The Market for Sharing Interest Rate Risk: Quantities and Asset Prices

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Abstract

We study interest rate risk sharing across the financial system by exploiting granular transaction-level data covering the near-universe of UK interest rate swap market. We show that pension funds and insurers (PF&I) are natural counterparties to banks and corporations: overall, and in response to a decline in interest rates, PF&I buy duration, whereas banks and corporations sell duration. This cross-sector netting reduces dealers' aggregate net supply. However, investor demand is highly segmented across maturities - PF&I hold long-tenor swaps while banks hold short-to-intermediate tenor swaps - resulting in significant *maturity-specific* imbalances absorbed by dealers. We calibrate a preferred-habitat investors model with risk-averse dealers to examine how demand imbalances interact with supply side constraints to determine asset prices (swap spreads). Our model embeds empirically estimated demand elasticities that govern the spillover effects of demand shocks: using dealer-level portfolio compression to instrument for exogenous supply shifts, we show that PF&I have less elastic demand for swaps than banks. The model delivers two novel insights. First, demand imbalances are quantitatively more important in explaining the entire *shape* of the swap spread curve than supply-side factors alone. Second, regulation-driven demand shifts in one sector can have economically significant spillover effects on other sectors' hedging costs due to large adjustments in asset prices. Our findings uncover limited risk sharing in one of the world's largest financial markets, and our counterfactual analyses inform policymakers on potential externalities of sector-specific regulation of interest rate risk.

Keywords: Interest rate risk, Pension funds, Insurers, Banks, Demand elasticities, Swap spreads

JEL classification: G11, G12, G15, G21, G22, G23, G24, G32

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Recent events, such as the US banking turmoil and the UK pension market crisis, highlight the importance of interest rate risk for various institutions in the economy. Interest rate swaps are one of the main financial contracts through which diverse economic participants mitigate the inherent interest rate risks associated with their businesses. The immense size of the interest rate swap market underscores its crucial role in the global financial landscape, with outstanding gross notional reaching approximately $500 trillion in 2022.

Despite the critical role played by the interest rate swap market in mitigating interest rate risk, we have limited understanding of how various market participants trade and how their collective demand jointly influences asset prices in this market. A key reason is that detailed cross-sector quantities data on derivatives markets has been largely unavailable, preventing a systematic study of investors' trading and hedging behavior, and their asset pricing implications. As a result, current literature and policy debates tend to examine individual sectors in isolation. While this approach can be valuable to micro-found the risk management motives of a set of investors, it inherently fails to capture the potentially significant interconnections and spillover effects across market participants that are important to understand asset pricing dynamics. In addition, understanding cross-sector interaction is necessary to evaluate how tighter regulation in one segment of the financial system can have implications for other sectors through their impact on asset valuations.

In this paper, we exploit the most comprehensive entity-level cross-sector interest rate swaps data deployed in academic research to date, with granular data on prices and positions, to examine how different sectors (banks, pension funds, insurers, asset managers and corporations), engage in this market to share interest rate risk. Our key empirical finding is that pension funds and insurers (PF&I) and banks, the two most important investors in this market, have large quantities of offsetting trades but at different maturity points. The observed trading patterns align closely with the contrasting maturity transformation strategies employed by different sectors – while PF&I have long-dated liabilities, banks have short-term liabilities and longer-dated assets. This complementary approach creates a natural risk-sharing opportunity between these sectors, ultimately reducing the net risk exposure borne by intermediaries (dealers). However, despite the potential for significant risk sharing, we show that the market is segmented along the maturity dimension, which exposes dealers to persistent demand imbalances at various maturity points. PF&I buy long-dated swaps, while banks and corporations buy swaps of an intermediate maturity. Through the lens of a structural model, we quantify the effect of demand pressure on equilibrium prices (swap spreads) of different maturities, and in counterfactual analyses, we examine how demand shocks in one part of the financial system spill over to other parts through partial adjustment in asset prices.

Our main contribution is to examine all market participants jointly in the interest rate swap market, document their sizes and interactions across maturity segments and decompose the relative impact of demand and supply factors on asset prices. We show that the relative size and elasticities

of demand are crucial for understanding the spillover effects of shocks across the diverse market participants. Furthermore, given the segmentation in demand across investors, the term structure of the swap curve is determined by the distribution of demand at different maturities. Relative to the literature studying asset pricing dynamics of swap spreads (Boyarchenko, Gupta, Steele, and Yen, 2018, Klingler and Sundaresan, 2019, Jermann, 2020, Hanson, Malkhozov, and Venter, 2024), we are the first to bring in detailed quantity data to compute demand imbalances along the maturity curve and draw asset pricing implications for the entire swap spread curve. We match the term structure of swap spreads and highlight how swap spread at the long-end is affected by demand imbalances at the short-end, and vice versa.

Our analysis leverages Bank of England's confidential transactions and outstanding-positions data that cover all sectors of the economy and over 60% of the global swaps trading volume. The following features of the data allow us to comprehensively examine the full extent of this market's dynamics. First, at an investor level, we observe both the stock of its outstanding positions and the flow of new transactions with the exact price faced in each transaction. This allow us to paint a comprehensive picture of each investor's demand given the prices it faces. Second, we observe the exact counterparty for each trade. This facilitates the granular sector classification to accurately calculate the extent of risk transfers at the sector level. Third, we observe detailed characteristics for each position and trade, including notional amounts, contracted fixed rate, trade direction, maturity, floating rate benchmark, and currencies. Thus, we can accurately compute risk exposures and assess segmentation in risk sharing along dimensions such as maturity. Moreover, using the joint dynamics of swap prices and outstanding positions along the maturity curve, we can estimate user demand in different maturity segments in a fully flexible way, while also accommodating potentially correlated supply and demand shocks.

We start by outlining the main facts on swap positions and trading across sectors. We focus on GBP swaps due to our largest coverage in this currency and our ability to observe the entire interest rate swap portfolio of UK entities. We identify four main-end user segments in order of magnitude of outstanding net IRS positions: funds (including hedge funds and asset managers);pension, liability-driven investment funds, and insurers (together referred to as PF&I); end-user banks (excluding dealers), and corporations.[1]

First, to quantify the extent of risk transfers, we examine the direction of net outstanding positions and the end-users' reaction to changes in interest rates. We construct two metrics: net swap exposures (receive minus pay fixed) and the duration risk of a one basis point parallel shift in interest rates (DV01). We find that there is significant heterogeneity in the direction of net outstanding positions across sectors. At an aggregate level, we find that PF&I receive fixed, i.e.

[1]We also observe the holdings of the official sector that includes sovereign and supra-national institutions. However, as they have a small amount of holdings, we omit discussing them in detail.

they add duration to their portfolios with swaps. In contrast, banks and corporations do the opposite; they pay fixed, i.e. sell duration with swaps. Looking within sectors at an entity level, we find that a large majority of entities within these sectors trade in the same direction.

Next, we evaluate how holdings evolve with changes in interest rates. We examine sensitivity of net exposures to lagged changes in the interest rate factor, which we construct as the first principal component of yields at the 3 month, 5 year, 10 year, and 30 year maturity points. We find that PF&I and banks trade in the opposite direction in response to shifts in rates, similar to what we observe about the levels of net exposures. As rates fall, PF&I buy duration, whereas banks sell duration, implying sectors may have opposite exposure to aggregate demand shocks. We obtain consistent results when analyzing reactions to the UK monetary policy shocks constructed in Braun, Miranda-Agrippino, and Saha (2024) instead of changes in yields. The opposite adjustment in demand from PF&I and banks further suggests that they are natural counterparties in this market.

Our findings on exposures and reactions to interest rates are consistent with the sectors' opposite underlying balance sheet maturity mismatch. On one side, banks are net long duration as the maturity of their assets, such as loans, is higher than the maturity of their liabilities, such as deposits. On the other side PFI have shorter maturity assets than the long-term liabilities such as repayments to retirees. Hence banks want to unwind their positive duration on the asset side, while PFI seek to add duration to close the duration gap. This pattern also suggests that PF&I are natural counterparties to banks and corporations in the swaps market.[2]

While we find that UK banks sell large amount of duration in the interest rate swap market, recent evidence (McPhail, Schnabl, and Tuckman, 2023) suggest that banks in the US do not hedge much. One important difference is the regulatory framework around market risk. In the UK, banks face explicit regulatory incentives to hedge their interest rate risk (Wilkes, 2023a,b), which provides strong incentive for trading swaps. However, in order to focus on the cross-sector interactions (and because detailed balance sheet information of all entities in our sample does not exist), in this paper we do not analyze whether specific entities sufficiently hedge their duration risk. Instead, we take end-users' demand as given and focus on its equilibrium implications.

Second, holdings are highly segmented across maturities. Specifically, we group swaps into four groups: below 3 months, 3 months to 5 years, 5 to 10 years, and 10 years & above. PF&I largely hold long maturity swaps (10 years & above), and consistently do so throughout the sample period. A bulk of bank and corporate positions are in the short to intermediate bucket (3 months to 5 years). Finally, funds hold very short maturity swaps (below 3 months) and short to intermediate maturity swaps (3 months to 5 years). The segmentation along maturities is consistent with investors having preferred habitats (Vayanos and Vila, 2021).

[2]In contrast, we find that the fund sector exhibits substantial heterogeneity in the direction of positions, largely explained by different trading strategies. Certain funds also flip trading directions frequently.

Next we turn to study the dynamics of dealer balances, which is the opposite side of the aggregate end-user net demand. Even though a large portion of PF&I positions is offset by the positions of banks and corporations, resulting in cross-sector netting, the dealer sector still bears significant demand imbalances in all the maturity groups because of end-user segmentation. During our sample period, dealers receive on average fixed (are long duration) in short maturities and pay fixed (are short duration) in long maturities. On net, we find that dealers have a negative duration: a 1 bp parallel upward shift in interest rates increases the value of dealers' swap position by about GBP 100 million. The direction of maturity-specific imbalance absorbed by dealers is also consistent with the hump-shaped curve we observe for GBP swap spreads.

Third, we estimate the elasticity of investors' demand to changes in swap spreads using shifts in the supply curve as an instrument to shock the price. The elasticity parameters we uncover help us understand the extent to which investors absorb price changes by way of hedging costs or through adjustment in quantities, which forms an important input into our model described below. We instrument for prices using dealer-level portfolio compression, a common market practice that shrinks the size of gross notional on dealers' books while retaining the net economic exposure. Since the leverage ratio requirements under Basel III penalize derivative contracts through gross notional (Duffie, 2018), and by both exposure and contract maturity, a reduction in dealers' stock of outstanding gross notional relaxes their balance sheet constraints and could affect their pricing of swaps. We find that an increase in dealer-level compression activity leads to a flatter swap spreads curve, consistent with a reduction in the balance sheet cost of absorbing demand imbalances. We then use the instrumented swap spreads to estimate the end-users' demand elasticities in different maturity groups. We find that investors in the short-term maturity buckets (mainly banks and funds) tend to have a higher elasticity of demand to prices (swap spreads) than investors in longer-term maturity buckets (mainly PF&I).

Motivated by the empirical facts, we adapt a preferred-habitat investors model to study the asset pricing consequences of demand imbalances at different maturities and to quantify the spillover effects across sectors. We model end-users such as banks, corporations, and PF&I as preferred-habitat investors, who demand interest rate swaps only of a specific maturity (Vayanos and Vila, 2021). Such demand arises because investors are exposed to interest rate shocks from other parts of their balance sheets and trading interest rate swap is a capital-efficient way to hedge that risk (Klingler and Sundaresan, 2019). Our reduced form fact supports the assumption that holdings are highly segmented across these maturity buckets. Since, in general, investors can also use bonds for hedging, we model their demand to be increasing in the swap spread, which captures the price of a swap relative to a maturity-matched bond. Defining price this way also nets out the direct impact of bond yields.

We allow investors trading in different maturity segments to have different demand elastici-

ties and to load differentially on a time-varying aggregate demand factor, capturing the fact that macroeconomic conditions affect the hedging demand of investors in heterogeneous ways. Our empirical result on rate sensitivity suggests that part of this demand factor corresponds to the level of interest rates. Our calibration of demand elasticities is guided by the reduced-form estimates based on dealers' portfolio compression as an instrument for supply shifts.

While preferred-habitat investors only trade in specific maturity segments, dealers act as arbitrageurs and trade across maturity groups to take advantage of the differences in spreads.[3] These arbitrageurs are risk-averse and face time-varying funding costs from holding swaps on their balance sheets (He, Nagel, and Song, 2022). Following the literature, we consider these arbitrageurs as specialized intermediaries, who hedge the interest rate risk arising from their swap positions in other markets, such as in the government bond market (Hanson et al., 2024). As a result, the arbitrageurs are only concerned about convergence risk. In terms of the arbitrageur's funding cost, it could come from the gap in the swap reference rate and dealers' funding rate, or dealers' leverage constraints due to government bonds held on balance sheet in order to hedge the interest rate risk arising from their swap positions (Bicu-Lieb, Chen, and Elliott, 2020, Du, Hébert, and Li, 2023). We model the total cost incurred as linear in the net swap position held on arbitrageurs' balance sheet. Finally, both the funding cost and the aggregate demand factor follow AR(1) processes, where the shocks are potentially correlated.

We calibrate the model to match the average level of swap spreads and net imbalances, as well as their dynamics in four maturity segments — below 3 months, 3 months to 5 years, 5 to 10 years, and 10 years & above. Specifically, we draw the demand elasticities of end-users in each segment from the reduced form estimates using compression ratio as supply shifters. For the remaining parameters, we match the average swap spreads and end-users' net outstanding positions for all the maturity groups, as well as the variances and co-variances between spreads and equilibrium quantities for each of the four maturity groups. We do not impose any restrictions on how the demand parameters vary across maturity groups. Overall, our model can match all the moments reasonably well.

Parameters uncovered from the estimation show that the demand pressure (defined as the intercept of the demand function) is concentrated among investors trading in the short-to-intermediate maturity group (3 months to 5 years) and the long maturity group (10 years & above). The demand pressure in these two groups has the opposite sign — while investors in the short-to-intermediate group have a preference to pay fixed, investors in the long maturity group have a preference to receive fixed. In addition, investors in these two groups have the opposite exposure to the aggregate demand shock. Even though we do not impose any sign restrictions on demand parameters for

[3]For funds that trade across maturity groups, we also treat them as arbitrageurs, similar to dealers.

investors in different maturity groups, the estimated demand pressure and exposure to shocks are consistent with the types of institutions trading in each group and match the reduced form facts. The demand parameters we uncover further confirm that investors in the short-to-intermediate group and long maturity group are natural counterparties to each other.

We then use our model to quantify the contribution of different factors to the equilibrium swap spread curve. During our sample period, the average swap spread is large and the swap spread curve is downward sloping: the average spread is around 10 bps for swaps with maturity below 3 months, and it reaches negative 78 bps for swaps with maturity 10 years and above. The literature has suggested both demand factors, such as pension fund hedging needs (Klingler and Sundaresan, 2019), and supply factors, such as dealer sector's balance sheet costs and risk aversion (Jermann, 2020, Du, Hébert, and Li, 2023), affect equilibrium spreads. Using the calibrated model, we study the relative importance of supply and demand factors for equilibrium prices, taking into account dealers' net position along the entire swap curve.

We find that investors' demand pressure, amplified by arbitrageurs' high risk aversion, plays a relatively more important role compared to dealers' linear funding cost. To quantify this, we first set the average funding cost to 0. This only leads to a 13 bps change in swap spreads across all maturity groups. We then set the average demand pressure for all sectors to zero, which brings the swap spread to almost 0 for all maturities. The magnitude of change from shutting down the demand pressure is larger than that from removing funding costs, highlighting the importance of local demand imbalances. However, the effect from demand imbalances would have been much smaller if the arbitrageurs were less risk averse. Hence, we emphasize that it is the interaction between end-users' large demand imbalance and arbitrageurs' risk aversion that generates large effects on swap spreads.

Next, we leverage the model to study how demand shifts in one sector affect other sectors through adjustments in swap spreads. Such demand shifts could come from regulatory changes that force one sector to hedge more interest rate risks. For example, the recent banking crisis led to discussions on whether banks' stress tests should employ more scenarios on interest rate changes.[4] Such measures could induce banks to increase their hedging demand in the short-to-intermediate maturity group. Similarly, regulatory changes prompting pension funds to hedge more will shift their demand in the longest maturity group. This exercise can also be motivated by cross-country comparisons: different mortgage contracts and regulatory frameworks generate different hedging demand for banks (Hoffmann, Langfield, Pierobon, and Vuillemey, 2019). We use our model to quantify how demand shifts in one sector affect the cost of hedging for investors in other maturity segments.

[4]For example, see IMF Blog (2023).

We interpret any change in banks' demand as shifting the demand of preferred-habitat investors in the short-to-intermediate group and any change in PF&I demand as shifting demand in the longest maturity group. In the event of sector-specific demand shocks, we find that a 10% increase in demand pressure from banks raises swap spread in the long-end by about 3.5 bps. Because demand elasticities are small, quantity (other than the shocked sector) adjustments are small. This implies that when banks increase their hedging demand, it becomes cheaper for PF&I to hedge their positions, because the two sectors have opposite demand. A back-of-the-envelope calculation suggests that the economic effect is significant: it will save PF&I in the long maturity group almost GBP 21.7 million in hedging costs each year.

Similarly, if PF&Is are required to hedge more, it will also reduce the hedging cost for banks. Specifically, for the same magnitude of demand pressure increase in the long-end, it reduces the average swap spreads for all maturity groups, which translates into about GBP 29 million reduction in hedging costs for investors in the second maturity group. The same magnitude of change in the long-end has a much larger impact on all swap spreads compared to the change in the short-end, because imbalances in the long-end are associated with higher risks for the dealer sector. Finally, the impact of demand shifts on swap spreads would be much smaller if investors have more elastic demand, as part of the shock will be absorbed by quantity changes instead of price changes.

Related literature. Our paper contributes to the literature that analyzes the interest rate swap market - one of the largest and most actively traded financial instruments globally (BIS, 2022). We build on studies that leverage newly available regulatory micro-data to study investor behavior in this market: using the European Markets Infrastructure Regulation data, Abad, Aldasoro, Aymanns, D'Errico, Rousová, Hoffmann, Langfield, Neychev, and Roukny (2016) document the market structure and its main participants, while Fontana, Holz auf der Heide, Pelizzon, and Scheicher (2019) focus on trading networks and the effect of central clearing. In the US market, Baker, Haynes, Roberts, Sharma, and Tuckman (2021) use a one-day snapshot of entity-level exposures to document that net exposures are smaller than gross notionals, and Bolandnazar (2020) studies the imperfect competition among capital-constrained dealers and the effect of dealer regulation.

We take a "macrostructure" approach to show that end-users' hedging behavior interacts with intermediary constraints to shape asset prices (Haddad and Muir, 2025). Our paper emphasizes maturity segmentation and supply-side frictions that limit interest rate risk sharing among different investors. Our model captures investors' behavior in different maturity segments and allows us to study how hedging demand affects the term structure of asset prices. Further, we leverage the rich cross-sectional and time-series heterogeneity of our data to estimate investors' demand elasticities and quantify how demand shifts percolate across the financial system.

Our work also relates to the growing literature that analyzes interest rate risk management by end-users. Several papers have looked at risk management by *individual* sectors: Begenau, Piazzesi, and Schneider (2015), Hoffmann, Langfield, Pierobon, and Vuillemey (2019), McPhail, Schnabl, and Tuckman (2023) and Jiang, Matvos, Piskorski, and Seru (2023) study banks, Bretscher, Schmid, and Vedolin (2018) study corporations, Sen (2019) studies insurers, Jansen (2021) and Jansen, Klingler, Ranaldo, and Duijm (2023) study pension funds, Kaniel and Wang (2020) study mutual funds, and Pinter and Walker (2023) study non-bank financial institutions. In contrast, our paper studies the demand of *all* end-users jointly and analyzes their interactions across market segments. This cross-sector perspective helps us draw asset pricing implications and estimate the spillover effects of localized demand shocks.

Furthermore, we contribute to the asset pricing literature by analyzing the determination of swap spreads. Negative swap spreads, i.e. the difference between fixed rates for long-dated interest rate swaps and the corresponding government bond yield, have long been a puzzle in asset pricing. Recent work shows the importance of both demand and supply factors. Klingler and Sundaresan (2019) argue that the demand to receive fixed rates from underfunded pension funds explains why swap spreads turned negative after the financial crisis. Jermann (2020) emphasizes that supply frictions alone can generate negative swap spreads in equilibrium. Hanson, Malkhozov, and Venter (2024) use dealers' bond positions to impute swap quantities, and combine supply frictions and demand factors to estimate the relative importance of the two for explaining long-term swap spreads. We add to this literature in two important ways.

First, on the demand side, we find that there is a large heterogeneity across maturity segments, which is masked in the aggregate dealer positions. In our model, we account for the end-user demand in each maturity segment separately and allow for heterogeneous demand elasticities and exposure to the aggregate shock. Such a detailed account of the quantity-side has been lacking in the literature so far due to the unavailability of granular cross-sector holdings data directly from the swap market. Second, on the supply side, dealers optimize their swap positions across all maturity segments jointly, subject to balance sheet constraints. Accounting for the segmentation of end-user demand and dealers' arbitrage activities across maturity segments is crucial for matching the shape of the entire swap spread curve and for considering spillover effects among different sectors.

Finally, we build on the literature on preferred habitat investors and how their demand impacts asset prices (Vayanos and Vila, 2021). This framework has been used extensively to study the impact of monetary policy and investor demand on the yield curve of bonds (e.g., Greenwood, Hanson, and Vayanos 2016, Greenwood and Vissing-Jorgensen 2018, Li 2024). Recent work has combined arbitrageurs' wealth effect and balance sheet constraints in the preferred-habitat model (He, Nagel, and Song, 2022, Kekre, Lenel, and Mainardi, 2023). The framework has been applied to other asset classes, for example, the currency markets (Gourinchas, Ray, and Vayanos, 2023,

Greenwood, Hanson, Stein, and Sunderam, 2023) and the US Treasury markets (Jansen, Li, and Schmid, 2024). Bahaj, Czech, Ding, and Reis (2023) analyze the UK inflation swap market and dealers' supply in the short-maturity and long-maturity segment. Focusing on the interest rate swap market, we leverage detailed quantity and price data in each maturity segment to estimate the demand elasticities and aggregate exposures in a non-parametric way, uncovering substantial heterogeneity across sectors. Our framework allows us to quantify how investors' hedging costs vary with shocks to the system, that informs policy discussions on optimal hedging requirements.

