



## Insurance decisions

Actuarial Science, HT 2012

Daniel Clarke

### Indemnity insurance and loading

**Definition.** An indemnity insurance contract is a pair  $(P, I(\cdot))$  where the premium  $P \geq 0$  is paid to the insurer and claim payment is  $I(x) \geq 0$  when loss is  $x$ .

**Definition.** For a random nonnegative loss  $\tilde{x}$  and an indemnity insurance contract which pays  $I(x)$  in each state  $x$  and costs a premium of  $P$ , the loading  $\lambda$  is defined such that

$$P = (1 + \lambda)\mathbb{E}I(\tilde{x})$$

The product is termed

- Actuarially fair if  $\lambda = 0$
- Actuarially unfair if  $\lambda > 0$

**Note.** Most real life insurance products are actuarially unfair, since the insurer must cover expected claim outgo as well as expenses and profits.

## General environment

We will consider the following environment

- Decision maker is strictly nonsatiated and risk averse with twice differentiable utility function  $u$ 
  - $u'(x) > 0, u''(x) < 0 \forall x$ .
- Initial wealth of  $w_0$  but subject to risky loss of  $\tilde{x}$ 
  - Final net wealth is  $w_0 - \tilde{x}$
  - Assume that  $\tilde{x}$  is nondegenerate (i.e. it really is risky) and is nonnegative
- Indemnity insurance can be purchased which pays  $I(x) \geq 0$  when loss is  $x$ , and is priced with a loading of  $\lambda \geq 0$ .



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## Insurance decisions: optimal coinsurance

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## Mossin's Theorem

Suppose that the decision maker must choose an optimal level of coinsurance  $\beta \in [0,1]$ :

- $I_\beta(x) = \beta x$  when the loss is  $x$
- Premium  $P(\beta) = (1 + \lambda)\mathbb{E}[\beta\tilde{x}] = \beta P_0$  where  $P_0 := (1 + \lambda)\mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}]$
- Denote realised wealth  $\tilde{y} := w_0 - \beta P_0 - \tilde{x} + \beta\tilde{x}$

**Proposition (Mossin's Theorem).** Full insurance ( $\beta^* = 1$ ) is optimal at an actuarially fair price ( $\lambda = 0$ ), while partial coverage ( $\beta^* < 1$ ) is optimal at an actuarially unfair price ( $\lambda > 0$ )

## Proof of Mossin's Theorem

**Proof.** The policy maker will choose  $\beta$  to maximise expected utility of final wealth, denoted

$$H(\beta) := \mathbb{E}u(\tilde{y})$$

The optimisation problem is therefore

$$\max_{\beta} H(\beta) \text{ s.t. } \beta \in [0,1]$$

This optimisation program is continuous and strictly concave ( $H''(\beta) < 0$ ):

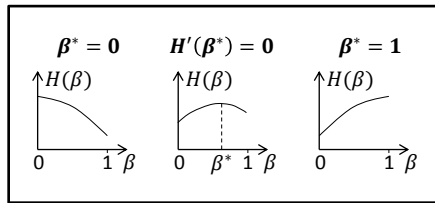
$$H(\beta) = \mathbb{E}u(\tilde{y}) = \mathbb{E}[u(w_0 - \beta P_0 - (1 - \beta)\tilde{x})]$$

$$H'(\beta) = \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x} - P_0)u'(\tilde{y})]$$

$$H''(\beta) = \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x} - P_0)^2 u''(\tilde{y})]$$

and so there is a unique maximum  $\beta^*$  such that

- Interior solution:  $H'(\beta^*) = 0$
- Corner solution:  $\beta^* = 0$  or  $\beta^* = 1$



## Proof of Mossin's Theorem

First, consider

$$\begin{aligned} H'(1) &= \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x} - P_0)u'(w_0 - P_0)] \\ &= u'(w_0 - P_0)(\mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}] - P_0) \\ &= u'(w_0 - P_0)(\mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}] - (1 + \lambda)\mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}]) \\ &= -\lambda u'(w_0 - P_0)\mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}] \end{aligned}$$

So we have

$$\lambda \leq 0 \Rightarrow H'(1) \geq 0$$

So if there is no (or negative) insurance loading, the optimal contract is full insurance ( $\beta^* = 1$ ).

- This is not surprising: risk averter will prefer to swap uncertain wealth for certain wealth with same expected value.

