

# MPRA

Munich Personal RePEc Archive

## Predictability of Equity Models

Valls Pereira, Pedro L. and Chicaroli, Rodrigo  
São Paulo School of Economics

January 2009

Online at <http://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/10955/>  
MPRA Paper No. 10955, posted 07. October 2008 / 16:41

## PREDICTABILITY OF EQUITY MODELS

Rodrigo Chicaroli

Pátria Investimentos

Av. Brigadeira Faria Lima 2055 – 7<sup>th</sup> Floor

01452-001 São Paulo – Brazil

E-mail: [rodrigo.chicaroli@patriainvestimentos.com.br](mailto:rodrigo.chicaroli@patriainvestimentos.com.br)

Pedro L. Valls Pereira

EESP-FGV

Rua Itapeva 747 – 12<sup>th</sup> Floor

01332-000 São Paulo – Brazil

E-mail: [pedro.valls@fgv.br](mailto:pedro.valls@fgv.br)

### ABSTRACT

In this study, we verify the existence of predictability in the Brazilian equity market. Unlike other studies in the same sense, which evaluate original series for each stock, we evaluate synthetic series created on the basis of linear models of stocks. Following Burgess (1999), we use the “*stepwise regression*” model for the formation of models of each stock. We then use the variance ratio profile together with a Monte Carlo simulation for the selection of models with potential predictability. Unlike Burgess (1999), we carry out White’s *Reality Check* (2000) in order to verify the existence of positive returns for the period outside the sample. We use the strategies proposed by Sullivan, Timmermann & White (1999) and Hsu & Kuan (2005) amounting to 26,410 simulated strategies. Finally, using the bootstrap methodology, with 1,000 simulations, we find strong evidence of predictability in the models, including transaction costs.

Keywords: predictability, variance ratio profile, Monte Carlo simulation, reality check, *bootstrap*, technical analysis

JEL Codes: C15, G10

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The predictability of equity markets is one of the principal issues facing the financial community and has been studied for several decades by academics and market participants. Over time, various models and theories have been developed and used for investment decision making, with the objective of obtaining strategies with a positive expected return. At the same time, the significance of the results of these models has been discussed since Fama & Blume (1966). Lo & MacKinley (1995) sought indications of market inefficiencies through the so-called “*maximally predictable portfolios*”. Lo & MacKinley (1990) had already highlighted the *data snooping* effect, which deals with the problem arising from the exhaustive use of the same data series, leading the studies to spurious results. Stock models were suggested by Burgess (1999) to investigate the predictability of FTSE100 shares, identifying models with greater predictability potential. Within Brazil, Baptista & Valls Pereira (2006) investigated the performance of technical analysis on the intraday data of the Bovespa index future, while Boainain & Valls Pereira (2007) tested the head and shoulders pattern in the Bovespa spot market.

Unlike many studies, we analyzed the predictability of a synthetic price series, constructed on the basis of formation of linear models. Such models are constructed on the basis of the *stepwise regression* methodology. Following Burgess (1999), for each stock analyzed, we arrived at a model with 5 regressors, the predictive potential of which shall be evaluated by the criterion of variance ratio profile (VRP). Such methodology is sufficient when applied directly to the original stock series. At the same time, the models present a reversion to the mean bias created by construction, using the *stepwise regression* methodology. In order to correct this bias, we carried out a Monte Carlo simulation, in which the entire process of formation of models was artificially generated on the basis of 1,000 generations of random walks, originating observations on the variance ratio profile for each model. On the basis of this distribution and a confidence level, we succeeded in identifying models with predictability potential.

The second part of the study consists of the confirmation of the existence of predictability in the series obtained in the first stage.

In the same way as Sullivan, Timmermann & White (1999) and Hsu & Kuan (2005), we used White's (2000) *Reality Check* methodology in order to overcome the effect of *data snooping* on the results. According to this methodology, we created a universe of 26,410 rules on the basis of 10 groups of strategies widely used by the financial community. While this is a large number of rules, this number results from many variations of a few simple rules. In order to carry out a more extensive test, various more complex strategies, involving different indicators, could be included in this universe. This is because, in practice, financial market operators rarely use simple rules to obtain positive returns. In general they use sets of more complex rules to give more precise operating signals.

Finally, we carried out a bootstrap simulation, with 1,000 observations, in order to obtain the empirical distribution used to test the null hypothesis of the *reality check*, and to conclude in favor of the existence of predictability in the created models.

This dissertation is organized in the following manner. In chapter 2, we present the data used for the realization of the tests. In chapter 3, we describe a methodology for the formation and selection of the models. In chapter 4, we present White's (2000) *Reality Check* methodology, used to test predictability without a *data snooping* bias. In chapter 5, we present and discuss the results obtained, and finally, in chapter 6, we present the conclusion of the study.

## 2. DATA

The daily price series used in this study were obtained from Economática. All of the series were corrected for corporate events, such as dividends, *splits* and subscriptions. The period covered by the study is equivalent to 2,147 days between 1/4/1999 and 28/8/2007, with this period divided into two sub-periods. The first from 1/4/1999 to 30/12/2003, containing 1,239 observations, was used for the formation and selection of the models. This shall be termed the intra-sample model. The second period, between 2/1/2004 and 28/8/2007, containing 908 observations, was used to carry out the *Reality Check*, considering the period outside the sample.

The database for the study consists of 43 stocks traded on the São Paulo stock exchange (Bovespa), a list of which is presented in the annexes to the study, representing most of the volume traded on this stock exchange during the period. The study excluded: stocks which cease to exist at any time during the period in question; stocks which were not traded on any day of the period; stocks with an average daily volume of less than 5 million Brazilian reais; and *penny stocks*, for which the discrete price effects cause distortions on the study.

### 3. MODELS

Stock returns are generally influenced by two distinct risks. Specific risk, relating to information on the stock itself and global risk, referring to information affecting the equity market as a whole.

Various models have been presented over time with the objective of modifying the original stock series, in order to remove the effects of global risk and explore the predictable components of the assets in question. These models are termed statistical arbitrage. According to Burgess (1999), statistical arbitrage is defined as the generalization of the traditional “risk-free” arbitrage, in which two combinations of assets with identical cash flows are constructed and any price discrepancies between the two equivalent assets are explored. A portfolio consisting of the two combinations (*long + short*) may be seen as a synthetic asset from which any divergence of the price from zero may be seen as an arbitrage opportunity<sup>1</sup>.

According to the definition by Burgess (1999), we create synthetic assets from each stock, amounting to 43 synthetic series. Each of the series is the result of a price regression for the respective share, used as a dependent variable, against 5 regressors (stock prices), defined systematically by the *stepwise regression* process:

$$RES_{s,t} = P_{s,t} - \left( \sum_{i=1}^5 w_{s,i} P_{c(i,s),t} \right) \quad (1)$$

where  $RES_{s,t}$  is the residue of the price model,  $P_{s,t}$ , for stock “s”,  $P_{c(i,s)}$  is the price of the i-th component of the same model and  $w_{s,i}$  is the associated regression coefficient.

Unlike Burgess (1999), we removed the constant regression term so that the final result presented a price series which in practice was entirely simulated for an investor. In this way, using 6 stocks with their respective weights, we can construct a portfolio identical to those of the models without concern for the independent term.