1. Data

We use detailed position and transaction-level data in over-the-counter (OTC) interest rate swaps that cover all sectors of the economy, and where at least one of the counterparties to a trade is legally based in the United Kingdom (UK).[5] Our sample includes both UK headquartered entities, and UK branches and subsidiaries of any counterparty which may be headquartered in another jurisdiction. Our access to these data is enabled via the Bank of England by a key post-financial crisis reform, known as European Markets Infrastructure Regulation (EMIR), which seeks to improve derivative markets transparency by mandating the reporting of derivatives to trade repositories (TR). Reporting obligation under EMIR started in February 2014, where all OTC and exchange-traded derivatives contracted by EU and UK counterparties from August 2012 (or open at that point) had to be reported.[6] We source our data from two of the largest trade repositories, DTCC and UnaVista, that together constitute a 90% market share in interest rate derivatives (Abad et al., 2016). Our sample spans from December 2019 through June 2024. We restrict attention to this period because the reporting quality meaningfully improves starting late 2019.

1.1. Coverage

Our data consist of single currency fixed-to-floating interest rate swaps (IRS) and overnight indexed swaps (OIS) referencing all floating rate benchmarks, currencies, and tenors, and contracted by all types of counterparties. We estimate that our data cover at least 60% of the global swaps turnover

[5] OTC interest rate swap is the main instrument used for hedging interest rate risks. The Bank for International Settlements reports that OTC markets constitute over 85% of outstanding interest rate derivatives, and over 80% of those contracts are swaps (BIS, 2023).

[6] Note that trades starting January 2021 are reported under UK EMIR, while trades prior to 2021 are reported under EU EMIR. For the period under EU EMIR, we additionally observe trades between EU-domiciled banks and non-UK counterparties. However, as part of the post-EU-exit arrangements of the UK, trades between those entities are not covered starting 2021. For consistency, therefore, we exclude such trades from the earlier part of our sample. More details on the UK EMIR reporting obligation are available at: www.bankofengland.co.uk/financial-stability/trade-repository-data

denominated in any currency and 84% of the swaps denominated in GBP.[7] We arrive at these estimates based on the April 2022 triennial OTC derivatives turnover data from the Bank for International Settlements (BIS, 2022). Table A1 reports an average daily turnover of $3.4 trillion in April 2022 in our data, which compares with about $5 trillion of turnover reported by the BIS for all interest rate derivatives excluding options and complex swaps.[8] Within GBP swaps, we observe a daily average turnover of $287 billion, which is about 84% of the BIS estimate of $341 billion.

Our analysis focuses on GBP swaps due to our largest coverage in this currency and our ability to observe the entire interest rate swap portfolio of UK entities. Our vast coverage of this market is enabled by the fact that London serves as the center of global derivatives trading; BIS (2022) reports that 46% of all interest rate derivatives (amounting to $2.1 trillion) were traded in the UK in April 2022. Our data cover nearly all of these trades, plus swaps executed outside the UK involving a UK entity. To the best of our knowledge, this is the most comprehensive cross-sector interest rate swaps data deployed in academic research to date.

1.2. Outstanding Positions and Transactions

We source two types of complementary reports available from trade repositories: outstanding positions ("state files") and new transactions ("activity files") at an investor level. The stock of outstanding positions includes all trades contracted at any time in the past and open as on a given date, which helps us track the evolution of outstanding swap positions for each entity. The daily flow of new transactions includes trades contracted on a particular date and permits a more granular analysis of investors' trading activity along dimensions of maturities, prices, and volumes, in conjunction with current market conditions. These two reports jointly provide us with a complete picture of investor behavior in this market.

We extract 55 snapshots of outstanding position reports as of the beginning of each month from December 2019 through June 2024 for every investor in our sample. The trade-level variables we use from these reports include the outstanding notional, maturity date, identities of the counterparties, direction (receive or pay fixed), whether a trade is centrally cleared, and the underlying floating benchmark and currency. We use these variables to construct investor-level outstanding net position (expressed as net receive fixed rate notional), and the remaining maturity as of the date of report. Over the same period, we collect daily records of new transactions initiated in single currency fixed-to-floating swaps. The variables that characterize new transactions are similar to those in outstanding position files, with the addition of price (expressed as the fixed rate of the trade), which we use to calculate swap spreads. We use the maturities of new transactions to validate

[7] Our overall coverage closely matches with Abad et al. (2016), who report that EU EMIR covered 70% of outstanding notional in global interest rate derivatives in 2015.

[8] This is after adjusting for double counting of reported trades (see Section 1.2).

the preferred-habitat assumption of investors because outstanding maturities in state files undergo natural decay with the passage of time.

Main data processing steps. Trade repositories' data suffer from some well-known reporting issues.[9] We therefore dedicate a significant amount of time to address these issues, which entails three major steps. First, we exclude likely erroneously reported trades. Specifically, closely following Abad et al. (2016), we drop trades below notional values of $1,000 and above $10 billion, filter out trades whose maturity date lies before the effective date or whose reporting date precedes the execution date,[10] and drop intra-group trades which, while not erroneous, may indicate risk transfers within a group and not necessarily trading in response to changes in market conditions.

Second, we remove duplicate trades. The most common cause of duplicates is the "dual reporting" requirement under EMIR, where each of the two counterparties needs to report a trade if they both fall under the reporting obligation. Following Cenedese et al. (2020), we retain one copy of these trades using the unique trade identifier field. The second reason for duplicates is that, for centrally cleared trades, we observe the original trade contracted between the dealer and its client, and a "novation" trade that is a leg facing the centralized clearing house and a clearing member (usually the same or another dealer), both with different trade identifiers. Since we focus on end-user trades, this duplication does not affect our assessment of *client* level positions but it does lead to double counting of centrally cleared trades in the estimation of total turnover. Therefore, when estimating our data coverage, we halve the notional of centrally cleared trades. A third reason for duplicates is trade compression. Compression entails netting trades with similar economic characteristics at a counterparty level and re-booking a single entry of the net exposure to reduce the size of trading books. The raw positions data include both the original trades and the net trade arising out of compression exercise, which can lead to a miscalculation of outstanding positions. Therefore, we drop all trades tagged as compression when calculating exposures, but separately use these trades to construct a supply shifter when estimating demand elasticities.

In the final step, we construct our main variables. As floating rate benchmarks are typically not directly available under a single field, we construct them by concatenating information from multiple fields referencing the floating rate index (e.g., SONIA, LIBOR, SOFR), the currency, and the reset frequency.[11] Finally, we calculate swap spreads, defined as the difference between the swap fixed rate and the maturity-matched bond yield, by sourcing daily bond yields at six-monthly

[9] European Securities and Markets Authority (2021) provides a recent report on EU EMIR data quality.

[10] Execution date refers to the trade date, reporting date refers to when the counterparty reports to TR (usually within 2 business days of execution date), and effective date refers to when the swap gets active.

[11] After 2021, multiple indexes referencing the London Interbank Offered Rate (LIBOR) were discontinued from guaranteed publication, and GBP-denominated fixed income instruments transitioned to the Sterling Overnight Index Average (SONIA) benchmark (Klingler and Syrstad, 2021). During our sample period prior to this transition, the share of SONIA-denominated new GBP swap transactions steadily increased from about 75% in December 2019 to 90% in late 2021.

maturity intervals from the Bureau van Dijk Bank of England database.

1.3. Sector Classification

We classify each entity in our dataset into either a Dealer, a Central Counterparty Clearing House (CCP), or one of the five end-user sectors: (a) Banks; (b) Funds (including hedge funds and asset managers); (c) Pension, Liability-driven investment (LDI) funds, and Insurers (together referred to as PF&I); (d) Corporate entities; and (e) Official institutions (sovereign funds or supra-national institutions). Even though trade repositories have a reporting field for the counterparty sector, it is sparsely (and often erroneously) filled and not fully reliable. We leverage the non-anonymized unique identifier of each counterparty called the Legal Entity Identifier (LEI) to populate its sector using external databases.[12] In all, we allocate nearly 6,000 LEIs that trade across all currencies to one of these seven sectors.[13]

We start by filling in the missing names and jurisdictions of the LEIs using the Global Legal Entity Identifier Foundation (GLEIF) public database. Then, we use CapitalIQ and Thomson Reuters to populate the sectors associated with the individual LEIs. This method works well for larger entities. However, a substantial number of LEIs also need to be manually classified using their names and details of incorporation. Manual classification is particularly helpful for funds, where a main fund family often has several separate legal entities that trade derivatives but are too small to be reported in standardized data sources.

An important part of our sector classification is to make an economically meaningful distinction between end-user "banks" and market-making "dealers". This distinction helps us capture hedging of interest rate risk arising out of banking activities separately from intermediation services. From the list of all the entities classified as banks, we carve out dealers, defined as entities that meet any of the following four criteria: members of a clearing house such as the LCH Ltd. (formerly London Clearing House) or the Chicago Mercantile Exchange (CME), globally systemically important banks (GSIBs), participating dealers defined by the Federal Reserve Bank of New York, or broker-dealers and non-bank liquidity providers that facilitate order-matching.[14] Membership of clearing houses provides the sharpest identification of dealers because end-users are not allowed to directly clear trades with CCPs but large financial institutions and broker-dealers that meet certain minimum

[12]LEI is a unique identifier for each legally distinct entity that engages in a financial transaction. Multiple LEIs may roll up into the same firm or fund family. Financial Stability Board (2019) provides institutional details on LEI implementation.

[13]In the UK, some pension funds use liability-driven investment (LDI) funds to manage their funding risk, predominately via increased exposure to gilts. Hence, we consider LDIs as part of the PF&I segment.

[14]We retrieve the list of clearing members directly from LCH Ltd. website. The corresponding list for CME is available here. We source the list of GSIBs from the Financial Stability Board website, and the list of participating dealers from the Federal Reserve Bank of New York website.

capital thresholds are.[15] Moreover, the list of CCP members is available both by product (e.g., interest rate derivatives) and LEI, which enables a direct matching with our database. We also verify that the entities we classify as end-user banks do not trade with other end-user sectors and do not directly face clearing houses, which lends credibility to our classification process.

2. Risk Exposures Across the Financial System

We present the key facts on interest rate swap exposures across all participating investors, along with their estimated demand elasticities. While we focus on GBP swaps, the main empirical patterns we find are also present in other currencies.

We start by constructing measures of risk exposure for outstanding positions and transactions. We compute the net signed dollar exposures (Q_t), defined as the notional in receive fixed swaps minus pay fixed swaps at an end-user investor level,

$$Q_t = \sum_p \text{Signed Notional}_{pt}, \tag{1}$$

where $\text{Signed Notional}_{pt}$ is the gross notional of position (or trade) p at time t, signed *positive* for receive fixed and *negative* for pay fixed swaps. Thus, positive values of Q_t denote net receive fixed positions. For sector-level analyses, we aggregate this measure across all the investors within the sector. We complement this measure with swaps' dollar duration, i.e. the dollar value of one basis point parallel shift in interest rates, which we label as DV01.[16]

The interest rate swap market is dominated by funds, banks, and pension funds and insurers (PF&I), both in terms of outstanding positions and transaction volume. Columns (1) and (2) of Table 1 show the gross outstanding positions and net exposures (Q_t) held by each end-user sector in our sample as of February 1, 2022. In aggregate, funds held the largest stock of gross outstanding positions at GBP 1.2 trillion, followed by PF&I at GBP 1 trillion, banks at GBP 364 billion, official sector at GBP 73 billion, and corporations at GBP 68 billion. Net exposures in column (2) follow a similar pattern, while the net DV01 in column (3) is the largest for PF&I. Columns (4) and (5) report the average monthly gross and net transaction volumes for these sectors during our sample period. Similar to outstanding positions, funds have the largest trading volume, followed by PF&I and banks. However, the net notional relative to gross volume of new transactions is smallest for

[15] For example, the membership criteria of LCH Ltd. states "major financial groups (including the majority of the major investment banks), broker-dealers and specialist commodity houses" (www.lch.com/membership). As of August 2023, there were 124 unique LEIs that qualified as LCH Ltd. clearing members for interest rate derivatives.

[16] Note that $DV01_t = \sum_p Notional_{pt} \times Duration_p / 10,000$, where $Duration_p$ refers to the signed Macaulay duration of the fixed rate leg of the swap. We use currency and maturity-matched bond yields as at the beginning of our sample period to calculate the swap durations.

funds, indicating frequent two-way trading.

At an investor level, Table A2 shows that 365 funds, 576 PF&I, 105 banks, 258 corporations, and 16 official institutions held outstanding GBP swap positions in our sample as of February 1, 2022. The average fund and bank is large, each holding about GBP 1.4 billion of net exposure, while the average PF&I and corporate entity holds GBP 435 million and GBP 165 million of net exposure, respectively. We observe only a few very large official institutions that trade infrequently. Hence, we omit discussing them in detail henceforth.

2.1. Trading Direction Across Sectors

We examine the direction of net exposures both at a sector and an individual investor level. First, we find a significant heterogeneity in the direction of net exposures *across* sectors. Figure 1 shows the net outstanding positions aggregated for all entities for a given sector at a monthly frequency. Throughout the sample period, PF&I receive fixed rates, i.e. they add duration to their portfolios using swaps. In contrast, banks and corporations pay fixed rates, i.e. they sell duration using swaps.[17] This suggests that PF&I are natural counterparties to banks and corporations in the swaps market.[18] On the other hand, funds flip trading directions, receiving fixed rates at the start and end of the sample while paying fixed rates in the middle. The shift in funds' net position is most pronounced at the onset of the 2022 rate hike cycle.

Second, we examine intra-sector heterogeneity in the direction of net exposures at the entity (LEI) level. Figure 2 plots the fraction of entities within each sector that receive fixed rates during our sample period, depicted on the right-hand side axis. The left-hand side axis of Figure 2 maps this fraction to an "agreement score", where a value closer to +/-1 indicates homogeneity in the direction of exposures, and a value closer to 0 indicates heterogeneity. We find that corporations, PF&I, and banks are largely homogeneous: 80% of corporate entities pay fixed, 80% of PF&I receive fixed, and 70% of banks pay fixed rates. However, funds exhibit significant heterogeneity, with roughly half the entities receiving fixed and the other half paying fixed in any given month.[19]

Third, we find that the heterogeneity in funds' direction of exposure is largely explained by the different trading strategies they adopt. We scan the names of fund entities to classify them into granular categories that reflect well-known trading strategies: (i) fixed income or bond, (ii) macro,

[17] Figure A1 confirms that these directions are consistent for swaps denominated across all currencies.

[18] Since we observe only partial holdings of non-UK entities in our data (i.e., their trades booked with a UK counterparty), one may be concerned that the direction of exposures we document may not reflect the full portfolio of investors' swap holdings. However, we find consistent results when considering the net exposures of UK entities only (for whom we observe all trades). Figure A2 shows that the exposures held by UK PF&I and UK banks are also in opposite direction and are of comparable magnitude.

[19] Fund exposures are also highly concentrated within a few large entities. Figure A3 shows that the 10 largest entities held over 80% of net outstanding exposure in the fund sector as of February 2022.

(iii) quant or relative value, and (iv) other asset managers, and report their gross and net exposures in Table A3. Macro funds are the largest and, similar to banks and corporations, primarily pay fixed. They hold 45% of the fund sector's gross notional, but with a net-to-gross position ratio of 0.6, they account for 85% of *net* (absolute) exposures, as also visible in the time series in Figure A4. In contrast, other asset managers primarily receive fixed rates. Strikingly, the net-to-gross position ratio of quant or relative value funds is only 0.03, implying that they hold two-way positions that mostly net out, consistent with their perceived role of exploiting relative value. Overall, some funds behave like end-user hedgers (e.g., macro), while others behave like tactical traders (e.g., quant).

2.1.1. Sensitivity to Interest Rates

Next, we examine the impact of changes in macroeconomic conditions on investors' swap exposures. Specifically, we consider movements in the level of interest rates, which could either affect hedging needs (via shifts in the duration mismatch of the underlying balance sheet) or alter expectations of future swap returns. We estimate a model of the form

$$\Delta q_{i,t} = \alpha_i + \beta \Delta Rate_{t-1} + \epsilon_{i,t}, \tag{2}$$

where $\Delta q_{i,t}$ is the change in the net outstanding position for investor i from month $t-1$ to t, scaled by the average absolute position held by the investor in the two months. This scaled variable approximates percentage changes and is bounded between +/-2, similar to the Davis and Haltiwanger (1992) growth rate measure that mitigates the effect of outliers. We also consider the change in DV01 as an alternate dependent variable to account for swap durations.[20]

The independent variable, $\Delta Rate_{t-1}$, denotes the change in the monthly average of the first principal component (PC) extracted from daily UK government bond (gilt) yields for maturities of 3 months, 5 years, 10 years, and 30 years. We use lagged changes to mitigate the simultaneity problem to some extent. We also use the yields for 3 months, 5 years, 10 years, and 30 years as separate regressors for robustness. Finally, we include investor fixed effects and cluster standard errors by investor. Table 2 reports the estimation results.

Swap positions across sectors are sensitive to changes in interest rates, but there is striking cross-sector heterogeneity in the direction and the magnitude of the sensitivities. All the results in Table 2 show that β (i.e., the loading on rate changes) is negative for PF&I and positive for banks and corporations. As rates fall, PF&I buy duration and increase their net receive fixed exposures, whereas banks and corporations sell duration and increase their net pay fixed exposures. Specifically, for a one percentage point decline in the first principal component of yields, the average entity in the PF&I sector increases its net receive fixed exposure by 5%, and the average bank and

[20] DV01s can mechanically change with interest rates even without active trading by investors. Hence, we fix swap durations as at the beginning of our sample period such that ΔDV01 reflects only active trading.

corporation increases their net pay fixed exposure by 6% and 11%, respectively. The impact on DV01s is also of a comparable magnitude. The opposite adjustment in demand from PF&I and banks further suggests that they are natural counterparties in the swap market.

In order to better account for endogeneity in the co-movement between yields and swap positions, we consider an alternate regressor that reflects unexpected movement in yields arising out of central bank policy announcements: monetary policy shocks (MPS). We obtain the MPS measure from Braun, Miranda-Agrippino, and Saha (2024), calculated as the difference in the intra-day gilt yields before and after the monetary policy decision announcement of the Bank of England. We use monetary policy shocks reflected in gilt yields of three different available maturities — 2 years, 5 years, and 10 years — as separate regressors to estimate a model of the form

$$\Delta q_{i,t} = \alpha_i + \beta MPS_{t-1} + \epsilon_{i,t}, \tag{3}$$

with the rest of the specification analogous to Equation 2. Table 3 reports the estimation results, with changes in the net outstanding position as the dependent variable in panel A and DV01 in panel B. Note that the number of observations is fewer than in Table 2 because the MPS variable exists only when the Bank of England meets (37 out of the 55 months in our sample period).

We continue to find robust evidence that banks and PF&I react in opposite direction to changes in interest rates arising out of monetary policy announcements. For a one-standard-deviation positive monetary policy shock in 10Y gilt yield (3.8 bps), banks reduce their net pay fixed position by 2.6% and PF&I reduce their net receive fixed position by 1.4%. Finally, funds also exhibit strong sensitivity to monetary policy surprises, in a pro-cyclical manner similar to PF&I.

Discussion on end-user demand. The net positions of PF&I, banks, and corporations appear consistent with the hedging needs arising out of their respective underlying balance sheet maturity mismatch. Moreover, the sensitivity of investors' swap positions to shifts in interest rates is also consistent with the sectors' underlying interest rate mismatch.

PF&I face liabilities that are both long-dated and embed fixed rate guarantees. However, the asset side of PF&I balance sheet contains government and corporate bonds, which typically have shorter maturities than liabilities (EIOPA, 2014, Domanski, Shin, and Sushko, 2017, Jansen, Klingler, Ranaldo, and Duijm, 2023). As a result, the duration of their assets is shorter than that of their liabilities, i.e. the sector has a negative duration gap and is therefore exposed to a decline in interest rates. A pension fund or an insurer wanting to close the duration gap with swaps would need to receive the fixed rate. Moreover, as interest rates increase, the discounted liabilities of the PF&Is fall faster than that of its assets, reducing the need to receive fixed rate swaps as a hedge.

In contrast to PF&I, we observe that banks in our sample (most of which are located in the

UK) pay fixed rates and reduce swap duration as rates decline. Moreover, the total exposure from their swap position constitutes an economically meaningful portion of their underlying exposures.[21] Ordinarily, we expect banks to have a positive duration gap because their assets, which include fixed rate mortgages, have longer duration than their liabilities, which are mainly short-term deposits. If so, a bank wanting to close the mismatch between assets and liabilities with swaps would need to pay the fixed rate. While our finding is consistent with the basic business model of banks, it is in contrast to US banks, who do not seem to meaningfully hedge their interest rate risks with swaps (McPhail et al., 2023). There are several institutional differences between the US and the UK banking sector that may help reconcile the findings. First, UK (and European) banks face higher regulatory pressure to hedge their interest rate risk (Wilkes, 2023a,b), compared to US banks. Second, UK banks have higher deposit betas (Walker, 2023), which implies larger duration mismatch on the banks' balance sheets. Third, US banks face high prepayment risk from mortgages and to hedge that risk, they need to *receive* the fixed rate (Hanson, 2014). This is less applicable to UK banks as mortgage prepayment is often associated with a penalty (Benetton, 2021).

Similar to banks, corporations in our sample primarily hedge the interest rate risk arising out of floating rate debt issuance. Therefore, they demand to pay fixed rate swaps to hedge the risk from the fluctuations in short-term floating rates, consistent with the predictions in Titman (1992).

2.2. Maturity Segmentation

In contrast to the offsetting direction of exposures that facilitates risk sharing, we find that the swap holdings of various end-users are highly segmented across maturities. To account for the heterogeneity in exposures, we split positions into four maturity groups: below 3 months, 3 months to 5 years, 5 years to 10 years, and 10 years & above. For each group, we compute the net position as described in Equation 1 and label these variables $Q^{<3M}$, Q^{3M-5Y}, Q^{5Y-10Y}, and $Q^{\geq 10Y}$. Figure 3 panels (a) through (d) show the breakdown of net position in these four maturity groups.

PF&I swap holdings are consistently concentrated in the long-maturity group (10 years & above) throughout the sample period. In contrast, a bulk of bank and corporate positions are in the short to intermediate maturity groups (3 months to 5 years and 5 years to 10 years). Funds hold very short maturity swaps (below 3 months) and short to intermediate maturity swaps (3 months to 5 years). While their trading in the below 3 months segment is quite volatile, funds pay fixed rates in the 3 months to 5 years segment, particularly during the middle part of the sample period. Figure A5 confirms that all fund types predominantly hold short to intermediate maturity swaps.

Due to the longer maturity holdings of PF&I, Figure 4 shows that their net outstanding DV01 is

[21] For the UK banks in our sample, we find that a 100 bps upward shift in the yield curve would lead to a 4.9% increase in their equity due to an increase in the market value of their swap positions as on April 1, 2022. Velez et al. (2024) find corroborating evidence that Italian banks hedge interest rate risk using swaps.

the highest among all end-users. For a one basis point upward parallel shift in the interest rate curve, PF&Is lose about GBP 150 million on swap positions during our sample period. Correspondingly, banks in our sample gain about GBP 40 million. While funds trade very large notional of swaps, their positions carry relatively smaller duration risk due to a preference for short-term maturities.

