
Costs and Benefits of Crash Hedging

by

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Advances in Mathematics of Finance

6th General AMaMeF and Banach Center Conference

Warsaw, 10th to 15th June 2013

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1. Introduction/Motivation

Merton's (Classical) Portfolio Optimisation (1969, 1971):

- Investor has **logarithmic utility**, that is $U(x) = \ln(x)$.
- Investment opportunities are one risk-free asset (**bond**) and one risky asset (**stock**) with dynamics given by

$$\begin{aligned} dP_{0,0}(t) &= P_{0,0}(t) r_0 dt, & P_{0,0}(0) &= 1, & \text{"bond"} \\ dP_{0,1}(t) &= P_{0,1}(t) [\mu_0 dt + \sigma_0 dW_0(t)], & P_{0,1}(0) &= p_1, & \text{"stock"} \end{aligned}$$

with constant market coefficients $\mu_0, r_0, \sigma_0 \neq 0$ and where W_0 is a Brownian Motion on a complete probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) .

- X_0^π denotes the **wealth process** of the investor given the portfolio strategy π (which denotes the fraction invested in the risky asset). More specific, the wealth process satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} dX_0^\pi(t) &= X_0^\pi(t) [(r_0 + \pi(t) [\mu_0 - r_0]) dt + \pi(t) \sigma_0 dW_0(t)], \\ X_0^\pi(0) &= x. \end{aligned}$$

- With this, one can define the **performance function** for an arbitrary admissible portfolio strategy $\pi(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{J}_0(t, x, \pi) &:= \mathbb{E} \left[\ln \left(X_0^{\pi, t, x}(T) \right) \right] \\ &= \ln(x) + \mathbb{E} \left[\int_t^T \left[\Psi_0 - \frac{\sigma_0^2}{2} (\pi(s) - \pi_0^*)^2 \right] ds \right]. \end{aligned}$$

- Here,

$$\Psi_0 := r_0 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\mu_0 - r_0}{\sigma_0} \right)^2 = r_0 + \frac{\sigma_0^2}{2} (\pi_0^*)^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_0^* := \frac{\mu_0 - r_0}{\sigma_0^2}$$

will be called the **utility growth potential** or **earning potential** and the **optimal portfolio strategy**, respectively.

- The **portfolio optimisation problem** is given by

$$\sup_{\pi(\cdot) \in A(x)} \mathcal{J}_0(t, x, \pi) =: \nu_0(t, x) \quad [= \ln(x) + \Psi_0(T - t)], \quad (1)$$

where ν_0 is called **value function**.

Merton's Portfolio Optimisation with Jumps (1976):

- In this case the dynamics of the risky asset changes to

$$dP_J(t) = P_J(t) [\mu_0 dt + \sigma_0 dW_0(t) - k dN(t)] ,$$

where N is a Poisson process with intensity $\lambda > 0$ on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) and $k > 0$ is the crash or jump size.

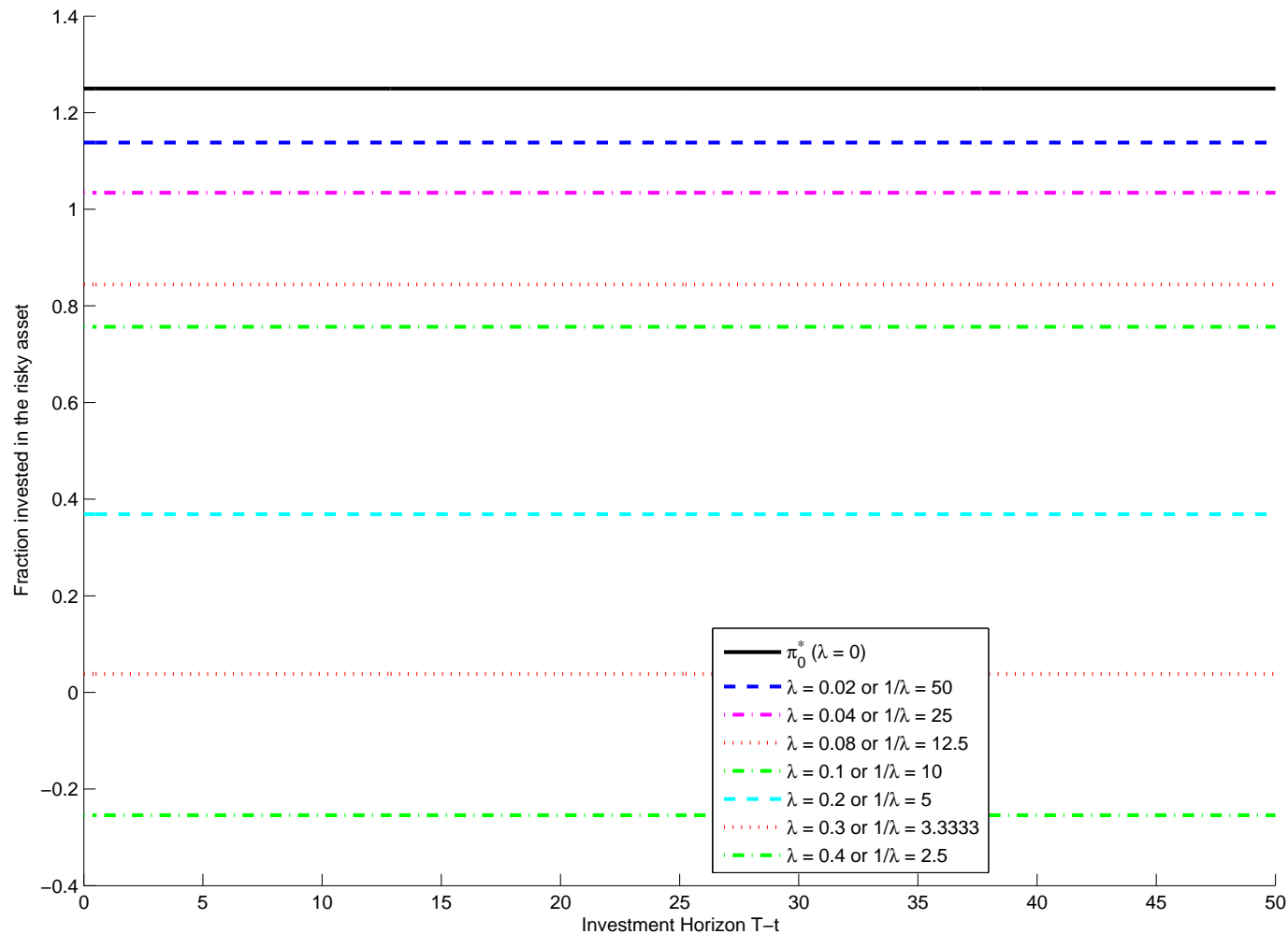
- The performance function is given in this setting as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{J}_J(t, x, \pi) \\ = \ln(x) + \mathbb{E} \left[\int_t^T \left[\psi_0 - \frac{\sigma_0^2}{2} (\pi(s) - \pi_0^*)^2 - \ln(1 - \pi(s)k) \lambda \right] ds \right] . \end{aligned}$$

- The optimal portfolio strategy computes to

$$\pi_J^* = \frac{1}{2} \left(\pi_0^* + \frac{1}{k} \right) - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} \left(\pi_0^* - \frac{1}{k} \right)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{\sigma_0^2}} .$$

Examples of Merton's Optimal Portfolio Strategies



This Figure is plotted with $\pi_0^* = 1.25$, $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r = 0.05$, $k = 0.25$, and $T = 50$. This implies that $\lambda_0 = \frac{\sigma_0^2 \pi_0^*}{k} = 0.3125$, $\Psi_0 \approx 0.098828$, and $\frac{1}{k^*} = 4$.

Alternative: Worst Case Scenario Portfolio Optimisation (Korn and Wilmott, 2002):

- In **normal times**: same set up as in the classical Merton case.
- At **crash time**: stock price falls by a factor of $k \in [k_*, k^*]$.

Consequence: The wealth process $X_0^\pi(t)$ at crash time τ satisfies:

$$\begin{aligned}
 X_0^\pi(\tau-) &= (1 - \pi(\tau)) X_0^\pi(\tau-) + \pi(\tau) X_0^\pi(\tau-) \\
 \implies & (1 - \pi(\tau)) X_0^\pi(\tau-) + \pi(\tau) X_0^\pi(\tau-) (1 - k) \\
 &= \boxed{(1 - \pi(\tau)k) \cdot X_0^\pi(\tau-) = X_0^\pi(\tau)}.
 \end{aligned}$$

- **Main disadvantage:** Need to know the maximal possible *number of crashes* N that can happen at most and need to know the *worst crash size* k^* that can happen.

- **Aim:** Find the best uniform **worst case bound**, e.g. solve

$$\sup_{\pi(\cdot) \in A_0(x)} \inf_{\substack{0 \leq \tau \leq T \\ k \in K}} \mathbb{E} [U (X^\pi (T))], \quad (2)$$

where the final wealth satisfies $X^\pi (T) = (1 - \pi(\tau)k) X_0^\pi (T)$ in the case of a crash of size k at stopping time τ . Moreover, $K = \{0\} \cup [k_*, k^*]$. We call this also the **worst case scenario portfolio problem**.

Note: To avoid bankruptcy we require $\pi(t) < \frac{1}{k^*}$ for all $t \in [0, T]$.

- The **value function** to the above problem is defined via

$$\nu_c(t, x) := \sup_{\pi(\cdot) \in A(t, x)} \inf_{\substack{t \leq \tau \leq T \\ k \in K}} \mathbb{E} \left[\ln \left(X^{\pi, t, x}(T) \right) \right]. \quad (3)$$

- A portfolio strategy $\hat{\pi} \geq 0$ determined via the equation

$$\mathcal{J}_0(t, x, \hat{\pi}) = \nu_1(t, x(1 - \hat{\pi}(t)k^*)) \quad \text{for all } t \in [0, T]$$

will be called a **crash indifference strategy**.