The stepwise regression method consists of an iterative process in which the regressors are altered in such a way that the final regression has the lowest

---

<sup>1</sup> Subject to transaction costs, *bid-ask* spreads and carrying costs.

information criterion possible. In the specific case, we used Akaike. At the end of the process, we have the five regressors which best explain the price of the dependent variable. We thus expected that the models generated would show stocks of the same company or same sector as the regressors, since these are the stocks which show the highest correlation and must be the most suitable to explain stock prices seen as dependent variables.

### 3.1. Variance ratio profile

In order to identify which models present predictability potential, we need to apply some type of stationarity test to the residues. In order to do this, we use the variance ratio test, since it is a more powerful test with regard to alternative methods, such as standard cointegration tests.

The principle of the variance ratio test follows from the fact that random walks show linear variances with regard to the period over which the returns are measured. In this way, the variance of the series of returns over  $\tau$  days must be equal to  $\tau$  times the variance of the series of 1-day returns. In this way, as defined in Burgess (1999), the variance ratio function is given by:

$$RV(\tau) = \frac{\sum_t (\Delta^\tau d_t - \overline{\Delta^\tau d})^2}{\tau \sum_t (\Delta d_t - \overline{\Delta d})^2} \quad (2)$$

In the case of a random walk, the variance ratio formula must be equal to 1 for any value of  $\tau$ . Hence, in order to carry out the variance ratio test in the manner presented, we need to choose some value for  $\tau$ . Having said this, there is no optimum value, leading us to make an arbitrary choice. In order to avoid this problem, instead of using the discrete RV test, we use the variance ratio profile (VRP), which is the function (2) for  $\tau$  varying between 1 and 50.

Using the entire profile of this curve, we have another advantage. The VRP provides us with information on the dynamics of the process. I.e., a positive VRP gradient indicates positive autocorrelation and hence a trend in the series. On the other hand, a negative gradient of the VRP indicates negative autocorrelation, and hence a reversion to the mean or cyclical behavior.

In this way, our objective is to identify which models show a VRP which differs from the unit profile, i.e., the profile of a random walk. Consequently, we shall identify which models present some predictability potential.

### 3.2. Monte Carlo Simulation

The methodology presented so far presents two major problems. The first is that we are carrying out the VRP test on a regression residue, and hence we shall have a reversion to the mean bias, generated by construction. I.e. the residue of a random walk regression will show a VRP of less than 1, which would invalidate the test. The second problem is that we have a selection bias deriving from the choice of 5 regressors from a universe of 42, corresponding to the problem of *data snooping* highlighted by Lo & MacKinley (1990).

In order to solve these problems, we carried out a Monte Carlo simulation in order to create a distribution of variance ratio profile on models obtained on the basis of random walks series. I.e. we created 43 series of random walks representing our stock universe and applied the same selection methodology for models using stepwise regression. For each model obtained, we calculated its variance ratio profile. This procedure was repeated 500 times, amounting to 21,500 variance ratio profiles which shall be used as a distribution for VRPs of random walks. In this way, our objective is no longer to identify models with a VRP differing from unity, but profiles which differ from the distribution encountered.

In Figure 1, we have the distribution of variance ratio profiles originated via the stepwise regression methodology. The figure clearly highlights the bias introduced by the method. We may clearly observe that the average profile shows considerable downward divergence from the unit profile, indicating a reversion to the mean. At the same time, we know that the profiles were all originated from random walks, and hence cannot show any predictability.

In order to identify the divergence of the variance ratio profiles of each model relative to the meaning of this distribution, we use the Mahalanobis distance.



The Mahalanobis statistical distance between two points  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_p)^T$  and  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_p)^T$  in a  $p$ -dimensional space  $\mathbb{R}^p$  is defined as:

$$d_S(x, y) = \sqrt{(x - y)^T S^{-1} (x - y)} \quad (3)$$

where  $S$  is the correlation matrix and  $d_S(x, 0) = \|x\|_S = \sqrt{x^T S^{-1} x}$  is the norm of  $x$ .

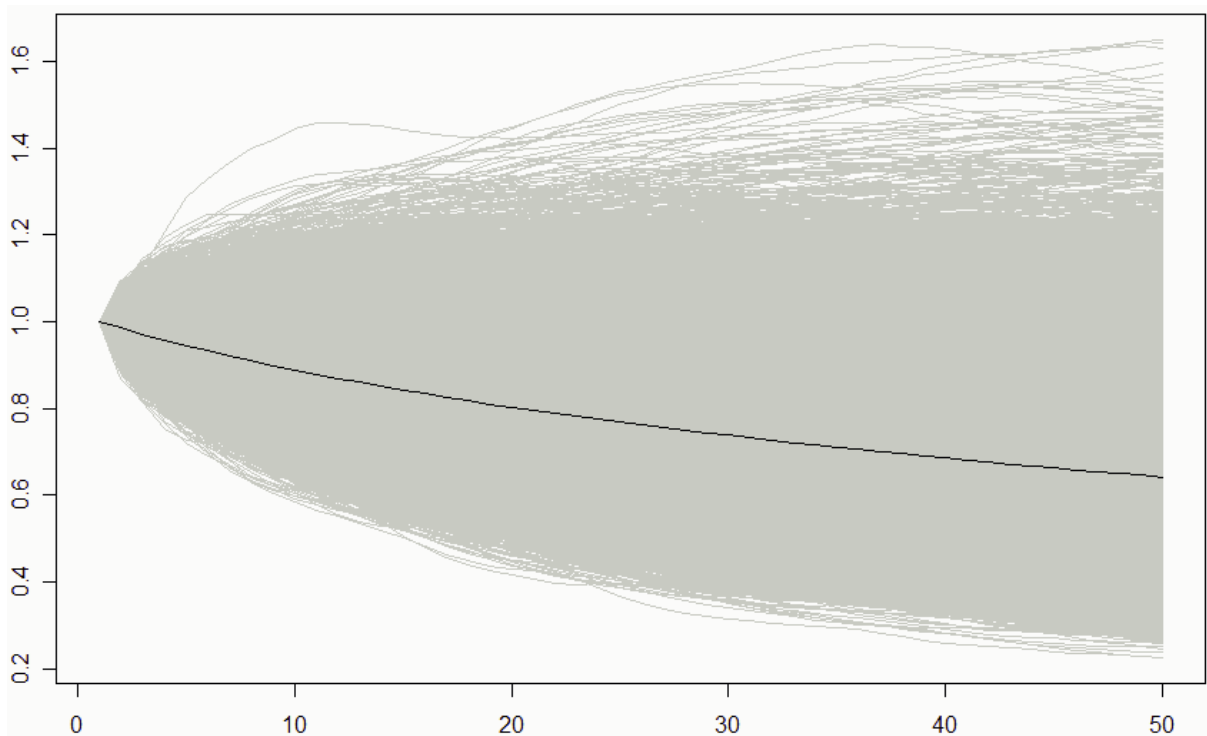


Figure 1 –VRP distribution for a Monte Carlo simulation

Figure 2 presents the distribution of Mahalanobis distances between each VRP simulated by Monte Carlo and its average. This distribution, together with a confidence level, shall be used to identify which models diverge from a random walk, and hence have predictability potential for testing with the *reality check*.

