta}+k+1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\text{tr}(\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}[\psi_{\delta}S_{\delta}])\right] \times \prod_{t=1}^{T} |\Sigma_{\delta}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\delta_{t}-\bar{\delta})'\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}(\delta_{t}-\bar{\delta})\right)
$$

\n
$$
= |\Sigma_{\delta}|^{-\frac{\psi_{\delta}+T+k+1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\text{tr}(\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}[\psi_{\delta}S_{\delta}]) + \text{tr}\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T}(\delta_{t}-\bar{\delta})'\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}(\delta_{t}-\bar{\delta})\right)\right)\right],
$$

\nusing Eq.(A.27)
\n
$$
= |\Sigma_{\delta}|^{-\frac{\psi_{\delta}+T+k+1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\text{tr}(\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}[\psi_{\delta}S_{\delta}]) + \text{tr}\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T}\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}(\delta_{t}-\bar{\delta})(\delta_{t}-\bar{\delta})'\right)\right)\right],
$$

\nusing Eq.(A.28)
\n
$$
= |\Sigma_{\delta}|^{-\frac{\psi_{\delta}+T+k+1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\text{tr}\left(\Sigma_{\delta}^{-1}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{T}(\delta_{t}-\bar{\delta})(\delta_{t}-\bar{\delta})'+\psi_{\delta}S_{\delta}\right]\right)\right],
$$

\nusing Eq.(A.29), (A.30)

which is the kernel of an inverted Wishart distribution, that is, the full conditional posterior distribution of Σ_{δ} is given by

$$
\Sigma_{\delta}|\theta^{(-\Sigma_{\delta})}, R \sim IW\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T}(\delta_t - \bar{\delta})(\delta_t - \bar{\delta})' + \psi_{\delta}S_{\delta}, \psi_{\delta} + T\right). \tag{A.31}
$$

E.2.5 Conditional Posterior $\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2$

Following Bayes' theorem, we can write

$$
p(\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2|R) \propto p(R|\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2)p(\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2)
$$

$$
\propto \sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^{-(\mathcal{T}+v_{\epsilon}+2)} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2} \left((R_{i,t} - X_t B_{it})'(R_{i,t} - X_t B_{it}) + s_{\epsilon}\right)\right],
$$
 (A.32)

which is the kernel of an inverted Gamma-2 distribution, that is, the full conditional posterior distribution of $\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2$ is given by

$$
\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2|\theta^{(-\sigma_{\epsilon_{it}}^2)}, R \sim IG2\left((R_{i,t} - X_t B_{it})'(R_{i,t} - X_t B_{it}) + s_{\epsilon}, \mathcal{T} + v_{\epsilon}\right). \tag{A.33}
$$

E.2.6 Conditional Posterior $\sigma_{\eta t}^2$

The full conditional posterior of $\sigma_{\eta t}^2$ follows an Inverted Gamma-2 distribution and is given by

$$
\sigma_{\eta t}^2 |\theta^{(-\sigma_{\eta t}^2)}, R \sim IG2 \left((\alpha_t - Y_{t-1} \delta_t)'(\alpha_t - Y_{t-1} \delta_t) + s_{\eta}, N_t + v_{\eta} \right). \tag{A.34}
$$

Appendix F: Construction of Benchmark Portfolios of DGTW Characteristic Selectivity Measure

We construct the benchmark portfolios in the spirit of Daniel, Grinblatt, Titman, and Wermers (DGTW; 1997). We proceed as follows. We conduct a three-dimensional sort along the size, value and momentum dimensions. All stocks having accounting data from Compustat, as well stock return and market capitalization data are sorted into quintile portfolios by their market capitalization. The breakpoints for the sort on size is based on stocks listed on the NYSE, while the analysis includes all stocks listed on the NYSE, NYSE MKT (formerly known as AMEX), and NASDAQ. Each size quintile is further subdivided into quintiles based on the book-to-market ratio of stocks, resulting into 25 fractile portfolios. Then, each fractile portfolio is further subdivided into quintiles based on the past twelve-month cumulative return excluding the most recent month. This 5x5x5 sorting procedure leads to 125 portfolios, each with a unique combination of size, value, and momentum rankings.²⁸

Next, to adjust for profitability and investment effects, we also conduct a $3x3x3x2x2$ sorting procedure along the size, value, momentum, profitability, and investment dimensions. Similar to the previous sorting procedure, we first sort stocks into three portfolios based on market capitalization, using breakpoints derived from NYSE listed stocks. Then we further subdivide the portfolios, first into three value portfolios and then into three momentum portfolios, resulting into 27 portfolios. Then, we subdivide each fractile portfolio into two portfolios based on the operating profitability of stocks. We conclude the sorting procedure by further dividing the fractile portfolios into two portfolios based on the investment variable. Thus, we end up with 108 portfolios, each with a distinct combination of size, value, momentum, profitability, and investment rankings.

The 3x3x3x2x2 (5x5x5) sorting procedure is repeated at the end of each quarter, such that the 108 (125) portfolios are reconstituted each quarter-end, and are held for the subsequent quarter. We calculate the value-weighted average return for each portfolio during the months in the holding period. We store quarter-end rankings for all stocks, such that we can track the rankings of all portfolio holdings, which are valid for the subsequent quarter.

²⁸For example, a stock sorted in size portfolio five, value portfolio five, and momentum five, is a large, value and high momentum stock.