- There exists a unique crash indifference strategy $\hat{\pi}$, which is given by the solution of the differential equation

$$\hat{\pi}'(t) = \frac{\sigma_0^2}{2} \left(\hat{\pi}(t) - \frac{1}{k^*} \right) (\hat{\pi}(t) - \pi_0^*)^2, \quad (4)$$

$$\text{and } \hat{\pi}(T) = 0. \quad (5)$$

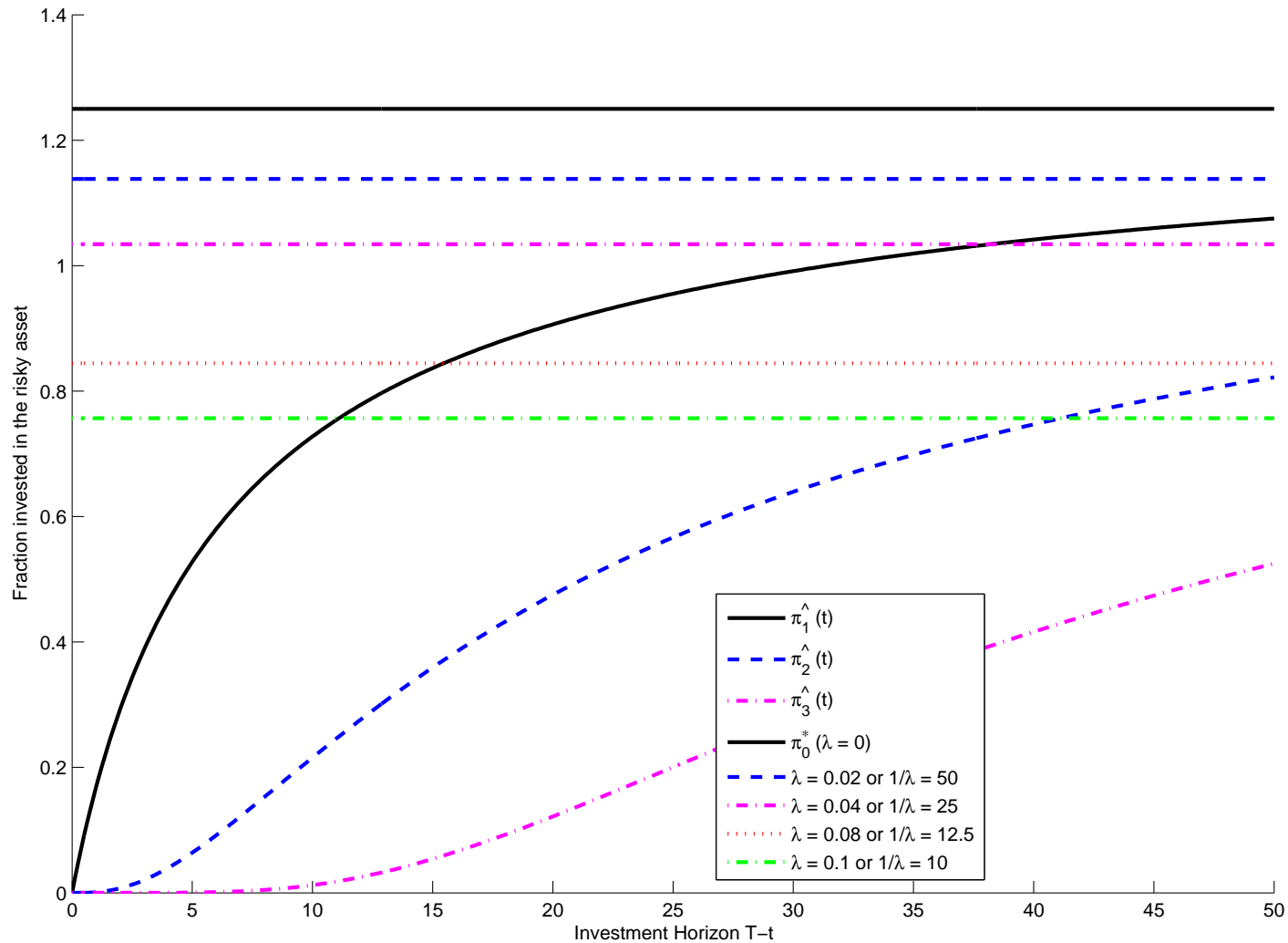
This crash indifference strategy is bounded by $0 \leq \hat{\pi} \leq \min\{\pi_0^*, \frac{1}{k^*}\}$.

- The optimal portfolio strategy for an investor, who wants to maximize her worst case scenario portfolio problem, is given by

$$\bar{\pi}(t) := \min\{\hat{\pi}(t), \pi_0^*\} \quad \text{for all } t \in [0, T]. \quad (6)$$

$\bar{\pi}$ will be named the **optimal crash hedging strategy**.

Examples of Worst Case Optimal Portfolio Strategies



This Figure is plotted with $\pi_0^* = 1.25$, $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r = 0.05$, $k = 0.25$, and $T = 50$. This implies that $\frac{\sigma_0^2 \pi_0^*}{k} = 0.3125$, $\Psi_0 \approx 0.098828$, and $\frac{1}{k^*} = 4$.

2. Literature Review

Worst Case Scenario Approach – Some References:

- Hua and Wilmott (1997) [→ Binomial Model Derivative Pricing],
- Korn and Wilmott (2002), [→ Portfolio Optimisation],
- Korn (2005) [→ Optimal Investment for Insurances],
- Korn and M. (2005) [→ Stochastic Control Approach],
- M. (2006) [→ Changing Market Coefficients after a Crash],
- Korn and Steffensen (2007) [→ Stochastic Differential Game],
- Seifried (2010) [→ Martingale Approach],
- Korn, M., Steffensen (2012) [→ Optimising Reinsurance],
- *Belak, M., Sass (2013)* [→ Transaction Costs],
- *Desmettre, Korn, Seifried (2013)* [→ Infinite Time Consumption Problem].

Remark: The worst case scenario optimisation problem is also known as *Wald's Maximin approach* (Wald 1945, 1950), which is a well-known concept in decision theory. There, this approach is known as **robust optimisation** (e.g. Bertsimas et al. (2011))
[→ usually involves optimisation procedure done by a computer].

- Mataramvura and Oksendal (2008), Oksendal and Sulem (2006, 2009, 2011) [→ Compute optimal strategies directly].

[→ perturbation analysis].

3 Explicit and Implicit Solutions

The following abbreviations will be used in order to get more concise formulae.

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta &:= \sqrt{\frac{2}{\sigma_0^2} [\Psi_0 - \Psi_1]}, & \kappa &:= \pi_0^* - \frac{1}{k^*}, \\ \Theta(t) &:= \sigma_0^2 \pi_0^* (T - t), & \eta &:= \frac{1}{2} \left[\pi_0^* + \frac{1}{k^*} \right].\end{aligned}$$

Proposition 3.1

With these conventions one has the following characterizations for the solutions of the differential equation (4) with the terminal condition (5).

i) If $\Psi_1 = \Psi_0$ and $\frac{1}{k^} = \pi_0^*$ (that is $\Delta = 0 = \kappa$), then*

$$\hat{\pi}(t) = \pi_0^* - \frac{\pi_0^*}{\sqrt{(\pi_0^*)^2 \sigma_0^2 (T - t) + 1}}.$$

ii) If $\Psi_1 = \Psi_0$ and $\frac{1}{k^} \neq \pi_0^*$ (that is $\Delta = 0$), then*

$$\frac{\sigma_0^2}{2} \kappa^2 (T - t) = \ln \left(\frac{\pi_0^* - \hat{\pi}(t)}{\pi_0^* [1 - \hat{\pi}(t)k^*]} \right) + \frac{\kappa}{\pi_0^*} \frac{\hat{\pi}(t)}{\hat{\pi}(t) - \pi_0^*}. \quad (7)$$

4 Approximating Implicit Solutions

Proposition 4.1

In the situation of $\Psi_1 = \Psi_0$ and $\pi_0^* \neq \frac{1}{k^*}$ (see Proposition 3.1), there exists three different explicit approximations of equation (7):

(a) An approximation of $\hat{\pi}(t)$ in equation (7) is given by

$$\tilde{\pi}_a(t) = \frac{\pi_0^*}{2} + \frac{1}{2k^*} + \frac{1}{\Theta(t)} - \sqrt{\left(\frac{\pi_0^*}{2} + \frac{1}{2k^*} + \frac{1}{\Theta(t)}\right)^2 - \frac{\pi_0^*}{k^*}}. \quad (8)$$

This approximation holds always if $0 \leq \pi_0^* < \frac{1}{k^*}$. If $\pi_0^* > \frac{1}{k^*}$, then the approximation holds for those $t \in [0, T]$ for which the inequality

$$\hat{\pi}(t) \leq \frac{\pi_0^*}{2\pi_0^*k^* - 1}$$

is satisfied. In the case of $\pi_0^* > \frac{1}{k^*}$, the error of this approximation has the following upper bound

$$|\varepsilon_{\tilde{\pi}_a}(t)| \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\hat{\pi}(t)}{\pi_0^*}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{(\pi_0^*k^* - 1)^2}{(1 - \hat{\pi}(t)k^*)^2}. \quad (9)$$

(b) Another explicit approximation of $\hat{\pi}(t)$ is given by

$$\tilde{\pi}_b(t) = \pi_0^* - \frac{k^* \pi_0^*}{k^* + \frac{1}{2} \Theta(t)}. \quad (10)$$

This approximation holds always if $\pi_0^* > \frac{1}{k^*}$. If $\pi_0^* < \frac{1}{k^*}$, then the approximation holds for those $t \in [0, T]$ for which the inequality

$$\hat{\pi}(t) \leq \frac{\pi_0^*}{2 - \pi_0^* k^*}$$

is satisfied. In the case of $\pi_0^* < \frac{1}{k^*}$, the error of this approximation has the following bound

$$|\varepsilon_{\tilde{\pi}_b}(t)| \leq \frac{\hat{\pi}^2(t)}{2} \cdot \frac{(1 - \pi_0^* k^*)^2}{(\pi_0^* - \hat{\pi}(t))^2}. \quad (11)$$

(c) Yet another explicit approximation of $\hat{\pi}(t)$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\pi}_c(t) &= \pi_0^* \left[1 - \frac{\frac{1}{4} \Theta(t) \kappa + \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{2} \Theta(t) [\pi_0^* + \frac{1}{k^*}] + \frac{1}{16} \Theta^2(t) \kappa^2}}{1 + \frac{1}{2} \Theta(t) [\pi_0^* + \frac{1}{k^*}]} \right] \\ &= \pi_0^* \left[1 - \frac{\frac{1}{4} \Theta(t) \kappa + \sqrt{(1 + \frac{1}{4} \Theta(t) \kappa)^2 + \frac{\Theta(t)}{k^*}}}{1 + \frac{1}{2} \Theta(t) [\pi_0^* + \frac{1}{k^*}]} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Lemma 4.2

We have the following inequalities for the approximations in Proposition 4.1:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\pi}_b(t) \geq \hat{\pi}(t) \geq \tilde{\pi}_a(t) \quad \text{and} \\ \hat{\pi}(t) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} < \tilde{\pi}_c(t) \quad \text{if } \pi_0^* > \frac{1}{k^*} \\ > \tilde{\pi}_c(t) \quad \text{if } \pi_0^* < \frac{1}{k^*} \end{array} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