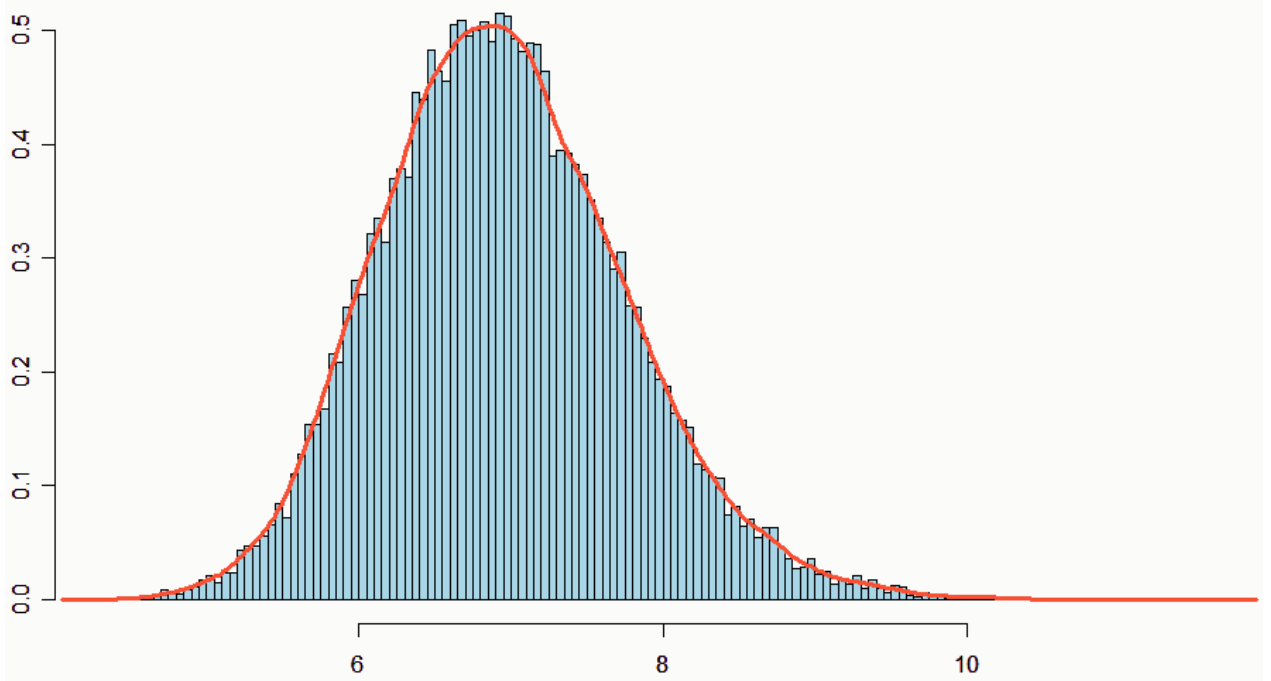


Figure 2 – Distribution of Mahalanobis distances of random walks

## 4. REALITY CHECK

After having identified the models with predictability potential, our problem is to test whether de facto, an investor succeeds in obtaining positive returns over the period outside the sample. To do this, we must propose strategies to explore price divergences of the creative models. A possible path is to propose a number of strategies and to test them for the period outside the sample. At the same time, the reuse of this data period may cause the problem of *data snooping*, highlighted by Lo & MacKinley (1990).

In order to avoid this problem, we use the methodology used by White (2000), Sullivan, Timmermann & White (1999) and Hsu & Kuan (2005), i.e. we implement the *reality check* on a universe of technical analysis strategies which are extensively discussed in the literature and among market operators.

### 4.1. White's Reality Check

Considering  $\varphi_k (k = 1, \dots, M)$  as a measure of performance of the k-th strategy, the null hypothesis of the test is that there is no strategy with a positive return within the universe of M strategies:

$$H_0: \max_{k=1, \dots, M} \varphi_k \leq 0. \quad (4)$$

In order for there to be predictability in the constructed models, we need to reject the null hypothesis, indicating that there is at least one strategy with a positive mean return. In this study, we use the mean daily return as a measure of performance of strategies and carry out the tests on the maximum normalized mean return, given by:

$$\bar{V}_n = \max_{k=1, \dots, M} \sqrt{n} \bar{f}_k, \quad (5)$$

Where  $\bar{f}_k$  is the mean return of strategy k.

Following White (2000), we use the bootstrap methodology to determine the p-value of  $\bar{V}_n$ . In order to do this, we carried out 1,000 iterations of the method in order to arrive at the empirical distribution of  $\bar{V}_n^*$ , calculated in the following way:

$$\bar{V}_n^* = \max_{k=1, \dots, M} \sqrt{n} (\bar{f}_k^*(b) - \bar{f}_k), \quad b = 1, \dots, B. \quad (6)$$

Considering  $\eta$  to be the matrix of daily returns  $n \times M$ , where  $n=907$  returns and  $M=26,410$  strategies, each stage of the bootstrap methodology consists of the following steps:

1. Choose a line  $(\eta_{t,1}, \dots, \eta_{t,M})$  from the original matrix  $\eta$  at random to be the first line  $(\eta_{1,1}^*, \dots, \eta_{1,M}^*)$  of the new matrix  $\eta^*$ .
2. The second line  $(\eta_{2,1}^*, \dots, \eta_{2,M}^*)$  is selected at random from the original matrix with probability  $p$ , or is defined as the next line to the one chosen in the preceding step  $(\eta_{t+1,1}, \dots, \eta_{t+1,M})$ , with a probability of  $(1-p)$ . Like Sullivan, Timmermann & White (1999) and Hsu & Kuan (2005), we used a probability of  $p = 0.10$ .
3. Repeat step 2 until the new matrix  $\eta_b^*$  is completed, corresponding to the  $b$ -th bootstrap simulation<sup>2</sup>.

---

<sup>2</sup> We define the first line as consecutive to the last one.

## 4.2. Universe of strategies

In order to carry out White's *reality check*, it is fundamental for us to define a broad universe of strategies. In this study, we adopt the same rules as those used by Hsu & Kuan (2005) and Sullivan, Timmermann & White (1999).

Strategy	Description	Total
	Sullivan, Timmermann & White (1999)	
FR	Filter Rules	497
MA	Moving Averages	2,040
SR	Support and Resistance	1,220
CB	Channel	1,400
MSP	Price Moment	1,760
	Hsu & Kuan (2005)	
OCO	Head and Shoulders	1,200
TA	Triangle	540
RA	Rectangle	1,668
DTB	Double Tops	2,160
BTB	Inverted Triangle	720
	<b>Total</b>	<b>13,205</b>
	Contrary Rules	13,205
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>26,410</b>

Table 1 – Universe of strategies

Table 1 presents the groups of strategies used for the formation of the universe of rules. Strategies using volume as a decision variable were excluded, since the constructed models do not contain information on volumes traded. All parameters used in the universe of strategies may be consulted in the annexes to the study. We present below a brief explanation of the groups of strategies used.

## Filter Rules (FR)

According to the filter rule, a long position is opened when the price of an asset increases by at least “x” percent. This position is maintained until the price falls “x” percent relative to the last high, when simultaneously, we establish a short position. In analogous fashion, the short position is closed when the price again rises by “x” percent relative to the previous low, when we establish a new long position.