The extent of segmentation is even starker when we look at the maturity distribution of new transactions. Panel A of Table 4 shows the fraction of investors within each sector that trades at least 50% of their swap volume in a single maturity bucket. About 90% of LEIs for any given end-user sector have a majority of their trading in a single maturity bucket, which we define to be the investor's *dominant* maturity bucket. Panel B of Table 4 shows that an average bank or fund executes over 80% of trades in its own dominant maturity bucket, with the corresponding fraction for PF&I at 66% and corporate at 91%. Panel C of Table 4 confirms that banks and corporations mainly trade in the 3 month to 5 year maturity group, funds in the below 3 month group, and PF&I in above 10 year group, consistent with their outstanding positions in Figure 3. Overall, the holdings and trading behavior of end-users show strong segmentation along the dimension of maturity, suggesting that swap investors have preferred habitats.

2.2.1. Aggregate Net Demand and Dealer (Im-)balances

We turn to understanding the dynamics of aggregate net end-user demand and dealer balances. Since swaps are in zero net supply, dealers take the other side of end-user demand, and their net position is the opposite of the aggregate net end-user demand. Dealer balance is defined as

$$\textit{Dealer Balance}_t = -\sum_s Q_t^s, \tag{4}$$

where s denotes all the five end-user sectors, including banks, funds, PF&I, corporations, and official institutions. We construct dealer balance in terms of DV01 analogously.

Figure 1 and Figure 3, which we discussed above, also overlay the dealer sector balances (in brown). We observe that a large portion of PF&Is' net receive fixed positions is offset by banks' and corporations' net pay fixed positions. This cross-sector netting reduces the total aggregate net demand that is supplied by the dealer sector.

However, two factors impede cross-sector netting and add to dealer imbalances across maturities. First, even though PF&I trade in the opposite direction relative to banks and corporations, their respective demands are highly segmented (Figure 3). As a result, dealers consistently receive the fixed rate in the 3 months to 5 years tenor and pay the fixed rate in longer tenors, exposing them to maturity-specific price fluctuations. Another way to see this is through dealers' net DV01 position, depicted in Figure 4. Dealers consistently bear the risk of a downward parallel shift in the yield curve because long-tenor PF&I trades receive a higher weight in this risk measure.

Second, funds tend to amplify the magnitude and volatility of net imbalances absorbed by dealers. For example, at the start of the interest rate hiking cycle in 2022, macro funds substantially increased their pay fixed position in the same maturity group as banks, which amplified dealer sector's net receive fixed position. Furthermore, in the shortest maturity group (below 3 months), funds frequently change the direction of their net exposure, inducing volatility in the net demand that dealers need to absorb. These two factors worsen dealer imbalances in different parts of the term structure, exposing them to non-parallel movements in rates in addition to the duration risk.

We note that the direction of maturity-specific imbalance absorbed by dealers is consistent with the shape of the swap spreads curve shown in Figure A6. Swap spreads reflect the relative price of trading swaps over bonds, and are positive in the short-tenor of the curve, where dealers receive fixed rates, and negative in the long-tenor, where dealers pay fixed rates.[22] Existing studies suggest that dealers hedge the interest rate risk on these positions using instruments such as bonds. For example, Hanson et al. (2024) proxy for dealers' net swap position using the negative of their aggregate Treasury holdings, and Wallen and Lu (2024) find that the profits of dealers' trading desks are not sensitive to rate changes, implying that the interest rate risk arising from their positions is largely hedged away.[23] As a result, the primary risk that dealers face on swap positions is the convergence (or curve risk) of swap spreads, rather than that of swap fixed rates.

2.3. Estimating Demand Elasticities

In this section, we estimate the demand elasticity of investors with respect to price changes. These estimates form an important input to our model calibration later, as they determine the extent to which demand shocks affect asset prices. Investors' sensitivity to price changes also dictates whether demand shocks are primarily absorbed through hedging costs (if investors are inelastic) or through quantity adjustments (if investors are elastic). We focus on swap *spreads*, rather than swap *rates*, as the relevant measure of price to net out the component associated with bond yields.

To overcome the standard simultaneity issue in estimating demand elasticities, we propose an instrument that shifts the supply curve using plausibly exogenous variation in dealers' balance sheet constraints: portfolio compression. Portfolio compression is an increasingly prevalent market practice that involves canceling the existing stock of offsetting derivative trades and replacing them with a single trade that retains the net exposures but reduces the gross notional outstanding.

[22] In contrast, Figure A7 shows that USD swap spreads are negative throughout the term structure. A potential explanation for this cross-currency variation is that US banks do not hedge using swaps (McPhail et al., 2023), while we find that banks in the UK pay fixed rates in short-maturity swaps. On the other hand, both USD and GBP swap spreads are quantitatively similar in the long-tenor, consistent with Klingler and Sundaresan (2019) who argue that US pension funds receive fixed rates in long-tenor swaps.

[23] Related studies on other derivatives find that dealers hedge the underlying delta risk on S&P 500 index options (Baltussen, Terstegge, and Whelan, 2023) and "0DTE" options (Dim, Eraker, and Vilkov, 2023).

Regulatory requirements under the Basel III framework (which became mandatory in 2018) prescribe minimum leverage ratio based on the *gross* notional of outstanding derivatives. Specifically, the calculation of derivatives exposure for leverage ratio requirements is based on the replacement cost and the potential future exposure, both of which increase with the gross notional of outstanding positions (Haynes and McPhail, 2021).[24] Conversely, compression enables dealers to condense multiple trades with offsetting cash flows into a single net trade, allowing for reduced regulatory capital requirements through the channel of lower leverage ratio (International Swaps and Derivatives Association, 2012). As a result, the increased prevalence of compression can at least partly be attributed to regulatory capital and margin requirements (Duffie, 2018). Further, Veraart (2022) argues that under a state of no defaults, portfolio compression also reduces systemic risk.[25]

We argue that compression activity affects swap spreads because it eases dealers' balance sheet constraints, with the direction of price impact depending on dealers' net swap positions (relevance). Furthermore, the impact of compression on prices can be economically large: between January 2016 and December 2019, LCH SwapClear, the primary platform through which dealers in the UK clear trades, compressed $2,656 trillion of gross notional, leading to a substantial reduction in the counterfactual outstanding notional (LCH SwapClear, 2023). An earlier analysis in ISDA (2015) suggests that the implementation of Basel III leverage ratio requirements, combined with increasing centralized clearing of swaps, had already led to a reduction of outstanding gross notional by trillions of dollars through compression.

We also note that dealers can compress trades only when the gross notional in both the receive fixed and pay fixed trades expands. A one-sided demand pressure, which is expected to have a direct impact on price, is less likely to associate with compression activity. As a result, we expect compression activity to impact prices only through changes in dealers' supply constraints and not directly through end-users' demand (exclusion). Furthermore, at least three institutional features of compression further strengthen the exogeneity of the instrument to investors' net demand and dealers' discretion in choosing whether and which trades to compress. First, the rules followed by the LCH SwapClear platform automatically identify trades eligible for compression and run multiple weekly runs to cancel gross positions of each member institution across a range of counterparties.[26] Second, Ehlers and Hardy (2019) note that certain US and European regulations require

[24] Gross notional of derivatives is considered under the Current Exposure Method, whereas duration-adjusted effective notional is considered under the Standardized Approach for Counterparty Credit Risk (Basel Committee on Banking Supervision, 2023).

[25] Using data on credit default swaps, D'Errico and Roukny (2021) estimate that over 50% of gross notional can be removed via bilateral compression, while Ehlers and Hardy (2019) estimate that compressed trades can account for 40-60% of turnover for some dealers. Bahaj, Della Corte, Massacci, and Seyde (2024) find that banks' gross positions proxy for the elasticity of foreign exchange rates to cross-border capital flows.

[26] Signing up for compression with LCH SwapClear is a one-time exercise for dealers, after which eligible trades can be automatically compressed. LCH SwapClear Guide provides a step-by-step overview.

large dealers to undertake compression activity multiple times a year, introducing an exogenous requirement uncorrelated with net demand. Third, compression requires not only the direction of trades to offset, but also that the forward-looking cash flows match off exactly, which is dictated by the timing of cash flow settlement in investors' trades over which dealers have no direct control.

We leverage our transaction-level data to identify trades tagged as "compressed" as on a given date. In the aggregate, between 15% and 40% percent of trades in our data appear as compressed. We hypothesize that an increase in the fraction of trades that appear as compressed against each dealer should relax its capital constraints and thereby reduce the price (i.e., bring swap spreads closer to zero). We construct a dealer-level weekly time series of the ratio of trades tagged as compressed (out of all outstanding trades) and compute its weekly changes. We then use this variable to instrument for the weekly changes in the notional-weighted swap spreads computed using all the new transactions facing that dealer. One limitation of our analysis is that we observe the net trades that result out of a compression exercise, and not the gross trades that led to it. While we expect that a larger number of net compressed trades should correlate with the number of trades actually compressed, our inability to precisely observe the latter induces a measurement error in our instrument which could bias against finding an impact on price.

Table 5 provides summary statistics on the dealer-week level compression variable, as well as the economic characteristics of trades tagged as compressed in our data. The mean compression ratio is about 19%, with a large standard deviation of 15%. Compressed trades are almost always facing the central clearing house (LCH Ltd.) and are cleared. An important assumption in our estimated elasticity is the stickiness in investor-dealer relationship; if investors switch dealers as a result of price changes on account of compression, then the elasticity may be misidentified. Panel B of Table 5 confirms that investors do not switch across dealers and that a vast majority of monthly trading activity by investors is with a single dealer only. Finally, Table A4 provides empirical evidence that changes in compression ratio do not associate with observables such as end-user demand, interest rate levels or volatility, and dealers' balance sheet characteristics.

Since dealers pay fixed rates in long-dated swaps, we expect compression exercise to increase swap spreads in the longest maturity group, and the converse to hold true for the shorter maturities where dealers receive fixed rates. In both cases, an increase in compression ratio "lowers" the price faced by end-users. We apply two additional filters before testing this hypothesis in a two-stage least squares model. First, we retain dealers for whom we observe prices in at least 90% of the weeks during the sample period. This ensures that we capture the prices provided by active dealers only. Second, given the substantial dispersion in dealer-level variables, we trim observations where the compression ratio exceeds the 99th percentile of the dealer-week distribution, and winsorize price changes at the 1% and 99% level to mitigate the impact of outliers. Then, we estimate the following first stage model for each of the four maturity groups:

$$\Delta\text{Swap Spread}_{i,m,t} = \gamma_m \Delta\text{Compression ratio}_{i,t} + \text{Controls} + \alpha_i + \alpha_t + \varepsilon_{i,m,t}. \tag{5}$$

We regress the change in notional-weighted swap spreads offered by dealer i in maturity group m and week t on the change in dealer i's compression ratio. We control for changes in net position facing the dealer in the previous week, as well as dealer and time fixed effects. In a robustness exercise, we add controls for dealers' balance sheet characteristics such as assets and capital ratios.

In the second stage, we use the instrumented swap spreads from Equation 5 to estimate the changes in net client position facing the dealer in the same week and maturity group, while retaining all the controls and fixed effects from the first stage. We estimate a model of the form

$$\Delta q_{i,m,t} = \beta_m \Delta\widehat{\text{Swap Spread}}_{i,m,t} + \text{Controls} + \alpha_i + \alpha_t + \varepsilon_{i,m,t}. \tag{6}$$

Table 6 reports estimates of Equation 5 and Equation 6. Panel B shows that the first stage γ_m coefficient attached to compression ratio is significant at the 99% level for the second and fourth maturity groups, where dealers' net positions are both unambiguously unidirectional and economically large (Figure 3). A 10% point increase in compression ratio is associated with about 3.7 bps reduction in swap spreads for maturities between 3 months and 5 years, and about 3.1 bps increase in swap spreads for maturities of 10 years and above. While the first stage is not strong for maturity groups one and three, for completeness we estimate the second stage for all four groups.[27]

Panel A of Table 6 displays the estimated elasticities of investors' demand to instrumented price changes. We find that investors increase their net receive fixed position in response to an increase in swap spreads. However, there is significant heterogeneity in the elasticities across maturity groups. In economic terms, for a 10 bps increase in swap spreads in maturity group two, investors (mainly banks and funds) increase net receive fixed position (i.e., reduce net pay fixed position) by about 8%. On the other hand, investors in the fourth maturity group (mainly pension funds and insurers) increase their net receive fixed position by only 2.5% for a 10 bps increase in swap spreads, with wider confidence intervals. The lower elasticity of pension funds and insurers is consistent with a preference for swaps over bonds due to capital constraints (Klingler and Sundaresan, 2019).

Even though the estimated elasticities in maturity groups one and three are likely upward biased due to a weaker first stage, they suggest that funds are the most elastic of all investors. We also find suggestive evidence that banks and funds (represented in maturity group two) have more elastic demand compared to PF&I. Overall, this ranking of investors is consistent with Figure 5, which shows that the net positions of all fund-types are orders of magnitude more volatile than those of

[27] Note that dealers' net positions are not consistently unidirectional in the first maturity group (Figure 3), while end-user positions in the third maturity group mainly reflect long-tenor swaps whose maturity has decayed over time. Table 4 confirms that the third maturity group is not a preferred habitat for any sector.

pension funds, LDI, bank and non-financial corporations. Table A5 provides a similar conclusion when we add controls for yield changes, rate volatility, and dealers' balance sheet characteristics.

Notwithstanding the imprecision in the estimated elasticities for maturity groups one and three, this exercise allows us to anchor the demand elasticities in our model to empirical estimates from our data. In the calibration exercise detailed below, we account for the wider confidence intervals of elasticities by using the full *distribution* of our estimates from Table 6.

3. Model and Calibration

We calibrate a structural model to study the interaction among different investors in the swap market. The objective of the model is twofold. First, we quantify the relative contribution of demand-side and supply-side factors to equilibrium swap spreads. Second, we conduct a series of counterfactual experiments to study the cross-sector impact of demand shifts, market integration, and arbitrageurs' risk aversion on investors' hedging costs. Given the strong maturity segmentation exhibited by swap investors, our model closely builds on the preferred-habit investors model of Vayanos and Vila (2021). We begin with a discussion of the model setup and calibration of parameters, followed by the decomposition of equilibrium prices and counterfactual results.

3.1. Model

Time is continuous $t \in [0, \infty)$. The maturities of swaps lie in $(0, \infty)$. To fully control for the impact of interest rate movements, we focus on swap spreads instead of the fixed rate in the swap contract. We denote by $s_t(\tau)$ the swap spread of swaps with maturity τ at time t. The corresponding price $P_t(\tau) \equiv \exp(-\tau s_t(\tau))$ captures the value of a fixed stream of payments in the swap contract *relative to* the value of a government bond with the same maturity.[28] This price captures the relative cost of hedging interest rate risk in the swap market versus doing so in the cash market.

We assume in the very short-term market, the swap spread is always 0. That is,

$$\lim_{\tau \to 0} s_t(\tau) = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad t \geq 0. \tag{7}$$

Preferred-habitat investors. Preferred-habitat investors have demand for swaps with a specific maturity and only trade swaps of that maturity. We verify empirically that this is true for most clients such as PF&Is, corporations and banks. In addition, some funds that specialize in a specific maturity bucket are also preferred-habitat investors in our model, as discussed in Section 2.1.

[28] To see this, denote the fixed rate in the swap contract by $y_F(\tau)$; the present value of this fixed stream of payments is $P_F = \exp(-\tau y_F(\tau))$. Similarly, denote the yield of a zero-coupon government bond by $y_T(\tau)$; its price is then $P_T = \exp(-\tau y_T(\tau))$. Under $P \equiv P_F/P_T$, $P = \exp(-\tau(y_F(\tau) - y_T(\tau))) = \exp(-\tau s(\tau)))$.

Following Vayanos and Vila (2021), investors with habitat τ have demand for swaps in maturity bucket τ

$$Q_t(\tau) = -\alpha(\tau)log(P_t(\tau)) - \theta_0(\tau) - \sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k(\tau)\beta_{k,t} \tag{8}$$

where $\alpha(\tau)$ is the demand elasticity; θ_0 captures the average demand and $\theta_k(\tau)$ captures the sensitivity of demand to the aggregate demand factor β_k. Investors in different maturity buckets may be exposed to similar demand shocks, such as the level of the interest rate, but the extent to which they are affected could be different, as captured by $\theta_k(\tau)$. For example, Table 2 suggests that banks and PF&Is tend to be affected by the interest rate changes in opposite directions. Finally, if $Q_t(\tau) > 0$, investors are receiving fixed; otherwise, investors are paying fixed.

We specify the demand for swaps as the relative price of swaps to bonds, as investors can choose to hedge either in the cash or swap market. Hedging with swaps can be more capital efficient, but the swap demand would be weaker if the swaps are more expensive relative to bonds of similar maturity.

Arbitrageurs. Arbitrageurs are risk-averse agents who can trade *across* maturity buckets and do not have any preference for specific maturities. Arbitrageurs include dealers as well as certain funds who get funding from dealers in order to conduct arbitrage activities across maturity buckets. As mentioned above, we follow the literature and assume that these arbitrageurs are specialized intermediaries who perfectly hedge their interest rate risk arising from their swap positions in other markets, such as the government bond market (Hanson et al., 2024). This is also consistent with recent empirical findings that dealer desks bear little market risk (Wallen and Lu, 2024). Hence the arbitrageurs are only exposed to convergence risk.

We assume that for each unit of swap held, the arbitrageur faces a cost c_t at time t, which reflects funding costs and/or balance sheet frictions. This cost could come from multiple sources. First, c_t captures the difference between the short-term floating rate referenced by the swap and the short-term financing rate available to the dealers to fund the bond position for hedging the interest rate risks. Second, c_t also partially captures the balance sheet cost of holding government bonds (Bicu-Lieb et al., 2020, He et al., 2022, Du et al., 2023). Third, a sizable fraction of the swaps are not centrally cleared. In this case, the dealer is required to hold additional capital against counterparty risk, which is costly as well.[29] Finally, in some cases, hedge funds are the ones performing the role of arbitrageurs in this market. Since hedge funds typically obtain funding from

[29]The Basel committee on Banking Supervision stipulates capital requirements for costs associated with the default of a counterparty, via Counterparty Credit Risk capitalization, or with changes in the credit quality of a counterparty, via the Credit Valuation Adjustment.

the dealer sector, dealers' balance sheet costs would get passed on to the hedge funds in the form of funding costs (Boyarchenko, Gupta, Steele, and Yen, 2018).

Arbitrageurs maximize a mean-variance objective over instantaneous changes in wealth dW_t. Denote the arbitrageur's position for swaps in maturity bucket τ as $X_t(\tau)$,

$$dW_t = \int_0^\infty X_t(\tau) \left(\frac{dP_t(\tau)}{P_t(\tau)} - c_t \right) d\tau + W_t r_t dt \tag{9}$$

where $\frac{dP_t(\tau)}{P_t(\tau)}$ is the return of holding swaps of maturity τ and r_t is the return of the arbitrageurs' outside option.

The arbitrageur's problem is

$$\max_{\{X_t(\tau)\}_{\tau=0}^\infty} \left[\mathbb{E}_t(dW_t) - \frac{a}{2} Var\left(dW_t\right) \right] \tag{10}$$

where $a \geq 0$ is the arbitrageur's risk aversion coefficient. Arbitrageurs benefit from the differences in swap spreads in different maturity buckets. However, they face risks from the time-varying funding cost c_t and the swap spread fluctuations.

Dynamics and market clearing. The state variables can be represented by a $(K+1)\times 1$ vector $g_t \equiv (c_t, \beta_{1,t}, ..., \beta_{K,t})^\top$. We assume that g_t is stationary and follows the process

$$dg_t = -\Gamma(g_t - \bar{g})dt + \Sigma dB_t \tag{11}$$

$$\bar{g} \equiv \left(\bar{c}, 0, ..., 0 \right)^\top \tag{12}$$

where Γ and Σ are constant $(K+1)\times(K+1)$ matrices; dB_t is a $(K+1)\times 1$ independent Brownian motion. Γ governs the speed of mean-reversion and Σ governs the variance and covariance of shocks. Furthermore, $\bar{c}$ is the average funding cost for the arbitrageurs. Note that the arbitrageurs can hold either positive or negative amount of swaps; we verify in our estimation that the net funding cost for the arbitrageurs are indeed positive.[30]

Finally, swaps of any given maturity are in zero-net supply. The market clearing condition is

$$X_t(\tau) + Q_t(\tau) = 0 \qquad \forall \tau > 0 \tag{13}$$

[30] It is without loss of generality to assume that the demand factor $\beta_{k,t}$'s have mean 0.

Equilibrium characterization. We first guess that the relative price for swaps with maturity τ takes the form

$$P_t(\tau) = \exp[-(A(\tau)^\top g_t + C(\tau))] \tag{14}$$

where $A(\tau)$ is a $(K+1) \times 1$ matrix, and $C(\tau)$ is simply a constant. The first element of $A(\tau)$ captures the price's sensitivity to the supply factor c_t, and the other elements of $A(\tau)$ capture the price's sensitivity to the K demand factors.

Using the arbitrageur's first order conditions and setting $K = 1$, we can characterize $A(\tau)$ and $C(\tau)$ in a set of differential equations, as presented below.

$$\Gamma^\top A(\tau) + A'(\tau) - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - a \left[\int_0^\infty \left(\theta(\tilde{\tau}) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} A(\tilde{\tau})^\top - \alpha(\tilde{\tau}) A(\tilde{\tau}) A(\tilde{\tau})^\top \right) d\tilde{\tau} \right] \Sigma\Sigma^\top A(\tau) = 0 \tag{15}$$

$$A(\tau)^\top \Gamma \begin{pmatrix} -\bar{c} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} A(\tau)^\top \Sigma\Sigma^\top A(\tau) + C'(\tau) - a A(\tau)^\top \Sigma\Sigma' \int_0^\infty \left(-\alpha C(\tilde{\tau}) + \theta_0(\tilde{\tau}) \right) A(\tilde{\tau}) d\tilde{\tau} = 0 \tag{16}$$

The boundary conditions are

$$A(0) = 0 \qquad C(0) = 0 \tag{17}$$

We leave the details of derivations to Appendix B.

3.2. Calibration

To bring the model to data, we discretize the maturity space into M maturity buckets, separated by a sequence of break-points $m(0) \equiv 0 < m(1) < m(2) < ... < m(M-1) < m(M) \equiv \infty$. With a slight abuse of notation, we use τ to denote the maturity bucket, $\tau \in \{0, 1, ..., M-1\}$. A swap belongs to maturity bucket τ if its maturity is in $[m(\tau), m(\tau+1))$. We denote the average maturity of swaps in bucket τ by $\bar{m}(\tau)$.