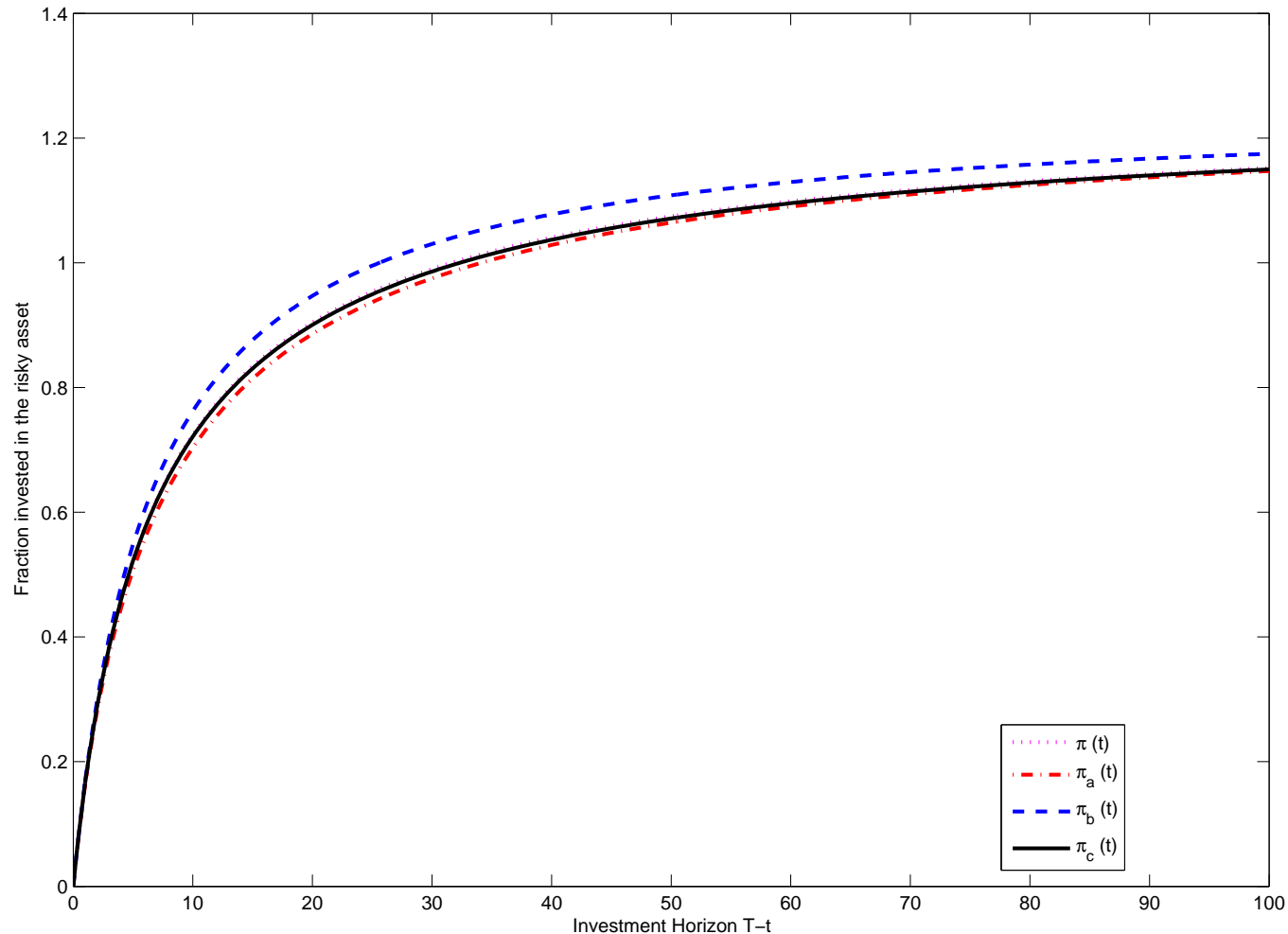
for all $t \in [0, T]$ with strict inequality applying for all $t < T$.

Proof: This follows directly from the corresponding properties of the different approximations for the logarithm:

$$\begin{aligned} x - 1 \geq \ln(x) \geq \frac{x - 1}{x} \quad \text{and} \\ \ln(x) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} < 2 \frac{x-1}{x+1} \quad \text{if } x < 1 \\ > 2 \frac{x-1}{x+1} \quad \text{if } x > 1 \end{array} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

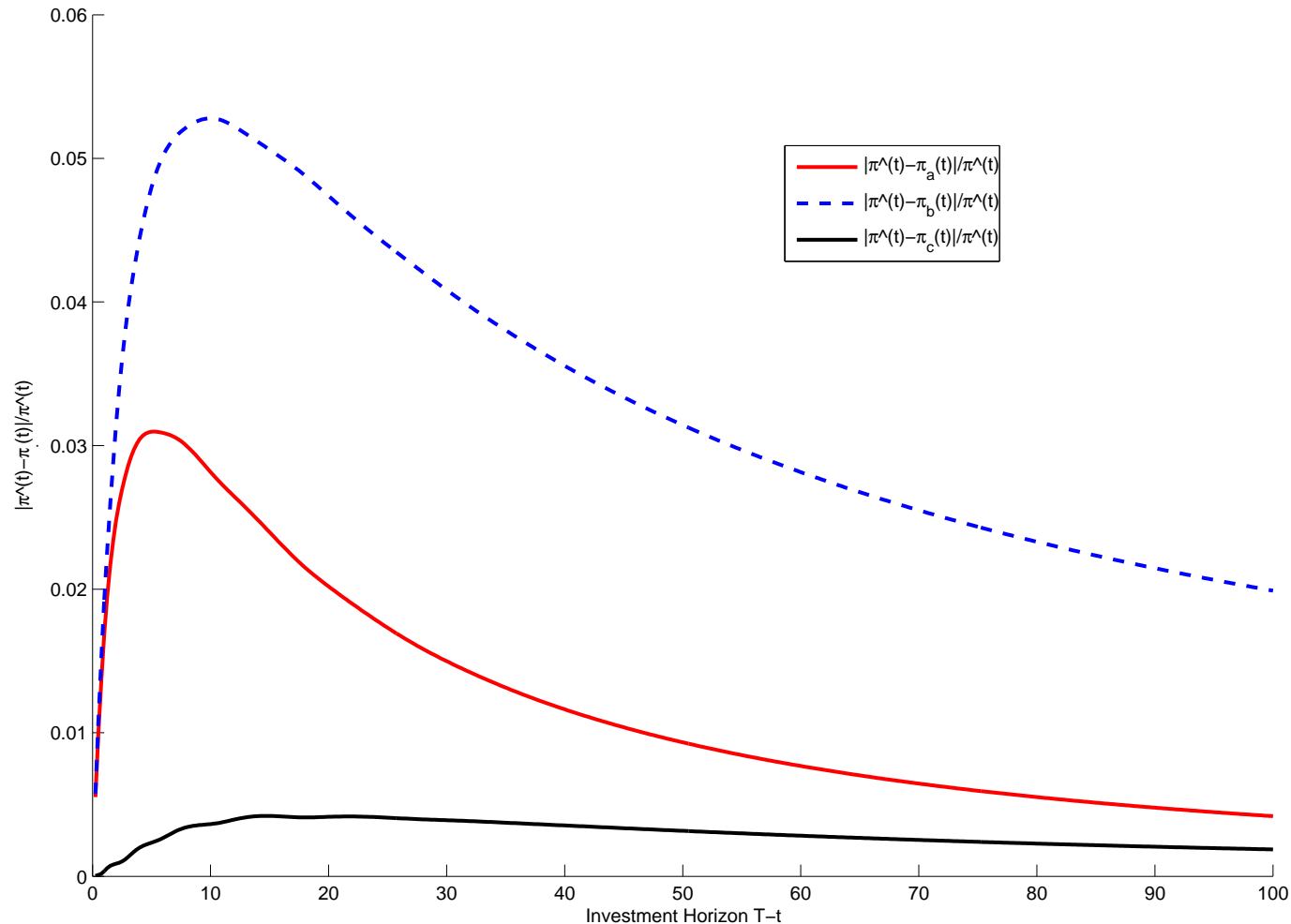
The condition $x < 1$ corresponds to the condition $\pi_0^* < \frac{1}{k^*}$ if $\hat{\pi}(t) > 0$. (If $\hat{\pi}(t) < 0$, the condition would be $\pi_0^* > \frac{1}{k^*}$). \square

Comparing Approximations for $\hat{\pi}(t)$ in the Case of $\pi_0^* < \frac{1}{k^*}$



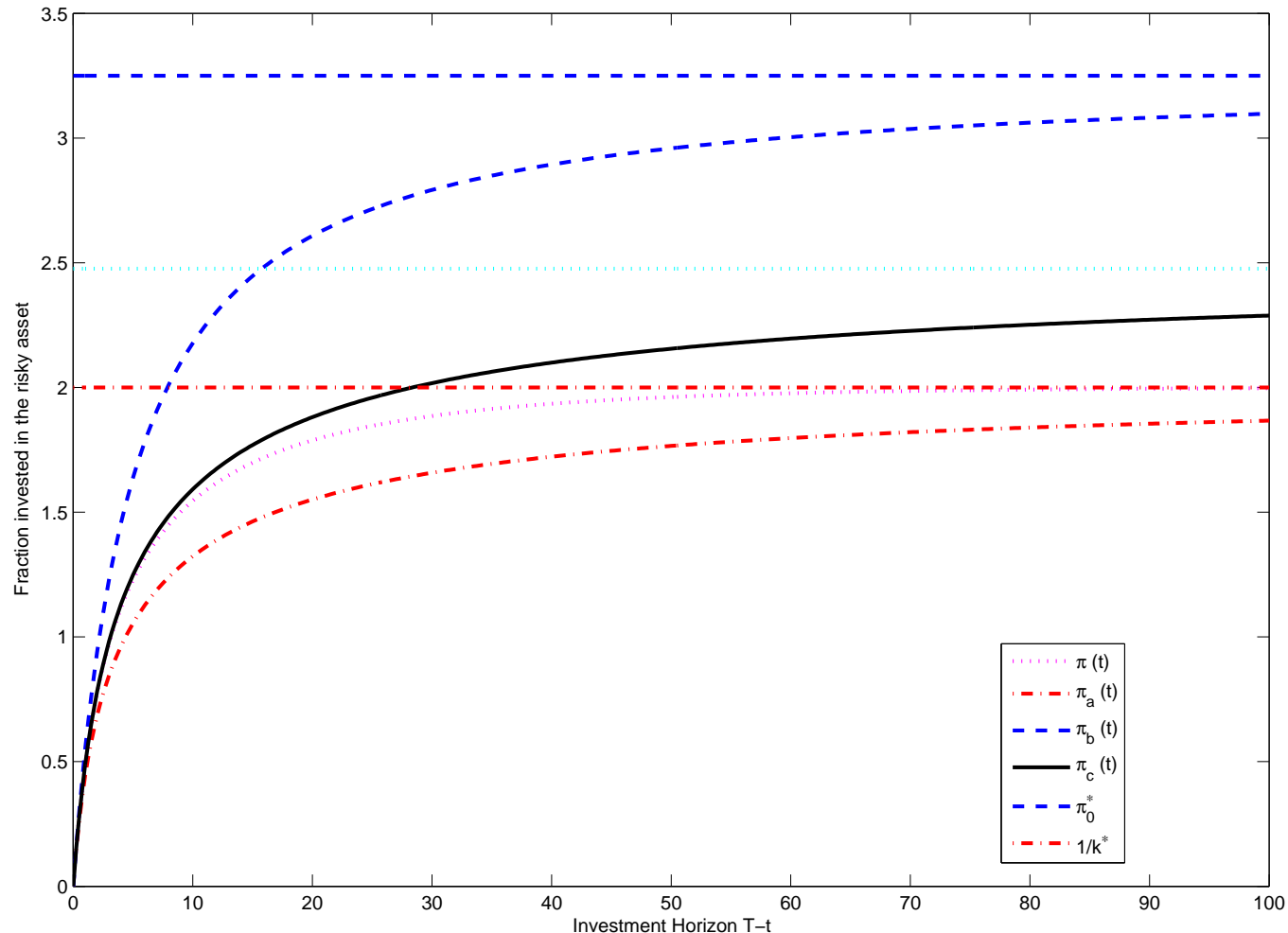
This Figure is plotted with $\pi_0^* = 1.25$, $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r = 0.05$, $k^* = 0.25$, and $T = 100$. This implies that $\Psi_0 \approx 0.0988$, $\frac{1}{k^*} = 4$. The bounds $\frac{\pi_0^*}{2k^*\pi_0^*-1} \approx -3.3333$ and $\frac{\pi_0^*}{2-k^*\pi_0^*} \approx 0.7407$ should be obliged by $\tilde{\pi}_a$ and $\tilde{\pi}_b$, respectively. Of these, only the latter is relevant.