## Proof of Mossin's Theorem

We also have

$$\begin{aligned} H'(0) &= \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x} - P_0)u'(w_0 - \tilde{x})] \\ &= -\mathbb{E}[(P_0 - \mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}])u'(w_0 - \tilde{x})] + \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x} - \mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}])u'(w_0 - \tilde{x})] \\ &= -\lambda \mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}]\mathbb{E}[u'(w_0 - \tilde{x})] + \text{cov}(\tilde{x}, u'(w_0 - \tilde{x})) \end{aligned}$$

Now if  $H'(0) \leq 0$

$$\therefore \lambda \geq \lambda^* := \frac{\text{cov}(\tilde{x}, u'(w_0 - \tilde{x}))}{\mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}]\mathbb{E}[u'(w_0 - \tilde{x})]}$$

then corner solution  $\beta^* = 0$  is optimal.

- So if the insurance is too expensive ( $\lambda \geq \lambda^*$ ), then zero purchase will be optimal.

For  $0 < \lambda < \lambda^*$ ,  $H'(1) < 0 < H'(0)$  and positive, partial insurance is optimal ( $0 < \beta^* < 1$ )



## Comparative statics: more risk averse

**Proposition.** Consider two utility functions  $u$  and  $v$  that are increasing and concave, and suppose that  $u$  is more risk averse than  $v$  (in the sense of Arrow Pratt). Then, the optimal coinsurance rate  $\beta^*$  is higher for  $u$  than for  $v$ :  $\beta_u^* \geq \beta_v^*$

**Proof.** If  $\lambda = 0$  then  $\beta_u^* = \beta_v^* = 1$  and we are done.

Otherwise, without loss of generality suppose that

$$u'(w_0 - P_0) = v'(w_0 - P_0)$$

(We can do this since expected utility is cardinal.)

Then it must be that

$$u'(y) \geq v'(y) \forall y < w_0 - P_0$$

$$u'(y) \leq v'(y) \forall y > w_0 - P_0$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} (x - P_0)v'(w_0 - (1 - \beta_u^*)x - \beta_u^*P_0) \\ \leq (x - P_0)u'(w_0 - (1 - \beta_u^*)x - \beta_u^*P_0) \quad \forall x \end{aligned}$$

Since for  $x > P_0$  both sides are positive and the RHS is larger, and for  $x < P_0$  both sides are negative and the RHS is less negative.

## Comparative statics: more risk averse

$$\begin{aligned} (x - P_0)v'(w_0 - (1 - \beta_u^*)x - \beta_u^*P_0) \\ \leq (x - P_0)u'(w_0 - (1 - \beta_u^*)x - \beta_u^*P_0) \quad \forall x \end{aligned}$$

Taking expectations of both sides gives

$$\begin{aligned} H'_v(\beta_u^*) &= \mathbb{E}[(x - P_0)v'(w_0 - (1 - \beta_u^*)x - \beta_u^*P_0)] \\ &\leq \mathbb{E}[(x - P_0)u'(w_0 - (1 - \beta_u^*)x - \beta_u^*P_0)] = H'_u(\beta_u^*) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Where the last equality follows from the first order condition for  $\beta_u^*$ .

Hence, since  $H'_v$  is concave, it follows that  $\beta_v^* \leq \beta_u^*$ . ■

## Recall from week 2

For our next proposition we'll be applying the following result from week 2 (proposition demonstrating equivalence between DARA and  $A'(w) \leq 0$ ). DARA implies:

- You can think of  $v = -u'$  as a risk-averse utility function (since  $v' = -u'' > 0$  and  $v'' = -u''' < 0$ )
- $v = -u'$  is more risk averse than  $u$

## Comparative statics: an increase in initial wealth

**Proposition.** If  $u$  exhibits decreasing absolute risk aversion then an increase in initial wealth will decrease the optimal rate of coinsurance  $\beta^*$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\beta^*$  be optimal for  $w = w_0$ . Now consider

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial H'(\beta)}{\partial w} &= \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x} - P_0)u'(\tilde{y})]}{\partial w} \\ \therefore \frac{\partial H'(\beta)}{\partial w} &= \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x} - P_0)u''(\tilde{y})] \quad (*) \end{aligned}$$

Since  $H$  is strictly concave in  $\beta$ , we need only show that  $(*)$  is negative when evaluated at  $\beta^*$ . (This implies that as wealth increases from  $w_0$ , the gradient of  $H'(\beta)$  evaluated at  $\beta^*$  become negative, which from the strict concavity of  $H(\beta)$  will imply that the new optimal  $\beta$  at a higher level of wealth will be lower than  $\beta^*$ .)

