Mortgage Aggregation and Credit Supply*

Keling Zheng[†]

November 11, 2024

[Click here for the latest version]

Abstract

One third of U.S. mortgages are originated by small correspondent lenders, and then aggregated and securitized by large aggregators. Despite the considerable size and importance of aggregators in channeling funding to the housing market, our understanding about this market remains limited. I construct a novel dataset on correspondent lender-aggregator relationships to study the causal effect of mortgage aggregation on credit supply. Exploiting the U.S. implementation of Basel III as a shock to aggregation, I find a significant impact on credit supply, especially to low-income borrowers. Matching frictions in the aggregation market contribute to the overall credit supply decline, while aggregators' optimal portfolio reallocation and correspondent lenders' specialization across demographic groups drive the unequal impact on low-income borrowers. My results highlight the important role of mortgage aggregation in reducing securitization frictions and expanding credit access.

JEL Codes: G2, L5

Keywords: Financial intermediation; Mortgage market structure; Mortgage servicing rights; Shock transmission

^{*}First draft: September 2023. I would like to thank Jack Favilukis, Thomas Davidoff, Isha Agarwal, Lorenzo Garlappi, Markus Baldauf, Kai Li, Will Gornall, Elena Pikulina, Bo Bian, Alberto Teguia, Ali Lazrak, Xudong An, Andrew MacKinlay (discussant), You Suk Kim (discussant), Artem Joukov (discussant), Richard Stanton, Erica Jiang, Cameron LaPoint, Michael Sockin, Andrey Pavlov, Deniz Anginer, Feng Liu, Guangli Lu, and seminar and conference participants at the University of British Columbia, Simon Fraser University, Financial Management Association Annual Conference, Northern Finance Association Annual Conference, The Mortgage Market Research Conference at the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia and AREUEA PhD session for useful comments. All errors are my own.

[†]Sauder School of Business, University of British Columbia. Email: keling.zheng@sauder.ubc.ca.

1 Introduction

The residential mortgage market is the largest consumer credit market in the United States and vital to the nation's financial stability and economic growth. A distinctive feature of this market is the extensive use of securitization, which plays a crucial role in channeling funds to the housing market and expanding access to homeownership. Within the securitization process, a less studied, yet important step is mortgage aggregation, where aggregators purchase mortgages for securitization from correspondent lenders. In the U.S. mortgage market, 70% of lenders rely on this process for securitization and 30% to 50% of securitized mortgages pass through the aggregation market before being securitized through Fannie Mae, Freddie Mac, or Ginnie Mae, see Figure 1. How aggregation shapes lending is thus central to understand shock transmission and credit distribution in the mortgage market. Despite this, our knowledge about mortgage aggregation remains limited.

In this paper, I show that the aggregation market is essential for expanding credit access. Using a surprisingly punitive mortgage servicing right treatment under the Basel III capital requirements in the U.S. as a shock to aggregation, I find that a one standard deviation increase in a correspondent lender's exposure to the decrease in mortgage aggregation volume leads to a 12.5% reduction in lending. The effect is even more pronounced for low-income borrowers, who experience a 4.5% greater decline in credit supply and face worse credit access. Aggregation enables correspondent lenders to enhance their mortgage origination capacity by freeing up their balance sheets. Moreover, aggregation allows correspondent lenders to specialize in serving low-income borrowers by operating in areas with high entry costs for large aggregators. These findings suggest that aggregation significantly shapes the quantity and composition of available credit in the mortgage market.

¹Aggregators are usually large mortgage lenders, for example, Wells Fargo and Bank of America. Correspondent lenders are usually small community banks or shadow banks, which sell their originated mortgages to non-affiliated aggregators. Examples of correspondent lenders include Hendricks County Community Bank and Odyssey Funding LLC.

There are two major challenges in testing the effect of mortgage aggregation on credit supply. The first is measurement: there is no publicly available dataset on mortgage aggregation within the securitization market dominated by Fannie Mae, Freddie Mac and Ginnie Mae. The second challenge is identification. The equilibrium aggregation amount depends on both aggregators' demand for mortgages and correspondent lenders' supply of mortgages for sale.

To address the first challenge, I construct a new dataset on aggregator-correspondent lender relationships by combining data on originated and aggregated mortgages from the Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA). Using this dataset, I examine how aggregation can influence the lending activities of correspondent lenders.