Absolute Relative Difference in the Case of $\pi_0^* < \frac{1}{k^*}$



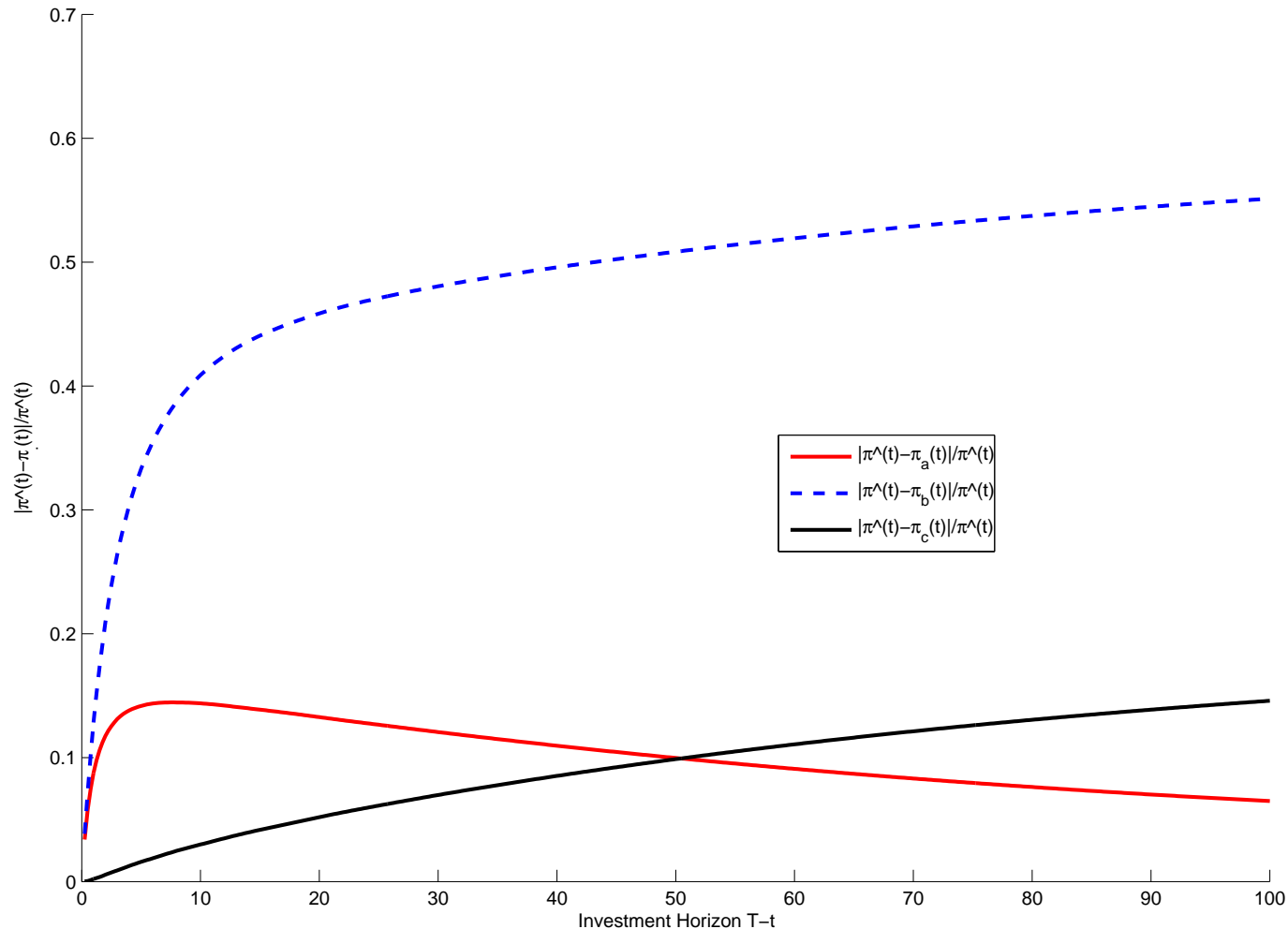
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Comparing Approximations for $\hat{\pi}(t)$ in the Case of $\pi_0^* > \frac{1}{k^*}$



This Figure is plotted with $\pi_0^* = 3.25$, $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r = 0.05$, $k^* = 0.5$, and $T = 100$. This implies that $\Psi_0 \approx 0.3801$, $\frac{1}{k^*} = 2$. The bounds $\frac{\pi_0^*}{2k^*\pi_0^*-1} \approx 1.4444$ and $\frac{\pi_0^*}{2-k^*\pi_0^*} \approx 8.6667$ should be obliged by $\tilde{\pi}_a$ and $\tilde{\pi}_b$, respectively. Of these, only the first is relevant.

Absolute Relative Difference in the Case of $\pi_0^* > \frac{1}{k^*}$



This Figure is plotted with $\pi_0^* = 3.25$, $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r = 0.05$, $k^* = 0.5$, and $T = 100$. This implies that $\Psi_0 \approx 0.3801$, $\frac{1}{k^*} = 2$. The bounds $\frac{\pi_0^*}{2k^*\pi_0^* - 1} \approx 1.4444$ and $\frac{\pi_0^*}{2 - k^*\pi_0^*} \approx 8.6667$ should be obliged by $\tilde{\pi}_a$ and $\tilde{\pi}_b$, respectively. Of these, only the first is relevant.

5 Approximating the Value Function

Corollary 5.1

In the special case of $\Psi_0 = \Psi_1$ and $\pi_0^ = \frac{1}{k^*}$ (that is $\pi_0^* \geq 1$), the value function is given by*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{J}_0(t, x, \hat{\pi}(t)) = \hat{v}(t, x) &= \nu_1(t, x [1 - \hat{\pi}(t)k^*]) \\ &= \ln(x) + \Psi_0(T - t) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(\sigma_0^2 [\pi_0^*]^2 [T - t] + 1). \end{aligned}$$

Note that either \mathcal{J}_0 or ν_1 can be used to calculate the value function \hat{v} and both give the same result given in the Corollary.

Proposition 5.2

In the case of $\Psi_0 = \Psi_1$ and $\pi_0^* \neq \frac{1}{k^*}$, the following performance functions can be used as an approximation for the value function $\hat{v}(t, x)$:

$$(i) \quad \nu_1(t, x [1 - \tilde{\pi}_a(t)k^*]) = \ln(x) + \Psi_0(T - t) + \ln \left(-\frac{k^*\kappa}{2} - \frac{k^*}{\Theta(t)} + \sqrt{\left(k^*\eta + \frac{k^*}{\Theta(t)}\right)^2 - k^*\pi_0^*} \right).$$

$$(ii) \quad \mathcal{J}_0^b(t, x, \tilde{\pi}_b(t)) = \ln(x) + \Psi_0(T - t) - \frac{\pi_0^*k^*\Theta(t)}{\pi_0^*\Theta(t) + 2k^*}.$$

$$(iii) \quad \nu_1(t, x [1 - \tilde{\pi}_b(t)k^*]) = \ln(x) + \Psi_0(T - t) + \ln \left(1 - \frac{k^*\pi_0^*\Theta(t)}{2k^* + \Theta(t)} \right).$$

$$(iv) \quad \mathcal{J}_0^c(t, x, \tilde{\pi}_c(t)) = \ln(x) + \Psi_0(T - t) + \frac{\pi_0^*\kappa}{2\eta^2} + \frac{[\pi_0^*]^2}{\eta^3k^*} \ln(8\pi_0^*) +$$

$$- \frac{\pi_0^*\kappa}{16\eta^2} [2 + \eta\Theta(t)] \frac{\kappa\Theta(t) + \sqrt{\Theta^2(t)\kappa^2 + 16\eta\Theta(t) + 16}}{1 + \eta\Theta(t)} +$$

$$- \frac{[\pi_0^*]^2}{2\eta^3k^*} \left\{ \ln \left(8\eta + \kappa^2\Theta(t) + \kappa\sqrt{\kappa^2\Theta^2(t) + 16 + 16\eta\Theta(t)} \right) + \right.$$

$$\left. + \ln \left(8\eta + [8\eta^2 - \kappa^2]\Theta(t) + \kappa\sqrt{\kappa^2\Theta^2(t) + 16\eta\Theta(t) + 16} \right) \right\}.$$

$$(v) \quad \nu_1(t, x [1 - \tilde{\pi}_c(t)k^*]) = \ln(x) + \Psi_0(T - t) + \\ + \ln \left(1 - \pi_0^* k^* \left[1 - \frac{\frac{1}{4} \Theta(t) \kappa + \sqrt{(1 + \frac{1}{4} \Theta(t) \kappa)^2 + \frac{\Theta(t)}{k^*}}}{1 + \eta \Theta(t)} \right] \right).$$

Moreover, one has that

$$(a) \quad \mathcal{J}_0^a(t, x, \tilde{\pi}_a(t)) \leq \hat{\nu}(t, x) \leq \nu_1(t, x [1 - \tilde{\pi}_a(t)k^*])$$

$$(b) \quad \mathcal{J}_0^b(t, x, \tilde{\pi}_b(t)) \geq \hat{\nu}(t, x) \geq \nu_1(t, x [1 - \tilde{\pi}_b(t)k^*])$$

$$(c) \quad \mathcal{J}_0^c(t, x, \tilde{\pi}_c(t)) \begin{cases} \geq \\ \leq \end{cases} \hat{\nu}(t, x) \begin{cases} \geq \\ \leq \end{cases} \nu_1(t, x [1 - \tilde{\pi}_c(t)k^*]) \quad \text{if} \quad \begin{cases} \pi_0^* > \frac{1}{k^*} \\ \pi_0^* < \frac{1}{k^*} \end{cases}$$

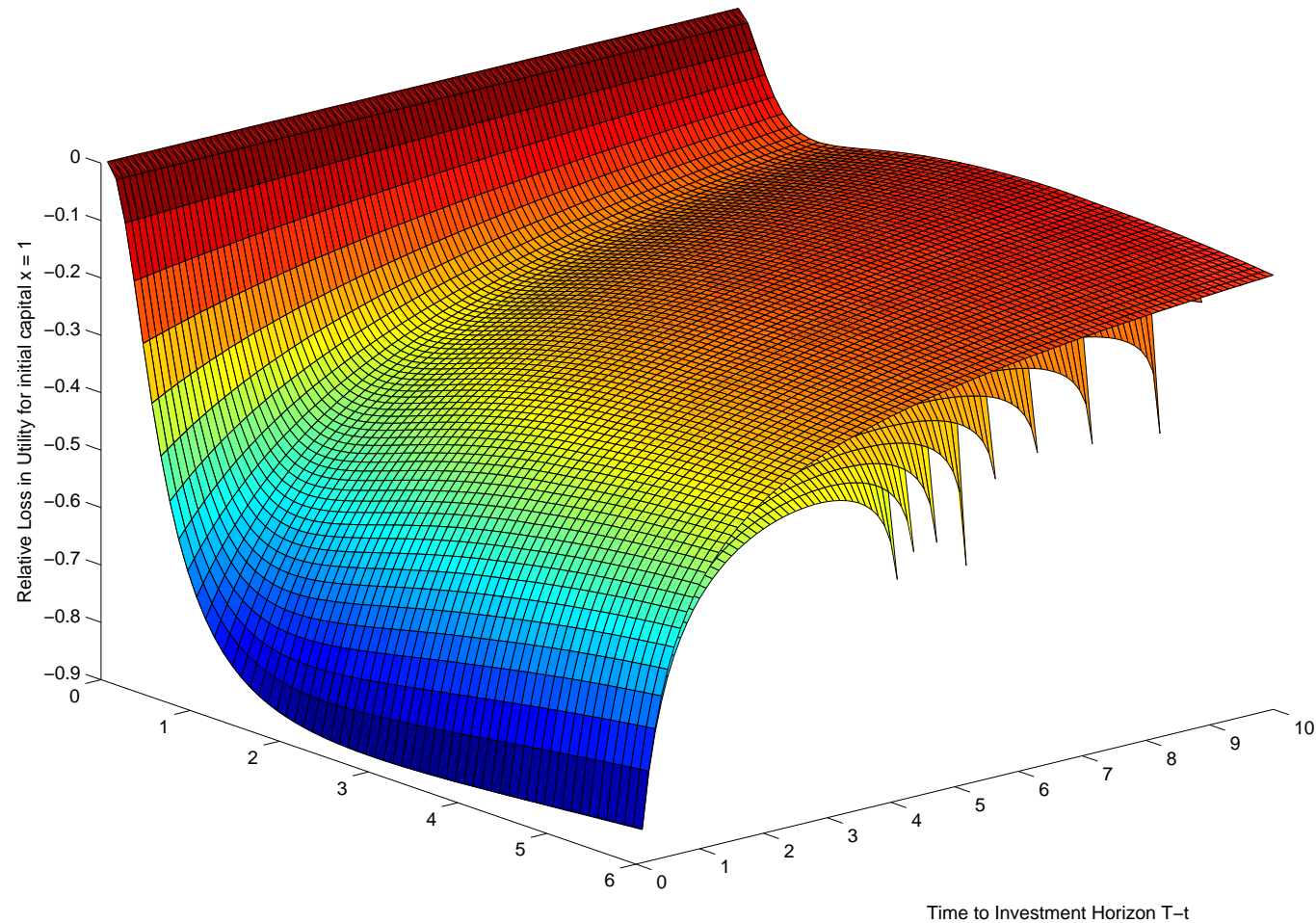
with strict inequality applying for $t < T$.