To show this, recall that DARA implies that  $(-u')$  has the properties of a risk-averse utility function and is more risk averse than  $u$ . (We proved this in proposition demonstrating equivalence between DARA and  $A'(w) \leq 0$  in week 2.)

## Comparative statics: an increase in initial wealth

$$\frac{\partial H'(\beta)}{\partial w} = \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x} - P_0)u''(\tilde{y})] \quad (*)$$

Now, reversing the order of differentiation in (\*) and recalling that  $H(\beta) := \mathbb{E}u(\tilde{y})$  note that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial H'(\beta)}{\partial w} &= \frac{\partial^2 \mathbb{E}u(\tilde{y})}{\partial \beta \partial w} = \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[u'(\tilde{y})]}{\partial \beta} \\ \therefore \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[-u'(\tilde{y})]}{\partial \beta} &= -\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x} - P_0)u''(\tilde{y})] \quad (\#) \end{aligned}$$

By the previous proposition we know that the optimal level of coinsurance for  $v = -u'$  is higher than the level for  $u$ , so the gradient of  $H_v(\beta)$ , evaluated at  $\beta^*$  must be strictly greater than zero. Since the LHS of (#) is  $> 0$  the RHS of (#) must be  $> 0$ , that is  $-\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x} - P_0)u''(\tilde{y})] > 0$  when evaluated at  $\beta = \beta^*$ . In turn it follows that (\*) is negative when evaluated at  $\beta = \beta^*$ . ■



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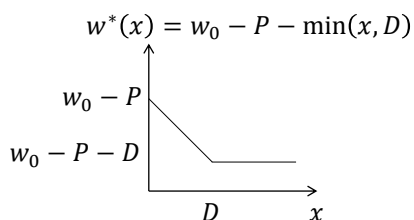
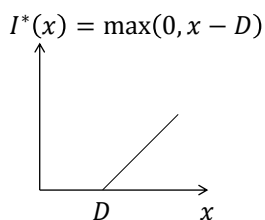
## Insurance decisions: optimality of deductibles

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## Optimality of deductibles

**Proposition.** Suppose a risk averse policyholder selects an insurance contract  $(P, I(\cdot))$  with  $P = (1 + \lambda)\mathbb{E}[I(\tilde{x})]$  and with  $I(x)$  nondecreasing and  $I(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ . Then the optimal contract contains a straight deductible  $D$ ; that is  $I^*(x) = \max(0, x - D)$  is optimal for some  $D$ .



## Optimality of deductibles

*Proof.* (We prove for discrete loss distribution where  $p_x$  denotes  $\mathbb{P}[\tilde{x} = x]$ )

We will show that any other  $I(x)$  is second order stochastically dominated by  $I^*(x) = \max(0, x - D)$ .

Consider another insurance policy  $(P, I(\cdot))$  with the same premium  $P$ . Since the loading is the same we must have

$$\mathbb{E}[I(x)] = \frac{P}{1 + \lambda} = \mathbb{E}[I^*(x)]$$

Consider some  $x_i$  such that  $I(x_i) = I^*(x_i) + \varepsilon_i$  for  $\varepsilon_i > 0$ . For  $\mathbb{E}[I(x)] = \mathbb{E}[I^*(x)]$  there must be some other loss level/s  $x_j$  such that  $I(x_j) = I^*(x_j) - \varepsilon_j$  for  $\varepsilon_j > 0$  and  $\sum p_i x_i = \sum p_j x_j$ .

(#) Since each  $I(x_j) \geq 0$  it must be that each  $I^*(x_j) > 0$ , or equivalently  $x_j > D$ .

## Optimality of deductibles

Now, consider the realised net wealth distribution under indemnity function  $I^*(x)$ ,

$$w^*(x) = w_0 - P - \min(x, D)$$

Which attains its minimum of  $w_0 - P - D$  for all  $x \geq D$ .

Now the realised net wealth distribution under  $I(x)$

$$w(x) = w_0 - P - x + I(x)$$

*increases* net wealth in states with  $w^*(x) \geq w_0 - P - D$  and *decreases* net wealth in states with  $w^*(x) = w_0 - P - D$  (from observation (#) on previous slide), such that  $\mathbb{E}[w(x)] = \mathbb{E}[w^*(x)]$ .

Therefore  $w(x)$  can be obtained from  $w^*(x)$  by a mean preserving spread around net wealth of  $w_0 - P - D$ .