We consider a discretized term structure for two reasons. First, it allows us to estimate investors' demand in each maturity bucket non-parametrically. We do not impose any parametric assumptions on demand side parameters $\theta_k(\tau)$, $\theta_0(\tau)$, and $\alpha(\tau)$. Hence, we are able to learn what different preferred-habitat investors' demand looks like from the data. Second, the preferred-habitat investor assumption is more likely to hold for a maturity bucket than for a specific maturity point.

Denote $s_t(\tau)$ as the average swap spread in maturity bucket τ, and $X_t(\tau)$ as the total swap

holdings by the arbitrageurs in maturity bucket τ. Furthermore, the relative price of the swap can be written as $P_t(\tau) = \exp(-\bar{m}(\tau)s_t(\tau))$. Finally, we define $\delta(\tau) \equiv \frac{1}{\bar{m}(\tau)-\bar{m}(\tau-1)}$, which is the probability that a swap in maturity bucket τ transitions to maturity bucket $\tau-1$ in the next period. The discrete versions of Equation 15 and Equation 16 become

$$\Gamma^\top A(\tau) + [A(\tau) - A(\tau-1)]\delta(\tau) - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = a \left[\sum_{\tilde{\tau}} \left(\theta(\tilde{\tau}) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} A(\tilde{\tau})^\top - \alpha(\tilde{\tau}) A(\tilde{\tau}) A(\tilde{\tau})^\top \right) \right] \Sigma\Sigma^\top A(\tau) \tag{18}$$

$$A(\tau)^\top \Gamma \begin{pmatrix} -\bar{c} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} A(\tau)^\top \Sigma\Sigma^\top A(\tau) + [C(\tau) - C(\tau-1)]\delta(\tau) = a A(\tau)^\top \Sigma\Sigma' \sum_{\tilde{\tau}} \left(-\alpha C(\tilde{\tau}) + \theta_0(\tilde{\tau}) \right) A(\tilde{\tau}) \tag{19}$$

for all $\tau \geq 1$. Furthermore, the boundary conditions translate to $A(0) = C(0) = 0$.

In our baseline calibration, we set $M = 5$, with $m(1) = 0.05$, $m(2) = 0.25$, $m(3) = 5$ and $m(4) = 10$.[31] Under this definition of maturity bucket, we find that the preferred-habitat assumption is satisfied for most of the end-user investors. As Table 4 shows, the majority of end-users concentrate their activities in a single maturity bucket under this partition. We find that the main preferred-habitat investors in maturity group 1 (below 3 months) are funds, while preferred-habitat investors in group 2 (maturity between 3 months and 5 years) include mainly banks, corporations, and funds. Moreover, in the longest maturity group (maturity 10 years & above), the dominant investors are PF&I.

For the first four maturity buckets, we set $\bar{m}(\tau)$ to be the mid-maturity in the interval. For the last maturity group, we set $\bar{m}(\tau)$ to be 25, which is the empirically observed notional-weighted average maturity of swaps in that group. The parameters for the maturity buckets are summarized in Table 7.

We consider one aggregate demand factor, i.e., $K = 1$. This implies that we have two aggregate shocks in total, one for the supply side and one for the demand side. We refer to the shocks to arbitrageurs' funding cost c_t as supply shocks, and shocks to the demand factor $\beta_{1,t}$ as demand shocks. We do not take a stance on exactly what the demand factor is. The reduced form evidence in Table 2 suggests the demand factor is related to the level of the interest rate. Furthermore, we do not impose any assumptions on Σ, which means that the contemporaneous supply and demand shocks can potentially be correlated.

We calibrate the model by matching a set of model-generated moments with the corresponding

[31] The swap spread at the ultra short-term should be 0. We take $m(1) = 0.05$ as an approximation for ultra short-term swap spreads.

empirical moments. All the empirical moments are constructed using monthly observations from Dec 2019 to June 2024. To calculate swap spreads for each month and each maturity group, we use the actual fixed rate observed in our data for new transactions between end-users and dealers in that month. We subtract from it the maturity-matched bond yield as on the trade date, and aggregate at month-maturity group level using notional-weighted averages across all transactions.[32] We use Q_t in Equation 1 as our definition of quantities.[33]

We leverage the estimated distribution of the coefficients from Section 2.3 to pin down the demand elasticities for investors in different maturity buckets. Specifically, for each maturity bucket τ ($\tau = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$),[34] we draw an estimate from the empirical distribution in Table 6 and compute the demand elasticity $\alpha(\tau)$ accordingly.[35] For the remaining coefficients, we first target the volume-weighted average swap spreads and the average net notional held by end-users across our sample period. These moments are informative about the level of the hedging needs $\theta_0(\tau)$, as well as the demand elasticities $\alpha(\tau)$. Empirically, we find that the swap spread along the maturity curve features a downward-sloping pattern: it decreases from 10 bps in the first maturity group to negative 78 bps in the longest maturity group. In terms of quantities, on average, end-users in groups 1 and 4 are receiving fixed, and end-users in group 2 and 3 are paying fixed.

Furthermore, we target a set of second moments including the variance and covariance of price and quantity changes. For scaling reasons and consistent with Equation 2, we consider the change in quantity as

$$\Delta q_t = \frac{Q_t - Q_{t-1}}{(|Q_t| + |Q_{t-1}|)/2}. \tag{20}$$

We target the variances of swap spreads changes ($\Delta s_t(\tau)$) and the variances of scaled quantity changes ($\Delta q_t(\tau)$) for maturity groups 1-4. We find that the volatility of quantity changes is lower for group 2 and 4, consistent with the fact that banks, corporations, and PF&I have lower volatility in their exposures compared with funds (see Figure 5). To capture the correlation between prices and quantities, we also target the uni-variate regression coefficients of scaled quantity changes on swap spread changes for each maturity bucket respectively. The joint dynamics of spreads and

[32] Some trades erroneously report the fixed rate in terms of basis points instead of percentage points. We benchmark the fixed rate in our data with the maturity-matched daily market overnight indexed swap (OIS) fixed rate sourced from the Bank of England yield curve database. We retain trades where the difference between our fixed rate and the market OIS rate falls within 2.5% to 97.5% of its distribution.

[33] We only include investors with more than half of their trading volume in their respective dominant maturity buckets. We include all the large pension funds, but we only include their positions in the maturity bucket 10 years & above.

[34] Since the first maturity group $(0, 0.05)$ is chosen just to satisfy $s_t(0) = 0$ and there are few preferred-habitat investors in the very short-end, we only target the prices and quantities in maturity groups 1-4.

[35] The empirical distribution of the coefficient has mean equal to the point estimate, and standard deviation equal to the standard error in Table 6. Furthermore, we truncate the coefficients at zero.

quantities are informative about the law of motion of the supply and demand factors, as well as different sectors' exposure to the demand shock. We summarize the empirical moments in Table 8. The exact expressions for the model counterparts are presented in Appendix B.[36]

In terms of the parameter values, we have $2 \times (M-1) = 8$ demand side parameters (θ_0 and θ_1 for maturity groups 1-4). Since the demand side parameters for group 0 do not affect prices and quantities in any other maturity group, we set them to 0. We do not impose any assumptions on the demand parameters of the other groups. On the supply side, we need to calibrate the average funding cost $\bar{c}$ and the risk aversion coefficient a. Furthermore, we assume that Γ is a diagonal matrix, i.e., the predictable component of the change in the demand factor, $d\beta_{1,t}$, only depends on the lagged demand and not the arbitrageur's lagged funding cost. Similarly, the predictable component of the change in dealers' funding cost only depends on the lagged funding cost and not on the demand factor. For each set of demand elasticity coefficients drawn from Table 6, we calibrate the other parameters to target the moments described above, and then compute the counterfactual effects described in the next section. Since we will have a distribution of counterfactual effects, we report both the mean and the 90th confidence interval whenever applicable.

4. Results and Counterfactuals

4.1. Calibration Results

Figure 6 presents the model simulated moments compared with the corresponding empirical moments. The model can almost perfectly match the average swap spreads, the average quantities, and the regression coefficients of quantity changes on spread changes. Furthermore, the model captures the variance and covariance of changes in prices and quantities reasonably well.

We present the calibrated parameters in Table 9. First, the calibration confirms our reduced-form evidence that investors in the long-end of the market (10 years & above), who are mostly PF&Is, demand fixed payments, that is $\theta_0(4) < 0$. In contrast, investors in maturity group 2 (3 months to 5 years) demand floating rate payments $\theta_0(2) > 0$. Investors in this group include banks, corporations, and funds. Second, $\theta_1(2)$ and $\theta_1(4)$ have opposite signs, which means that investors in the short-end and long-end have opposite exposure to demand shocks. The estimates are qualitatively consistent with the interpretation that the demand factor approximates interest rate movements. When the interest rate increases, the demand for fixed-rate from long-end investors decreases; the demand for floating-rate from the short-end investors also decreases. The opposite signs of demand intercept and exposure to the demand factor confirm that the institutions trading

[36] To obtain closed form results in the model, we construct the model counterpart of Equation 20 as the change in quantity scaled by the absolute value of the average quantity. Since all the variables are stationary, this approximation is close.

at the short-end are natural hedging counterparties for the institutions trading at the long-end. However, market segmentation together with intermediary frictions prevent them from hedging with each other perfectly.

The role of supply vs. demand factors. Next, we examine the contribution of the different supply and demand side factors in determining the shape of the swap spread curve. In Figure 7 panel (a), we start with the swap spreads in the model using the calibrated parameter values, and we first remove the average dealer sector funding cost by setting $\bar{c} = 0$. During our sample period, on net, the dealer sector is holding positive amount of swaps across all maturity groups. Dealers therefore demand positive swap spreads to compensate for the funding cost incurred. Hence, setting the average funding cost $\bar{c}$ to 0 leads to an almost parallel downward shift in swap spreads for all maturities with a magnitude of about 13 bps. This change in the swap spreads is relatively small given the fact that the average swap spreads range from negative 80 bps to 10 bps empirically.

We then remove the demand side pressure by setting the intercepts of all the preferred-habitat investors' demand to 0, i.e., $\theta_0(\tau) = 0$ for all τ. As shown in Figure 7 panel (a), removing demand pressure essentially brings swap spreads to 0 for all maturity groups, suggesting that demand pressure from different investors indeed plays a quantitatively significant role in driving the shape of the swap spread curve. Next, we set the demand shocks to 0, i.e., $\beta_{1,t} = 0$, this reduces the swap spreads for all the maturities because it reduces the risks born by the dealer sector. Finally, removing the supply side risks brings all swap spreads to 0, which is the frictionless case.

We emphasize that the large effect of demand pressure on swap spreads relies on the dealer sector being risk averse. Indeed, the risk aversion coefficient of the dealer sector (a) is quite high in our calibration. Local demand imbalances expose the dealer sector to short-term swap spread fluctuations in each maturity bucket, and the impact on prices is larger when dealers are more risk averse. We find that when the dealer sector's risk aversion coefficient is smaller (close to 0), the demand pressure has a much smaller impact on swap spreads. In other words, it is the interaction between the demand pressure from the end-users and the dealer sector's risk aversion that generates large effects on swap spreads.

To further understand the relative importance of demand pressure from the different sectors, we set the demand intercept to 0 for maturity group 2 and the maturity group 4 one at a time. We ignore the other maturity groups because their demand intercepts are much smaller and are unlikely to play an important role quantitatively. Figure 7 panel (b) shows the re-calculated swap spreads compared with the baseline case. As investors in the long-end and short-end are natural counterparties, removing the demand intercept from either group results in more imbalance in net demand and the dealer sector needs to hold more inventories in equilibrium. This tilts the

swap spread curve away from 0. In both cases, the impact is larger for the longer maturity swaps. Despite the fact that group 4 has smaller magnitude of demand ($|\theta_0(4)| < |\theta_0(2)|$) than group 2, their effects on swap spreads are similar in magnitudes. This is because demand at the longer maturity segments exposes the dealer sector to more risks, hence each unit of long-maturity demand has a larger impact on prices compared to the demand of short-maturity swaps.

4.2. Counterfactual Analysis

We conduct a series of counterfactual analysis in this section, motivated by regulatory discussions and differences in the financial regulatory regimes across countries.

Demand pressure. We first examine how changes in end-users' demand affect the interest rate swap market across the maturity segments, and the spillover effects to other participants in this market. Such demand shifts could come from regulatory changes. For example, in light of the recent Silicon Valley Bank crisis in 2023, regulators are discussing measures to encourage banks to hedge their interest rate risks more, for example, including more comprehensive interest rate scenarios in stress tests or applying higher capital charges to interest rate risk in the banking book (Wilkes, 2024). Similarly, the UK pension funds crisis in 2022 also motivated various regulatory discussions on pension funds' interest rate hedging strategies. Alternatively, the demand shifts can be seen as a comparative static exercise to study cross-country differences and their effects on the swap spread curve. For example, banks' interest rate hedging needs are closely tied to the maturities and loan-rate fixation conventions of mortgages in the local region (Hoffmann et al., 2019). Variation in mortgage market conventions induces cross-region variation in the banking sector's demand for interest rate swaps, and thus on equilibrium swap spreads.

We start by considering changes in the average level of demand, i.e., θ_0. We treat factors affecting the banking sector's hedging demand as changing the demand intercept of investors in group 2, which is the dominant maturity bucket for banks. Likewise, we model factors affecting pension funds' hedging demand as changing the demand intercept of investors in group 4, which is where the majority of pension funds' trades are. Furthermore, while higher hedging demand in the banking case means more negative demand in the second maturity bucket (i.e., smaller $\theta_0(2)$), higher hedging demand for PF&I means they demand more fixed-rate payment in the longest-tenor maturity bucket (i.e., larger $\theta_0(4)$). In both cases, we increase the magnitude of the demand intercept by 10%.

Figure 8 shows the results. As banks and PF&Is have opposite hedging needs, an increase in one sector's hedging demand reduces the average hedging cost for the other sector. When banks hedge more, this raises the swap spreads for all maturity groups, reducing the hedging cost for

PF&I. Specifically, a 10% increase in banks' hedging demand raises the swap spread for the longest maturity bucket by 3.5 bps. A back-of-the-envelope calculation suggests that this increase in swap spreads would save investors in the longest maturity group, i.e. primarily the PF&I sector, almost GBP 21.7 million ($\approx 0.035\% \times 62$billion) per year on average in hedging costs. Note that because investors' demands are relatively inelastic, the net notional exposure barely changes. On the other hand, a 10% increase in PF&I's hedging demand reduces the swap spread faced by the banking sector by about 2 bps and the swap spread faced by the PF&I sector by 12 bps. This leads to an estimated GBP 29 million ($\approx 0.02\% \times 144$ billion) reduction in average hedging costs for the investors trading in group 2, i.e. primarily the end-user banks, and an estimated GBP 84 million increase in average hedging costs for investors in group 4.

In Figure 8 panels (c) and panel (d), we plot the changes in the average swap spreads in the two experiments respectively. Comparing the two, we find that the effect on swap spreads is much larger when the demand shift happens in the PF&I sector, even though the magnitude of demand changes in group 4 is smaller. The impact of demand changes on swap spreads is 3-4 times larger if the demand shift occurs in maturity bucket 4 compared to demand shifts in maturity bucket 2. This is because swaps with longer tenor are riskier, hence demand imbalances in the long-end have larger impact on equilibrium prices than those in the short-end. Furthermore, regardless of where the demand shift originates, its impact on spreads is monotonically increasing in swaps' maturities. In both cases, the change in swap spreads in the longest maturity bucket is much larger than the change in the second maturity bucket.

Finally, we repeat the experiment of demand shifts under more elastic demands. Investors' demand could become more elastic when either market power or concentration of the investor base changes or when it becomes easier to hedge interest rate risk using other instruments. Specifically, we increase the demand elasticities for all preferred-habitat investors by 10 fold. We then plot the change in swap spreads when banks' hedging demand increase by one unit (Figure 8 panel (e)) and when PF&I's hedging demand increase by one unit (Figure 8 panel (f)). We find that the same magnitude of demand changes lead to smaller effects on equilibrium prices, as a larger fraction of the shock is absorbed by adjustments in quantities.

Demand sensitivity. In addition to shifting the level of demand, regulation could also affect how hedging demand responds to aggregate conditions. Hence, we also evaluate the effect on swap spreads when demand in different sectors becomes more sensitive to the aggregate demand factor. Similar to before, we focus on the two main preferred-habitat investors: the banking sector in maturity bucket 2, and the PF&I sector in maturity bucket 4.

In the first experiment, we increase the sensitivity of banks' hedging demand to the aggregate

factor by increasing the absolute value of $\theta_1(2)$ by 20% while maintaining the sign. In the second experiment, we increase the sensitivity of PF&I's demand by increasing the absolute value of $\theta_1(4)$ by the same magnitude. The equilibrium average swap spreads are re-calculated and the differences from the baseline are plotted in Figure 9 panels (a) and (b). An increase in demand sensitivity increases the risk borne by the arbitrageurs. As a result, the prices move against the sector with increased demand sensitivity. In the case of the banking sector, this means that spreads increase, while in the case of the PF&I sector, it implies decreases in all the spreads. As before, we find the same magnitude of changes in the long maturity group has much larger impact on all the swap spreads than those in the short maturity group. Finally, the spillover effect across different sectors is smaller when demands are more elastic.

More integrated markets. A major friction in this market is that investors with opposite hedging needs trade in segmented markets, exposing the dealers to fluctuations in swap spreads of different sub-markets. To understand the quantitative implication of market segmentation, we consider a hypothetical scenario where some PF&Is trade in the same maturity group as banks. Since it is not realistic to move all the long-term demand to short-term maturity bucket, we consider the case where $\gamma = 20\%$ of the demand in group 4 is moved to group 2 in Figure 10. We scale the demand parameters, θ_0 and θ_1, by $\bar{m}(4)/\bar{m}(2)$ so that PF&I's demand in duration term stays approximately the same. Specifically, the new demand parameters $\theta_1'(\tau)$, $\theta_0'(\tau)$ and $\alpha'(\tau)$ are equal to the baseline estimates for $\tau = 0, 1, 3$. For $\tau = 2$ and $\tau = 4$,

$$\theta_0'(2) = \theta_0(2) + \gamma \times \theta_0(4) \times \frac{\bar{m}(4)}{\bar{m}(2)} \tag{21}$$

$$\theta_1'(2) = \theta_1(2) + \gamma \times \theta_1(4) \times \frac{\bar{m}(4)}{\bar{m}(2)} \tag{22}$$

$$\theta_0'(4) = (1-\gamma) \times \theta_0(4) \qquad \theta_1'(4) = (1-\gamma) \times \theta_1(4) \tag{23}$$

$$\alpha'(2) = \alpha(2) + \gamma \times \alpha(4) \qquad \alpha'(4) = (1-\gamma)\alpha(4) \tag{24}$$

We find that moving PF&Is to trade in the same maturity group as banks shifts down the swap spread curve, as shown in Figure 10. This is mainly because merging sectors with opposite demand reduces the risks born by the dealer sector, leading to higher spreads. This leads to higher hedging costs for banks, but substantially reduces the hedging costs for PF&Is. In terms of quantities, moving part of the PF&I's demand to the same group as banks' demand facilitates more netting and reduces the outstanding positions in all maturity buckets.

Arbitrageurs' risk aversion. Lastly, certain dealer regulations may also induce dealers to behave as if they are more risk-averse. We find that an increase in arbitrageur's risk aversion coefficient

leads to lower swap spreads across the maturity bucket. This is because the arbitrageurs have negative maturity-adjusted position in swap spreads. When arbitrageurs are more risk-averse, they demand higher return compensation, which leads to lower swap spreads. In Figure 11, we double the magnitude of the risk-aversion coefficient. We see that swap spreads are 13 bps lower in the second maturity group, and almost 90 bps lower in the longest maturity group.

4.3. Future Extensions

In this section, we discuss potential future extensions, leveraging our detailed swaps holdings and transactions data and the model framework further. First, one can investigate demand heterogeneity *within* each maturity bucket using the granular quantity and pricing data at an investor level. Our current framework explores the heterogeneity *across* maturity groups. However, within each maturity group, different institution types may exhibit different trading patterns. For example, in maturity group 2, in addition to banks, various types of funds also trade large quantities, with potentially heterogeneous demand elasticities and exposure to aggregate shocks. Unpacking the heterogeneity within maturity groups can shed light on additional sources of local demand pressures, how they vary with market conditions and affect asset prices.

Second, it may also be interesting to consider multiple demand factors since different end-users may respond to different parts of the yield curve or other business cycle variables. For example, while all end-user sectors appear sensitive to parallel shifts in the yield curve, banks and funds may respond differently to steepening or flattening of the yield curve compared to PF&Is. Considering multiple demand factors could be particularly important for analyzing how demand and swap spreads change over the business cycle. Relatedly, given that we have shifted from a low to a high interest rate environment in 2022, it would be interesting to estimate the model on sub-samples to shed light on how financial institutions behave differently under different monetary policy regimes. Such an analysis will be possible once more data becomes available for the high interest rate period.

Finally, comparing the hedging behavior of a particular institution type (e.g., banks or insurers) across different countries could inform us on the factors motivating the demand for swaps in particular maturity segments in the first place. For example, a large fraction of UK insurers' liabilities are now in mutual fund like products that offer no investment guarantees (Sen and Humphry, 2018), which is very different from US insurers who provide long-term guaranteed return products. Similarly, banks in different countries have different loan fixation regimes and deposit market sensitivities. Regulations in different countries may also play a role. However, such geographical comparisons require more comprehensive data compiled from individual countries, which calls for greater coordination among regulatory bodies of different countries.

5. Conclusion

This paper provides the first large-scale empirical evidence on the extent of risk sharing in the interest rate swaps market, and quantifies how demand imbalances and frictions in the dealer sector affect swap spread dynamics. Using granular transaction-level data on both the stock and the flow of swap trades, we show that the PF&I sector emerges as a natural counterparty to banks and corporations. While PF&I mostly receive fixed, banks and corporations pay fixed. Furthermore, as rates fall, PF&I increase their net receive positions, while banks and corporations increase their net pay positions. Their trading behavior is consistent with them hedging interest rate risk from their underlying business models. The opposite positions of PF&I vis-a-vis banks and corporations imply that they are natural counterparties in the interest rate swap market, and this cross-sector netting reduces the aggregate net demand that has to be supplied by the dealers. However, the market is highly segmented across maturities: PF&I mostly hold long maturity swaps of 10 years & above, while banks and corporations mainly hold positions with maturities between 3 months to 5 years. This segmentation leaves large demand imbalances for dealers at different maturities.