6 Costs and Benefits

Let us define the **relative loss of utility** by

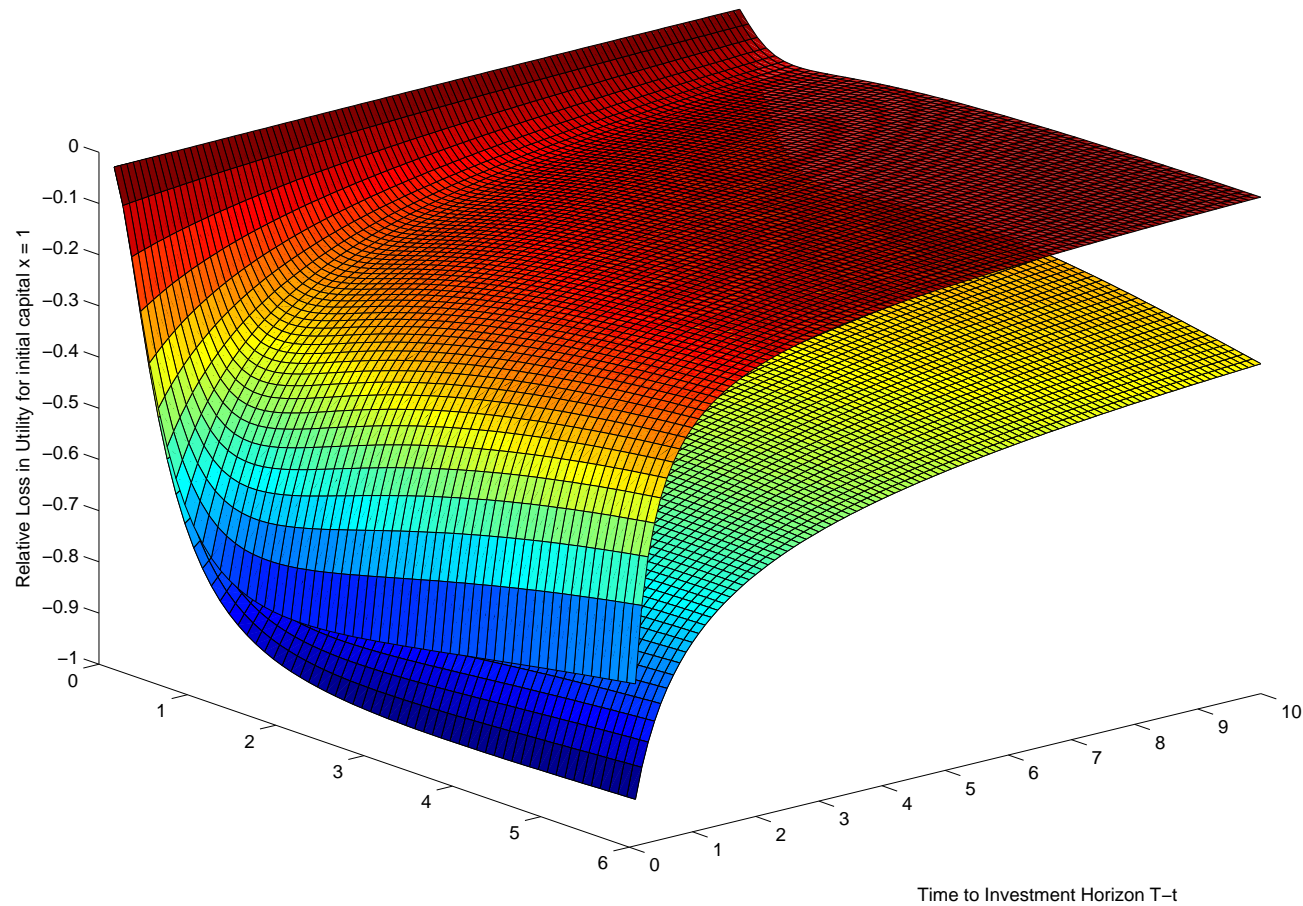
$$\frac{\mathcal{J}_0^c(t, x, \tilde{\pi}_c(t)) - \nu_0(t, x)}{\nu_0(t, x)},$$

Relative Utility Loss using $\mathcal{J}_0^c(t, x, \tilde{\pi}_c(t))$



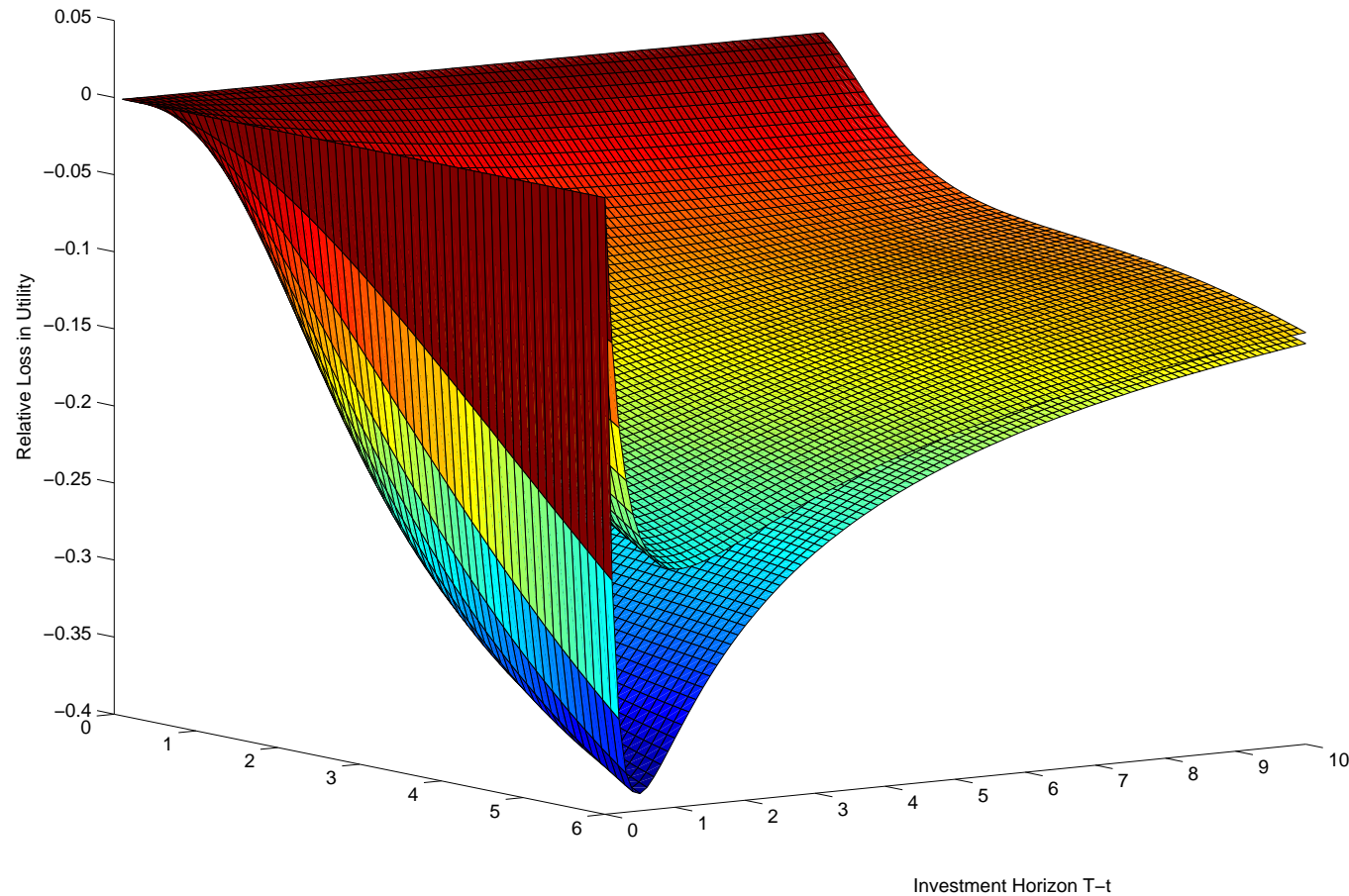
This Figure is plotted with $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r_0 = 0.03$, $k^* = 0.25$, $T = 10$, and an initial capital of $x = 1$. This implies that $\frac{\pi_0^*}{k^*} = 4$.