In addition, a number of variables are included in this model. Firstly, we have two distinct definitions of the previous high and previous low. The first defines the peaks relative to the duration of the last position. The second defines the peaks as the maximum or minimum price over the interval of “e” days. We also consider the strategy of maintaining the positions for a given constant period of “c” days, ignoring any other signals during this period. And finally, we force the model to show periods without a position, i.e. remaining out of the market, with the result that closures of positions occur on the basis of a price movement of “y” percent relative to the last peak, evidently considering that “y” must be less than “x”.<sup>3</sup>

This group contains a total of 497 strategies.

## Moving Averages (MA)

According to the basic rule of moving averages, a long position is maintained while the price remains above the moving average. As soon as the price falls below this average, the investor's position is inverted. Once again, some alterations to this rule are presented. More than one moving average may be used to generate buy and sell signals. E.g. we use the crossing of two moving averages, with a long position maintained while the short-term moving average is above the long-term moving average. The inversion of position takes place when the moving averages cross. In addition, two filters are used to avoid false signals. The first is a band multiplier, which only generate signals when the crossing of prices exceeds “b” percent. The second is a lag filter, which only generates buy or sell signals when the original signal

---

<sup>3</sup> All of the parameters used in the rules may be consulted in the annex.

remains valid for “d” days. Once again, we consider the strategy with a fixed number of “c” days for maintaining each position.

This group contains a total of 2,040 strategies.

### **Support and Resistance (SR)**

The principle of the rule of support and resistance is to buy when the price is above the maximum of the last “n” days, and to sell when the price is below the minimum of the last “n” days. Once again, we use an alternative definition of maximum and minimum, i.e., we define a maximum (minimum) as the most recent price which is higher than the prices of the last “e” days. In the same way as the moving averages rule, we use a band filter, “b”, a lag filter, “d”, and also impose the constraint that positions are maintained for a fixed number of “c” days.

This group contains a total of 1,220 strategies.

### **Channel (CB)**

The channel rule, better known as a “*channel breakout*”, consists of establishing long positions when the price is above the channel, and short positions when the price is below it. A channel is formed when the maximum price over “n” days is within “x” percent of the minimum of the “n” days. We also use the parameters of “c” set days with a position and the “b” band filter.

This group contains a total of 1,400 strategies.

## Price Moment (MSP)

The moment strategy, extensively discussed in the literature and among market participants, is based on a momentum oscillator such as the return over “m” days, calculated at time t by  $R_t = \frac{P_t - P_{t-m}}{P_{t-m}}$ , where  $P_t$  may be the closing price of the series. We use three types of oscillator to generate signals. Firstly, we have the simple oscillator, corresponding to  $R_t$ . Then we have the moving average oscillator, which is the moving average of “m” days. And finally, we have the oscillator of crossing of moving averages, based on the ratio between two moving averages of “w<sub>1</sub>” and “w<sub>2</sub>” days on returns of “m” days, with “w<sub>1</sub>” < “w<sub>2</sub>”. The rule is based on constructing long positions as soon as the oscillator crosses above a certain level of “k” percent. All positions are maintained for a fixed period of “f” days.

This group contains a total of 1,760 strategies.

## Head and Shoulders

The head and shoulders rule is defined by a consecutive pattern of peaks and troughs. This pattern occurs over 5 periods of “m” days when we have sequence a peak (left shoulder), a trough (left), a central peak (head), another trough (right) and finally, another peak (right shoulder). When a head and shoulders pattern occurs, a short position is established. For this, the following prerequisites are necessary: the right and left shoulders, as well as the troughs must not differ by more than “x” percent from each other; the maximum price of the head period must be greater than all the other periods; the minimum prices of the head and shoulders must be greater than the prices of the troughs; and the maximum price of the troughs must be less than the prices of the other periods.

This rule provides three methods for liquidating positions. Firstly, we determine a fixed number of “f” days with a position. Then we use a *stop-loss* of “r” percent. And finally, we use a liquidation price given by the parameter “d”.

This group contains a total of 1,200 strategies.



## Triangle (TA)

Like the head and shoulders rule, the triangle rule depends on a pattern of peaks and troughs. Once again, we define 5 sub-periods of “m” days, ordered from 1 to 5, represented by “M<sub>i</sub>”. A triangle may take two patterns. In the first, “M<sub>1</sub>”, “M<sub>3</sub>” and “M<sub>5</sub>” are peaks in which “M<sub>1</sub>” > “M<sub>3</sub>” > “M<sub>5</sub>”, and “m<sub>2</sub>” and “m<sub>4</sub>” are troughs in which “m<sub>2</sub>” < “m<sub>4</sub>”. In the second pattern, “m<sub>1</sub>”, “m<sub>3</sub>” and “m<sub>5</sub>” are troughs for which “m<sub>1</sub>” < “m<sub>3</sub>” < “m<sub>5</sub>” and, “M<sub>2</sub>” and “M<sub>4</sub>” are peaks for which “M<sub>2</sub>” > “M<sub>4</sub>”. In addition, the minimum (maximum) price of a peak must be greater than the minimum (maximum) price of a subsequent trough.

As soon as a triangle is identified, a long position is initiated as soon as the price exceeds the last peak by “x” percent, or a short position is initiated when the price falls by more than “x” percent from the last trough. Once again, three methods are used for liquidating positions: “f” set days; *stop-loss* of “r” percent; and a filter with “d” days.

This group contains a total of 540 strategies.

## Rectangle (RA)

The rectangle rule is similar to the triangle rule, albeit with the alteration of the criteria for formation of the figure. A rectangle is formed when the peaks “M<sub>1</sub>”, “M<sub>3</sub>” and “M<sub>5</sub>” (or “M<sub>2</sub>” and “M<sub>4</sub>”) are aligned on an upper horizontal line, and the troughs “m<sub>2</sub>” and “m<sub>4</sub>” (or “m<sub>1</sub>”, “m<sub>3</sub>” and “m<sub>5</sub>”) also lie on a lower horizontal line. We say prices are aligned when the difference between the maximum and minimum lies within a band of “k” percent. After defining a rectangle, the same triangle rules are applied for buy and sell signals. This group contains a total of 1,668 strategies.

## Double Tops (DTB)

The rule for double tops is characterized by two patterns: two peaks or two troughs. Dividing a period into three equal parts of “m” days, a double top is

characterized when the periods “M<sub>1</sub>” and “M<sub>3</sub>” form a top relative to “m<sub>2</sub>”, and a double bottom is formed when “m<sub>1</sub>” and “m<sub>3</sub>” form a trough relative to “M<sub>2</sub>”. A pattern is identified if the sub-periods 1 and 3 show prices within a band of “k” percent. In addition, the minimum (maximum) price of sub-period 2 must be at least “g” percent lower (higher) than the average of the prices of the peaks (troughs), and the minimum price (maximum) of a peak must be greater than the minimum (maximum) of the subsequent trough. A long position is initiated when the price exceeds the last peak by “x” percent. Once again, we use the three rules for liquidating positions: set days “f”, *stop-loss* “r” and filter of day “d”.

This group contains a total of 2,160 strategies.

