

Delta Hedging with Real SPX Option Data

A Mathematical Guide to Part 3 of Lab Assignment 1

Computational Finance

February 2026

Contents

1	Overview and Motivation	2
2	Notation and Setup	2
2.1	Lecture notes notation	2
2.2	Lab assignment notation	2
3	The Hedging Residual: Connecting Theory to Data	3
3.1	From continuous to discrete	3
3.2	What makes ε_t large?	3
4	Scoring: SSE and Gain	3
5	Why We Need Treasury Data and the Risk-Free Rate	4
5.1	The conversion to continuous compounding	4
6	The Filters and Why They Matter	4
7	The Volatility Misspecification Effect	5
7.1	Interpretation	5
7.2	Discrete-time analogue	5
8	Strategies for Competitive Edge	5
8.1	Strategy 1: Adjusted Volatility Delta	5
8.2	Strategy 2: Minimum Variance (MV) Delta	6
8.3	Strategy 3: Smile-Aware (Sticky-Strike) Delta	6
8.4	Strategy 4: Per-Bucket Volatility Scaling	6
8.5	Strategy 5: Realised Volatility Blending	7
9	What to Watch Out For	7
10	Summary: The Pipeline	7

1 Overview and Motivation

In Part 2 of this assignment, we performed delta-hedging simulations in a *controlled* Black–Scholes world, where the data-generating process was known. Part 3 brings us into the real world: we hedge real SPX options observed over February 2023, where the true data-generating process is unknown and models are necessarily misspecified.

The central question is: *given that the Black–Scholes model is wrong, how can we choose a hedge ratio δ_t that minimises the daily hedging error?*

2 Notation and Setup

We establish a unified notation that reconciles the lecture notes with the lab assignment.

2.1 Lecture notes notation

In the lecture notes, the option price is denoted $P(t, S_t)$ and the underlying satisfies

$$dS_t = \mu S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t^{\mathbb{P}}, \quad (1)$$

under the physical measure \mathbb{P} . The delta hedge is $\Delta_t = \frac{\partial P}{\partial S}(t, S_t)$ and the one-step P&L of a short-option, long- Δ portfolio over a small interval δt is (eq. 102 in lecture notes):

$$\text{PnL} = - \underbrace{\left[\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} - rP + (r - q)S_t \frac{\partial P}{\partial S} \right]}_{A(t, S_t)} \delta t - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} S_t^2 \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial S^2}}_{\text{dollar gamma } \Gamma^{\$}} (\delta S)^2. \quad (2)$$

2.2 Lab assignment notation

The assignment uses a discrete, data-driven framework. Let t index trading days.

Symbol	Definition	Lecture equivalent
S_t	SPX close on day t	S_t
ΔS_t	$S_{t+1} - S_t$	δS
V_t	Option midquote $\frac{\text{bid}_t + \text{ask}_t}{2}$	$P(t, S_t)$
ΔV_t	$V_{t+1} - V_t$	$P(t + \delta t, S_{t+\delta t}) - P(t, S_t)$
δ_t	Hedge ratio (delta) used on day t	$\Delta_t = \frac{\partial P}{\partial S}$
$\varepsilon_t(\delta)$	$\Delta V_t - \delta_t \Delta S_t$	Hedging residual
σ^{mkt}	Market-implied volatility	σ_{imp}
τ_t	$(T - t)/365$, time to expiry in years	$T - t$
$r_t(\tau)$	Continuously-compounded zero rate	r
K	Strike price (in index points)	K
D_t	Days to expiry $T - t$	—

Key Insight

The lecture notes use infinitesimal $\delta t \rightarrow 0$; the lab uses discrete daily steps $\Delta t = 1$ day. Everything that was exact in continuous time becomes an *approximation* with nonzero residuals.