To address the second challenge, I use a difference-in-differences approach based on the implementation of the Basel III capital requirement on mortgage servicing rights (MSRs) in 2013. A mortgage servicing right is an asset that is created when the act of servicing is contractually separated from the underlying loan.² The servicer (i.e., financial institutions that hold MSRs) collects monthly payments from borrowers and distributes them to the relevant investors. Mortgage servicing is a scale business, where the value of MSRs generally increases with the volume of mortgages serviced. Large aggregators can absorb the fixed costs of setting up a servicing system and thus profit more by servicing larger volumes of mortgages, while smaller correspondent lenders, who typically lack such scale, often do not retain these rights. When aggregators acquire mortgages from correspondent lenders, they usually obtain the associated MSRs.

In 2013, the U.S. implementation of the Basel III Accord unexpectedly increased the risk weight of MSRs from 100% to 250% and lowered the cap on the value of MSRs relative to a bank's common equity from 50% to 10% (Irani, Iyer, Meisenzahl, and Peydró, 2021). This unanticipated regulatory change reduced the appeal of aggregation business for banks, as

²See the definition in https://www.federalreserve.gov/publications/2016-capital-rules-mortgage-servicing-assets-Evolution-of-the-Mortgage-Servicing-Market-since-1998.htm

aggregation is a key method for acquiring MSRs. Using the 10% cap on MSRs relative to a bank's common equity, I construct a measure of correspondent lenders' regulatory exposure to MSRs based on their business relationships with affected aggregators. Specifically, this measure captures the *ex-ante* fraction of mortgages sold to bank aggregators whose MSR/Tier 1 capital ratio exceeded the 10% threshold before the regulation was announced.

My difference-in-differences approach compares credit supply before and after the policy change among correspondent lenders with varying levels of exposure within the same county and year. Using the correspondent Lender×County level analysis, I find that correspondent lenders with greater ex-ante exposure to aggregators affected by the regulatory change experience larger decline in mortgage aggregation volume. Furthermore, this decline in aggregation leads to a reduction in mortgage originations of correspondent lenders. Specifically, a one standard deviation increase in a correspondent lender's exposure to the regulatory change results in a 12.5% decrease in their origination volume.

A potential concern with this approach is that the matching between correspondent lenders and aggregators is not random. If lower-quality correspondent lenders are more likely to pair with aggregators facing greater ex-ante regulatory exposure, then the observed differences in aggregation and origination volumes might reflect varying loan demand driven by lender quality, rather than the effects arising from regulations. To alleviate the concern, I analyze aggregation volume at the correspondent lender-aggregator level using a withinfirm estimator, following the approach of Khwaja and Mian (2008). The analysis confirms that the decline in aggregation volume is driven by the Basel III capital capital requirement on MSRs, alleviating the concern that the previous results are driven by endogeneous matching between aggregators and correspondent lenders.

Another concern is that the decline in origination could be due to the broader regulatory impact of the Basel III Accord. I address this in two ways. First, I show that my main results are robust when using the subset of shadow bank correspondent lenders, which are not subject to the Basel III Accord. I further show that their primary funding from credit

lines was not affected by the MSR requirement from the Basel III Accord either. Second, I show that the MSR exposure of correspondent lenders is not positively correlated with their capital shortfall.

I perform additional robustness checks to investigate the possibility of other events in driving the main results. Specifically, I consider whether the results are related to put-back risk, litigation risk and guarantee fee change. My results are robust in different subsamples and after adding additional controls. The decline in credit supply from correspondent lenders is significant for the conventional loan sample, a market segment not directly impacted by lawsuits related to FHA fraud. In addition, the results are robust after controlling for the effects from aggregators influenced by guarantee fee parity.

Having established that the regulatory shock affected the credit supply of correspondent lenders, I extend the analysis to the county level to estimate its impact on credit access. I construct a county-level exposure measure that reflects the ex-ante share of mortgages sold to aggregators affected by the Basel III capital requirement on MSRs. This measure allows me to explore the disruption in the aggregation market by assessing both the extensive and intensive margins of credit supply.

I examine the effect on the number of correspondent lenders providing credit in local markets and the share of applications from low-income borrowers. I find that, compared to counties with no exposure to the aggregation market, counties where 100% of originated mortgages were sold to affected aggregators see two fewer correspondent lenders after the regulatory shock. While the share of low-income applicants remains unchanged, low-income borrowers experience a more significant decline in originated mortgages compared to higher-income borrowers. Specifically, a one standard deviation increase in county-level exposure to the aggregation market results in a 1.44% decrease in overall credit supply and a 2.16% decrease for low-income borrowers. These findings demonstrate that the Basel III capital requirement on MSRs not only reduces correspondent lender credit supply but also significantly impacts overall credit availability at the county level, with low-income

borrowers disproportionately affected.

In the final part of my paper, I provide evidence that funding market frictions drive the credit supply decline. In addition, aggregation choices of aggregators and the specialization of correspondent lenders lead to unequal impacts on low-income borrowers.