### **Inverted Triangle (BTB)**

The inverted triangle rule is identical to the triangle rule as presented, except for the direction of convergence of the figure. The regular triangle shows a pattern of convergence of peaks and troughs, while the inverted triangle shows a pattern of divergence. In this way, the inverted triangle is defined when “M<sub>1</sub>” < “M<sub>3</sub>” < “M<sub>5</sub>” with “m<sub>2</sub>” > “m<sub>4</sub>”, or “m<sub>1</sub>” > “m<sub>3</sub>” > “m<sub>5</sub>” with “M<sub>2</sub>” < “M<sub>4</sub>”.

This group contains a total of 720 strategies.

## 5. RESULTS

### 5.1. Formation of models

All development of the stage of forming models and Monte Carlo simulations was programmed in R, with the aid of a database in Access.

Table 2 presents the results obtained in the first stage of the study. For each one of the 43 stocks analyzed, the stepwise regression procedure determined the 5 component shares of each model, defined as  $C_i$ . The components of each model are presented by order of significance, with  $C_1$  as the asset which best explains the prices of the stock in question.

As expected, we may verify in the table that the models of companies with two classes of share, whether preferred or common, or which have a holding and an operational company, always show the corresponding share as the most significant. Evidently, since the two shares represent the same company, the values of shares must have a greater correlation than with the rest of the market. These are: BRAP4 with VALE5, BRTP3 with BRTP4, ELET3 with ELET6, GOAU4 with GGBR4, ITAU4 with ITSA4, PETR3 with PETR4, TCSL3 with TCSL4, TNLP3 with TNLP4 and VALE3 with VALE5<sup>4</sup>.

In addition, the results show us that in the majority of cases, the models of companies with only one class of share have a share from the same sector as the principal component. Once again, as expected, shares from the same sector should present a greater correlation than with the rest of the market. Some examples are: ARCZ6 with VCPA4, BBDC4 with UBBR11, BRKM5 with PTIP4, CLSC6 with CMIG4, CSNA3 with USIM5, TLPP4 with BRTP3 and VIVO4 with BRTP4.

Table 2 also presents the Mahalanobis distance for the variance ratio profile of the models relative to the average of the VRP for models simulated by Monte Carlo methods. This distance, together with the empirical distribution illustrated by Figure 2, indicates to us how each model diverges from a random walk. Hence, a confidence level is sufficient to define which models show predictability potential. Table 2 presents the percentiles of the distances in the empirical distribution. Above 90%, we

---

<sup>4</sup> In the annexes to the study, we present a list of companies and their respective stock tickers.

have 30 models with predictability potential, corresponding to 70% of the models. Above 95%, we have 26 models (60%). Above 99%, 14 models (33%) are selected, while this number falls to 4 models (9%) when we use a percentile of 99.9%.

In order to select models with predictability, we use the 99% percentile. We then have 14 models to realize White's *reality test* and to verify whether the predictability is confirmed for the period outside the sample. The selected models are illustrated by the symbol \* in Table 2.

#	Model	Dm	Pct (%)	Ci Components				
				C <sub>1</sub>	C <sub>2</sub>	C <sub>3</sub>	C <sub>4</sub>	C <sub>5</sub>
1	AMBV4	8.64	97.3	TNLP4	CRUZ3	ITAU4	PETR3	SBSP3
2	ARCZ6	8.42	95.7	VCPA4	SDIA4	CMIG4	TBLE3	VALE5
3	BBAS3	8.08	91.6	EMBR3	ITSA4	CRUZ3	LAME4	CMIG4
4	BBDC4	8.96	98.7	UBBR11	ITSA4	BRTO4	SUZB5	ITAU4
5	BRAP4	7.44	74.1	VALE5	VIVO4	CSNA3	TNLP3	BBDC4
6	BRKM5	6.95	51.8	PTIP4	SDIA4	USIM5	EMBR3	TNLP3
7	BRTO4	7.56	78.4	TRPL4	BRTP4	BRTP3	KLBN4	BBDC4
8	B RTP3*	9.48	99.6	B RTP4	TNLP3	TLPP4	BRTO4	CPLE6
9	B RTP4	6.03	11.9	B RTP3	VIVO4	TNLP4	BRTO4	CLSC6
10	CLSC6	6.99	53.9	CMIG4	SBSP3	SUZB5	B RTP4	VALE3
11	CMIG4	6.86	47.3	CLSC6	TNLP4	CPLE6	ARCZ6	BBAS3
12	CPLE6	7.65	81.2	SBSP3	CMIG4	PTIP4	BRKM5	ELET3
13	CRUZ3	8.79	98.1	TLPP4	AMBV4	SUZB5	TBLE3	BBAS3
14	CSNA3*	9.70	99.8	USIM5	UBBR11	SDIA4	BRAP4	VALE3
15	DURA4	7.32	69.5	USIM5	LAME4	SBSP3	KLBN4	ELET6
16	ELET3	8.40	95.6	ELET6	EMBR3	CPLE6	BBDC4	SUZB5
17	ELET6*	9.88	99.9	ELET3	TRPL4	DURA4	TCSL3	B RTP4
18	EMBR3*	10.44	100.0	ELET3	TCSL3	SUZB5	TBLE3	BBAS3
19	GGBR4	7.71	83.2	GOAU4	VCPA4	BRKM5	TCSL4	SDIA4
20	GOAU4	8.00	90.1	GGBR4	LAME4	KLBN4	VALE5	B RTP4
21	ITAU4	8.58	97.0	ITSA4	BBDC4	PETR3	UBBR11	VALE3
22	ITSA4*	9.10	99.1	ITAU4	BBDC4	BBAS3	SUZB5	BRKM5
23	KLBN4	8.43	95.8	GOAU4	VIVO4	BRTO4	SUZB5	DURA4
24	LAME4	8.54	96.6	GOAU4	TLPP4	DURA4	BRKM5	BBAS3
25	PETR3	7.95	89.0	PETR4	AMBV4	DURA4	CLSC6	BRTO4
26	PETR4	8.61	97.1	PETR3	SBSP3	TLPP4	CPLE6	VIVO4
27	PTIP4	7.67	81.8	VIVO4	BRKM5	TLPP4	SUZB5	CPLE6
28	SBSP3	6.61	34.6	CPLE6	CLSC6	VIVO4	EMBR3	SDIA4
29	SDIA4*	9.82	99.8	BRKM5	ARCZ6	ELET3	SBSP3	CSNA3
30	SUZB5	8.65	97.3	CRUZ3	PTIP4	EMBR3	CLSC6	BBDC4
31	TBLE3*	10.16	99.9	CRUZ3	EMBR3	SBSP3	ARCZ6	SUZB5
32	TCSL3*	9.57	99.7	TCSL4	TNLP3	EMBR3	CMIG4	UBBR11
33	TCSL4*	10.67	100.0	TCSL3	VIVO4	TRPL4	TNLP4	BBDC4
34	TLPP4	8.81	98.2	B RTP3	PTIP4	TNLP4	CRUZ3	LAME4
35	TNLP3	8.87	98.4	TNLP4	B RTP3	PETR4	BRKM5	TCSL3
36	TNLP4*	9.23	99.3	TNLP3	B RTP4	TLPP4	AMBV4	CMIG4
37	TRPL4	8.25	93.9	BRTO4	TCSL4	ELET6	VALE3	CRUZ3
38	UBBR11	7.13	61.1	BBDC4	CSNA3	TCSL3	CMIG4	ITAU4
39	USIM5*	9.30	99.4	CSNA3	DURA4	BRKM5	KLBN4	SDIA4
40	VALE3*	9.82	99.8	VALE5	CSNA3	CLSC6	BRKM5	TRPL4
41	VALE5*	9.52	99.6	VALE3	BRAP4	CRUZ3	DURA4	TCSL4
42	VCPA4	8.15	92.6	ARCZ6	VALE5	GGBR4	BRTO4	USIM5
43	VIVO4*	10.63	100.0	B RTP4	TCSL4	PTIP4	BRAP4	SBSP3