3 The Hedging Residual: Connecting Theory to Data

3.1 From continuous to discrete

In continuous time (lecture eq. 97–102), setting $\Delta_t = \frac{\partial P}{\partial S}$ eliminates the first-order exposure to δS . The remaining P&L is second-order:

$$\text{PnL} = -A(t, S_t) \delta t - B(t, S_t) \left(\frac{\delta S}{S_t} \right)^2, \quad (3)$$

where $A(t, S_t) = \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} - rP + (r - q)S_t \frac{\partial P}{\partial S}$ is the theta-like term and $B(t, S_t) = \frac{1}{2}S_t^2 \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial S^2}$ is the dollar gamma.

In the discrete lab setting, we cannot observe A or B directly. Instead, we observe the *total* change ΔV_t and the stock move ΔS_t , and we define the hedging residual:

$$\boxed{\varepsilon_t(\delta) = \Delta V_t - \delta_t \Delta S_t.} \quad (4)$$

This residual captures *everything* that the linear hedge $\delta_t \Delta S_t$ failed to explain: gamma effects, theta, discrete rebalancing error, model misspecification, and bid–ask noise.

3.2 What makes ε_t large?

Expanding ΔV_t using a Taylor-like decomposition (analogous to eq. (2)):

$$\Delta V_t \approx \underbrace{\frac{\partial P}{\partial S} \Delta S_t}_{\text{delta component}} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} \Delta t}_{\text{theta}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial S^2} (\Delta S_t)^2}_{\text{gamma}} + \text{higher order.} \quad (5)$$

Substituting into (4) with $\delta_t = \frac{\partial P}{\partial S}$:

$$\varepsilon_t \approx \Theta_t \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \Gamma_t (\Delta S_t)^2 + \text{noise}, \quad (6)$$

where $\Theta_t = \frac{\partial P}{\partial t}$ and $\Gamma_t = \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial S^2}$.

Under Black–Scholes, Θ and Γ are related through the PDE:

$$\Theta + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 S^2 \Gamma + (r - q)S \Delta - rP = 0.$$

If the model were exact *and* we could hedge continuously, the theta and gamma terms would cancel on average. In discrete time with daily rebalancing, they don't cancel exactly, leaving a nonzero ε_t .

4 Scoring: SSE and Gain

The assignment measures hedging quality through:

$$\text{SSE}(\delta) = \sum_{t \in \mathcal{I}} \varepsilon_t(\delta)^2, \quad (7)$$

where \mathcal{I} is the filtered observation set (after removing extreme deltas and short maturities). Lower SSE means better hedging.

Given two strategies $\delta^{(A)}$ and $\delta^{(B)}$, the **Gain** metric is:

$$\text{Gain}(A \text{ vs } B) = 1 - \frac{\text{SSE}(\delta^{(A)})}{\text{SSE}(\delta^{(B)})}. \quad (8)$$

A positive gain means strategy A beats B . The baseline B is the standard Black–Scholes delta δ_t^{BS} .

The bucketed SSE (across 9 moneyness \times 7 maturity = 63 cells) ensures that improvements are measured uniformly across the option surface, not dominated by one region.

5 Why We Need Treasury Data and the Risk-Free Rate

The Black–Scholes delta for a European call is:

$$\delta_t^{\text{BS}} = N(d_+), \quad d_+ = \frac{\ln(S_t/K) + (r_t(\tau) + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)\tau}{\sigma\sqrt{\tau}}, \quad (9)$$

where $N(\cdot)$ is the standard normal CDF. The rate $r_t(\tau)$ appears in two critical places:

- (i) **In d_+ :** it shifts the forward moneyness. Underestimating r makes d_+ too small, biasing delta downward for calls.
- (ii) **In the forward price:** $F_t(\tau) = S_t e^{(r_t(\tau)-q)\tau}$. The forward determines where ATM sits on the strike axis.
- (iii) **In discounting:** the discount factor $P_t(\tau) = e^{-r_t(\tau)\tau}$ is used for present-valuing cash flows.

Since each option has a different time-to-expiry τ , we need a *term structure* $r_t(\tau)$ — not a single scalar. This is why we fit the Nelson–Siegel–Svensson (NSS) yield curve to Treasury par yields and evaluate it at each option's τ .