We study the implications of demand imbalances on asset prices by calibrating a preferred-habitat investors model with risk-averse arbitrageurs, who face both funding cost shocks and demand side fluctuations. The richness of our data allows us to impose very little assumptions in our calibration. We find that the demand pressure, especially from the banking and PF&I sector, plays a relatively larger role than arbitrageurs' funding costs in explaining the shape of the swap spread curve. We also provide quantitative assessments of the spillover effects of sector-level demand shifts on the hedging costs of other sectors, which inform regulatory discussions on hedging requirements in light of recent events in the banking and PF&I sectors. Our results highlight the complex interactions and consequences of demand imbalances in one of the largest and most liquid financial markets in the world.

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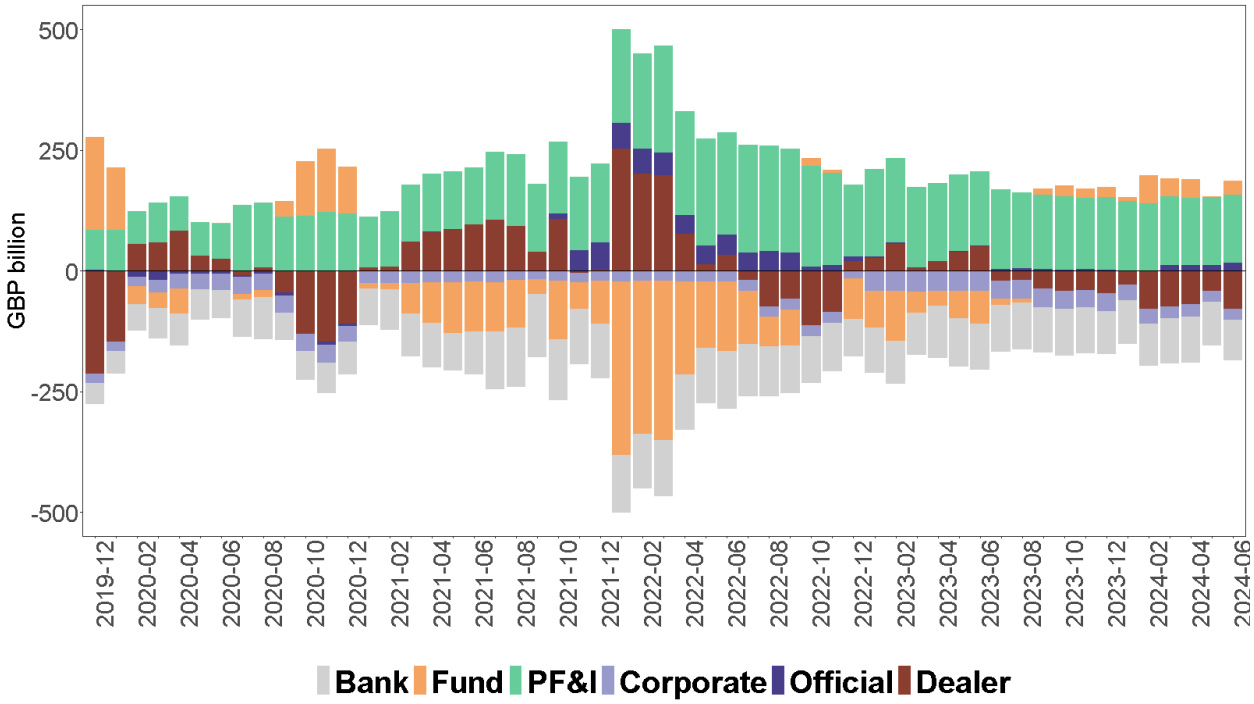
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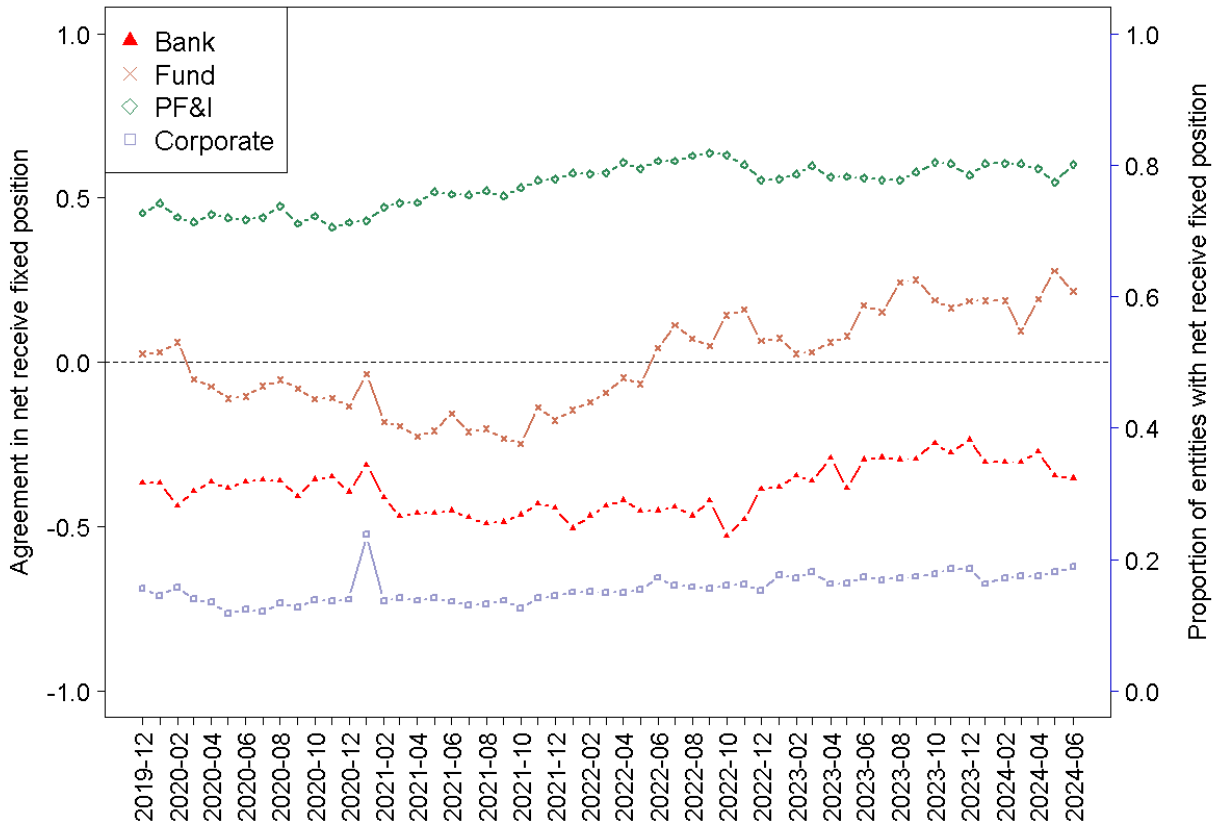
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Figure 1: Net Outstanding Positions



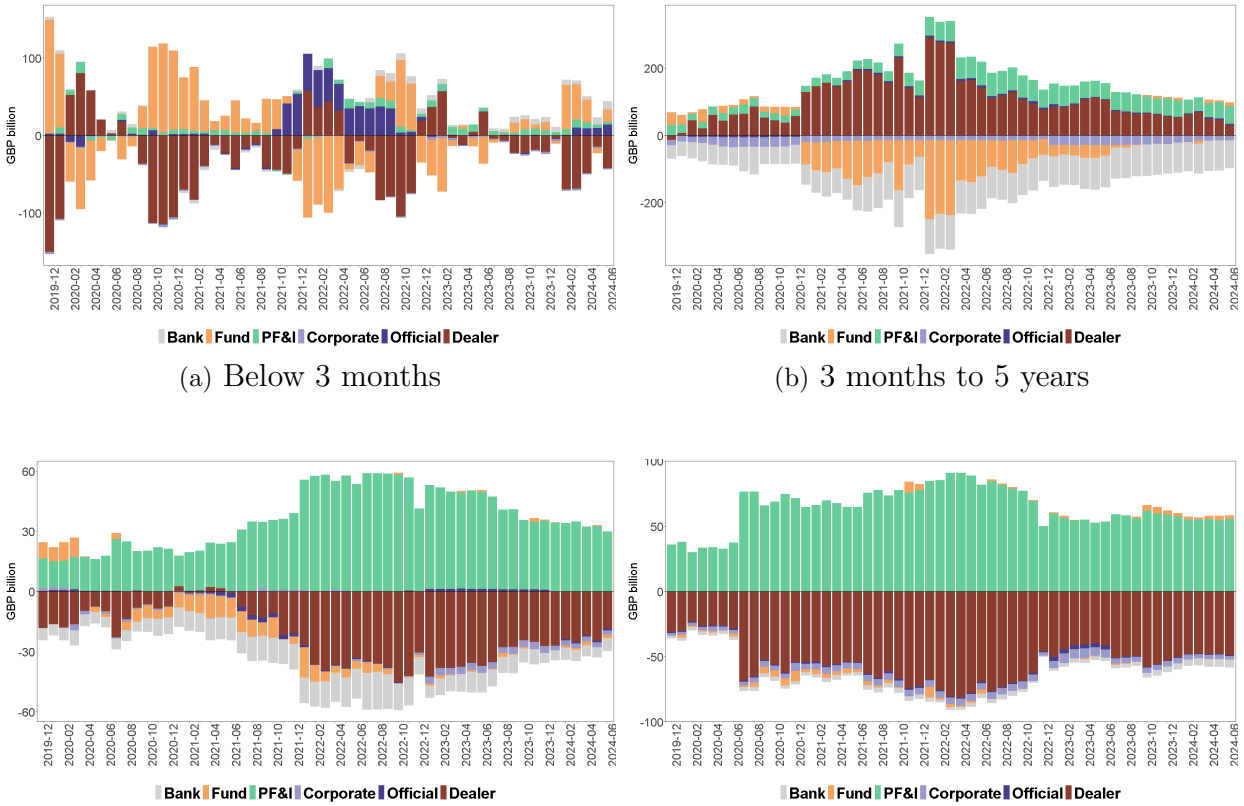
Notes: This figure shows net outstanding positions in GBP billion at the start of every month for five end-user sectors and the dealer sector. A positive value on the y-axis indicates a net receive fixed position while a negative value indicates a net pay fixed position. Net outstanding position is calculated as the difference between the outstanding notional values of receive fixed rate and pay fixed rate swaps for each legal entity as per Equation 1, and then aggregated for five end-user sectors: Bank, Fund, PF&I (pensions, liability-driven investment funds, and insurance), Corporate, and Official (sovereign and supra-national institutions). We calculate the net outstanding position for the dealer sector as the opposite side of aggregate end-user positions such that the market clears. This figure considers swaps denominated in British pound sterling (GBP), while Figure A1 considers swaps denominated across all currencies in our sample.

Figure 2: Exposure Heterogeneity within Sectors



Notes: This figure depicts within-sector heterogeneity in exposures using entity-level net positions at the start of every month. We use two measures of exposure heterogeneity. The left axis represents an agreement score, where each entity gets a score of +1 if it has a net receive fixed outstanding position, or -1 if it has a net pay fixed outstanding position. We then plot the monthly time-series of an average score across all entities within each sector. A score closer to zero indicates large disagreement within the sector, a score closer to +1 (-1) indicates that most entities hold net receive (pay) fixed position. The second measure is depicted on the right axis which shows the proportion of entities within each sector that held a net receive fixed position. About 80% of PF&I (pensions, liability-driven investment funds, and insurance) held net receive fixed positions during the sample period, while 80% of corporations and 70% of banks held net pay fixed positions. Funds displayed the largest heterogeneity with a roughly equal split between net receive and net paid positions.

Figure 3: Net Outstanding Positions by Maturity Group



(a) Below 3 months

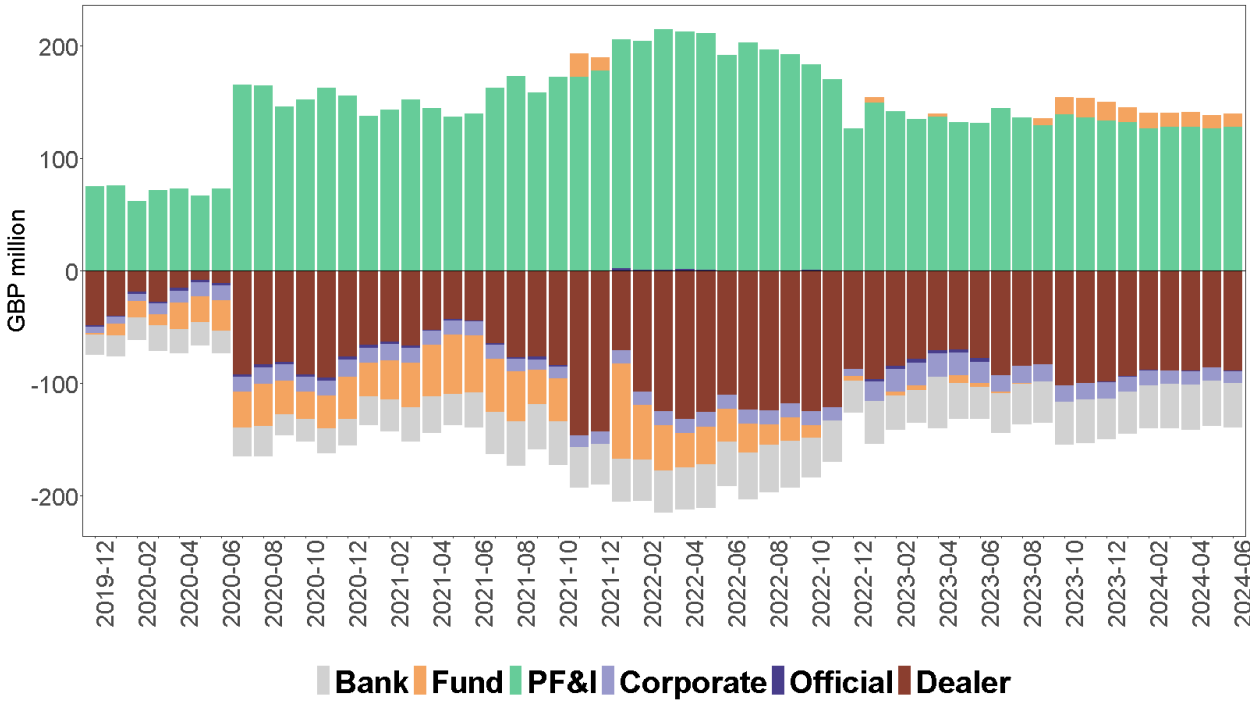
(b) 3 months to 5 years

(c) 5 years to 10 years

(d) 10 years & above

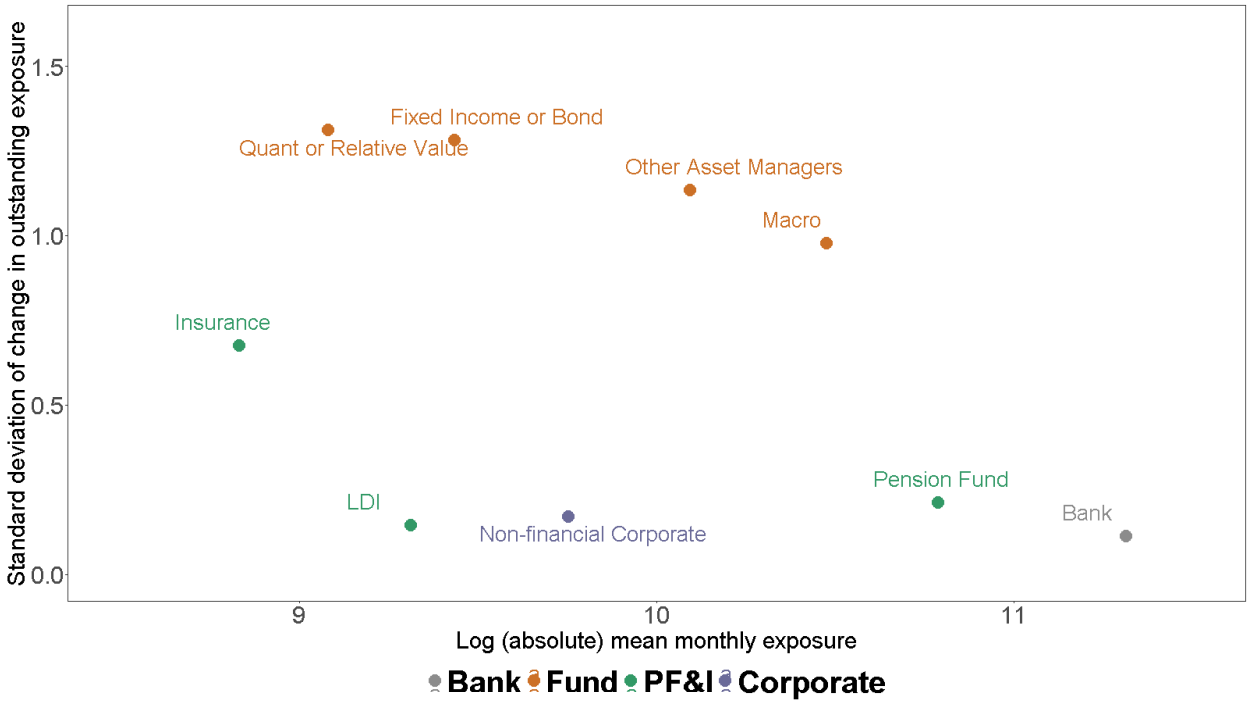
Notes: This figure shows net outstanding positions in GBP billion at the start of every month for five end-user sectors and the dealer sector, split by four maturity groups: Below 3 months in panel (a), 3 months to 5 years in panel (b), 5 years to 10 years in panel (c), and 10 years & above in panel (d). A positive value on the y-axis indicates a net receive fixed position while a negative value indicates a net pay fixed position. Net outstanding position is calculated as the difference between the outstanding notional values of receive fixed rate and pay fixed rate swaps for each legal entity as per Equation 1, and then aggregated for five end-user sectors: Bank, Fund, PF&I (pensions, liability-driven investment funds, and insurance), Corporate, and Official (sovereign and supra-national institutions). We calculate the net outstanding position for the dealer sector in each maturity group as the opposite side of aggregate end-user positions such that the market clears.

Figure 4: Net Outstanding DV01



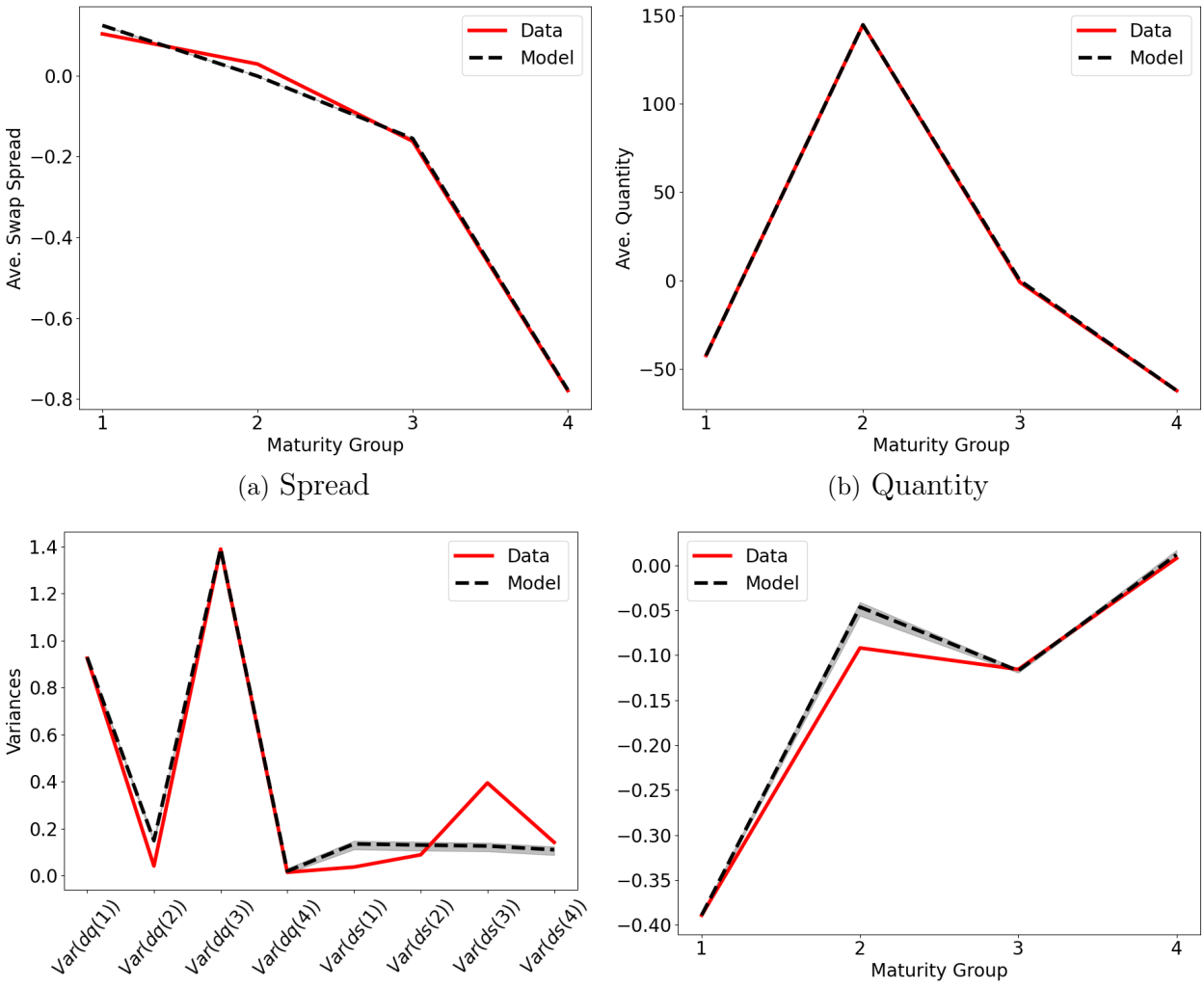
Notes: This figure shows net outstanding DV01 at the start of every month for five end-user sectors and the dealer sector. DV01 refers to the change in dollar value of swaps for one basis point parallel shift in the interest rate curve. A positive value on the y-axis indicates a net positive DV01 (i.e., the value of swap increases with a downward shift in the interest rate curve) while a negative value indicates a net negative DV01. The net outstanding DV01 for the dealer sector is calculated as the opposite side of aggregate end-user positions such that the market clears.

Figure 5: Investor Size and Exposure Volatility



Notes: This figure plots the relationship between size of sub-sectors and volatility in their outstanding positions. Sub-sectors include the four types of funds and three types of PF&I, with a single representation each from Bank and Corporate. X-axis reports the size of each sub-sector, calculated as the log of mean (absolute) net monthly exposure observed during our sample period. Y-axis represents the corresponding standard deviation of he change in monthly outstanding positions within the dominant maturity group for that sector. Dominant maturity groups are: 3 months to 5 years for Bank and Corporate, Below 3 months for Fund, and 10 years & above for PF&I. Changes in monthly outstanding positions are scaled to enable comparison and mitigate the effect of outliers. This variable is defined in Equation 20 and is bounded between -2 and +2. All sub-sectors are represented on the plot using the color of the overall sector as reported in the legend.

