Given the extreme volatility of emerging market returns, it would seem difficult to uncover any predictability. Harvey [1995], however, documents more predictability in emerging market returns than developed market returns. One hypothesis is that emerging equity markets are less informationally efficient than developed markets and the degree of inefficiency can be exploited in a forecasting model. Bekaert and Harvey [1995] argue that the predictability is complicated, though, in that it is unstable through time.

Emerging markets provide a good testing ground for the viability of non-linear forecasting techniques. Indeed, there has been much interest in the last decade in the application of neural networks to finance, in particular to stock price prediction and selection. We investigate whether returns in emerging markets can be forecast better using neural networks instead of linear prediction models.

Linear systems are very simple, and it is a great simplification to assume that a process as complicated as financial markets could be driven by a system whose relationships are so easy to express. The advantage of linear models is their simplicity and their ease of use. Yet a model is useful only as long as its predictions do not deviate too far from the outcome of the underlying process. It is this trade-off between simplicity of a model and accuracy of predictions that is important to the researcher trying to predict market returns in real time.

Linear regression forecasting models have demonstrated their usefulness in predicting returns in both developed markets (see Harvey [1991]) and emerging markets (see Harvey [1995]). A good linear regression model can correctly predict direction in the market over 55%-65% of the time. It is reasonable, however, to assert that many of the factors that we believe drive the financial markets may not be related by linear functions. We might as well ask what methods are available to build a non-linear model that can work better, in the sense that it more accurately forecasts the returns of a stock market index over a period of several years.

Non-linear models are much more difficult to devise, partly because there are many more non-linear functions than linear ones, and they are thus more difficult to specify. Many non-linear functions may have graphs that look similarly curved, while linear functions are straight lines, easy to identify by the unique axis intercept and constant slope.

The research has established some methods of identifying non-linear models such as non-linear regression, parametric models such as generalized autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity (GARCH), and non-linear volatility models and non-parametric models. One such non-parametric method is “neural networks.” These are systems, first devised in research on artificial intelligence, in which a computer “learns” the non-linear relationship between independent and depen-
dent variables through analysis of large quantities of training data. It is then hoped that a neural network given out-of-sample data can predict the outcome of a non-linear function more accurately than linear regression.

Neural networks use a non-parametric method of forecasting; that is, the underlying non-linear function is neither prescribed nor predicted explicitly. Thus, the model is not limited to a restrictive list of non-linear functions. Contrast this approach with linear regression, where an initial presumption is that the underlying relationship is of the form \( y = a + bx + \text{error} \) (where \( a \) is an intercept and \( b \) is the slope coefficient).

We explain first how a neural network is constructed. Then we investigate the accuracy of such a non-linear model, by comparing the performance of a strategy for investing in nine emerging markets implied by a neural net to both the more traditional trading strategy of “buy-and-hold” and an investment strategy implied by linear regression analysis in the 1992 to June 1997 period. Finally, we apply the model to a holdout sample, July 1997-December 1998, for one country, Korea. This country experienced extreme volatility during the Asian crisis, and this sample provides a challenging test for any prediction model.

**NEURAL NETS**

**Linear Regression Benchmark**

Recall that linear regression finds the best straight-line fit between input (independent) variables and an output (dependent) variable. That is, given a time series of inputs \( X_i, i = 1, \ldots, n \), it establishes weights \( w_i \) such that

\[
Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i X_i + \text{error}
\]

where the weights are constants so that the error is minimized.

Usually, we minimize the squared errors, although it is possible to minimize other functions of the error like absolute value. This construction finds the “line of best fit” through the points \( X_i \). The structure of \( n \) inputs and one output is shown in Exhibit 1.

**How Neural Networks Work**

A method trains the neural net to learn a non-linear relationship between inputs and output, by applying non-linear smoothing functions to the linear combinations of inputs. The method is best described through an example of an \( \text{and} \)-gate.

Consider the simple non-linear map from two inputs, each taking the value 0 or 1, to one output that has value 0 unless both the first \( \text{and} \) the second inputs are equal to 1. This can be thought of as a binary switch \( Y \) that is either on or off.

This non-linear function is given by the product of the two inputs:

\[
Y = X_1 \times X_2
\]

We shall try to model this function by linear regression and by using neural networks. The purpose is to find the best approximation, which could then be used to forecast the results given two random inputs of 0 or 1. The linear regression model can be calculated by hand, or by using a regression software package. The best linear approximation is given by:

\[
Y = 0.5X_1 + 0.5X_2 - 0.25
\]

with a root mean squared error of 0.5. The predictions of the linear model are detailed in Exhibit 2.