5.1 The conversion to continuous compounding

Treasury par yields are quoted with semiannual compounding. To convert to the continuously-compounded rate required by Black–Scholes:

$$r_t(\tau) = 2 \ln \left(1 + \frac{\hat{y}_t(\tau)}{2} \right), \quad (10)$$

where $\hat{y}_t(\tau)$ is the NSS-fitted yield. For short-dated SPX options (a few weeks to months), $r_t(\tau) \approx \hat{y}_t(\tau)$ since the compounding adjustment is small. But for consistency and to avoid systematic bias, the conversion is necessary.

6 The Filters and Why They Matter

The assignment mandates removing observations with:

$$\delta_t^{\text{BS}} \leq 0.05, \quad \delta_t^{\text{BS}} \geq 0.95, \quad D_t \leq 14. \quad (11)$$

Deep OTM ($\delta \leq 0.05$): These options have tiny midquotes (often a few cents). The hedging residual ε_t is dominated by bid–ask noise rather than genuine model error. Including them inflates SSE with information-free variance.

Deep ITM ($\delta \geq 0.95$): The option behaves like the stock ($\delta \approx 1$) regardless of model choice. Every strategy gives $\delta \approx 1$, so no strategy can differentiate itself. These observations are uninformative for comparison.

Short maturity ($D_t \leq 14$): Near expiry, gamma Γ_t grows as $\sim 1/\sqrt{\tau}$ for ATM options. From eq. (6), the gamma term $\frac{1}{2}\Gamma_t(\Delta S_t)^2$ becomes extremely large, making daily rebalancing hopelessly inadequate. This is a discretization artefact, not a model problem.

Key Insight

The competitive region is $0.05 < \delta < 0.95$ and $D_t > 14$. This is where your choice of δ_t genuinely matters. Focus your optimisation efforts here.

7 The Volatility Misspecification Effect

This is the theoretical backbone of the competitive advantage. From Exercise 2 (eq. 6 in the assignment), the cumulative P&L of a delta hedge using implied vol σ_{imp} when the true (realised) vol is σ_t is:

$$\text{PnL}_{\text{total}} = \int_0^T e^{-rt} \frac{1}{2} S_t^2 \Gamma_t^{\sigma_{\text{imp}}} (\sigma_{\text{imp}}^2 - \sigma_t^2) dt, \quad (12)$$

where $\Gamma_t^{\sigma_{\text{imp}}}$ is the gamma computed under σ_{imp} .

7.1 Interpretation

Eq. (12) says the P&L depends on the mismatch $(\sigma_{\text{imp}}^2 - \sigma_t^2)$ *weighted by dollar gamma*. For the P&L to vanish on average:

$$\mathbb{E}^{\mathbb{P}} \left[\int_0^T e^{-rt} \frac{1}{2} S_t^2 \Gamma_t^{\sigma_{\text{imp}}} (\sigma_{\text{imp}}^2 - \sigma_t^2) dt \right] = 0. \quad (13)$$

This means the “correct” volatility for hedging is not the simple average of σ_t , but a **gamma-weighted average**:

$$\sigma_{\text{imp}}^2 = \frac{\mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T e^{-rt} \frac{1}{2} S_t^2 \Gamma_t \sigma_t^2 dt \right]}{\mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T e^{-rt} \frac{1}{2} S_t^2 \Gamma_t dt \right]}. \quad (14)$$

Key Insight

Since Γ_t is largest for ATM options, the break-even vol is disproportionately influenced by realised vol around the times when the option is near ATM. Deep OTM/ITM periods contribute less.

7.2 Discrete-time analogue

In our daily framework, eq. (12) becomes approximately:

$$\varepsilon_t(\delta^\sigma) \approx \frac{1}{2} \Gamma_t^\sigma S_t^2 \left[\left(\frac{\Delta S_t}{S_t} \right)^2 - \sigma^2 \Delta t \right] + \text{lower order terms}. \quad (15)$$

The residual is small when $\sigma^2 \Delta t \approx (\Delta S_t / S_t)^2$, i.e., when the volatility parameter matches the realised daily squared return. This motivates using a vol closer to realised vol rather than implied vol.