Figure 6: Comparing Model Simulated Moments with Empirical Moments



(a) Spread

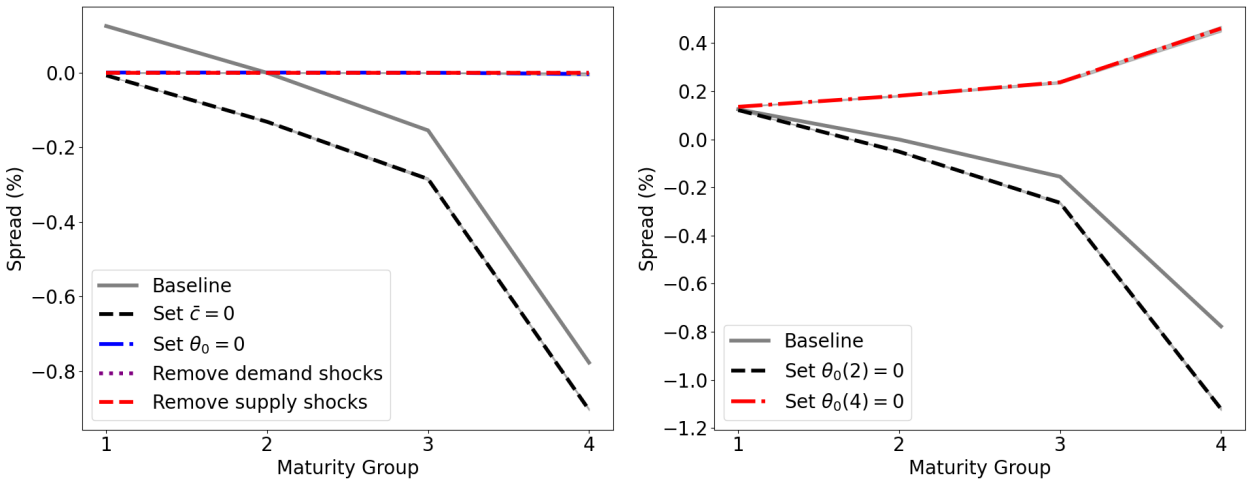
(b) Quantity

(c) Variance

(d) Reg. Coeff. of dq on ds

Notes: This figure compares the model simulated moments with the corresponding empirical moments from the data. All the spreads and yields are quoted in percentage terms. Quantities are in the unit of GBP billion.

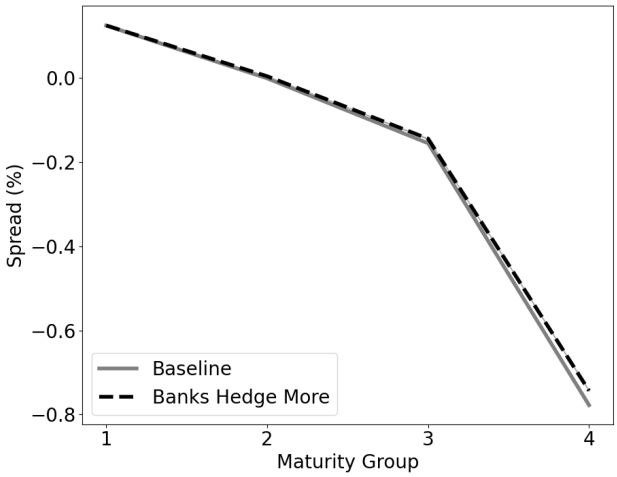
Figure 7: Decomposing Supply and Demand Factors



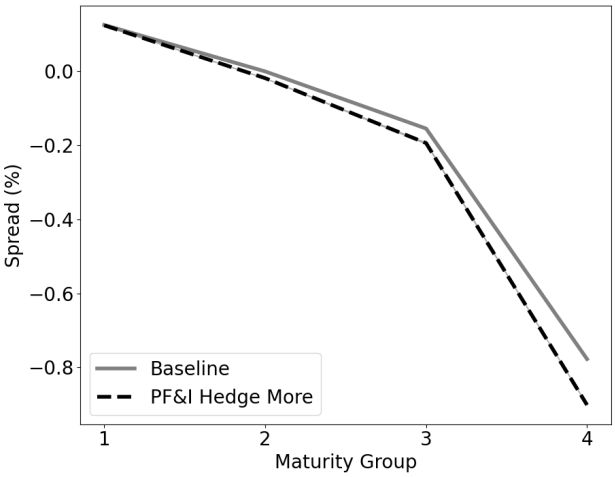
(a) (b)

Notes: This figure plots the average swap spreads for different scenarios. In panel (a), we start with the baseline swap spreads, then we set $\bar{c} = 0$ and recalculate the swap spreads in equilibrium. Next, we set $\theta_0(\tau) = 0$ for all τ. We then remove demand side shocks, i.e. $d\beta_{1,t} = 0$ and finally remove all supply side shocks $dc_t = 0$. In panel (b), we set $\theta_0 = 0$ for one group at a time and recalculate the equilibrium swap spreads. Spreads are quoted in percentage terms.

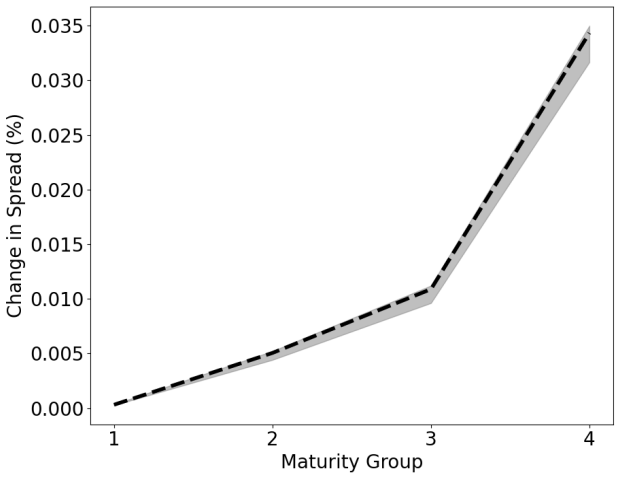
Figure 8: Counterfactual Analysis on Demand Pressure



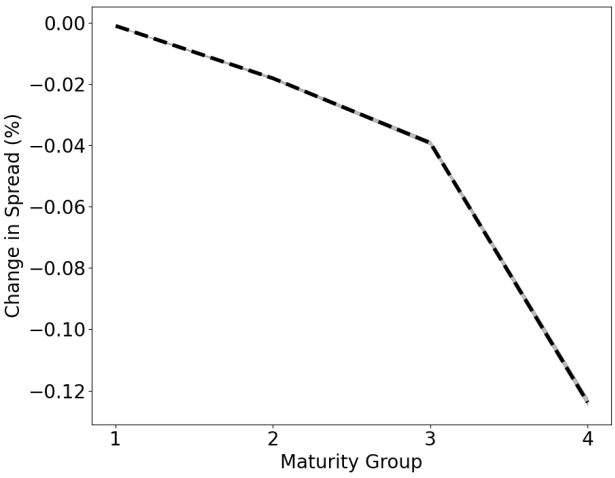
(a) Banks Hedge More



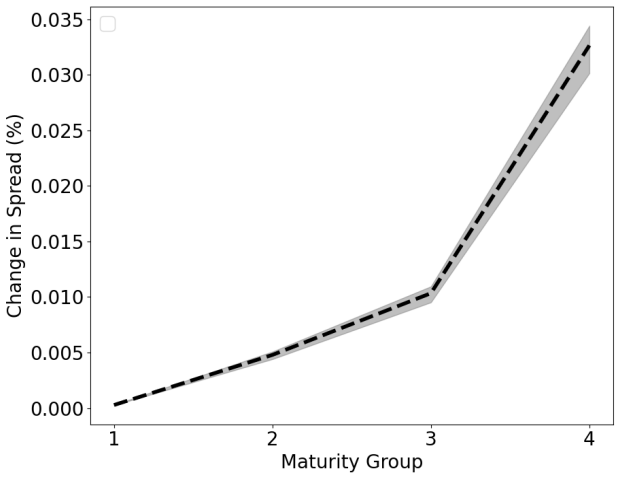
(b) PF&I Hedge More



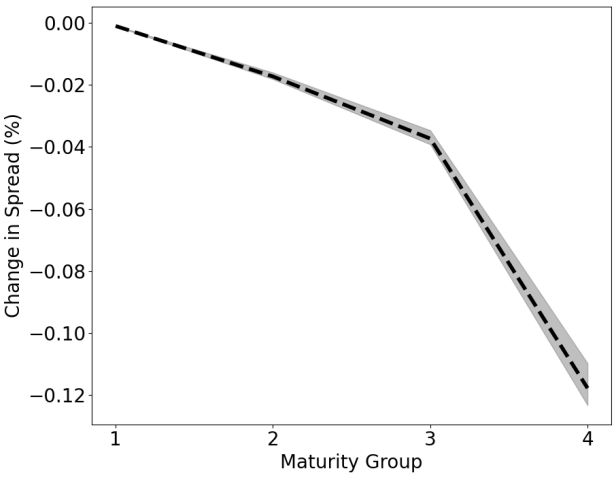
(c) Banks Hedge More



(d) PF&I Hedge More



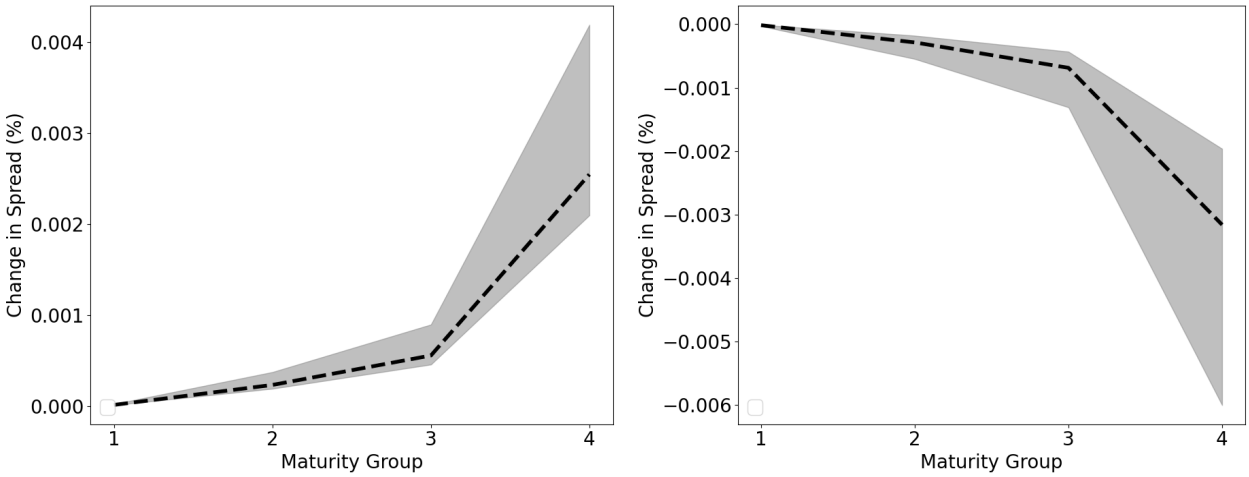
(e) Banks Hedge More (Elastic Demand)



(f) PF&I Hedge More (Elastic Demand)

Notes: Panels (a) and (b) plot the counterfactual swap spreads when the magnitudes of $\theta_0(2)$ and $\theta_0(4)$ increase by 10% respectively. Panels (c) and (d) plot the changes in spreads. Panels (e) and (f) plot the changes in spreads for the two counterfactuals when demand for all sectors are 10 times more elastic.

Figure 9: Counterfactual Analysis on Demand Sensitivity

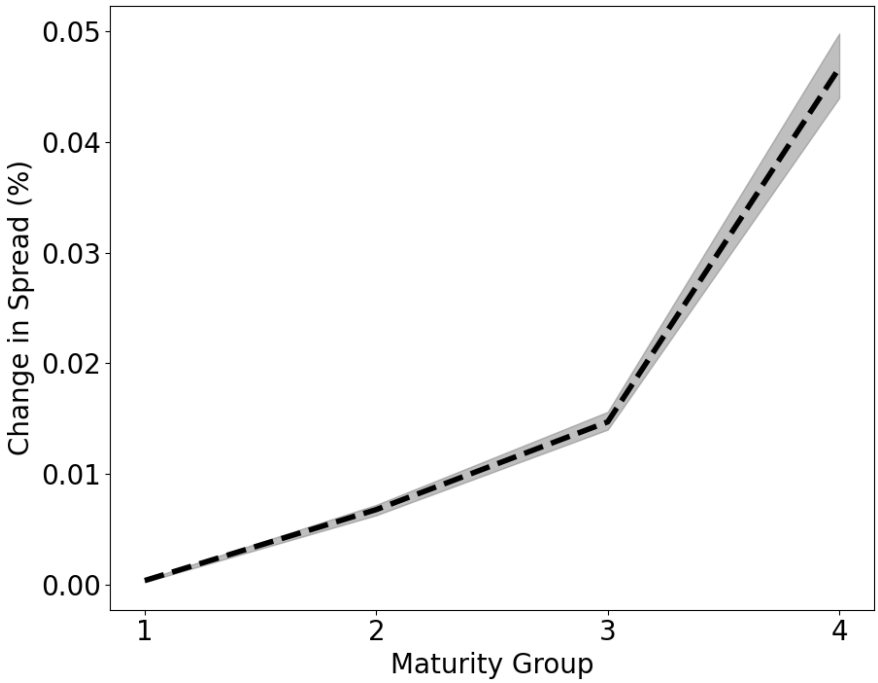


(a) Banks More Sensitive

(b) PF&I More Sensitive

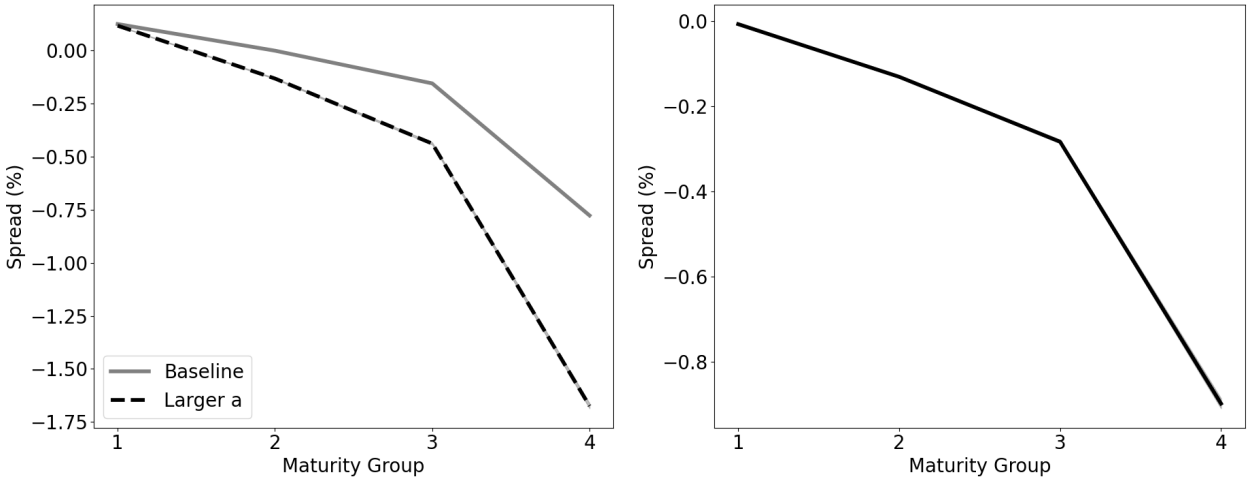
Notes: Panels (a) and (b) plot the counterfactual changes in swap spreads when the magnitudes of $\theta(2)$ and $\theta(4)$ increase by 20% respectively.

Figure 10: Counterfactual Analysis on Market Integration



Notes: This figure considers the counterfactual in which we move 20% of the demand in group 4 to group 2. For group 1 and 3 we do not change the demand parameter. For group 2 and 4, we adjust the demand parameters according to Equation 21 through Equation 24.

Figure 11: Counterfactual Analysis on Risk Aversion Coefficient



(a) Spreads (b) Change in Spreads

Notes: This figure considers the counterfactual in which the arbitrageurs become twice as risk averse as in the baseline case. We recalculate the equilibrium swap spreads. All spreads are quoted in percentage terms.

Table 1: Outstanding Positions and Transaction Volume

	Outstanding Positions (GBP billion, as on Feb 1, 2022)			Transaction Volume (GBP billion, monthly average)	
	Gross notional	Net notional	Net DV01	Gross notional	Net notional
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Bank	364	-112	-37	41	-2
Fund	1,187	-317	-48	1,322	9
PF&I	1,007	197	203	73	9
Corporate	68	-21	-12	3	-1
Official	73	53	1	13	0

Notes: This table reports the outstanding positions and new transaction volumes in GBP billion for five end-user sectors: Bank, Fund, PF&I (pensions, liability-driven investment funds, and insurance), Corporate, and Official (sovereign and supra-national institutions). Column (1) reports the gross outstanding notional as on February 1, 2022, column (2) reports the net outstanding notional, and column (3) reports the net DV01. A positive value indicates a net receive fixed position while a negative value indicates a net pay fixed position. Column (4) reports the average monthly gross notional traded by each sector throughout our sample period, and column (5) reports the average monthly net notional traded. All values are for swaps denominated in British pound sterling (GBP).

Table 2: Changes in Interest Rates and Swap Exposure

Panel A	Δ Quantity (scaled)			
	Bank	Fund	PF&I	Corporate
Δ Rate (PC1, t-1)	0.063***	0.011	-0.050***	0.114***
	(0.024)	(0.019)	(0.011)	(0.014)
Δ Rate (30Y yield, t-1)	0.135***	-0.032	-0.084***	0.213***
	(0.047)	(0.035)	(0.021)	(0.026)
Δ Rate (10Y yield, t-1)	0.099**	0.004	-0.083***	0.190***
	(0.043)	(0.033)	(0.019)	(0.025)
Δ Rate (5Y yield, t-1)	0.065*	0.026	-0.074***	0.161***
	(0.037)	(0.030)	(0.017)	(0.022)
Δ Rate (3M yield, t-1)	0.093**	0.072**	-0.060***	0.114***
	(0.036)	(0.032)	(0.018)	(0.022)
N	6,264	22,536	29,901	13,965
Investor FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Panel B	Δ DV01 (scaled)			
	Bank	Fund	PF&I	Corporate
Δ Rate (PC1, t-1)	0.041*	0.030	-0.042***	0.116***
	(0.024)	(0.019)	(0.012)	(0.015)
N	6,244	22,456	29,879	13,824
Investor FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: This table reports estimates of a fixed-effects panel regression for a model of the form in Equation 2. In Panel A, the dependent variable is the change in monthly outstanding net position held by an investor within a sector, while in panel B it is the net DV01 of these positions. Both the dependent variables are scaled such that the percentage change is bounded between +/- 2. Panel A presents separate estimation results using 5 regressors: first principal component of 3 month, 5 year, 10 year, and 30 year GBP bond (gilt) yields, and then each of these yields individually. All regressors are expressed as monthly changes and lagged by one period. All columns include investor fixed effects. Standard errors clustered by investor are reported in parentheses. $^{*}p < 0.1$; $^{**}p < 0.05$; $^{***}p < 0.01$.

Table 3: Monetary Policy Shocks and Swap Exposure

Panel A	Δ Quantity (scaled)			
	Bank	Fund	PF&I	Corporate
MPS (10Y yield, t-1)	0.677**	-1.01***	-0.366**	0.067
	(0.277)	(0.237)	(0.144)	(0.165)
MPS (5Y yield, t-1)	0.755***	-0.725***	-0.257**	0.338**
	(0.247)	(0.202)	(0.121)	(0.157)
MPS (2Y yield, t-1)	0.605***	-0.634***	-0.105	0.150
	(0.219)	(0.183)	(0.108)	(0.140)
N	4,055	14,489	19,353	8,989
Investor FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Panel B	Δ DV01 (scaled)			
	Bank	Fund	PF&I	Corporate
MPS (10Y yield, t-1)	0.584**	-1.03***	-0.405***	0.029
	(0.269)	(0.242)	(0.141)	(0.173)
MPS (5Y yield, t-1)	0.634**	-0.784***	-0.285**	0.280*
	(0.245)	(0.200)	(0.121)	(0.165)
MPS (2Y yield, t-1)	0.500**	-0.725***	-0.142	0.100
	(0.221)	(0.178)	(0.109)	(0.145)
N	4,039	14,438	19,339	8,898
Investor FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: This table reports estimates of a fixed-effects panel regression for a model of the form in Equation 3. In Panel A, the dependent variable is the change in monthly outstanding net position held by an investor within a sector, while in panel B it is the net DV01 of these positions. Both the dependent variables are scaled such that the percentage change is bounded between +/- 2. Both panels presents separate estimation results using monetray policy shocks (MPS) reflected in gilt yields of tenors 2 year, 5 year, and 10 year. All regressors are lagged by one period. All columns include investor fixed effects. Standard errors clustered by investor are reported in parentheses. $^{*}p < 0.1$; $^{**}p < 0.05$; $^{***}p < 0.01$.