Table 2 – Models resulting from the stepwise regression methodology. The terms Ci correspond to the i-th component (regressor) of each model by an order of significance. Dm is the Mahalanobis distance calculated between FRV of each model and the average of the FRV generated by Monte Carlo simulation. Pct indicates the percentile in which the FRV of the models lies within the Monte Carlo empirical distribution. \* corresponds to the selected models (with predictability potential) at the 1% significance level.

Figure 3 illustrates the variance ratio profile of the 14 selected models with predictability potential, and presents the area in which the VRP of random walks generated by the Monte Carlo simulation are concentrated, corresponding to the grey area of the graph. This area was defined as the interval containing from 1% to 99% of the simulated distribution. As we may observe, the VRP of the models are concentrated below the random walks region, indicating that the models show a reversion to the mean. Some models may be found outside the region, since, in addition to its position, the Mahalanobis distance takes the entire format of the curve into consideration. In this way, a curve with a format different from the average of random walks may show a sufficiently large  $D_m$  to be considered as non-random.

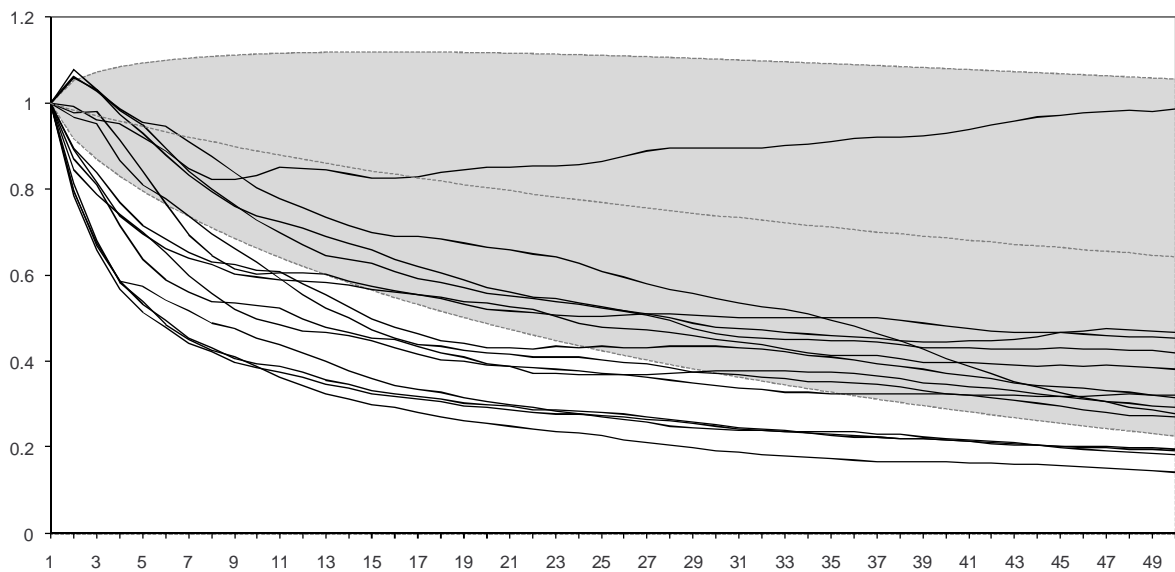


Figure 3 – VRP of models with predictability

## 5.2. Reality Check

In order to carry out the second stage of the study, i.e. to test for the predictability of models created in the previous stage, we carried out 26,410 simulations during the period outside the sample between 2/1/2004 and 28/8/2007, containing 908 observations. The simulations correspond to all combinations of rules and parameters of the universal strategies described in section 4.1, the values of which are presented in the annexes to this study.

We did not use the residue of the models for taking decisions on strategies directly, but the ratio of prices of the models given by:

$$Ratio_{s,t} = \frac{P_{s,t}}{\sum_{i=1}^5 w_{s,i} P_{c(i,s),t}} \quad (7)$$

Using the ratio of the models, we may interpret the series as the price of a synthetic asset, with the purchase of this ratio equivalent to buying the principal asset and selling the regressors<sup>5</sup>. The series were generated with the aid of Excel and the simulations of the strategies carried out with the aid of WealthLab, a software application which provides a suitable environment for the development of strategies.

All of the simulations were carried out in such a way that an investor would be fully able to reproduce the strategies in the actual market. This is relevant, since studies are frequently encountered in the literature which concentrate most of their efforts on the theory and modeling statistical phenomena, while making little effort for the tests of practical simulation. In general, rules are suggested which are naïve or which do not take into consideration the operational problems of realizing such strategies in a real market. Burgess (1999), for example, bases his results on a simple regression of the innovation of the residual against certain lag levels and differences. This type of test, common in studies in the field, does not consider e.g. restrictions on executing orders at the close of the session. The regression in question allows us to predict the returns for the next day on the basis of the information at the close of trading. At the same time, there is a strong hypothesis that the investor will execute the orders at the actual close on which the price for taking

---

<sup>5</sup> Provided that the weights  $w_i$  are positive. In the contrary case, it is sufficient to carry out the inverse operation, i.e. a sale.

his decision depends. In addition, the test requires that the investor always has an open position in the market, a situation which may not be viable when all of the transaction costs involved are taken into consideration.

In order to overcome these problems, all of the simulations realized in the *reality check* were defined in such a way that the investor uses all of the available information on the current day to operate in the market only on the following day. This allows the investor to become aware before the market opening of all of the operations to be realized during the day in question. In addition, all of the price series used in this study are based on average daily prices. This allows the investor to have much greater available liquidity than the execution at the closing prices, given that the order is executed over the entire duration of the trading session. Nowadays, this is viable, given the many algorithms which use electronic operations to determine the average price of shares over a given period. These algorithms, known as VWAP or TWAP, are already offered to investors by various brokers and information systems.

The transaction costs are not common to all market participants, and hence, we decided to carry out two simulations. The first, without considering costs, and the second, considering a cost of 0.10% of the financial volume of each operation. In this way, each participant may evaluate how his cost structure may impact results.

Table 3 presents the adjusted average returns<sup>6</sup> of the strategies grouped by type of rule used. We observe that the returns on strategies termed *contrarian*, i.e., which are the opposite of the original trend strategies, show positive returns. Without transaction costs, we have an adjusted return of 0.55%, while with costs, we still have a positive return of 0.45%. This result was expected since the variance ratio profiles all fell below the region of the random walk, a fact which, as stated above, indicates reversion to the mean.