I provide evidence on correspondent lenders' funding market frictions. Correspondent lenders face frictions in substituting funding between different aggregators. The relationship between correspondent lenders and aggregators is sticky; conditional on having sold to a particular aggregator in the past period, a correspondent lender has a 45% higher likelihood of maintaining that relationship in the current period. This stickiness underscores the significance of search frictions in the correspondent lender-aggregator relationships. Additionally, correspondent lenders cannot fully offset reduced aggregation volumes from one aggregator by selling to others. Lenders with higher concentration in selling relationships, and fewer nearby aggregators experience larger reductions in origination following a decrease in aggregation volume. I also examine other choices available to correspondent lenders, such as establishing new relationships with agencies and raising deposit funding. Frictions in switching to these alternative options further lead to decrease in funding and the decline in origination.

Next, I show that both aggregators' choices and correspondent lender specialization lead to unequal impacts on low-income borrowers. First, I show aggregators' behaviour shape the origination decision of correspondent lenders. Facing high capital costs of holding mortgage servicing rights, aggregators make aggregation decisions to prioritize their own origination and reduce risk taking in servicing. I show that aggregators reduce the aggregation for lenders with high market overlap and loans perceived as high risk. The change in aggregation preference is reflected in the origination market: correspondent lenders reduce origination more for low-income borrowers and borrowers in low-income areas.

Second, I explore the role of correspondent lenders in originating mortgages for low-

income borrowers. After accounting for borrower characteristics and location, I find that low-income borrowers are more likely to apply for mortgages through correspondent lenders, indicating a preference for these lenders. Additionally, when low-income borrowers do apply, correspondent lenders are 28% less likely to reject their applications compared to other lenders, while maintaining similar default rates. They are also less likely to reject applications due to incomplete submissions or unverifiable information, suggesting that correspondent lenders may have access to soft information or offer better origination services to low-income borrowers.

Taken together, my results imply that aggregation significantly shapes the credit supply of correspondent lenders. It is crucial for policymakers to consider the role of the aggregation market in affecting credit access, particularly for low-income borrowers.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 connects my paper to the related literature. Section 3 briefly describes institutional features of the mortgage servicing industry and data used in the empirical analysis. Section 4 describes my empirical strategy and introduces the measure construction. Section 5 presents my main findings on mortgage aggreation and credit supply. Section 6 discussed the forces that drive the reduced credit access. Section 7 concludes.

2 Related Literature

My paper contributes to the literature on the relationships between financial institutions in over-the-counter financial markets. While the over-the-counter markets for federal funds, interbank lending, corporate bond, credit default swaps, municipal bonds, asset-backed securities, and currencies have been widely studied,³ the over-the-counter market for mortgages, specifically the aggregation market, has received less attention. Using data

³See, e.g. Bech and Atalay (2010); James, Marsh, and Sarno (2012); Afonso, Kovner, and Schoar (2013); Peltonen, Scheicher, and Vuillemey (2014); Hollifield, Neklyudov, and Spatt (2017); Li and Schürhoff (2019); Friewald and Nagler (2019); Craig and Ma (2022); Huber (2023)

on all private-label, fixed rate mortgages before the financial crisis, Stanton, Walden, and Wallace (2014, 2018) construct an aggregation network and highlight the financial fragility in the U.S. mortgage market due to the interconnectedness of mortgage lenders. Focusing on Ginnie Mae loans, Benson, Kim, and Pence (2023) analyze the impact of mortgage issuer composition on credit supply through the aggregation market. Building on this literature, my paper is among the first papers to construct mortgage correspondent lender-aggregator relationships after the financial crisis and analyze how this structure affects the effects of banking regulations on lending.

My paper is also related to the extensive literature on shock transmission through financial intermediation.⁴ Financial or regulatory shocks propagate through supply chain, lending relationships, and international trade (Acemoglu and Tahbaz-Salehi, 2020; Craig and Ma, 2022; Xu, 2022) The strength and timing of shock transmission depend on the relationships between firms and financial institutions and vary by market. In the mortgage market, previous research has examined how securitization shocks transmit to the housing market and the real economy.⁵ However, previous shocks often abstract from the structure of the mortgage aggregation market. Using Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights as a natural experiment, my paper investigates how a regulatory shock transmits through the mortgage aggregation market. Related to the literature that examines the regulatory impact of post-financial crisis banking reforms,⁶ my paper underscores an important consideration for policymakers: overlooking the mortgage aggregation market could lead to underestimating the impact of regulation due to the close links between mortgage servicing rights, aggregation, and the strategic behavior of market participants in origination and aggregation.