**CONSTRUCTION OF THE NEURAL NET**

Let us see how the neural network can learn the pattern and more closely predict the in-sample results. Exhibit 3 illustrates how \( n \) inputs are combined in the
neural network to give another layer of what we shall call “nodes,” which are then also combined to give the output $Y$.

In our example, we have just two inputs $X_1$, $X_2$, and one output, $Y$. In between, we shall place one extra “hidden layer” of two nodes, $H_1$ and $H_2$. Non-linear functions will relate the different layers, as in Exhibit 4.

As in the linear regression, we assign each input $X_i$ a weight $w_i$. Then the problem is the same as for the linear regression: to find weights for the nodes so that the inputs may be weighted and combined (but this time non-linearly) to best approximate the output. We do this in two stages, since there are two layers of nodes.

The inputs are binary: either 0 (off) or 1 (on). Then the hidden layer has two nodes, which are set to be:

$$H_1 = g(w_{11}X_1 + w_{12}X_2)$$

$$H_2 = g(w_{21}X_1 + w_{22}X_2)$$

where $g$ is a smoothing non-linear function shown in Exhibit 5.

For each time $t$, the output is a linear combination of the hidden layer variables $H_1$ and $H_2$, with then another non-linear smoothing function $h$ applied to that:

$$Y_t = h(a_1H_1 + a_2H_2)$$

The inputs $X_1$, $X_2$, and the output $Y$ are thus fixed, and we would like the program to “learn” from data that we give it what the correct weights are such that $Y$ has the correct value corresponding to the inputs. The fact that such weights exist is ensured by the Universal Approximation Property (White [1992]). The property says that any continuous non-linear function $Y(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ can be approximated as above, with one hidden layer, to an arbitrary degree of accuracy with a suitable number of nodes $H_i$ in the hidden layer.

This property guarantees that our method will yield an approximate solution that is as close as we like to the underlying function, but does not tell us how to construct such an approximation. So the question remains:
How does the network “learn” the underlying non-linear relationship; how do we find such a $Y_t$?

**Training of the Neural Net**

Training uses a method called *error backpropagation*. The neural net starts by assigning arbitrary weights to the input variables. Then it runs through all the input data points (called “training data”) once, and gives a list of outputs. Next a comparison is made between the desired outputs $Y_t$ and the net’s output for each time $t$. Then the mean-squared error

$$
\Sigma_i |Y_t - h[\Sigma x_i g(w^TX)]|^2
$$

is minimized by using the “gradient” method with a certain prescribed “learning rate” as follows.

The n-dimensional gradient is computed, and the weights are adjusted to change the output incrementally in the direction of “steepest descent,” that is, in the direction in which the mean-squared error’s derivative is negative with the greatest absolute value. This means that the error decreases most rapidly in this direction, just as the quickest way to descend a mountain is to go in the direction in which the slope is the steepest. The learning rate determines the rate of the error’s convergence to zero.

**Testing of the Neural Net**

Once the neural net has trained on a dataset and can predict the output to a required degree of accuracy, it is then tested on new out-of-sample data. The hope is that the trained network can predict the outcome $Y_t$ by substituting new unseen inputs $X_i$ into the learned approximation function.

The approximation function $Y_t$ that our neural network program gives for the and-gate example is shown in Exhibit 6. It is clear that the neural network does a far better job of approximating the non-linear function given by the and-gate than the linear regression method, with a much lower root mean squared error.

**DATA AND PROCEDURES**

The data are extracted from the International Finance Corporation’s (IFC) Emerging Markets Data Base (EMDB). This database includes weekly data for thirty-three emerging market countries and four composites. Data include total return and three ratios: price-to-earnings (PE), price-to-book value (PBV), and dividend yield (YLD). Returns for the United States for the same period are also used.
While there are some data from 1989, data are not available for many countries until a much later date. To permit comparison between countries, we use only countries whose datasets permit analysis for 1992–1997, inclusive. A total of nine countries’ data series are analyzed. We use returns converted to U.S. dollar terms.

The analysis procedure is intended to provide a comparison of a neural network model to both a passive strategy (buy-and-hold) and an active strategy determined by the results of regression analysis.

**Regression Procedure**

The allowable data for the regression analysis include PE, PBV, YLD, four lags of country return, and one lag of U.S. return. The data are analyzed as an expanding window. All data prior to the “in-sample” forecast range are used; i.e., if we are attempting to forecast returns for 1996, we use data through 1994; test “in-sample” for 1995; and test “out-of-sample” for 1996. That is, the regression coefficients are updated every year.