Therefore  $w(x)$  is second order stochastically dominated by  $w^*(x)$ .



## Interpreting Arrow's Theorem on the optimality of deductibles

- For any given insurance budget (if the insurance loading is constant) the optimal insurance contract concentrates indemnification on the worst outcomes, where the marginal utility of additional wealth is highest.
  - where  $u'(w)$  is largest
  - if  $u'' > 0$  this is when  $w$  is lowest.
- Small risks 'should not' be insured
- Large risk 'should' insured:
  - Premature death of parent/guardian (life insurance)
  - Destruction of house (homeowners insurance)
  - Damage to your expensive car (vehicle insurance)
  - Damage to someone else's expensive car (Third party motor vehicle insurance)

## Financial markets don't yet offer catastrophe insurance to some of the most vulnerable

Table 9  
The 40 worst catastrophes in terms of victims 1970–2010

Victims <sup>a</sup>	Insured loss <sup>10</sup> (in USD m, indexed to 2009)	Date (start)	Event	Country
300 000	–	14.11.1970	Storm and flood catastrophe	Bangladesh, Bay of Bengal
255 000	–	28.07.1976	Earthquake (M 7.5)	China
220 000	2309	26.12.2004	Earthquake (M <sub>w</sub> 9), tsunami in Indian Ocean	Indonesia, Thailand et al
138 000	–	02.05.2008	Tropical cyclone Nargis, Irrawaddy Delta flooded	Myanmar (Burma), Bay of Bengal
138 000	3	29.04.1991	Tropical cyclone Gorky	Bangladesh
87 449	371	12.05.2008	Earthquake (M <sub>w</sub> 7.9) in Sichuan, aftershocks	China
73 300	–	08.10.2005	Earthquake (M <sub>w</sub> 7.6); aftershocks, landslides	Pakistan, India, Afghanistan
66 000	–	31.05.1970	Earthquake (M 7.7); rock slides	Peru
55 630	–	15.06.2010	Heat wave in Russia	Russia
40 000	192	21.06.1990	Earthquake (M 7.7); landslides	Iran
35 000	–	01.06.2003	Heat wave and drought in Europe	France, Italy, Germany et al
26 271	–	26.12.2003	Earthquake (M 6.5) destroys 85% of Bam	Iran
25 000	–	07.12.1988	Earthquake (M 6.9)	Armenia, ex-USSR
25 000	–	16.09.1978	Earthquake (M 7.7) in Tabas	Iran
23 000	–	13.11.1985	Volcanic eruption on Nevado del Ruiz	Colombia
22 084	287	04.02.1976	Earthquake (M 7.5)	Guatemala
19 737	123	26.01.2001	Earthquake (M <sub>w</sub> 7.6) in Gujarat	India, Pakistan, Nepal et al
19 118	1309	17.08.1999	Earthquake (M <sub>w</sub> 7) in Izmit	Turkey
15 000	–	11.08.1979	Macchu dam burst in Morvi	India
15 000	–	01.09.1978	Floods following monsoon rains in the north	India, Bangladesh
15 000	131	29.10.1999	Cyclone O5B devastates Orissa state	India, Bangladesh
11 069	–	25.05.1985	Tropical cyclone in Bay of Bengal	Bangladesh

Source: Swiss Re sigma No 1/2011

<http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/~clarke/teaching.htm>

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## Financial markets don't yet offer catastrophe insurance to some of the most vulnerable