8 Strategies for Competitive Edge

The baseline strategy uses the Black–Scholes delta with the market-implied volatility σ^{mkt} (or the vendor-provided delta from WRDS). Here are mathematically motivated ways to improve.

8.1 Strategy 1: Adjusted Volatility Delta

From the misspecification analysis, the optimal hedging vol is the gamma-weighted realised vol, not the implied vol. In practice, for SPX options there exists a persistent **variance risk premium**: implied vol is systematically higher than realised vol.

Define an adjusted delta:

$$\delta_t^{\text{adj}} = N \left(d_+(\alpha \sigma^{\text{mkt}}) \right), \quad \alpha \in (0, 1], \quad (16)$$

where $\alpha < 1$ scales down the implied vol toward realised vol. You can find the optimal α by minimising SSE over a grid:

$$\alpha^* = \arg \min_{\alpha} \text{SSE}(\delta^{\alpha \sigma^{\text{mkt}}}). \quad (17)$$

Warning

This is an in-sample optimisation. The optimal α is specific to this dataset (Feb 2023). Report it transparently and discuss overfitting risk.

8.2 Strategy 2: Minimum Variance (MV) Delta

Instead of using a model to compute δ , we can estimate it from the data directly. For each option i , the hedging residual is $\varepsilon_{i,t} = \Delta V_{i,t} - \delta_{i,t} \Delta S_t$. If we treat $\delta_{i,t}$ as a regression coefficient:

$$\Delta V_{i,t} = \delta_i \Delta S_t + \varepsilon_{i,t}, \quad (18)$$

then the OLS estimate $\hat{\delta}_i = \frac{\sum_t \Delta V_{i,t} \Delta S_t}{\sum_t (\Delta S_t)^2}$ minimises the sum of squared residuals by construction. However, this is purely in-sample and cannot be used directly for out-of-sample hedging. It does, however, provide a *target* that tells you what the ideal delta would have been. You can then study the systematic difference $\hat{\delta}_i - \delta_i^{\text{BS}}$ across moneyness/maturity to guide adjustments.

8.3 Strategy 3: Smile-Aware (Sticky-Strike) Delta

The standard BS delta assumes the volatility surface is flat. In reality, the implied volatility smile $\sigma^{\text{mkt}}(K, \tau)$ varies with strike. Two common assumptions lead to different deltas:

- **Sticky-strike**: The implied vol of a fixed (K, T) contract doesn't change when S moves. This gives the standard BS delta $N(d_+)$.
- **Sticky-delta (or sticky-moneyness)**: The implied vol at a fixed moneyness level K/S stays constant. This adds a correction:

$$\delta_t^{\text{smile}} = N(d_+) + \underbrace{\frac{\partial C}{\partial \sigma} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial S}}_{\text{vega} \times \text{smile slope}} \approx N(d_+) + \nu_t \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma^{\text{mkt}}}{\partial K} \cdot \left(-\frac{K}{S_t}\right), \quad (19)$$

where $\nu_t = S_t N'(d_+) \sqrt{\tau}$ is the Black–Scholes vega. The correction is typically negative for SPX (the skew is downward-sloping: $\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial K} < 0$), which means the smile-adjusted delta is *larger* than the BS delta.

Estimating $\frac{\partial \sigma^{\text{mkt}}}{\partial K}$ at each (t, K, τ) from the option panel requires care (finite differences across neighbouring strikes on the same day and expiry).

8.4 Strategy 4: Per-Bucket Volatility Scaling

Since the competition is scored on bucketed SSE (9 moneyness \times 7 maturity), you can allow the adjustment factor to vary by bucket:

$$\delta_t^{(i,j)} = N\left(d_+\left(\alpha_{i,j} \sigma_t^{\text{mkt}}\right)\right), \quad (20)$$

where (i, j) denotes the moneyness–maturity bucket. This gives you 63 free parameters but risks overfitting. A middle ground is to fit a smooth surface $\alpha(\delta, D_t)$ with a small number of parameters (e.g., linear in δ and $\log D_t$).