Each regression begins using all available variables. The variables are then removed sequentially, eliminating the variable with the lowest F-statistic each time. Variables are eliminated until all remaining variables are significant at least at the 90% confidence level. The resulting formula is then used for forecasting both in- and out-of-sample. While this procedure is a classic data-snooping method, it allows establishment a meaningful benchmark.

**Neural Network Procedure**

The allowable data for the neural network analysis are restricted to price data: four lags of country data and one lag of U.S. return. The data are analyzed as an expanding window, in the same manner as for the regression procedure.

The method of determining the best neural network analysis differs from the method for regression analysis because methods of significance testing are only now being developed for neural network models. The objective is to generate a neural network that has the greatest modified direction for the in-sample data. This model is then used for the out-of-sample period without bias; that is, regardless of the results of out-of-sample testing, the model with the best in-sample performance is used. Thus we attempt to strike a compromise between the potential for overfitting data and the absence of significance testing.

**Analysis of Forecasts**

The regression equations and neural network models are used to forecast country returns out-of-sample. The decision rule used for asset allocation is to invest in the country index if the forecast for country return is greater than that for the risk-free U.S. Treasury bill and to invest in the T-bill otherwise.

Three performance measures are used for the two active strategies.

**Total Return ($)**. The return per dollar invested in the strategy during the time period. It might be argued that the total return is the most important statistic, since it measures the profitability of following a particular investment strategy. Yet, as is often the case in market return series, correctly forecasting a few periods (or even one period) can overwhelm the impact of all other forecasts in this measure.

**Direction (% between 0 and 100)**. The number of times the model correctly forecasts market direction divided by total forecasts. This measure eliminates the magnitude of returns on performance measurement, and thus removes some of the randomness present in the total return measure, but it does suffer from the “stopped watch” problem.

That is, if a strategy forecasts an up market most of the time, and if the market happens to have been up most of the time, it is likely that the strategy will “correctly” forecast market direction more effectively than a random guess (50%).

**Modified Direction (“Merton Measure”) (% between -100 and 100)**. The number of times the model correctly forecasts a market return greater than T-bills plus the number of time the market correctly forecasts a market return greater than T-bills, weighted by the respective number of up and down forecasts, plus 1 (see Merton [1981]). This measure eliminates both the magnitude problem and the “stopped watch” problem.
It can be seen that a strategy that always forecasts a positive excess return will receive a 100% score for the positive actual excess return and a 0% score for the negative realized excess returns, which, after subtracting 1, results in a score of 0%. Of course, a strategy that is particularly bad could have a negative modified direction score.

RESULTS

Results for all countries are summarized in Exhibit 7. The neural net strategy outperforms the buy-and-hold strategy in forty-four of the fifty-four country years (that is, nine countries and six years for each country). The net strategy outperforms the regression in 40 of the 54 country years.

Exhibit 7 also reports a summary of the annual volatility. The neural net strategy produces a lower volatility than the buy-and-hold in fifty-four of fifty-four country years. This means that in forty-four of the fifty-four country years the net produces higher returns and lower volatility. In the other ten country years, the returns are lower, but the volatility is also lower.

We also report the volatility of the neural net versus the regression-based model. Exhibit 7 suggests that the regression model often produces lower volatility than the neural net. The reason for this is simple. The regression forecasts are so imprecise that often the algorithm will recommend holding cash the entire year (which has low volatility).

The cumulative buy-and-hold returns are presented in Exhibits 8A-8I for the nine countries, Argentina-Thailand.

The modified direction analysis results are in Exhibits 9A-9I. The neural networks outperform both the buy-and-hold and the regression benchmark. For example, the average modified direction measure (across all nine countries) is positive for all years. Looking across time, the modified direction measure is positive on average for all countries except for Brazil and Taiwan. The linear regression performs poorly.

Performance During the Asian Financial Crisis:
June 1997-March 1999

It is of interest to study in more detail a country that suffered through the Asian economic collapse of 1997-1998. We perform a similar analysis of Korea, using weekly data from June 1997 through March 1999. As before, the inputs to the net for training and to the linear regression for significance testing are four lags of the return itself and one lag of the U.S. return. The investment strategies prescribed by the neural network and linear regression models and a buy-and-hold strategy are analyzed as before, using return on $1, direction, and modified direction.

For these data and inputs, none of the linear regression models proves to be significant at the 90% confidence level. Indeed, no matter what the input variables we use, the t-statistics are extremely low (below 1). The linear regression does not produce a meaningful investment strategy for Korea over this period.