⁴See, e.g. Chodorow-Reich (2014); Xu (2022); Acemoglu and Tahbaz-Salehi (2020); Craig and Ma (2022)

⁵See, e.g. Mian and Sufi (2009); Piskorski, Seru, and Vig (2010); Mian and Sufi (2014); Loutskina and Strahan (2015); Gete and Reher (2021); Mian and Sufi (2022)

⁶See, e.g. Kashyap, Stein, and Hanson (2010); Hakura and Cosimano (2011); Bichsel, Lambertini, Mukherjee, and Wunderli (2022); Auer, Matyunina, and Ongena (2022)

Finally, my paper contributes to the literature on the development of the U.S. mortgage market after the Global Financial Crisis. This literature has highlighted two major trends during this period: first, the rise of shadow banks in mortgage origination, servicing, and the issuance of mortgage-backed securities; and second, the decline in low-income credit and small mortgages, particularly in the FHA market. This paper is closest to Benson, Kim, and Pence (2023) and Frame, Gerardi, Mayer, Xu, and Zhao (2024) Both focus on the FHA mortgage market; the former examines the impact of the exit of large aggregators on credit standards and interest rates, while the latter investigates the decline in credit access for low-income borrowers in the FHA market due to litigation risks faced by large banks. My paper expands on these studies by examining both the conventional and FHA markets and introducing a new contributing factor—the decline in aggregation—as a driver of reduced credit access for low-income borrowers. This paper also identifies how aggregation market matching frictions contribute to the decline in mortgage lending to disadvantaged borrower groups, complementing other research on supply-side frictions in credit market.

3 Institutional Background and Data

3.1 Mortgage Market Structure

Mortgage lending generally occurs through retail, wholesale, or correspondent lending channels.¹⁰ In the retail channel, lenders handle the entire origination process directly with consumers and track mortgage applications throughout the closing process. In the

⁷See, e.g. ??Fuster, Plosser, Schnabl, and Vickery (2019); Jiang, Matvos, Piskorski, and Seru (2020); Gete and Reher (2021); Buchak, Chau, and Jørring (2023); Hamdi, Jiang, Lewis, Padi, and Pal (2023); Chu, Zhang, and Zhang (2023); Blank, Highfield, and Yerkes (2022); Benson, Kim, and Pence (2023); D'Acunto and Rossi (2022); DeFusco, Johnson, and Mondragon (2020)

⁸See, e.g. Frame, Gerardi, Mayer, Xu, and Zhao (2024); Bhutta, Laufer, and Ringo (2017); D'Acunto and Rossi (2022)

⁹See, e.g. Frame, Gerardi, Mayer, Xu, and Zhao (2024); Jiang, Yu, and Zhang (2022); Cespedes, Jiang, Parra, and Zhang (2024); Huang, Linck, Mayer, and Parsons (2024); Frame, Huang, Mayer, and Sunderam (2021); Hurtado and Sakong (2022)

¹⁰https://files.consumerfinance.gov/f/2012/01/Mortgage-Origination-ExaminationProcedures.pdf

wholesale channel, mortgage brokers, working as independent contractors, collaborate with multiple mortgage lenders to offer mortgage products to consumers. However, they do not make credit decisions nor fund the mortgages. In the correspondent lending channel, correspondent lenders fund their mortgage originations and independently manage the origination process. These lenders sell the originated mortgages to wholesale lenders (aggregators) based on pre-arranged pricing commitments. They can also sell mortgages to wholesale lenders through loan exchange platforms, such as Optimal Blue.

In this paper, I focus on the correspondent lending channel, which highlights mortgage aggregation behavior in the U.S. mortgage market. Figure 2 illustrates the flow of funds when a mortgage is originated and then sold to aggregators and securitizers. In the diagram, both aggregators and correspondent lenders can originate mortgages. Without direct relationships with securitizers, correspondent lenders choose to sell mortgages to aggregators to secure funding for originating new loans. Aggregators, in turn, sell most of these mortgages to securitizers. Figure 4 shows the fraction of purchasers of aggregated mortgages. Over 80% of the mortgages that aggregators purchase are sold to agencies, with only a small fraction remaining on their balance sheets within the same year. This percentage is similar to the fraction of originated mortgages that remain on their balance sheets during the current year.¹¹

The costs associated with establishing business relationships with agencies have contributed to the rise of correspondent lenders. To form a business relationship with Fannie Mae, Freddie Mac, or Ginnie Mae, lenders must undergo a lengthy application process—typically lasting over 21 weeks—meet strict eligibility requirements, and maintain financial stability. By selling to large aggregators with direct relationships with these government-sponsored enterprises (GSEs), correspondent lenders avoid the need to comply with these agency requirements themselves. Government-sponsored enterprises also avoid

¹¹One caveat of the Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA) data is that it only reports the action of mortgages in the current year. If a mortgage is originated in the current year and sold in the next year, it is recorded as unsold in HMDA. It is possible that the unsold mortgages will be sold in the next year.

the costs of establishing relationships with small lenders and the accompanied counterparty risks and reputation risks.