8.5 Strategy 5: Realised Volatility Blending

Compute the recent realised volatility from the SPX close series (e.g., over a rolling window of 5–10 days):

$$\hat{\sigma}_t^{\text{real}} = \sqrt{\frac{252}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left(\ln \frac{S_{t-k}}{S_{t-k-1}} \right)^2}, \quad (21)$$

and blend it with implied vol:

$$\sigma_t^{\text{blend}} = w \sigma_t^{\text{mkt}} + (1 - w) \hat{\sigma}_t^{\text{real}}, \quad w \in [0, 1]. \quad (22)$$

Then compute delta using σ_t^{blend} . The rationale from eq. (14): the optimal hedging vol lies between implied and realised. The weight w can be optimised over the dataset.

9 What to Watch Out For

1. **Overfitting:** Any in-sample SSE minimisation (grid search over α , per-bucket $\alpha_{i,j}$) will overfit to this specific month. Prefer theoretically motivated, low-parameter strategies. Report both the optimised SSE and discuss robustness.
2. **Data alignment:** Ensure ΔV_t and ΔS_t correspond to the *same* day transition $t \rightarrow t + 1$. A one-day misalignment will produce nonsensical residuals.
3. **Strike rescaling:** WRDS stores strikes as $K \times 1000$. If you forget to divide, d_+ will be wildly wrong and your deltas will be meaningless.
4. **Consecutive trading days:** When computing ΔV_t , ensure both V_t and V_{t+1} come from consecutive trading days. If a contract doesn't trade on both days, ΔV_t spans a gap and the residual is inflated.
5. **The gamma effect near ATM:** ATM options have the largest gamma, so their residuals ε_t are naturally larger. This is not a model failure — it's the physics of options. The bucketing ensures your score isn't dominated by these points alone.
6. **Implied vol vs. delta from WRDS:** The WRDS dataset provides both σ^{mkt} and a vendor delta δ^{vendor} . Using the vendor delta directly as the baseline is the simplest approach. If you recompute delta yourself (to try a different vol), make sure your BS formula, rate convention, and day-count are all consistent.
7. **Dividends:** The assignment says set $q = 0$. For SPX in Feb 2023 this is a reasonable approximation, but be aware that ignoring dividends introduces a small systematic bias in the forward price.

10 Summary: The Pipeline

Step	Description
1	Load and clean the WRDS option panel (calls only, rescale strikes, midquote, drop missing IV)
2	Construct ΔV_t by tracking each contract across consecutive trading days
3	Merge SPX close S_t and compute ΔS_t (with one extra day beyond Feb 28)
4a–e	Fit NSS yield curve \rightarrow extract $r_t(\tau)$ for each option observation
5a	Compute baseline $\delta_t^{\text{BS}} = N(d_+)$ using σ^{mkt} and $r_t(\tau)$
5b	Compute residuals $\varepsilon_t = \Delta V_t - \delta_t^{\text{BS}} \Delta S_t$ and baseline SSE
5c	Apply filters: $\delta \in (0.05, 0.95)$ and $D_t > 14$
5d	Study misspecification: recompute $\delta_t(\sigma)$ for σ on a grid, observe SSE curve
5e	Bucket into 9×7 moneyness–maturity grid
6	Try improved strategies (vol scaling, smile-aware delta, blending) \rightarrow report Gain

Competitive Edge

Bottom line: The variance risk premium means $\sigma_{\text{imp}} > \sigma_{\text{real}}$ on average for SPX. The BS delta computed with implied vol is therefore systematically “too high” (it uses a vol that overstates future moves). Hedging with a slightly lower vol — closer to the gamma-weighted realised vol from eq. (14) — should reduce SSE. The simplest competitive strategy is to find $\alpha^* \in (0.85, 0.99)$ such that $\delta_t = N(d_+(\alpha^* \sigma^{\text{mkt}}))$ minimises SSE. Combine this with smile-slope corrections for additional edge.