Exhibits 10 and 11 show that the neural network prescribes a strategy that is invested in the Korean market for only twenty-five weeks during the ninety-four-week period over which the buy-and-hold strategy loses 35% of its value in very turbulent conditions. Thus, using the neural net strategy lowers the volatility of the portfolio and increases the return, earning 79% on each dollar invested. The modified direction measure for the neural net is positive, although small, showing that the return given by the neural net’s strategy is not due merely to a safe investment in risk-free Treasuries.

The results for the Korean market during the economic crisis of 1997-1998 consistent with (but more pronounced than) our complete analysis of the broader nine-country emerging market returns.

Limitations

All relationships are not linear. The benefit of the neural net is that it is able to discern non-linear relationships, and is therefore able to find predictive power in factors that may be useless in a simple linear model. One significant drawback, however, is that the user is ultimately unaware of the closed-form relationship that the neural net has learned. Therefore, it is not possible to apply human intuition to the model with regard to the sensitivity of the modeled sensitivities. Such human intuition is often invaluable in assessing the forward-looking viability of a particular relationship.

An additional drawback of the neural net is its excessive data requirements. Weekly data are difficult to acquire and potentially unreliable, particularly for emerging markets, which are often less efficient than the U.S. market. For some time series, weekly data simply do not exist, or have not been collected for a long period of time. For example, weekly data are not available for many eco-
### Exhibit 7

U.S. Dollar Returns to Various Strategies (%)

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Neural Net Wins/Total 44/54 40/54 54/54 21/54
Neural Net Win Rate 81 74 74 39
EXHIBIT 8A
Cumulative Return on $1 Invested in Argentina

EXHIBIT 8B
Cumulative Return on $1 Invested in Brazil

EXHIBIT 8C
Cumulative Return on $1 Invested in Chile

EXHIBIT 8D
Cumulative Return on $1 Invested in Colombia

EXHIBIT 8E
Cumulative Return on $1 Invested in Korea

EXHIBIT 8F
Cumulative Return on $1 Invested in Malaysia
EXHIBIT 9D
Modified Direction Measure for Colombia

EXHIBIT 9E
Modified Direction Measure for Korea

EXHIBIT 9F
Modified Direction Measure for Malaysia

EXHIBIT 9G
Modified Direction Measure for Mexico

EXHIBIT 9H
Modified Direction Measure for Taiwan

EXHIBIT 9I
Modified Direction Measure for Thailand
E X H I B I T  10
Performance of Neural Net for Korea During Asian Crisis: June 1997–March 1999

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While we try to minimize this effect by not using too many training runs on each sample, it is often difficult to find the optimal balance between sufficient training and overfitting.

Finally, one important item is the high transaction costs of investing in emerging markets. Shifting weights between the individual emerging market and cash could induce prohibitive transaction costs that potentially could eliminate the return benefit of the neural net strategy. We leave the incorporation of transaction costs into the asset allocation strategy for further research.

E X H I B I T  11
Performance Comparison Korea: June 1997–March 1999

While we try to minimize this effect by not using too many training runs on each sample, it is often difficult to find the optimal balance between sufficient training and overfitting.

Finally, one important item is the high transaction costs of investing in emerging markets. Shifting weights between the individual emerging market and cash could induce prohibitive transaction costs that potentially could eliminate the return benefit of the neural net strategy. We leave the incorporation of transaction costs into the asset allocation strategy for further research.
CONCLUSIONS

Some research suggests that there is significant predictability in emerging markets. At the same time, the nature of the predictability changes through time. We test whether a non-linear modeling method, neural networks, has the ability to outperform standard benchmarks.

Our neural net outperforms both the active regression model and the passive buy-and-hold strategy over the 1992-1997 period. The process manages to “see through” the white noise created by the random elements of the financial markets, and identify the underlying non-linear model well enough to predict future returns in the emerging market indexes.

There is considerable research to be done into neural networks, so many of the analysis techniques may continue to be refined or altered in the future. At this point, there are very few significance tests analogous to those for linear regression techniques. Nevertheless, we can still identify qualitatively which inputs would be useful to train the model. It remains important to ensure that the independent variables are economically reasonable so that modeling with them could be qualitatively justified (despite the absence of quantitative statistical analysis).

It is important to be aware of the limitations of neural nets. In our research, we discovered that it is very easy to overfit the data inadvertently by running the training for too many cycles using too many weeks of data. Great care needs to be exercised in implementing these models for active investing.

REFERENCES