The system became even more attractive with the separation of mortgage servicing from origination in the 1980s. Under pressure to increase earnings and liquidate the assets of failed institutions with mortgage operations, the mortgage industry disintegrated and developed a market for trading servicing rights. Among industry practitioners, mortgage servicing is considered a scale business, with the value of mortgage servicing rights positively correlated with the volume of underlying loans serviced. Large lenders accumulate mortgage servicing rights to benefit from economies of scale, while smaller lenders prefer to sell mortgages with the servicing rights released, receiving a servicing premium upfront. This arrangement benefits both aggregators and correspondent lenders: aggregators leverage economies of scale in servicing, while correspondent lenders face lower entry barriers since they can focus solely on origination.

Following the Global Financial Crisis, failed shadow banks, such as Countrywide, sold their correspondent lending and servicing businesses to large banks. Coupled with the volume discounts on guarantee fees provided by Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac, ¹² large banks like Wells Fargo, Bank of America, and JPMorgan Chase accumulated significant servicing portfolios and expanded their aggregation businesses. Although the aggregation business declined after Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac adopted guarantee fee parity to increase market competition in 2011, it remains an active segment of the mortgage market.

3.2 Data and Measurement

This section describes the data sources and variable construction. I use Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA) data, Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac Single Family Loan Level

¹²Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac offered bulk discounts when large banks delivered a high volume of mortgages for securitization. Pricing was based on bilateral negotiations and aimed to increase liquidity in the to-be-announced (TBA) market and mitigate operational risks from small lenders. However, this practice was criticized for creating unequal participation in the securitization market.

Data, Attom Real Estate Transaction data, and bank and shadow bank call reports. For the analysis, I construct several datasets on application and origination activities. More importantly, I construct a novel dataset on aggregation activities, shedding light on the correspondent lender-aggregator relationships. I further enrich the data with detailed loan-level mortgage contract details and performance. The data and matching procedures are described in detail below.

Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA): I observe the mortgage origination and aggregation activity of lenders using HMDA dataset. HMDA is the most comprehensive information source of U.S. mortgage market, covering around 90% of the origination. It requires financial institutions that meet minimum asset and loan origination thresholds to disclose information about the applications for, originations and purchase of covered mortgages, including home purchases and refinances for each calendar year. The dataset contains a rich set of characteristics about the lender, borrower, and mortgage at the application level. I observe the loan characteristics, such as loan amount, location of collateral, and borrower characteristics, such as income, race, ethnicity. For lenders, I observe their name and address, as well as a unique lender identifier. HMDA defines originators as entities that independently make the underwriting and funding decisions of newly originated mortgages. If a lender does not make underwriting decisions, e.g. a mortgage is originated through the wholesale channel via brokers, then the origination is attributed to the wholesale lender. HMDA also reports the covered loans purchased by the covered financial institutions after closing.

Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac Single Family Loan Level Data: I observe the key mortgage contract terms and loan performance using the Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac Single Family Loan Level Dataset. The dataset includes long-term, fixed-rate, conforming mortgages sold to Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac and provides key mortgage contract terms such as loan-to-value ratio (LTV), debt-to-income ratio and FICO score. It also includes

¹³https://www.consumerfinance.gov/rules-policy/regulations/1003/4/#a

the seller name, servicer name, first payment date and geographical information of the property. In addition, it tracks the loan performance at the monthly level. This dataset supplements HMDA data by offering mortgage risk measures and loan performance.

Attom Real Estate Transaction Data: Attom Real Estate Transaction data provides transaction information for the U.S. dating back to the early 1990s, covering over 2,750 counties. The dataset includes details such as transaction price, transaction date, and housing characteristics including the exact location of the property. It also provides basic mortgage information, such as loan amount, loan-to-value ratio, and lender name.

Call report data: I obtain the bank call reports data from Wharton Research Data Services (WRDS), which contains balance sheet and income statement for banks and savings banks. I obtain credit union call reports data from the National Credit Union Administration. Finally, I acquire shadow bank call reports data by submitting FOIA requests to Massachusetts and Washington following Jiang (2019).

3.3 Sample Construction

In this section, I describe the process of constructing the datasets for my analysis. I first create two novel datasets and then build several panel datasets. The details are provided below.

3.3.1 Correspondent Lender-Aggregator Relationships

I merge originated mortgages (action taken code 1) and purchased mortgages (action taken code 6) in HMDA to create a dataset that examines seller-aggregator relationships in correspondent lending. This dataset allows me to observe and analyze the business relationships between financial institutions within the mortgage aggregation market.