Table 4: Investor Maturity Preference

Panel A	Fraction of investors trading in one maturity group	
	Equally-weighted	Notional-weighted
Bank	0.94	0.92
Fund	0.91	0.97
PF&I	0.74	0.79
Corporate	0.97	0.94

Panel B	Fraction of trades in the dominant maturity group					
	N	Mean	SD	p25	p50	p75
Bank	179	0.82	0.18	0.70	0.86	1.00
Fund	1,415	0.80	0.20	0.62	0.85	1.00
PF&I	533	0.66	0.20	0.50	0.63	0.82
Corporate	305	0.91	0.17	0.90	1.00	1.00

Panel C	Fraction of trades by maturity group			
	Below 3M	3M to 5Y	5Y to 10Y	10Y & above
Bank	0.11	0.70	0.16	0.03
Fund	0.65	0.27	0.04	0.04
PF&I	0.06	0.26	0.17	0.51
Corporate	0.04	0.63	0.15	0.18

Notes: This table shows that end-users in the interest rate swaps market exhibit preferred habitat behavior. Panel A reports the equally-weighted and notional-weighted fraction of investors within each sector that trade at least 50% of their total transaction volume of swaps in a single maturity group. Maturity groups are defined as: below 3 months, 3 months to 5 years, 5 years to 10 years, and 10 years & above. Panel B reports the distribution of the proportion of notional-weighted trades that fall under each investor's own dominant maturity group. Investor-level shares are calculated at legal entity identifier (LEI) level and the distribution is constructed at the sector level. In panel B, "N" refers to the number of unique investors within a sector that traded GBP swaps during our sample period. Panel C reports the share of (gross) transaction volume in each of the four maturity groups by investors across each sector.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics for Compression Trades and Investor-Dealer Stickiness

Panel A	Compression					
	N	Mean	SD	p25	p50	p75
Compression ratio (dealer-week)	2,763	0.19	0.15	0.08	0.15	0.24
Inter-dealer or CCP-facing (share)	74,103	0.93	0.26	1	1	1
Centrally cleared (share)	74,111	1	0.04	1	1	1
Notional (GBP million)	74,111	118.9	396.8	3.7	19.2	78.6
Tenor (years)	74,111	11.5	12.5	1.6	6.7	18.3
Panel B	Investor-month share of trades with its top dealer					
	N	Mean	SD	p25	p50	p75
Bank	3,343	0.77	0.22	0.56	0.79	1
Fund	19,218	0.87	0.20	0.73	1	1
PF&I	7,642	0.87	0.20	0.76	1	1
Corporate	651	0.79	0.24	0.56	1	1

Notes: This table describes compression-related variables and confirms that investors predominantly trade with a single dealer. Panel A reports the distribution of dealer-week compression ratio, defined as the fraction of trades tagged as compressed out of all the outstanding swaps as on a given date. Panel A also describes the economic characteristics of trades tagged as compressed as on February 1, 2022. Panel B reports the fraction of investor-month trades facing the dealer with whom an investor trades most frequently in that month. We calculate this measure of investor-dealer "stickiness" where we observe at least two trades within the investor-month combination because the share is mechanically one for a single trade.

Table 6: Demand Elasticities

Second stage	Δ Quantity (scaled)			
	Below 3M	3M to 5Y	5Y to 10Y	10Y & above
$\Delta\widehat{\text{Swap spread}}$	11.400	0.826***	0.384	0.252
	(17.000)	(0.198)	(1.05)	(0.411)
Δ Quantity (scaled, t-1)	-0.017	-0.229***	-0.201***	-0.203***
	(0.324)	(0.067)	(0.044)	(0.052)
N	1,434	2,537	2,475	2,466
Dealer FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
First stage	Δ Swap spread			
	Below 3M	3M to 5Y	5Y to 10Y	10Y & above
Δ Compression ratio	-0.050	-0.373***	-0.188	0.308***
	(0.071)	(0.080)	(0.146)	(0.105)
Δ Quantity (scaled, t-1)	-0.018**	0.006	-0.014	-0.007
	(0.008)	(0.013)	(0.022)	(0.025)
N	1,434	2,537	2,475	2,466
Dealer FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Instrument F-statistic	0.50	21.86	1.66	8.38
Adj. R^2	0.21	0.10	0.12	0.12

Notes: This table reports estimates of a two-stage least squares regression for models of the form in Equation 5 (first stage) and Equation 6 (second stage). In Panel A, the dependent variable is the scaled change in the weekly outstanding net position facing a dealer, with columns representing each of the four maturity groups. The regressor of interest is the instrumented change in swap spreads for the respective maturity group, controlling for the changes in past week's quantities. Panel B reports the corresponding first stage where the dependent variable is the change in maturity-wise swap spreads and the instrument is the weekly change in the fraction of trades tagged as "compressed" against each dealer. All columns include dealer and time fixed effects. Standard errors clustered by dealer and time are reported in parentheses. $^{*}p < 0.1$; $^{**}p < 0.05$; $^{***}p < 0.01$.

Table 7: Maturity Groups and Relevant Parameters

	Values
Maturity groups $\tau = 0, 1, ..., 4$	$\{(0, 0.05), [0.05, 0.25), [0.25, 5), [5, 10), [10, \infty)\}$
Ave. maturity $\bar{m}(\tau)$	$\{0.025, 0.15, 2.75, 7.5, 25\}$
Transition prob. $\delta(\tau)$	$\{20, 6.67, 0.38, 0.21, 0.06\}$

Notes: This table summarizes the maturity groups, and the average maturity we use for each maturity group in the calibration.

Table 8: Targeted Moments

Moments	Data
Ave. swap spreads in group 1-4 (spread quoted in %)	[0.104, 0.029, -0.162, -0.779]
Ave. quantity in group 1-4 (GBP billion)	[-42.4, 144.7, -1.0, -62.3]
Variances of swap spread changes in group 1-4	[0.037, 0.089, 0.395 , 0.142]
Variances of scaled quantity changes in group 1-4	[0.926, 0.042, 1.390, 0.015]
Regression coefficients of scaled quantity changes on the corresponding swap spread changes for group 1-4	[-0.389, -0.092, -0.116, 0.008]

Notes: This table summarizes the empirical moments that we target in our calibration. We use monthly data from December 2019 through June 2024. The swap spreads are the volume weighted average swap spreads for a given maturity group. The changes in quantities are calculated according to Equation 20.

Table 9: Calibrated Parameters

Parameters	Mean Values (Std)
Arbitrageur risk aversion coeff. a	$4.04(5.42)$
Arbitrageur ave. cost $\bar{c}$	$0.046(0.027)$
Demand intercepts θ_0	$[-41.35(0.68), 144.65(0.005), 0.036(0.024), -62.48(0.15)]$
Demand sensitivities to aggregate demand factor θ_1	$[-201.92(79.34), 277.87(103.53), -0.216(0.165), -40.93(24.179)]$
Speed of mean reversion Γ	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.003(0.001) & 0 \\ 0 & 0.005(0.001) \end{pmatrix}$
Variances of supply and demand shocks Σ	$\begin{pmatrix} -1.21 \times 10^{-1}(3.23 \times 10^{-2}) & 6.76(1.39) \\ -4.35 \times 10^{-3}(7.25 \times 10^{-4}) & 2.14 \times 10^{-1}(4.07 \times 10^{-2}) \end{pmatrix}$

Notes: This table summarizes the calibrated parameter values in the model. The standard deviations of the estimates are in the parenthesis.

Internet Appendix

"The Market for Sharing Interest Rate Risk: Quantities and Asset Prices"

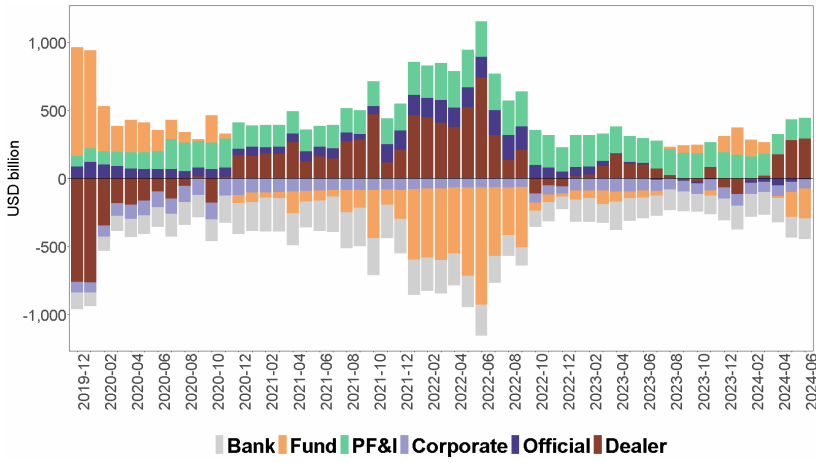
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February 2025

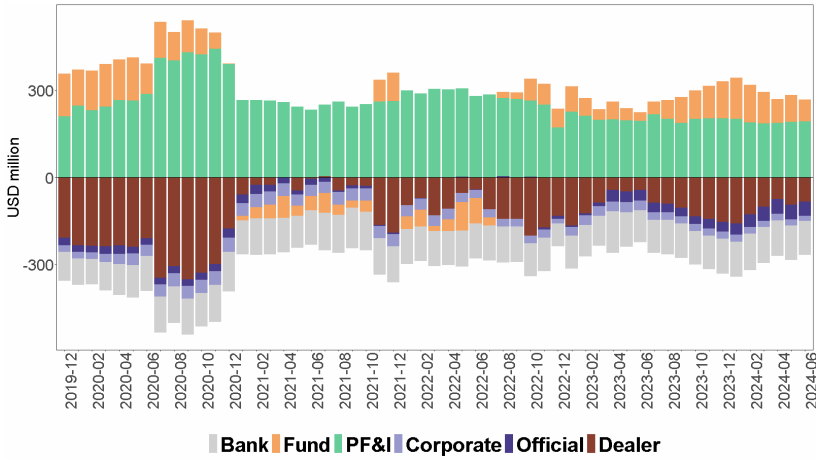
A Additional Figures and Tables **61**
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Figure A1: Net Outstanding Positions and DV01 (All Currencies)



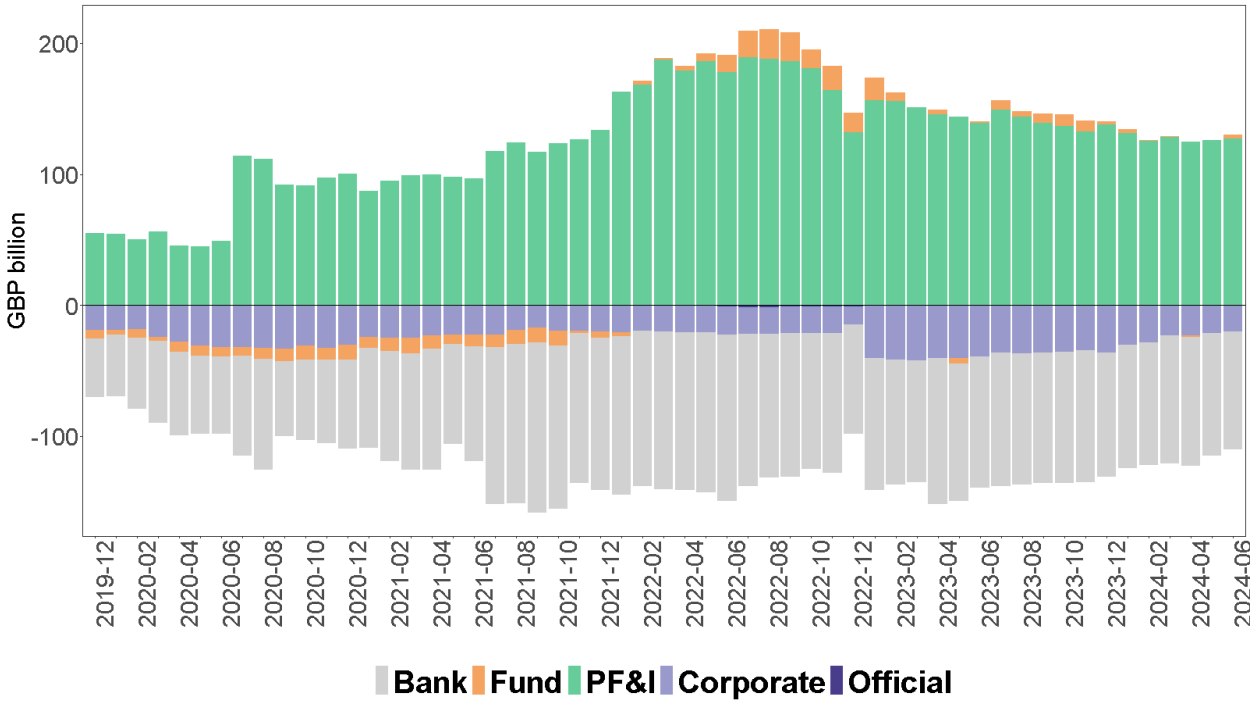
(a) Notional



(b) DV01

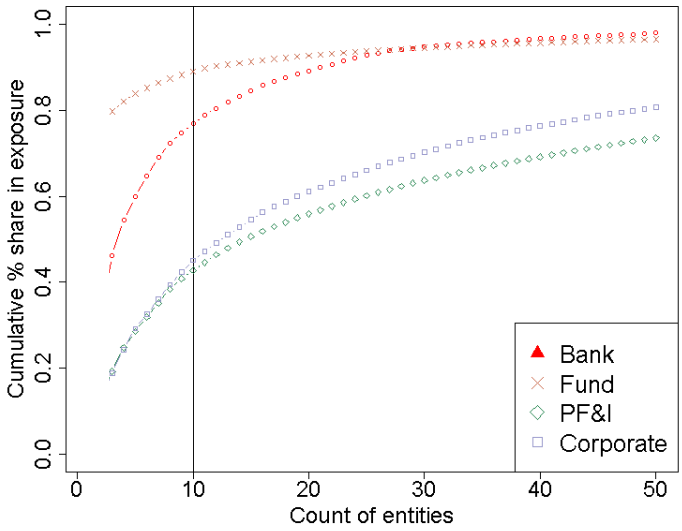
Notes: This figure shows net outstanding positions in USD billion at the start of every month for five end-user sectors and the dealer sector. A positive value on the y-axis indicates a net receive fixed position while a negative value indicates a net pay fixed position. Net outstanding position is calculated as the difference between the outstanding notional values of receive fixed rate and pay fixed rate swaps for each legal entity as per Equation 1, and then aggregated for five end-user sectors: Bank, Fund, PF&I (pensions, liability-driven investment funds, and insurance), Corporate, and Official (sovereign and supra-national institutions). The net outstanding position for the dealer sector is calculated as the opposite side of aggregate end-user positions such that the market clears. This figure considers swaps denominated across all currencies in our sample, while Figure 1 considers GBP swaps.

Figure A2: Net Outstanding Positions (UK entities)

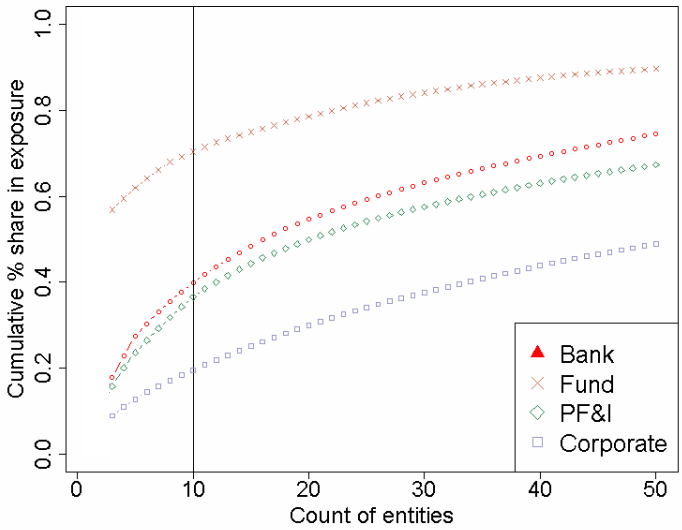


Notes: This figure shows net outstanding positions in GBP billion at the start of every month for five end-user sectors, where each entity is located in the United Kingdom (UK). A positive value on the y-axis indicates a net receive fixed position while a negative value indicates a net pay fixed position. Net outstanding position is calculated as the difference between the outstanding notional values of receive fixed rate and pay fixed rate swaps for each legal entity as per Equation 1, and then aggregated for five end-user sectors: Bank, Fund, PF&I (pensions, liability-driven investment funds, and insurance), Corporate, and Official (sovereign and supra-national institutions). This figure considers swaps denominated in British pound sterling (GBP).

Figure A3: Concentration in Exposures



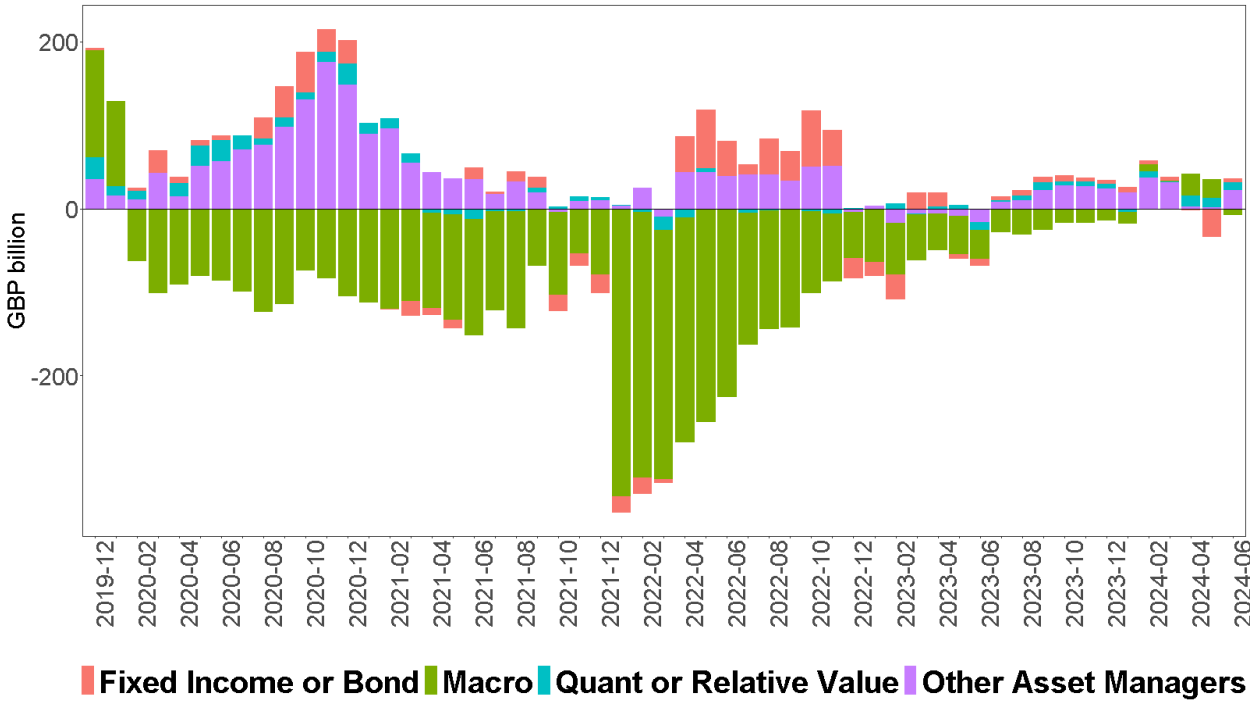
(a) GBP



(b) All currencies

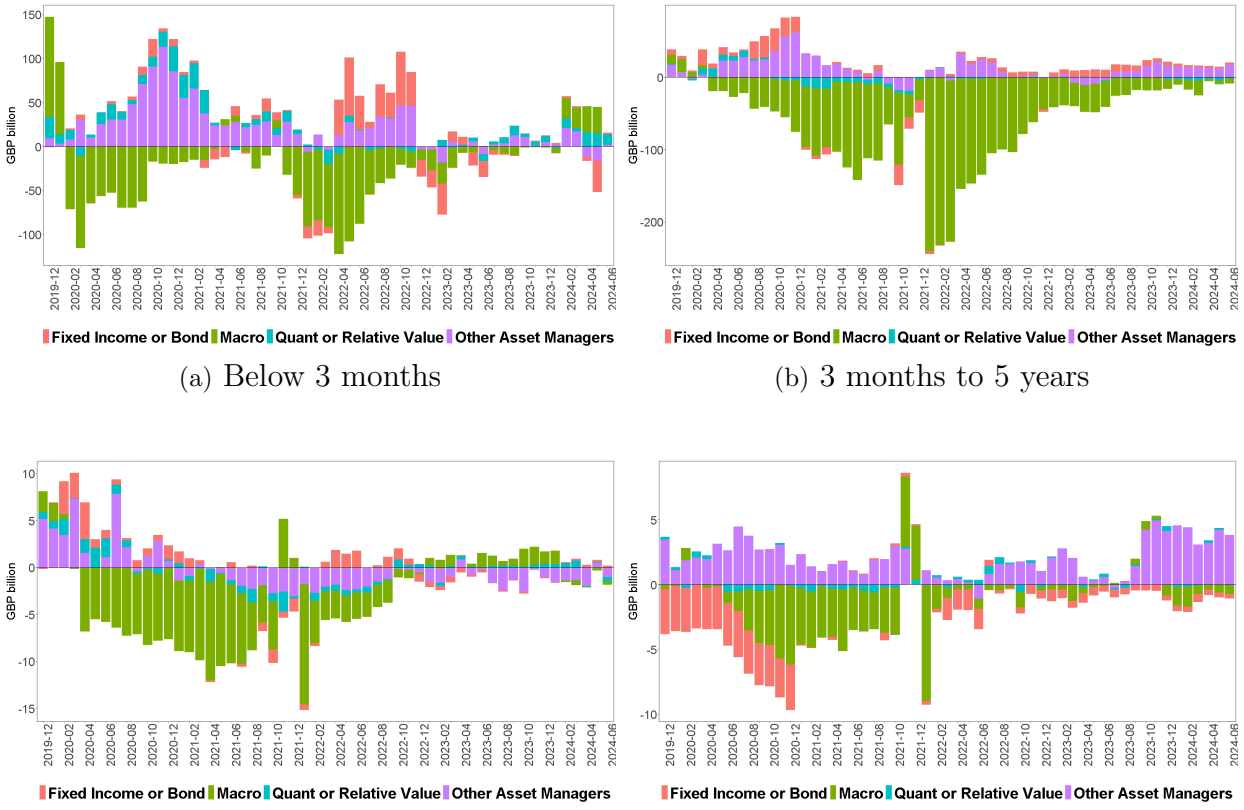
Notes: This figure shows that net exposures are concentrated within a few entities, particularly in the fund sector. The figure plots the cumulative share of net (absolute) position held by top 50 investors within each sector as on February 1, 2022, for GBP swaps in panel (a) and swaps across all currencies in panel (b). Vertical line in black traces the top 10 investors in each sector with their corresponding cumulative share on the y-axis. The first point in both plots shows the share of top 3 entities put together in each sector.

Figure A4: Net Outstanding Positions by Fund Type



Notes: This figure shows net outstanding positions in GBP billion at the start of every month for four fund types: Fixed Income or Bond, Macro, Quantitative or Relative Value, and Other Asset Managers. We identify fund types at a legal entity level using string matching on their names with common investment strategies. A positive value on the y-axis indicates a net receive fixed position while a negative value indicates a net pay fixed position. Net outstanding position is calculated as the difference between the outstanding notional values of receive fixed rate and pay fixed rate swaps for each legal entity as per Equation 1, and then aggregated for the four fund types.