Relative Utility Loss using $\mathcal{J}_n^c(t, x, \tilde{\pi}_c(t))$



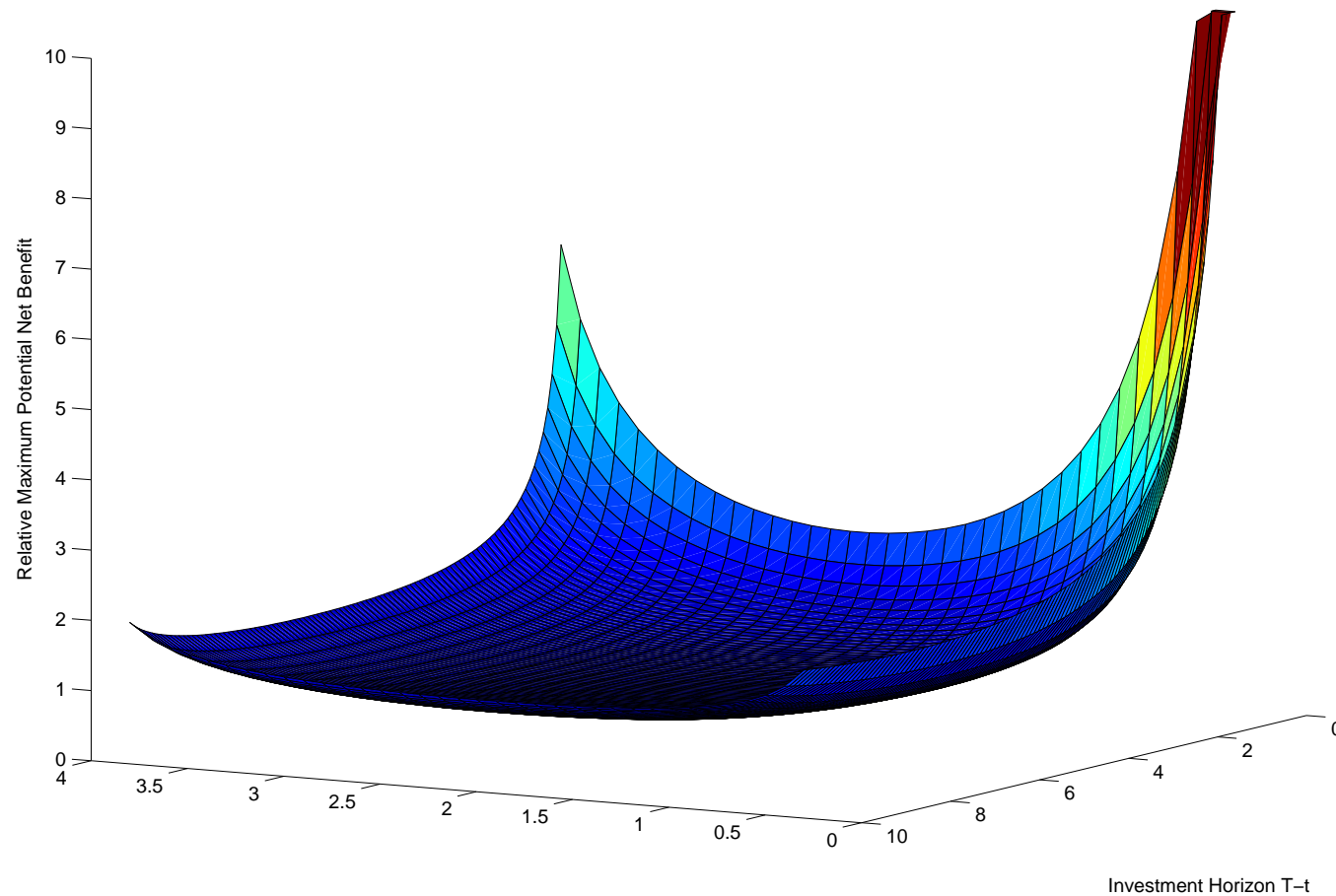
This Figure is plotted with $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r_0 = 0.03$, $T = 10$, and an initial capital of $x = 1$. The upper surface is the case $k^* = 0.1$ and the lower surface is $k^* = 0.5$.

Relative Utility Loss using $\mathcal{J}_n^c(t, x, \tilde{\pi}_c(t))$



This Figure is plotted with $\pi_0^* = 0.25$, $r_0 = 0.03$, $T = 10$, and $k^* = 0.25$. The upper surface is the case $x = 10$ and the lower surface is $x = 2$.

Relative Maximum Potential Net Benefit using $\mathcal{J}_n^c(t, x, \tilde{\pi}_c(t))$



This Figure is plotted with $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r_0^* = 0.03$, and $T = 10$.

7 Efficiency of Crash Hedging

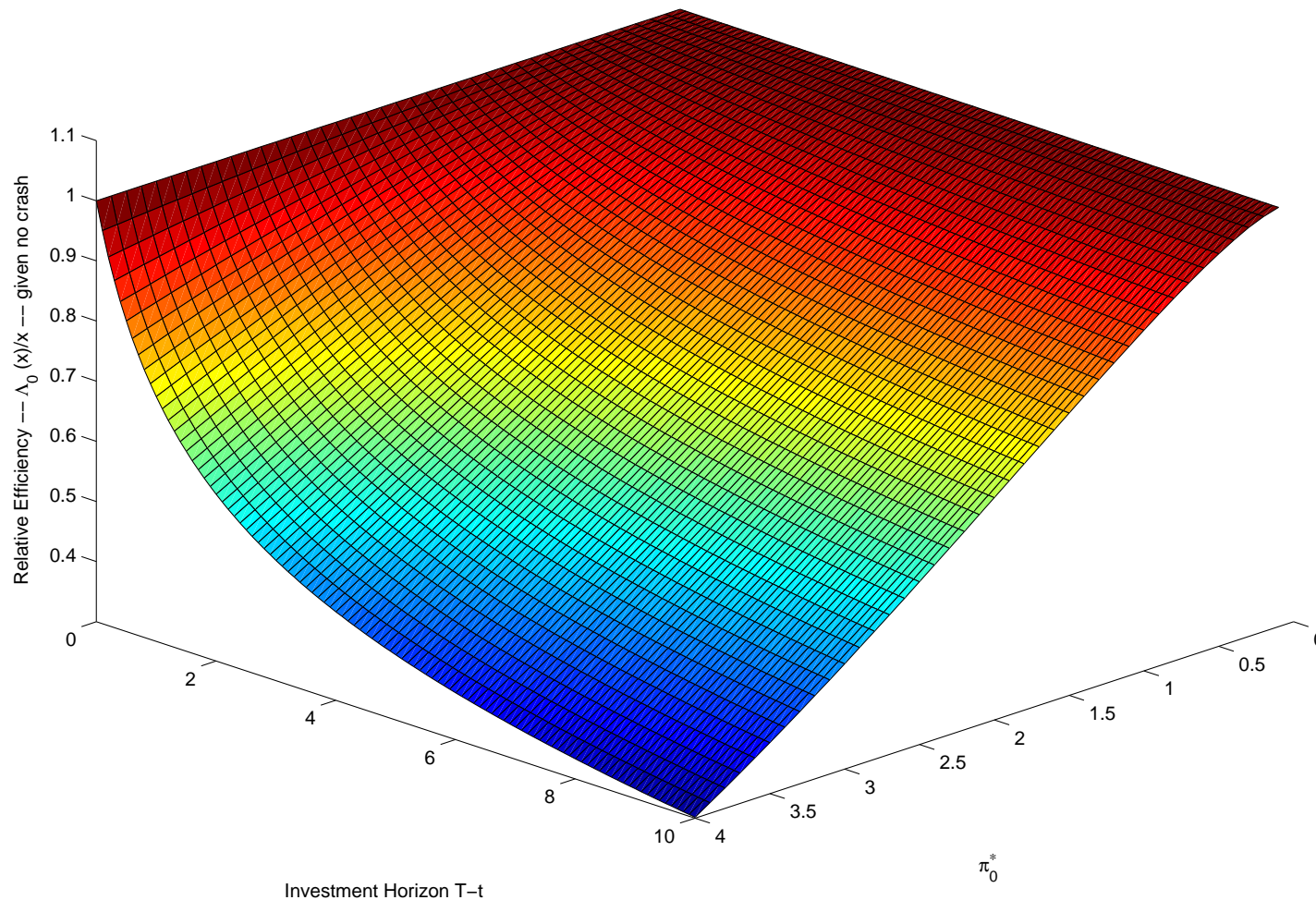
There is another possibility to compare the performance of the crash hedging strategy with the performance of the classical optimal Merton strategy. This is known as **efficiency** and is defined as follows (see e.g. Rogers (2013))

$$\hat{\nu}(t, x) = \nu_0(t, \Lambda_0(x)) ,$$

where $\Lambda_0(x)$ is the efficiency of the optimal worst case portfolio strategy $\hat{\pi}$ compared to the classical case of Merton with optimal portfolio strategy π_0^* in the initial market (assuming that no crash happens). The definition means that $\Lambda_0(x)$ is the amount of initial capital needed in the classical Merton case to ensure the same utility as in the considered worst case scenario approach with initial capital x . Since the worst case scenario approach can be considered as the classical Merton case with an additional constraint, it is clear that $0 \leq \Lambda_0(x) \leq 1$. This should be compared with the case that a crash of the worst possible size happens, that is

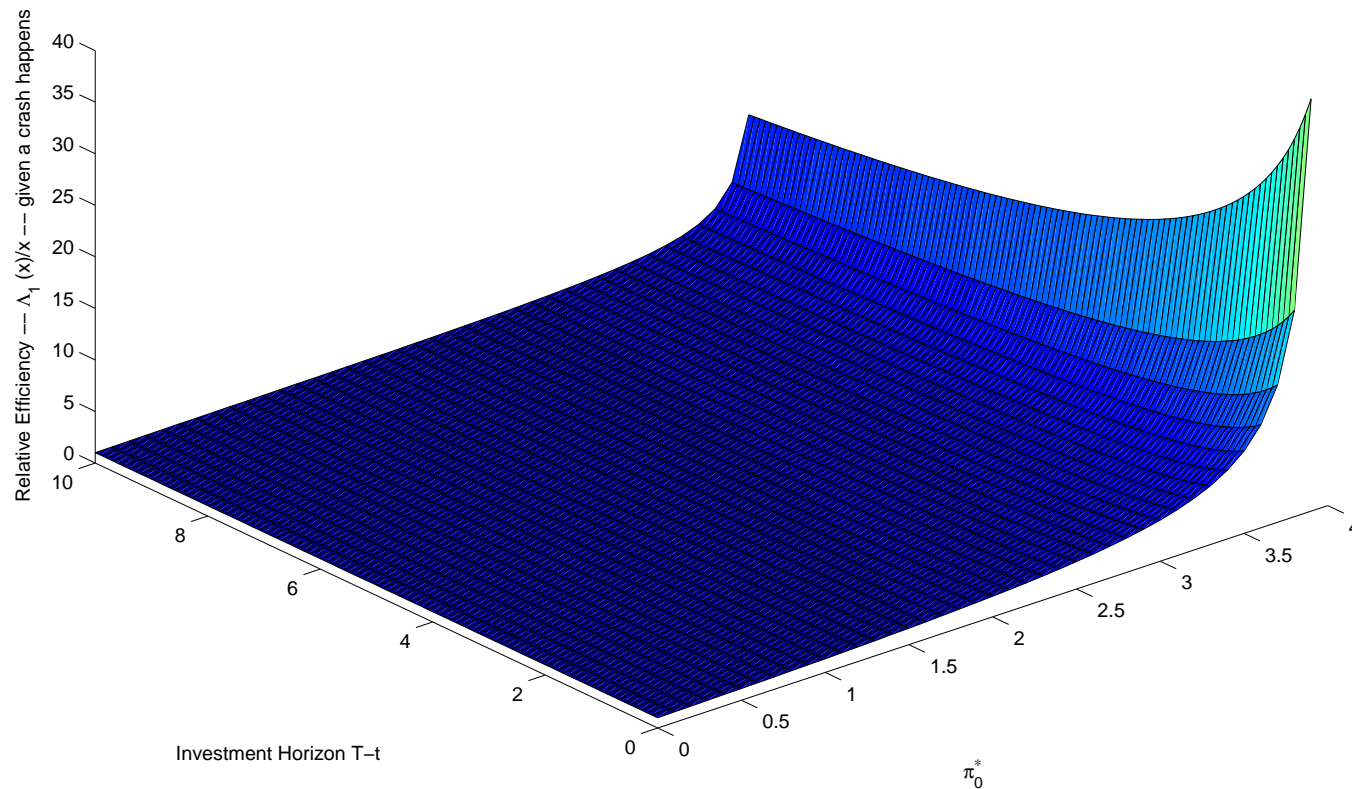
$$\hat{\nu}(t, x) = \nu_1(t, \Lambda_1(x) [1 - \pi_0^* k^*]) .$$

Efficiency per Unit of Initial Capital $\frac{\Lambda_0^{0,c}(x)}{x}$ without Crash



This Figure is plotted assuming $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r_0 = 0.03$, $k^* = 0.25$, $T = 10$, and using the approximation \mathcal{J}_0^c .