Figure 3 shows the data samples that I conduct my match on. I select mortgages labeled as sold to aggregators other than Fannie Mae, Freddie Mac, Ginnie Mae, and private securitization as the originated mortgage sample. Then, I take mortgages aggregated by

aggregators in the same year. Both originated and aggregated mortgages contain loan and borrower characteristics. However, originated mortgages lack aggregator identity, while aggregated mortgages lack originator identity. To link originated mortgages with aggregated mortgages, I merge them based on census tract and loan amount. I also incorporate additional dimensions of mortgage characteristics into the merge, such as loan type, property type, borrower income, race, ethnicity, etc. Details of the merge algorithm and summary statistics on merge performance are included in the Appendix A.

My match algorithm gives around 60% match rate between originated covered loans and aggregated covered loans. I find 1190 aggregators and 4510 correspondent lenders. Table 1 shows the summary statistics for the characteristics of aggregators and correspondent lenders. Comparing the average aggregation and origination amounts, the aggregation market is quite concentrated, while the origination market is dispersed. Correspondent lenders tend to be smaller than aggregators and originate one third of the mortgages originated by aggregators. Correspondent lenders have a lower liquidity ratio, a higher capital ratio, and a higher return on assets.

3.3.2 Merged Mortgage Data with Interest Rate and Loan Performance

Although HMDA is the most comprehensive dataset for the mortgage market, it lacks key mortgage contract terms such as interest rates. To examine the effects on interest rates, I incorporate data from Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac's Single Family Loan dataset and the Attom Real Estate dataset. I first merge the Attom dataset with HMDA using property census tract and lender name. Following the cleaning procedure detailed in Appendix A, I have 16,300,646 housing transactions with mortgage in Attom and 21,080,734 home purchase mortgages from HMDA during the sample period 2010 - 2017. The match rate is around 80%, comparable to previous paper Bartlett, Morse, Stanton, and Wallace (2022) that conducts similar match. The resulting dataset includes origination date, census tract, loan characteristics, borrower characteristics, and lender identity.

I further merge the dataset with Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac's Single Family Loan dataset using loan amount, origination date, and lender. To ensure consistency with the coverage of Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac data, I restrict my sample to conventional, home purchase, fixed-rate mortgages. The match rate is 48%, which is similar to the match rate reported in Buchak, Chau, and Jørring (2023) for HMDA and Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac data after 2017. Details of the matching algorithm and matching performance are provided in Appendix A. I refer to this dataset as the HMDA-Attom-FF dataset.

3.3.3 Panel Datasets

I construct several panel datasets for my analysis. To obtain my main results on the effect of aggregation on credit supply in Section 5, I construct lender level and Lender×County level datasets from the Home Mortgage Disclosure Act. I first construct treatment measures as described in Section 4. Next, I aggregate originated and aggregated home purchase mortgages in the HMDA dataset at the aforementioned levels. Then I merge the collapsed datasets with my treatment measures and lender characteristics from call reports data.

To investigate the effect of aggregation on interest rates and loan performance, I use the loan-level HMDA-Attom-FF data. I select mortgages that are not directly sold to Fannie Mae, Freddie Mac, Ginnie Mae, or private securitizers and then merge this loan-level data with the treatment measure using lender id from HMDA.

To examine the heterogeneous impact on low-income borrowers, I aggregate the mortgages provided to low-income and high-income borrowers at the Lender×County level. I merge this dataset with the treatment measure using lender ID and add lender characteristics. Low-income borrowers are defined as those with incomes less than 80% of the FFIEC MSA-level median family income.

To show the specialization of correspondent lenders in the origination market, I use the application level HMDA data to examine rejection rates and reasons for rejection. Additionally, I analyze the interest rates and loan performance of loans originated by correspondent lenders compared to those from other lenders, using the loan-level HMDA-Attom-FF data.

3.4 Summary Statistics

Table 1 reports the summary statistics for the correspondent Lender×County level dataset. An average merged correspondent lender provide \$165,670 mortgage credit per county per year, indicating that they are small mortgage lenders. This can also been seen from their average asset size.

A correspondent lender on average connects with 8 aggregators, however, the average HHI is 0.3 and the median is 0.25, indicating highly concentrated selling relationships. In addition, each correspondent lender on average has 8 nearby aggregators. The standard deviation is large, indicating that uneven access to aggregation market relationships.