Table 8  
The 40 most costly insurance losses 1970–2010

Victims <sup>a</sup>	Insured loss <sup>7</sup> (in USD m, indexed to 2010)	Date (start)	Event	Country
72 302	1 836	25.08.2005	Hurricane Katrina; floods, dams burst, damage to oil rigs	US, Gulf of Mexico, Bahamas, North Atlantic
24 870	43	23.08.1992	Hurricane Andrew; floods	US, Bahamas
23 131	2 982	11.09.2001	Terror attack on WTC, Pentagon and other buildings	US
20 601	61	17.01.1994	Northridge earthquake (M 6.6)	US
14 876	124	02.09.2004	Hurricane Ivan; damage to oil rigs	US, Caribbean; Barbados et al
14 825	58	18.08.2005	Hurricane Wilma; floods	US, Mexico, Bahamas, Haiti et al
11 288	24	05.09.2005	Hurricane Rita; floods, damage to oil rigs	US, Gulf of Mexico, Cuba
9 295	24	11.08.2004	Hurricane Charley; floods	US, Cuba, Jamaica et al
8 211	61	03.03.1994	Typhoon Mwillya; No. 10	Japan
8 043	71	15.09.1989	Hurricane Hugo	US, Puerto Rico et al
8 000	562	27.02.2010	Earthquake (M <sub>w</sub> 8.8) triggers tsunami	Chile
7 794	95	25.01.1990	Winter storm Daria	France, UK, Belgium, NL et al
7 594	110	25.12.1999	Winter storm Lothar	Switzerland, UK, France et al
6 410	54	18.01.2007	Winter storm Kyrill; floods	Germany, UK, NL, Belgium et al
5 951	28	15.08.1987	Storm and floods in Europe	France, UK, Netherlands et al
5 941	38	26.08.2004	Hurricane Frances	US, Bahamas
5 320	04	25.02.1990	Winter storm Vivian	Europe
5 290	26	22.09.1999	Typhoon Bart/No 18	Japan
4 723	600	20.09.1998	Hurricane Georges; floods	US, Caribbean
4 453	–	04.09.2010	Earthquake (M <sub>w</sub> 7.0)	New Zealand
4 139	11	08.08.2004	Tropical storm Jeanne; floods	US
4 390	3 034	13.09.2004	Hurricane Jeanne; floods, landslides	US, Caribbean; Haiti et al
4 139	45	06.09.2004	Typhoon Songda/No 18	Japan, South Korea
3 800	45	02.05.2003	Thunderstorms, tornadoes, hail	US

Source: Swiss Re sigma No 1/2011

<http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/~clarke/teaching.htm>

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## Static portfolio choices

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### General environment

We will consider the following environment

- Decision maker is strictly nonsatiated and risk averse with twice differentiable utility function  $u$ 
  - $u'(x) > 0, u''(x) < 0 \forall x$ .
- Initial wealth of  $w_0$  which can be invested in one risk-free asset and in one risky asset.
  - Can invest  $\alpha$  in a risky asset (e.g. stock) with uncertain return  $\tilde{x}$ .
  - With  $w_0 - \alpha$  in the risk free asset (e.g. bond) with certain return  $r$ .
- Value of the realised portfolio is
$$(w_0 - \alpha)(1 + r) + \alpha(1 + \tilde{x}) = w_0(1 + r) + \alpha(\tilde{x} - r)$$
$$= w + \alpha\tilde{y}$$
  - where  $w := w_0(1 + r)$  is future wealth under risk-free strategy
  - and  $\tilde{y} := \tilde{x} - r$  is excess return from risky asset.

## Equivalence between static portfolio choice and coinsurance choice

The problem of the investor is to choose  $\alpha$  to maximise EU:

$$\alpha^* \in \arg \max_{\alpha} \mathbb{E}u(w + \alpha\tilde{y})$$

This problem is formally equivalent to the coinsurance problem from yesterday. To see this, define

$$w \equiv w' - P_0, \quad \alpha \equiv (1 - \beta)P_0, \quad \tilde{y} \equiv \frac{P_0 - \tilde{x}}{P_0}$$

Consequently

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}u(w + \alpha\tilde{y}) &= \mathbb{E}u\left[(w' - P_0) + (1 - \beta)P_0\left(\frac{P_0 - \tilde{x}}{P_0}\right)\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}u(w' - \beta P_0 - (1 - \beta)\tilde{x}) \end{aligned}$$

- We may interpret  $\alpha = 0$  as full insurance coverage (zero risk)
- By increasing  $\alpha$  (i.e. decreasing the coinsurance level  $\beta$ ) the consumer accepts some of the risk in exchange for a higher expected final wealth.
- Increasing loading  $\lambda$  in the coinsurance model is equivalent to increasing the mean of  $\tilde{y}$  in the static portfolio choice model.

## Optimal static portfolio choices

**Proposition.** Consider the static portfolio choice problem, where  $\tilde{y}$  is the return of the asset over the risk-free rate, and  $\alpha^*$  is the optimal dollar investment in the risky asset. Then the optimal investment in the risky asset is positive iff the expected excess return is positive:  $\alpha^* = 0$  if  $\mathbb{E}\tilde{y} = 0$  and  $\alpha^* > 0$  if  $\mathbb{E}\tilde{y} > 0$ .