Strategy	Without costs		With costs	
	Trend	Contrarian	Trend	Contrarian
FR	-1.15	1.15	-1.51	0.80
MA	-0.97	0.97	-1.18	0.76
SR	-1.13	1.13	-1.30	0.95
CB	-0.22	0.22	-0.30	0.15
MSP	-0.41	0.41	-0.56	0.27
OCO	0.36	0.38	0.35	0.38

<sup>6</sup> The adjusted average daily return is given by  $R^* = \sqrt{n} \bar{R}$ , where  $\bar{R}$  is the average daily return.



TA	0.34	0.32	0.34	0.32
RA	0.34	0.38	0.34	0.38
DTB	0.33	0.15	0.32	0.14
BTB	0.34	0.37	0.34	0.37
Mean	-0.22	0.55	-0.31	0.45

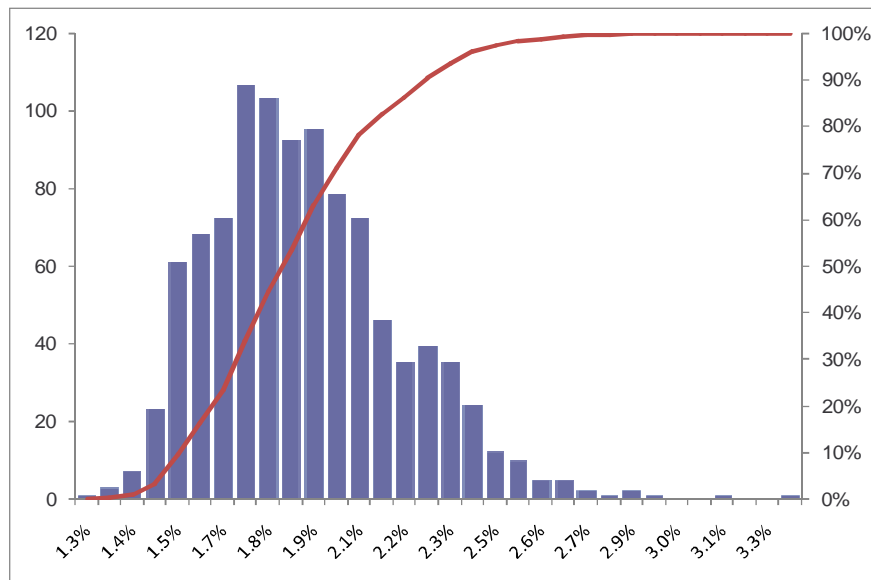
Table 3 – Table of the return (%) on groups of strategies

The maximum normalized average returns ( $\bar{V}_n$ ) found were:

$$\bar{V}_n = \begin{cases} 3.8\% & \text{without costs} \\ 3.4\% & \text{with costs} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

At the same time, while we have a strategy indicating a positive return, even considering transaction costs, according to White (2000), we cannot conclude our study without considering the effects of *data snooping*. This arises from the fact that we are reusing the same period outside the sample to simulate different strategies.

Using the bootstrap methodology, with a probability  $p$  of 10%, we create the empirical distribution of  $\bar{V}_n$  pursuant to (6). Figure 4 and Figure 5 present the distributions obtained without and with transaction costs respectively.

Figure 4 - Distribution of  $\bar{V}_n$  without transaction costs

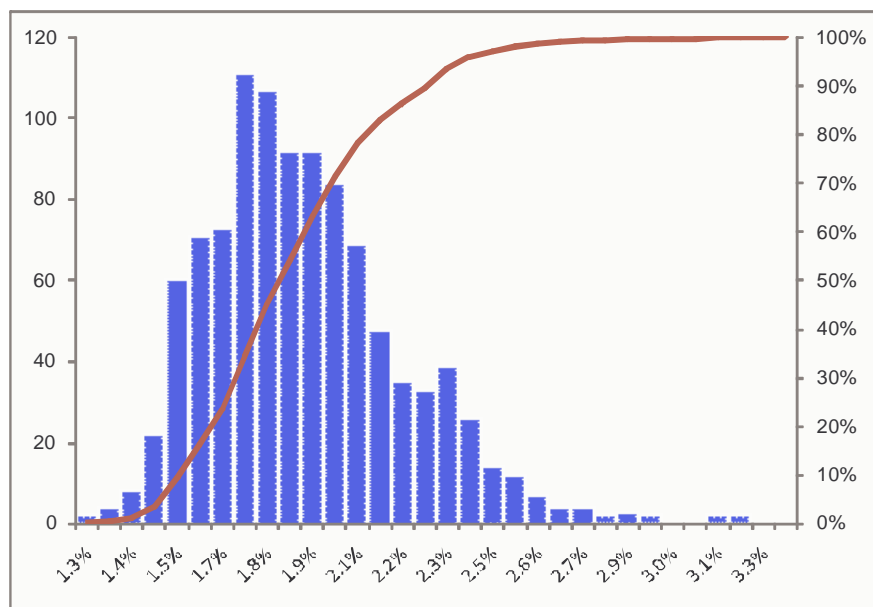


Figure 5 - Distribution of  $\bar{r}_M$  with transaction costs

We may observe that the values obtained in the distributions are all less than the values of  $\bar{r}_M$  obtained from the series outside the sample, presented in (8). This is equivalent to a very low p-value and leads us to conclude that we should reject the null hypothesis (4) which states that there is no strategy with a positive return among the M strategies. We thus arrive at the conclusion that it is possible for an investor to obtain positive returns using the stock models presented.

## 6. CONCLUSION

In this study, we use the methodology used by Burgess (1999), for the formation of statistical stock models applied to the Brazilian market, with the objective of verifying the existence of predictability in this market. We found 14 models with predictability potential according to the criterion of variance ratio profile, together with a Monte Carlo simulation used to create an empirical distribution of the distances of the VRPs of the random walk models. On the basis of the 14 models selected, following Hsu & Kuan (2005) and Sullivan, Timmermann & White (1999), we carried out White's (2000) *reality check* in order to verify the predictability for the period outside the sample. The tests were carried out in such a way that the investor is able to reproduce all of the strategies in the actual market. The tests indicated to us a number of groups of strategies with a positive return, even considering transaction costs. As expected from the variance ratio profile, strategies which exploit reversion to mean prices were those which presented the best results. In addition, we rejected the null hypothesis of the test that there is no strategy with a positive return on a universe of  $N$  strategies through the empirical distribution of  $\bar{V}_{12}$ , obtained by the bootstrap methods. In so doing, we were able to verify strong indications of predictability in the Brazilian equity market, using rules which may easily be implemented by an investor.

## 7. REFERENCES

BAPTISTA, R.F.F.; VALLS PEREIRA, P.L. **Análise de Performance de Regras de Análise Técnica Aplicada ao Mercado Intradiário do Futuro do Índice Bovespa [Analysis of Performance of Rules of Technical Analysis applied to the Intraday Bovespa Index Futures Market]**. Ibmec São Paulo, 2006.

BOAINAIN, P.G.; VALLS PEREIRA, P.L. **Ombro-Cabeça-Ombro: Testando a lucratividade do padrão gráfico de análise técnica no mercado de ações brasileiro. [Head and Shoulders: Testing the Profitability of the Graphic Pattern of Technical Analysis in the Brazilian Equity Market]** Anais do 7<sup>o</sup> Encontro Brasileiro de Finanças. SBFIn: São Paulo, 2007.