4 Identification Strategy

After the Great Financial Crisis, the Basel Committee proposed a series of reforms aimed at creating a more resilient banking sector. As part of these post-crisis regulations, U.S. regulators announced a reduction in the cap on Mortgage Servicing Rights (MSRs) contributions to Tier 1 capital from 50% to 10% and an increase in their risk weight from 100% to 250%. These heightened regulatory burden was driven by concerns about MSRs. First, their market value fluctuations could weaken banks' regulatory capital and threaten their stability. Second, the uncertainty in valuing MSRs, exposure to contingent recourse liabilities, and the illiquid servicing transfer market made it difficult to realize their book value. For example, FDIC found that 31 out of 36 failed banks held MSRs, but the fixed transaction costs associated with a sale exceeded the value of these MSRs.

Though MSRs were generally seen as risky, the strict regulatory treatment they received was largely unexpected by market participants(Irani, Iyer, Meisenzahl, and Peydró, 2021).

First, U.S. regulatory agencies adopted the MSRs treatment under Basel III framework without considering the uniqueness of MSRs in the U.S. mortgage market. In Europe, a large proportion of mortgages are retained on the balance sheet by the originating banks and funded with covered bonds. No MSRs is created under this system because the servicing cash flow is not separated from the underlying mortgage loans. is fundamentally different from the U.S. mortgage market where most mortgages are securitized and MSRs are separated from the underlying mortgages. The treatment of MSRs disproportionately affected U.S. institutions in relation to non-U.S. institutions while U.S. financial institutions expected regulatory agencies to provide "a more level playing field". 14 Second, the treatment of MSRs is extremely punitive. The risk weights of MSRs are much higher compared to other balance sheet items which have equal or greater risk characteristics. For example, the Mortgage Bankers Association noted that the 250% risk weight assigned to MSRs was nearly double that of High Volatility Acquisition Development and Construction (HVADC) loans, which carried a 130% risk weight, despite being considered the riskiest assets on the list. Third, the caps and risk weights were viewed as "arbitrary". For example, a 2013 Forbes article commented on the new regulation that "[t]he new mortgage servicing regulations appear quite arbitrary. The amount of capital banks are required to hold against servicing rights was increased dramatically." ¹⁵

The increased capital requirements on banks' MSR holdings, combined with the ex ante variation in banks' sensitivity to the additional capital charges under Basel III, made the mortgage business less attractive for banks. Specifically, it reduces banks' interests in mortgage aggregation. One channel for banks to obtain mortgage servicing rights is to aggregate mortgages from other financial institutions. Figure 5 shows the strong positive

¹⁴https://www.fdic.gov/system/files/2024-07/2012-ad-95-96-97_c_857.pdf

¹⁵See, https://www.forbes.com/sites/richardfinger/2013/05/30/banks-are-not-lending-like-they-should-and-with-good-reason/

¹⁶This is mentioned by Ocwen Financial Corp, a leading mortgage company in their 10-K file in 2024: "We originate and purchase residential mortgage loans that we promptly sell or securitize on a servicing retained basis, thereby generating mortgage servicing rights." Also mentioned by Reuters: "Banks typically use correspondent lending to generate more mortgages to, in turn, sell to investors and service them."

correlation between aggregation and mortgage servicing rights, providing support that a higher cost of holding servicing rights on balancesheets could reduce the attractiveness of aggregation business.

To examine how the plausibly exogenous change in mortgage aggregation affect correspondent lenders' credit supply, I construct the treatment exposure at the correspondent lender level. I first define the regulatory exposure of a bank b as the share of MSRs in Tier 1 capital of traditional bank b in Q4 2011.

$$MSRT1_b \equiv \frac{MSR_{b_{2011}}}{Tier1Capital_{b_{2011}}} \tag{1}$$

Next, I define the correspondent lender level treatment variable as

$$MSR_s \equiv \sum_{b \in s} \left(\mathbb{1}_{MSRT1_b \ge 0.1} \times \frac{Aggregation_{bs_{2011}}}{\sum_{b \in s} Aggregation_{bs_{2011}}} \right)$$
 (2)

One concern about the treatment is that correspondent lenders can be directly affected by the increased capital requirement on mortgage servicing rights and change their origination behavior. However, when correspondent lenders sell mortgages, they usually sell mortgages with servicing released and gain a servicing premium in return. I count the correspondent lenders with *ex-ante* MSR exposure in 2011 Q4 over 10% and none of the correspondent lenders are subject to the cap requirement in 2013.

5 Mortgage Aggregation and Credit Supply

In this section, I present evidence showing that the reduction in aggregation leads to decreased mortgage lending by correspondent lenders, following unexpectedly punitive capital treatment on Mortgage Servicing Rights (MSRs). I conduct several robustness tests, including analyses of dynamic effects and potential confounding events. Finally, I estimate the impact on total credit supply by analyzing data at the county level. These results indicate the distributional impacts of MSR regulation on mortgage supply through the aggregation market.