Moreover, when the expected excess return is positive,

1.  $\alpha^*$  is reduced when the risk aversion of the investor is increased in the sense of Arrow and Pratt;
2.  $\alpha^*$  is increasing in wealth if absolute risk aversion is decreasing.

*Proof.* See proofs of comparative statics results for coinsurance problem. ■

## Worked example: Static portfolio choices under CRRA

**Proposition.** Under constant relative risk aversion, the demand for the risky asset is proportional to wealth:  $\alpha^*(w) = kw$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that

$$u'(c) = c^{-\gamma} \quad \forall c$$

Where  $\gamma$  is the coefficient of relative risk aversion. Under this specification, the first order condition may be written as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[\tilde{y}u'(w + \alpha^*\tilde{y})] &= 0 \\ \therefore \mathbb{E}[\tilde{y}(w + \alpha^*\tilde{y})^{-\gamma}] &= 0 \\ \therefore \mathbb{E}[\tilde{y}(1 + k\tilde{y})^{-\gamma}] &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Where  $k$  is a positive constant and  $\alpha^* = kw$ . ■



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## Static optimisation: some useful results

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## Preliminaries

Consider

- $f(\mathbf{x})$  is a real-valued function of  $n$  real variables,  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .
- $S$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- $f$  is twice continuously differentiable on  $S$
- $Df$  is the Jacobian matrix and  $D^2f$  the Hessian:

$$Df = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$D^2f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

## The general optimisation problem

The general optimisation problem is to maximise (or minimise)  $f$  over some subset  $S$ :

maximise  $f(\mathbf{x})$ , subject to  $\mathbf{x} \in S$

$\mathbf{x} \in S$  is a **global maximum** of  $f$  on  $S$  if  $f(\mathbf{x}) \geq f(\mathbf{y}) \forall \mathbf{y} \in S$ .

$\mathbf{x} \in S$  is a **local maximum** of  $f$  on  $S$  if  $f(\mathbf{x}) \geq f(\mathbf{y}) \forall \mathbf{y}$  in some neighbourhood of  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**The Weierstrass Theorem.** Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be compact and  $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function on  $S$ . Then  $f$  attains a global maximum and global minimum on  $S$ .

## Concavity and the general optimisation problem

**Theorem.** If  $f$  has a local maximum or minimum at an interior point  $\mathbf{x}^*$  of  $S$ , then  $Df(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ .

**Theorem.** Consider the general optimisation problem:

maximise  $f(\mathbf{x})$ , subject to  $\mathbf{x} \in S$

If  $f$  is (strictly) concave then

- If a local maximum exists it is a (unique) global maximum;
- If a stationary point exists, it is a (unique) global maximum.

## Lagrange's Theorem

Consider the problem:

$$P: \max f(\mathbf{x}) \text{ such that } h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a} \quad (h: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m)$$

Define the *Lagrangian*  $L$  as

$$L(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j (a_j - h_j(\mathbf{x}))$$

**Lagrange's Theorem.** If  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is a local maximum of  $f$  subject to the constraint  $h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}$ , and the matrix  $Dh(\mathbf{x}^*)$  is of full rank,  $m$ , then  $\exists \boldsymbol{\lambda}^* = (\lambda_1^*, \dots, \lambda_m^*)$  such that  $D_{\mathbf{x}}L(\mathbf{x}^*, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*) = 0$  where

$$D_{\mathbf{x}}L(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = Df(\mathbf{x}) - \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j Dh_j(\mathbf{x})$$

Notes

- The condition that the matrix  $Dh(\mathbf{x}^*)$  must be of rank  $m$  is called the *constraint qualification*.
- If  $h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}$  then  $\mathbf{x}$  is said to be *feasible* for  $P$ .

## Concavity and Lagrange's Theorem

Consider the problem:

$$P: \max f(\mathbf{x}) \text{ such that } h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}$$

**Theorem.** Let  $f$  be concave and let each  $h_j$  be convex. Then the Lagrange first order conditions are sufficient for a global maximum.

## Solving an equality-constrained maximisation problem

- If the constraint qualification holds at all points then any candidates for local maxima (and hence global maxima) can be found by solving the first-order conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial L}{\partial x_i}(x^*; \lambda^*) &= 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n \\ h_j(x^*) &= a_j \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, m \end{aligned}$$

- (If there are points  $x^*$  where  $Dh(x^*)$  has less than full rank these points need to be checked separately as they may not show up as solutions to the first-order conditions even if they are local maxima)
- If  $f$  is concave and each  $h_j$  is convex then any local maxima are global maxima.