Efficiency per Unit of Initial Capital $\frac{\Lambda_1^{0,c}(x)}{x}$ with Crash



This Figure is plotted assuming $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r_0 = 0.03$, $k^* = 0.25$, $T = 10$, and using the approximation \mathcal{J}_0^c .

8 Break Even Crash Sizes

Let us calculate the crash size $k(t) \in [0, k^*]$ with $t \in [s, T]$ for which

$$\nu_1 \left(t, X_0^{\pi_0^*, s, x}(t) [1 - \pi_0^* k(t)] \right) = \nu_1 \left(t, X_0^{\hat{\pi}, s, x}(t) [1 - \hat{\pi}(t) k(t)] \right) \quad (13)$$

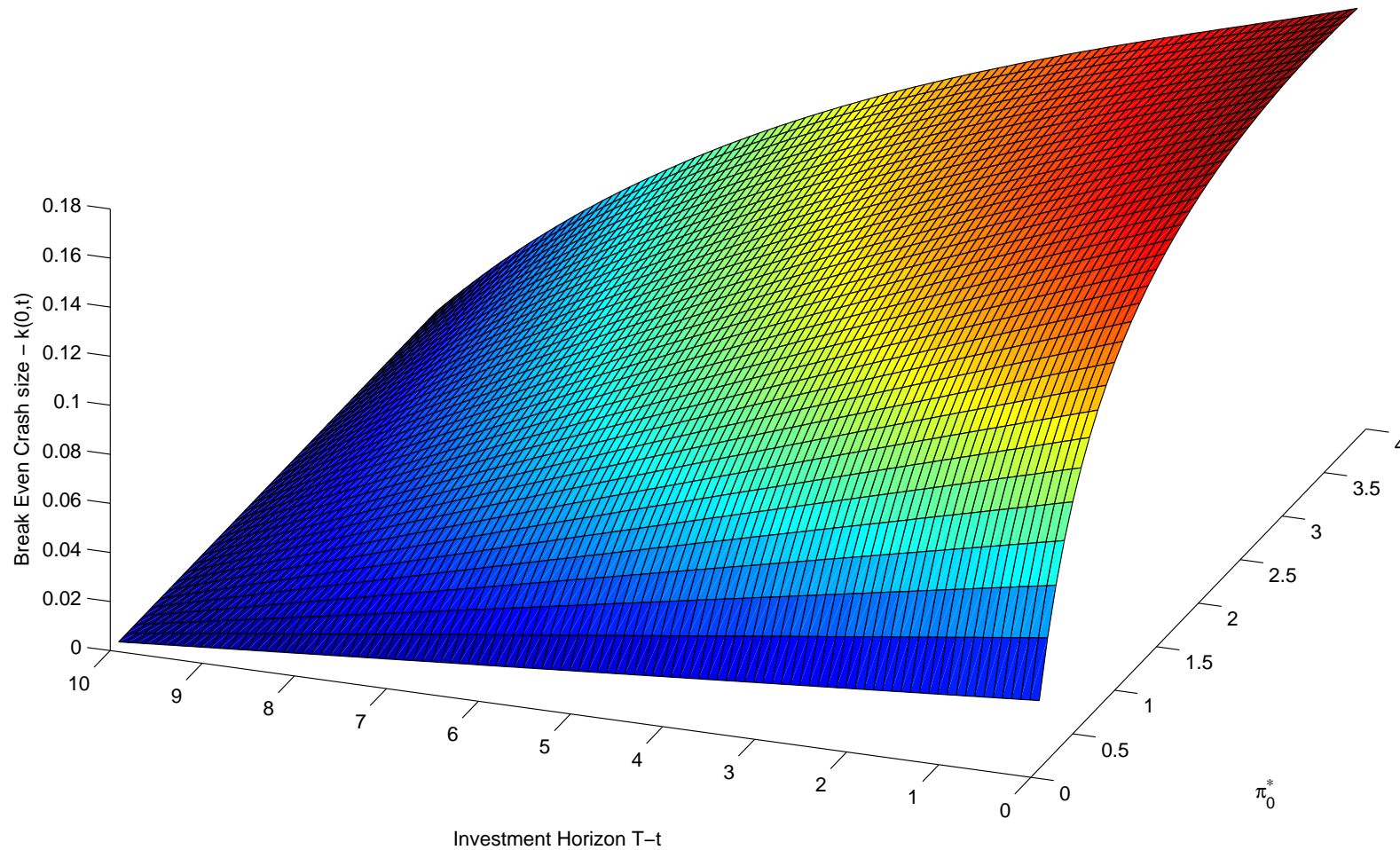
with initial endowment x at time s . Obviously, $k(t)$ is the crash size at time t which makes the investor indifferent between using the optimal worst case portfolio strategy $\hat{\pi}$ or using the classical optimal Merton strategy π_0^* . Equation (13) can be simplified to

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[\ln \left(X_0^{\pi_0^*, s, x}(t) \right) \right] + \ln (1 - \pi_0^* k(t)) \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[\ln \left(X_0^{\hat{\pi}, s, x}(t) \right) \right] + \ln (1 - \hat{\pi}(t) k(t)) \\ \iff k(t) &= \frac{\exp \left(\frac{\sigma_0^2}{2} \int_s^t (\hat{\pi}(u) - \pi_0^*)^2 du \right) - 1}{\pi_0^* \exp \left(\frac{\sigma_0^2}{2} \int_s^t (\hat{\pi}(u) - \pi_0^*)^2 du \right) - \hat{\pi}(t)}, \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathcal{J}_0(s, t, x, \pi) := \mathbb{E} \left[\ln \left(X_0^{\pi, s, x}(t) \right) \right]$.

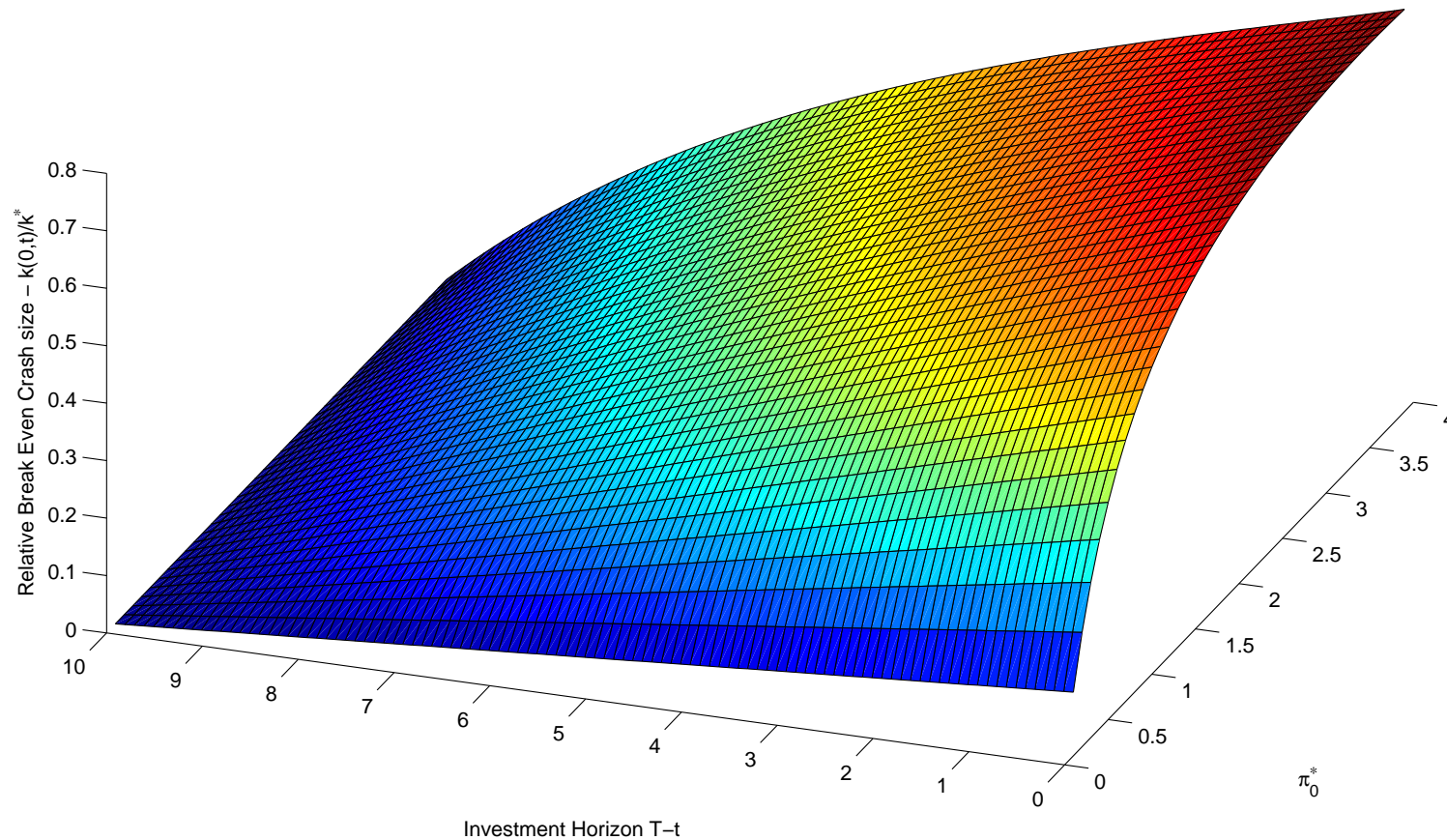
Since $\hat{\pi}(t) \leq \pi_0^*$ for all $t \in [0, T]$ and $\nu_1(t, x [1 - \pi(t)k])$ is decreasing in k for any fixed $t, k, \pi(t)$, it follows that for crash sizes below $k(t)$, the Merton investor (using π_0^*) has a higher utility than the crash hedging investor (using $\hat{\pi}(t)$). Correspondingly, for crash sizes above $k(t)$ the utility of the crash hedging investor will be higher than the utility of the Merton investor.

Break Even Crash Height $k(t)$



This Figure is plotted with $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r_0 = 0.03$, $k^* = 0.25$, $T = 10$, and using the approximation \mathcal{J}_0^c .