BURGESS, A. N. Statistical Arbitrage Models of the FTSE 100. In: Abu-Mostafa et al. **Computational Finance 99**, MIT Press, Cambridge, 1999. p. 297-312.

FAMA, E.; BLUME, M.E. Filter Rules and Stock Market Trading. **Journal of Business 39**, p. 226-241, 1966.

HSU, P.H.; KUAN, C.M. **Re-Examining the Profitability of Technical Analysis with White's Reality Check and Hansen's SPA Test**. Available in SSRN: <<http://ssrn.com/abstract=685361>>. Accessed in March 2005.

LO, A.W.; MACKINLAY, A.C. Data snooping Biases in Tests of Financial Asset Pricing Models. **Review of Financial Studies**, v. 3, p. 431-467, 1990.

LO, A.W.; MACKINLAY, A.C. Maximizing predictability in the stock and bond markets. In: LO, A.W.; MACKINLAY, A.C. **A Non-Random Walk Down Wall Street**, Princeton University Press, New Jersey, 1995. p. 249-284.

SULLIVAN, R.; TIMMERMANN, A.; WHITE, H. Data snooping, Technical Trading Rule Performance, and the Bootstrap. **Journal of Finance 54**, p. 1647-1691, 1999.

WHITE, H. A Reality Check for Data Snooping. **Econometrica** **68**, p. 1097-1126, 2000.

## 8. ANNEXES

### 8.1. Parameters used in the strategies

#### **Filter rules (FR)**

“x” = 0.005, 0.01, 0.015, 0.02, 0.025, 0.03, 0.035, 0.04, 0.045, 0.05, 0.06, 0.07, 0.08, 0.09, 0.10, 0.12, 0.14, 0.16, 0.18, 0.20, 0.25, 0.30, 0.40, 0.50 (24 values);

“y” = 0.005, 0.01, 0.015, 0.02, 0.025, 0.03, 0.04, 0.05, 0.075, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20 (12 values);

“e” = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 10, 15, 20 (8 values);

“c” = 5, 10, 25, 50 (4 values).

#### **Moving Averages (MA)**

“n” = 2, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 40, 50, 75, 100, 125, 150, 200, 250 (15 values);

“b” = 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.015, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, 0.05 (8 values);

“d” = 2, 3, 4, 5 (4 values).

#### **Support and Resistance (SR)**

“n” = 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250 (10 values);

“e” = 2, 3, 4, 5, 10, 20, 25, 50, 100, 200 (10 values);

“b” = 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.015, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, 0.05 (8 values);

“d” = 2, 3, 4, 5 (4 values);

“c” = 5, 10, 25, 50 (4 values).

**Channel (CB)**

“n” = 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250 (10 values);

“x” = 0.005, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.05, 0.075, 0.10, 0.15 (8 values);

“b” = 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.015, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, 0.05 (8 values);

“c” = 5, 10, 25, 50 (4 values).

**Price Moment (MSP)**

“m” = 2, 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 125, 250 (10 values);

“w” = 2, 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 125, 250 (10 values);

“k” = 0.05, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20 (4 values);

“f” = 5, 10, 25, 40 (4 values).

**Head & Shoulders**

“n” = 5, 10, 20, 50 (4 values);

“x” = 0.005, 0.01, 0.015, 0.03, 0.05 (5 values);

“k” = 0, 0.005, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03 (5 values);

“f” = 5, 10, 25, 50 (4 values);

“r” = 0.005, 0.0075, 0.01, 0.015 (4 values);

“d” = 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1 (4 values).

**Triangle (TA)**

“n” = 5, 10, 20, 50 (4 values);

“x” = 0, 0.001, 0.003, 0.005, 0.0075, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, 0.05, 0.06, 0.07, 0.08,  
0.09, 0.10 (15 values);

“f” = 5, 10, 25, 50 (4 values);

“r” = 0.005, 0.0075, 0.01, 0.015 (4 values);

“d” = 2, 3, 4, 5 (4 values).

### **Rectangle (RA)**

“n” = 5, 10, 20, 50 (4 values);

“k” = 0.005, 0.0075, 0.01 (3 values);

“x” = 0, 0.001, 0.003, 0.005, 0.0075, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, 0.05, 0.06, 0.07, 0.08,  
0.09, 0.10 (15 values);

“f” = 5, 10, 25, 50 (4 values);

“r” = 0.005, 0.0075, 0.01, 0.015 (4 values);

“d” = 2, 3, 4, 5 (4 values).

### **Double Tops (DTB)**

“n” = 20, 40, 60 (3 values);

“k” = 0.005, 0.01, 0.015, 0.03, 0.05 (5 values);

“g” = 0.10, 0.15, 0.20 (3 values);

“x” = 0, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, (4 values);

“f” = 5, 10, 25, 50 (4 values);

“r” = 0.005, 0.0075, 0.01, 0.015 (4 values);

“d” = 2, 3, 4, 5 (4 values).

### **Inverted Triangle (BTB)**

“n” = 5, 10, 20, 50 (4 values);

“x” = 0, 0.001, 0.003, 0.005, 0.0075, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, 0.05, 0.06, 0.07, 0.08,  
0.09, 0.10 (15 values);

“f” = 5, 10, 25, 50 (4 values);

“r” = 0.005, 0.0075, 0.01, 0.015 (4 values);

“d” = 2, 3, 4, 5 (4 values).



## 8.2. Stock tickers used

<i>Ticker</i>	<i>Company</i>
AMBV4	AMBEV PN
ARCZ6	ARACRUZ PNB
BBAS3	BRASIL ON
BBDC4	BRADESCO PN
BRAP4	BRADESPAR PN
BRKM5	BRASKEM PNA
BRT04	BRASIL TELECOM PN
B RTP3	BRASIL T PAR ON
B RTP4	BRASIL T PAR PN
CLSC6	CELESC PNB
CMIG4	CEMIG PN
CPLE6	COPEL PNB
CRUZ3	SOUZA CRUZ ON
CSNA3	SID NACIONAL ON
DURA4	DURATEX PN
ELET3	ELETROBRAS ON
ELET6	ELETROBRAS PNB
EMBR3	EMBRAER ON
GGBR4	GERDAU PN
GOAU4	GERDAU MET PN
ITAU4	ITAUBANCO PN
ITSA4	ITAUSA PN
KLBN4	KLABIN S/A PN
LAME4	LOJAS AMERIC
PETR3	PETROBRAS ON
PETR4	PETROBRAS PN
PTIP4	IPIRANGA PET PN
SBSP3	SABESP ON
SDIA4	SADIA S/A PN
SUZB5	SUZANO PAPEL PNA
TBLE3	TRACTEBEL ON
TCSL3	TIM PART S/A ON
TCSL4	TIM PART S/A PN
TLPP4	TELESP PN
TNLP3	TELEMAR ON
TNLP4	TELEMAR PN
TRPL4	TRAN PAULIST PN
UBBR11	UNIBANCO UNT
USIM5	USIMINAS PNA
VALE3	VALE R DOCE ON
VALE5	VALE R DOCE PNA
VCPA4	V C P PN
VIVO4	VIVO PN