Figure A5: Net Outstanding Positions by Maturity Group and Fund Type



(a) Below 3 months

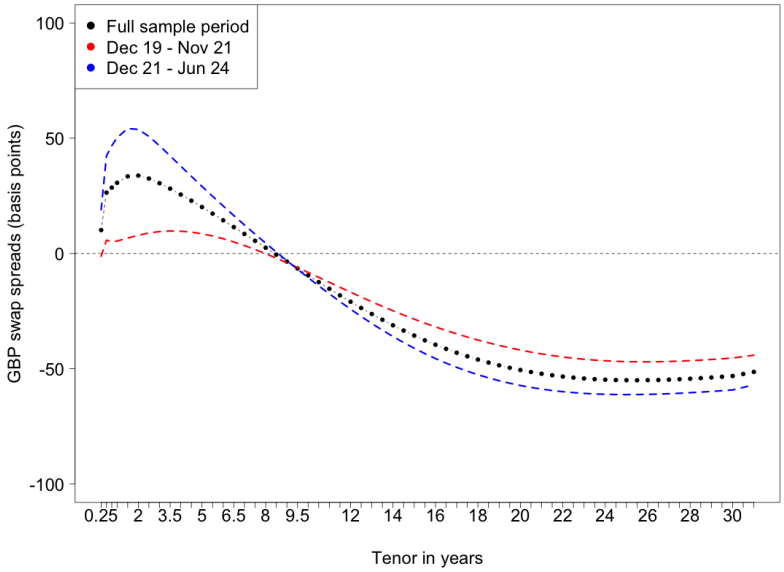
(b) 3 months to 5 years

(c) 5 years to 10 years

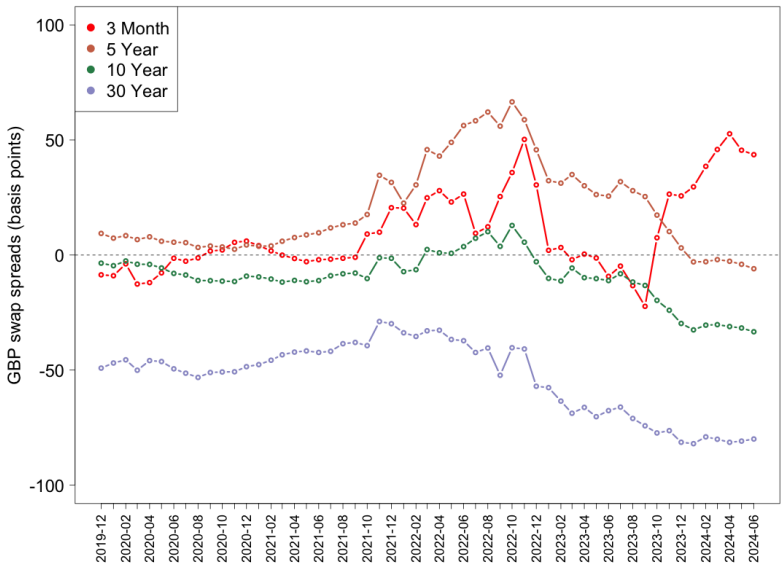
(d) 10 years & above

Notes: This figure shows net outstanding positions in GBP billion at the start of every month for four fund types, split by four maturity groups: below 3 months in panel (a), 3 months to 5 years in panel (b), 5 years to 10 years in panel (c), and 10 years & above in panel (d). A positive value on the y-axis indicates a net receive fixed position while a negative value indicates a net pay fixed position. Net outstanding position is calculated as the difference between the outstanding notional values of receive fixed rate and pay fixed rate swaps for each legal entity as per Equation 1, and then aggregated for the four fund types: Fixed Income or Bond, Macro, Quant or Relative Value, and Other Asset Managers. We identify fund types at a legal entity level using string matching on their names with common investment strategies.

Figure A6: Swap Spreads



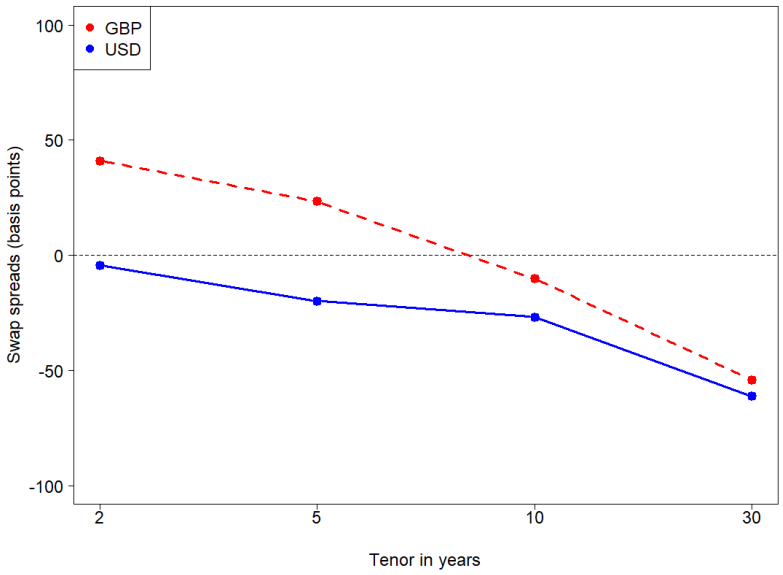
(a) Average term structure



(b) Time-series

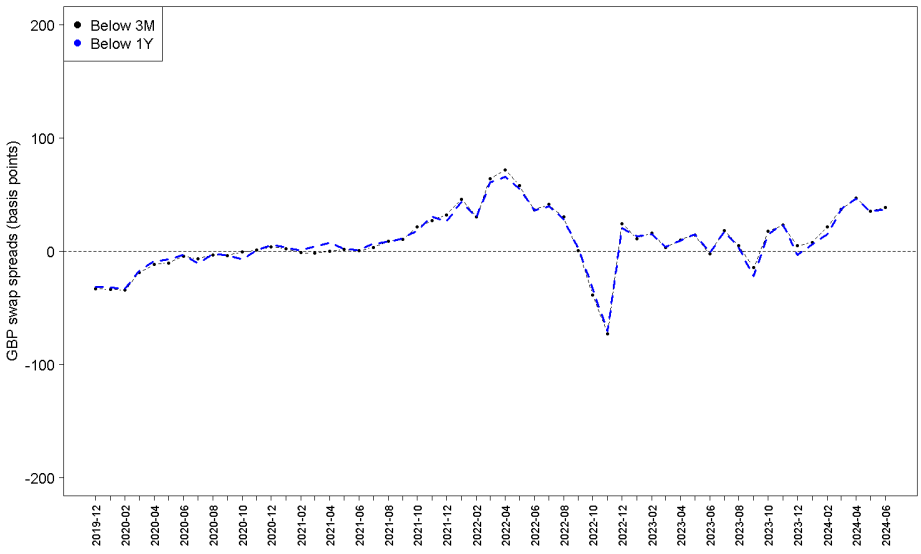
Notes: This figure plots the hump-shaped term structure of GBP swap spreads in panel (a) and the time-series of 3 month, 5 year, 10 year, and 30 year swap spreads in panel (b). Swap spread is defined as the difference between swap fixed rate and the maturity matched bond (gilt) yield. Panel (a) shows the average term structure using 3-monthly maturity intervals up to one year, and 6-monthly thereafter. The underlying data for these plots is sourced from the Bank of England's bond and overnight indexed swap (OIS) database.

Figure A7: USD and GBP Swap Spreads

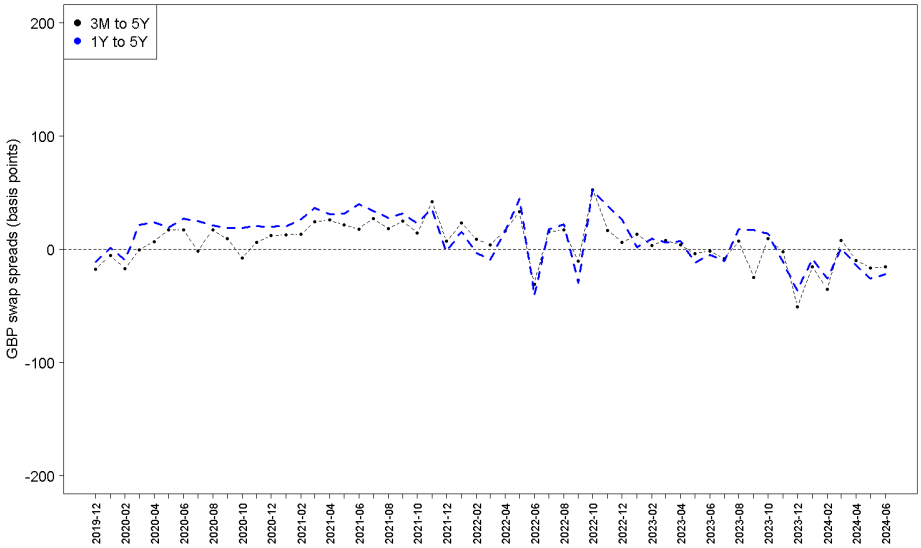


Notes: This figure plots the term structure of USD swap spreads (red dashed line) and GBP swap spreads (blue solid line) for swaps of tenors 2 year, 5 year, 10 year and 30 year. Swap spread is defined as the difference between swap fixed rate and the maturity matched bond yield. The underlying data for these plots is sourced from the Bank of England's bond and overnight indexed swap (OIS) database for GBP swaps, and Bloomberg for USD swaps. The sample period over which the swap spreads are averaged is October 2020 through June 2024, because SOFR-benchmarked USD swap spreads are not available prior to October 2020.

Figure A8: Swap Spreads for Alternative Maturity Groups



(a) Short tenor



(b) Intermediate tenor

Notes: This figure plots the time-series of volume-weighted GBP swap spreads in our data for the baseline and alternative definitions of short and intermediate maturity groups. Panel (a) compares swap spreads for swaps with maturity of below 3 months and below 1 year. Panel (b) compares swaps with maturity of 3 months to 5 years and 1 year to five years.

Table A1: Estimated Coverage of Transactions Activity

	Average daily turnover in April 2022		
	Our data ($ billion)	BIS benchmark ($ billion)	Coverage
All currencies	3,425	4,987	69%
Pound sterling (GBP)	287	341	84%
Euro (EUR)	1,328	1,688	79%
US dollar (USD)	1,460	2,209	66%
Australian dollar (AUD)	141	279	51%
Other currencies	209	470	44%

Notes: This table reports the estimated coverage of interest rate swap transactions observed in our data using the April 2022 Bank for International Settlements (BIS) over-the-counter interest rate derivatives turnover survey as the benchmark. BIS data can be accessed here. Our sample includes all trades where at least one of the counterparties is a UK entity. We adjust for double counting arising out of the dual reporting of trades with same unique identifier, as well as duplication on account of centralized clearing of trades with different unique trade identifiers. We calculate the adjusted turnover in the month of April 2022 and divide it by 19, the number of trading days in that month. We compare our average daily turnover to the BIS benchmark that includes all interest rate derivatives except options and complex derivatives, and report the estimated share for all currencies put together and for some of the major currency pairs separately.

Table A2: Descriptive Statistics for Investor-level Outstanding Positions

	Investor-level net absolute position (GBP million)					
	N	Mean	SD	p25	p50	p75
Bank	105	1,411	4,119	34	163	755
Fund	365	1,328	17,699	5	30	142
PF&I	576	435	1,573	21	61	217
Corporate	258	165	403	14	40	106
Official	16	3,446	12,798	28	166	405

Notes: This table reports the distribution of net (absolute) outstanding positions for investors within each end-user sector as on February 1, 2022. Units are in GBP million except the count of entities. We calculate the net exposure at the investor level as the difference between the notional values of receive fixed and pay fixed swaps outstanding on a date, and report the distribution of its absolute value within the sector. "N" refers to the number of unique investors that had any outstanding exposure in GBP swaps as on February 1, 2022 in our sample. All sectors in general and funds in particular display the presence of a few large investors as evidenced by the large difference in the mean and median positions.

Table A3: Gross and Net Outstanding Positions by Maturity Group and Fund Type

Panel A	Gross position (GBP billion)					
	Below 3M	3M to 5Y	5Y to 10Y	10Y & above	Total	Share
Fixed Income or Bond	121	77	11	4	213	0.18
Macro	254	268	7	3	532	0.45
Quant or Relative Value	108	28	6	3	145	0.12
Other Asset Managers	147	109	17	23	297	0.25
Panel B	Net receive fixed position (GBP billion)					
	Below 3M	3M to 5Y	5Y to 10Y	10Y & above	Net-to-gross	Share
Fixed Income or Bond	-17	-1	0	0	0.08	0.05
Macro	-80	-232	-5	-2	0.60	0.85
Quant or Relative Value	-4	0	-1	0	0.03	0.01
Other Asset Managers	14	13	-3	1	0.08	0.08

Notes: This table reports the outstanding gross positions (panel A) and net receive fixed positions (panel B) as on February 1, 2022, held within each of the four maturity groups by four fund types: Fixed Income or Bond, Macro, Quantitative or Relative Value, and Other Asset Managers. We identify fund types at a legal entity level using string matching on their names with common investment strategies. The second-to-last column in panel A reports the total position of the fund type across all maturities, and the last column reports the share of each fund type in the overall outstanding gross positions. The second-to-last column in panel B reports the ratio of net position to gross notional for each fund type using positions aggregated across maturity groups, and indicates the extent of two-sided exposures held by each fund type. The last column in panel B reports the share of each fund type in the net (absolute) positions in aggregate across all maturity groups.

Table A4: Determinants of Compression

	Δ Compression ratio				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Δ Quantity (Below 3M, t-1)	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.002	-0.003
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)
Δ Quantity (3M - 5Y, t-1)	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001
	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.007)
Δ Quantity (5Y - 10Y, t-1)	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.0006	0.0008
	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.004)
Δ Quantity (10Y & Above, t-1)	-0.0004	-0.0003	-0.0003	0.001	0.001
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.005)
Δ Rate (10Y, t-1)		0.006	0.006		
		(0.004)	(0.004)		
Δ Rate volatility (10Y, t-1)		-0.018	-0.019		
		(0.015)	(0.015)		
Δ Assets (log)					-0.008
					(0.026)
Δ CET1/RWA					0.060
					(0.073)
N	2,609	2,573	2,573	2,573	1,929
Adj. R^2	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.13	0.17
Dealer FE	N	N	Y	Y	Y
Time FE	N	N	N	Y	Y

Notes: This table reports estimates for a model of the form:

$$\Delta\text{Compression Ratio}_{i,t} = \sum_{m=1}^{4} \beta_m \Delta q_{m,i,t-1} + \text{Controls} + \alpha_i + \alpha_t + \varepsilon_{i,t}. \quad (25)$$

The dependent variable is the weekly change in compression ratio for each dealer in our sample. The regressors include scaled changes in net quantities facing the dealer across four maturity groups in the previous week. Columns (2) and (3) additionally include lagged changes in the 10Y gilt yield and its squared term that represents interest rate volatility. Column (5) includes the quarterly balance sheet variables of each dealer: changes in log assets and in common equity tier 1 (CET1) capital scaled by risk-weighted assets (RWA). Columns (3) through (5) progressively add dealer and time fixe effects. Standard errors clustered by dealer and time are reported in parentheses. $^{*}p < 0.1$; $^{**}p < 0.05$; $^{***}p < 0.01$.

Table A5: Demand Elasticities - Alternative Specifications

Panel A	Below 3M	3M to 5Y	5Y to 10Y	10Y & above
$\Delta\widehat{\text{Swap spread}}$	18.0	0.651*	1.090	-0.023
	(28.60)	(0.386)	(1.180)	(0.384)
Δ Quantity (scaled, t-1)	0.008	-0.227***	-0.174***	-0.199***
	(0.427)	(0.067)	(0.045)	(0.049)
Δ Rate (10Y, t-1)	2.81	0.009	0.235	-0.058
	(4.940)	(0.068)	(0.339)	(0.101)
N	1,431	2,501	2,443	2,436
Dealer FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Instrument F-statistic	0.27	239.08	1.58	17.07
Panel B	**Below 3M**	**3M to 5Y**	**5Y to 10Y**	**10Y & above**
$\Delta\widehat{\text{Swap spread}}$	79.2	0.839**	0.893	-0.096
	(871.0)	(0.289)	(1.220)	(0.416)
Δ Quantity (scaled, t-1)	0.588	-0.310***	-0.161*	-0.200**
	(9.180)	(0.079)	(0.083)	(0.076)
Δ Rate (10Y, t-1)	3.500	0.055	0.165	0.001
	(37.800)	(0.079)	(0.281)	(0.093)
Δ Rate volatility (10Y, t-1)	(47.800)	(0.570)	0.267*	(0.024)
	(520.300)	(0.368)	(0.132)	(0.151)
Δ Assets (log)	3.17	-0.042	0.073	-0.057
	(37.900)	(0.101)	(0.108)	(0.069)
Δ CET1/RWA	11.3	-0.493	0.51	-0.339
	(126.000)	(0.824)	(1.100)	(0.518)
N	1,242	1,891	1,849	1,862
Dealer FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Instrument F-statistic	0.01	73.36	1.39	8.33

Notes: This table reports estimates of a two-stage least squares regression for a model of the form in Equation 6 (second stage). In both panels, the dependent variable is the scaled change in weekly outstanding net position facing a dealer, with columns representing each of the four maturity groups. The regressor of interest is the instrumented change in swap spreads for the respective maturity group. Panel A controls for scaled changes in previous week's quantities and changes in 10Y bond (gilt) yield. Panel B additionally controls for the squared term of yield changes to capture interest rate volatility, changes in (log) assets of dealers, and changes in dealers' common equity tier 1 (CET1) scaled by risk-weighted assets (RWA). The two dealer-level controls pertain to the respective quarter for which the data are available. All columns include dealer fixed effects. Standard errors clustered by dealer and time are reported in parentheses. $^{*}p < 0.1$; $^{**}p < 0.05$; $^{***}p < 0.01$.

B. Equilibrium Derivation

To solve the equilibrium, apply Ito's lemma to the equilibrium price Equation 14 and plug in the expression of dg_t in Equation 20, we get the expected return,

$$\begin{aligned} dP_t(\tau) =& -A(\tau)^\top P_t(\tau)\left(-\Gamma(g_t-\bar{g})dt+\Sigma dB_t\right)+\frac{1}{2}A(\tau)^\top\Sigma\Sigma^\top A(\tau)P_t(\tau)dt \\ & (A'(\tau)g_t+C'(\tau))P_t(\tau)dt \\ \frac{dP_t(\tau)}{P_t(\tau)} =& -A(\tau)^\top\left(-\Gamma(g_t-\bar{g})dt+\Sigma dB_t\right)+\frac{1}{2}A(\tau)^\top\Sigma\Sigma^\top A(\tau)dt \\ & A'(\tau)g_t dt+C'(\tau)dt \end{aligned}$$

Collecting the terms in front of dt, we get

$$\mu_t(\tau) = A(\tau)^\top\Gamma(g_t-\bar{g})+\frac{1}{2}A(\tau)^\top\Sigma\Sigma^\top A(\tau)+A'(\tau)g_t+C'(\tau) \tag{26}$$

Dealer's problem is

$$\max_{X_t(\tau)}\left[\int_0^\infty X_t(\tau)(\mu_t(\tau)-c_t)d\tau-\frac{a}{2}Var(\int_0^\infty X_t(\tau)A(\tau)^\top\Sigma d\tau dB_t)\right]$$

Take first order condition with respect to $X_t(\tau)$, we get

$$\mu_t(\tau)-c_t = aA(\tau)^\top\Sigma\Sigma'\left[\int_0^\infty X_t(\tau)A(\tau)d\tau\right] \tag{27}$$

Plug in the expression for $X_t(\tau)$ from the market clearing condition (assuming $K=1$)

$$\begin{aligned} X_t(\tau) &= -Q_t(\tau) = \alpha(\tau)log(P_t(\tau))+\beta_t(\tau) \\ &= -\alpha(\tau)[A(\tau)g_t+C(\tau)]+\theta_0(\tau)+\theta_1(\tau)\beta_{1,t} \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, plug in the expression for $\mu_t(\tau)$ from Equation 26 into Equation 27. Matching the coefficients in front of g_t, we get Equation 15. Matching the coefficients in front of the constant terms, we get Equation 16.

To get the moments, the average spread for maturity bucket τ is

$$E[s_t(\tau)] = \left[A(\tau)^\top\begin{pmatrix}\bar{c}\\0\end{pmatrix}+C(\tau)\right]/\tau \tag{28}$$

The average quantity from the client's perspective for maturity bucket τ is

$$E[Q_t(\tau)] = \alpha(\tau)[A(\tau)^\top\begin{pmatrix}\bar{c}\\0\end{pmatrix}+C(\tau)]-\theta_0(\tau) \tag{29}$$

The change in spread is

$$ds_t(\tau) = \frac{A(\tau)}{\tau}dg_t \tag{30}$$

Hence the variance is

$$Var(ds_t(\tau)) = \frac{A(\tau)^\top}{\tau} Var(dg_t) \frac{A(\tau)}{\tau} \tag{31}$$

We define $\tilde{A}$ to be a $T \times 2$ matrix, where the τth row is $\frac{A(\tau)}{\tau}$.

Plug in

$$dg_t = -\Gamma g_t + \Sigma dB_t \tag{32}$$

$$Var(dg_t) = \Gamma Var(g_t)\Gamma^\top + \Sigma\Sigma^\top \tag{33}$$

$$Var(g_t) = \rho \tag{34}$$

where ρ is the solution to

$$-\Gamma\rho - \rho^\top\Gamma^\top + \Sigma\Sigma^\top = 0 \tag{35}$$

we get the formula for variance of spread changes.

Furthermore, to match the empirical counterpart, we define the change in quantities as the change in Q_t scaled by the absolute average quantity, i.e.,

$$\frac{dQ_t(\tau)}{|E[Q_t(\tau)]|} = \frac{\alpha(\tau)A(\tau)^\top dg_t - (0, \theta(\tau))dg_t}{|E[Q_t(\tau)]|} = \frac{[\alpha(\tau)A(\tau)^\top - (0, \theta(\tau))]dg_t}{|E[Q_t(\tau)]|} \tag{36}$$

The variance of this object is

$$Var\left(\frac{dQ_t(\tau)}{|E[Q_t(\tau)]|}\right) = \frac{[\alpha(\tau)A(\tau)^\top - (0, \theta(\tau))]Var(dg_t)[\alpha(\tau)A(\tau)^\top - (0, \theta(\tau))]^\top}{|E[Q_t(\tau)]|^2} \tag{37}$$

We define $\tilde{M}$ to be a $T \times 2$ matrix, where the τth row is $[\alpha(\tau)A(\tau)^\top - (0, \theta(\tau))]/|E[Q_t(\tau)]|$.

Furthermore, define

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A} \\ \tilde{M} \end{pmatrix} \tag{38}$$

Hence, the variance-covariance matrix of spread changes and quantity changes is

$$Var\left(\begin{pmatrix} ds_t \\ \frac{dQ_t}{|E[Q_t]|} \end{pmatrix}\right) = \Lambda Var(dg_t)\Lambda^\top = \Lambda\left(\Gamma Var(g_t)\Gamma^\top + \Sigma\Sigma^\top\right)\Lambda^\top \tag{39}$$