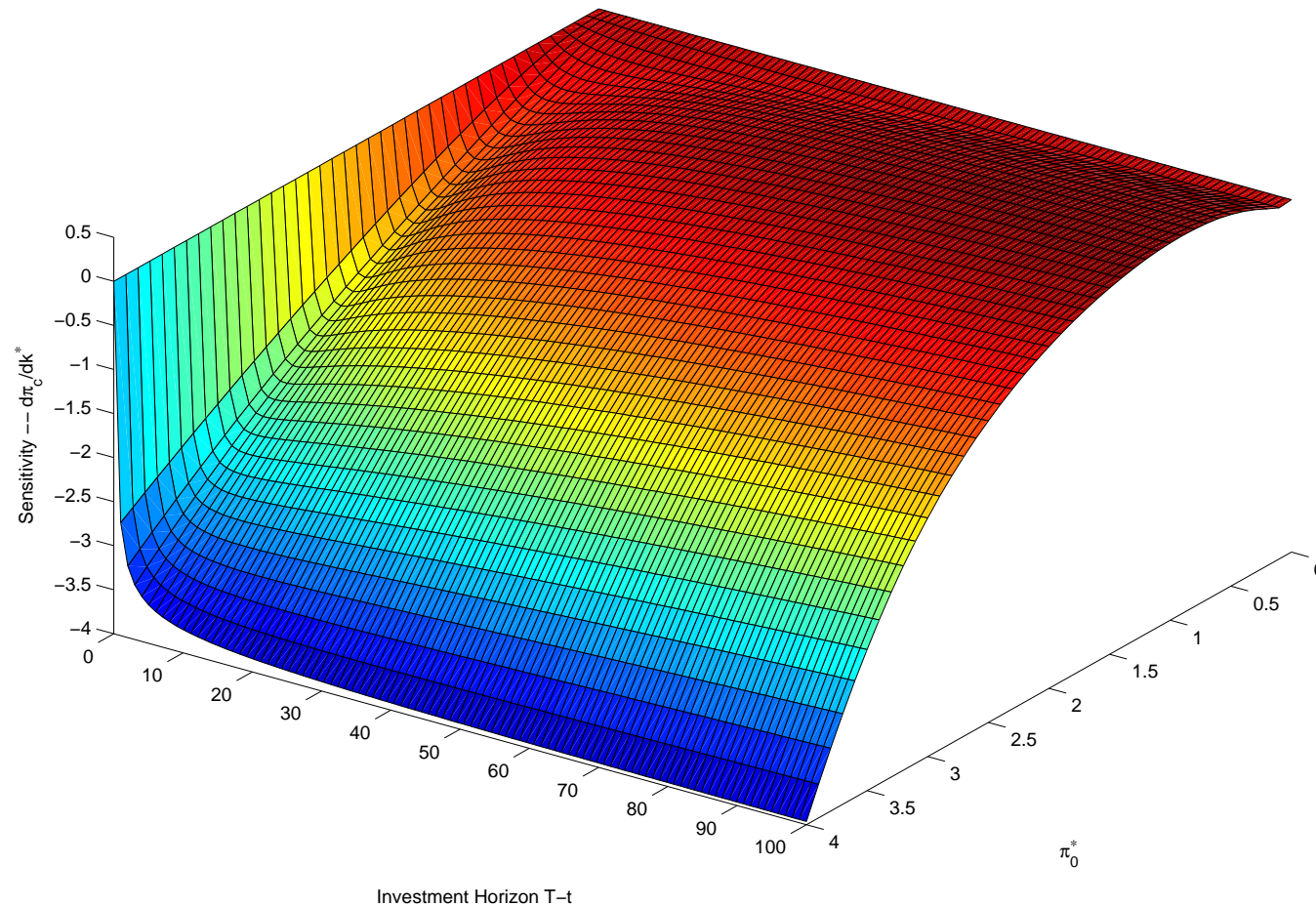
Relative Break Even Crash Height $\frac{k(t)}{k^*}$



This Figure is plotted with $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r_0 = 0.03$, $k^* = 0.25$, $T = 10$, and using the approximation \mathcal{J}_0^c .

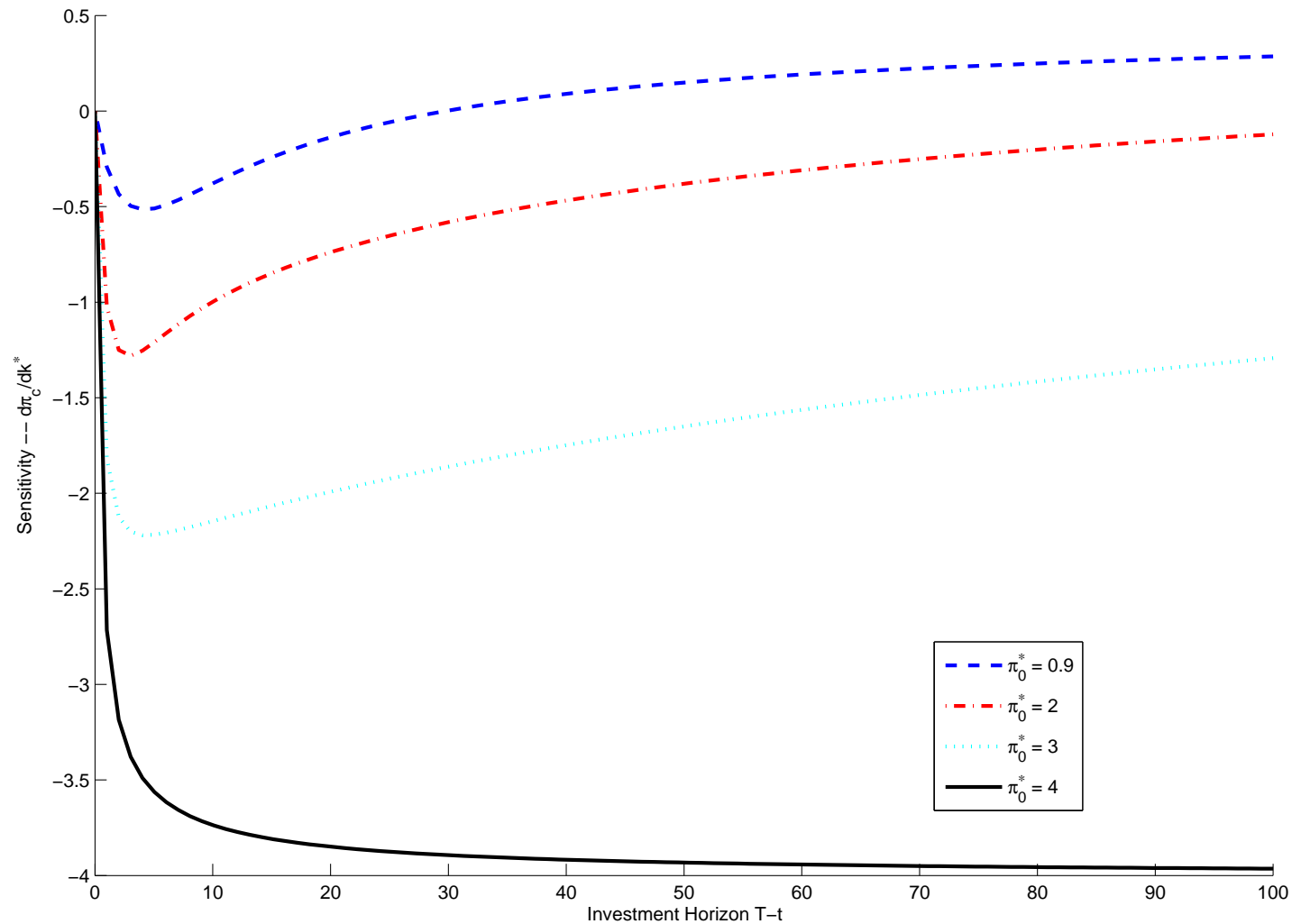
9 Sensitivities with Respect to k^*

Sensitivity of $\pi_c(t)$ with Respect to k^*



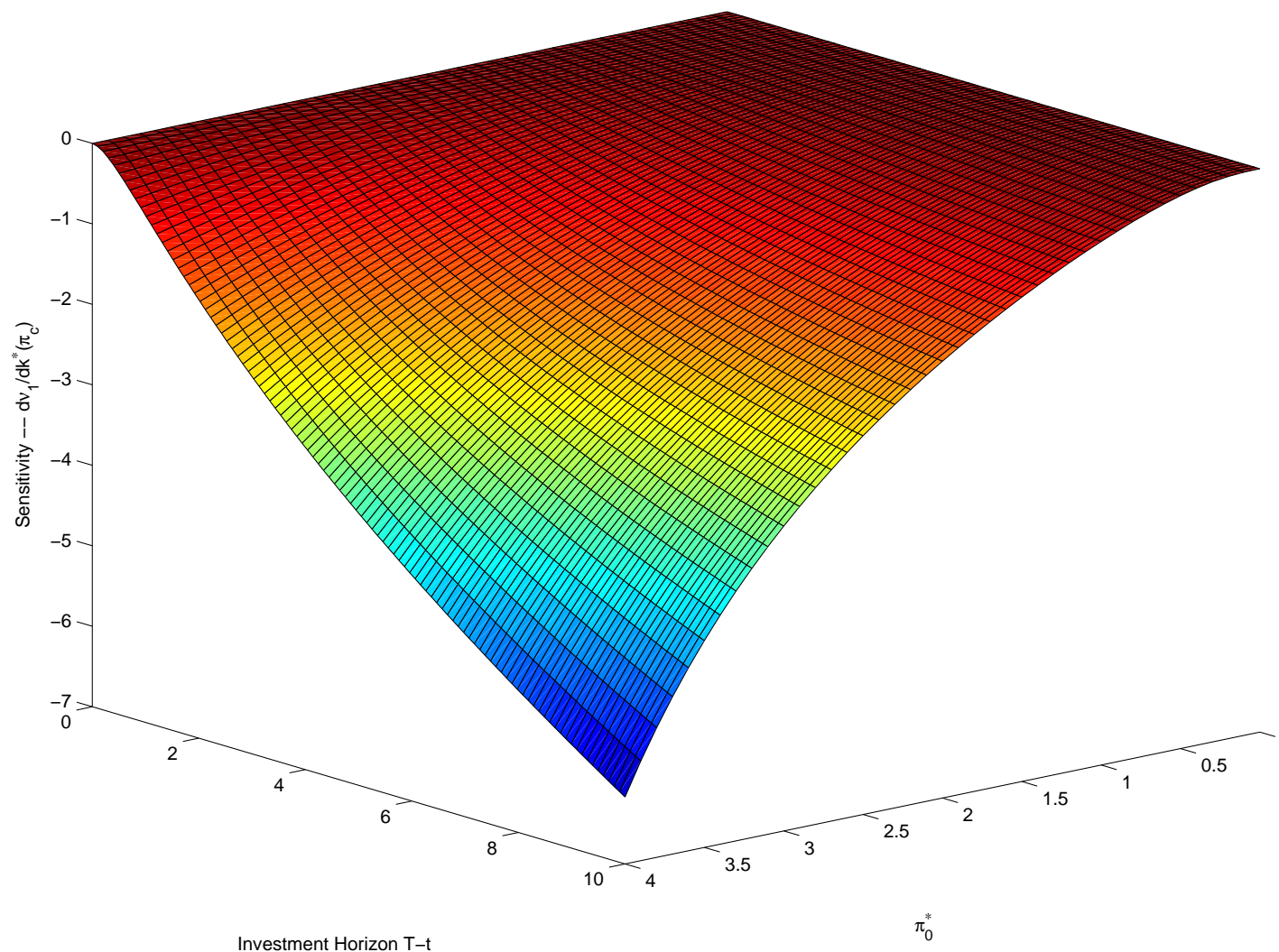
This Figure is plotted with $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r_0 = 0.03$, $k^* = 0.25$, and using the approximation $\pi_c(t)$.

Sensitivity of $\pi_c(t)$ with Respect to k^*



This Figure is plotted with $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r_0 = 0.03$, $k^* = 0.25$, and using the approximation $\pi_c(t)$.

Sensitivity of ν_1^C with Respect to k^*



This Figure is plotted with $\sigma_0 = 0.25$, $r_0 = 0.03$, $k^* = 0.25$, and using the approximation ν_1^C .