5.1 Main Results

It is difficult to estimate the causal impact of aggregation on credit supply. The equilibrium aggregation volume is driven by both aggregators' demand for mortgages and correspondent lenders' supply of mortgages, thus directly testing the relationship between aggregation and origination suffers from the issue of reverse causality. To address this issue, I use the surprisingly punitive MSR treatment from the Basel III Accord as a source of exogeneous variation in mortgage aggregation.

I first test if the punitive MSR treatment leads to decrease in aggregation volume. I estimate a difference-in-differences model described in the following form:

$$y_{s,c,t} = \beta_1 MSR_t \times Post_t + \xi' X_{s,t-1} + FE + \epsilon_{s,c,t}$$
(3)

The dependent variable is log aggregation amount and log origination amount of correspondent lenders. MSR_t is the correspondent lender level treatment exposure as defined in Equation (2). Post_t is a dummy variable that is 1 if the year is on or after 2013 and otherwise 0. I add a vector of lagged time-varying lender-level controls $X_{s,t-1}$ from various balance sheet data, including logarithm of assets, return on assets, capital ratio

and liquidity ratio.

I include correspondent lender, County×Year, and correspondent Lender×County fixed effects in the model. The year fixed effects control for national trends in aggregation, while the County×Year fixed effects account for local loan demand. I also add Lender×County fixed effects to control for the selection of correspondent lenders entering different counties. I cluster standard errors at the correspondent lender level. The coefficient of interest is β_1 , which captures the differential effect of exposure to Basel III capital requirements on aggregation amounts and origination amounts.

Table 2 reports the results. Column 1 adds correspondent Lender×County fixed effects, column 2 adds year fixed effects and column 3 adds County×Year fixed effects. The coefficient on the interaction term between the MSR exposure and post dummy is negative and statistically significant across all specifications. This indicates that the amount of mortgages being aggregated is more negatively affected if the correspondent lenders have larger exposure to aggregators subject to the Basel III capital requirement on MSR. The estimation result suggests that following the Basel III capital requirement, the mortgage aggregation amount decrease significantly. A one standard deviation increase in the exante share of mortgages sold to affected aggregators (0.25) leads to 20.5% decrease in aggregation volume.

One possible concern with estimating the regression model, Equation (3), at the correspondent lender level is that non-random matching between correspondent lenders and aggregators may interfere with interpretation of the results. Either correspondent lenders or aggregators can choose the financial institution with which they establish business relationship. Correspondent lenders with loan demand could sell to aggregators that experience negative regulatory shocks, thus I cannot conclude that the results are driven by MSR regulation. To address the selection problem, I conduct my analysis at the correspondent lender-aggregator level using an within-firm estimator (Khwaja and Mian,

2008). Specifically, I estimate the equation:

$$y_{s,b,t} = \beta_1 M S R_b \times Post_t + F E + \epsilon_{s,b,t}$$
 (4)

Here MSR_b is a bank level exposure to MSR policy change. In the specification, I add correspondent lender-year fixed effects $FE_{s,t}$ which absorb any confounding factors at the correspondent lender-year level that may correlates with the aggregation volume. Moreover, I add correspondent lender-aggregator fixed effects $FE_{s,b}$ to address the endogeneous matching between correspondent lenders and aggregators.

Table A.2 shows the estimation results. The point estimates are stable across columns. Notably, after adding correspondent lender-year fixed effects to control for the correspondent lender side supply of mortgages, the effect is still negative and significant, suggesting that the effects are coming from the aggregator side. Correspondent lenders indeed face reduction in the purchase volume when their aggregators are subject to the regulatory change.

As aggregation acts as a funding source by allowing correspondent lenders to reinvest their asset into more lending, decrease in aggregation volume could lead to decrease in credit supply. However, the decrease in origination volume is not obvious given that correspondent lenders have various funding sources for mortgage origination. If correspondent lenders can substitute alternative funding sources with aggregator purchase frictionlessly, I would not be able to observe a decrease in origination volume.

After examining the effect on aggregation volume, I next check if the decrease in aggregation volume is followed by decrease in origination volume. I re-estimate the regression model in Equation (3) using log mortgage origination amount and mortgage approval rate as the dependent variable. I use approval rate to partially address the concern that the results are driven by decrease in correspondent lender-specific demand.

Table 3 presents the results. Columns 1–3 and 4–6 display regression estimates for log

origination amount and approval rate as the dependent variable, respectively. Column 1 and column 4 add correspondent Lender×County fixed effects, column 2 and column 5 add year fixed effects and column 3 and column 6 add County×Year fixed effects to control for local loan demand. The coefficient on the interaction term remains negative, significant at 5% level, and similar in magnitude across all specifications. These results indicate that, credit supplied by correspondent lenders with higher ex ante exposure to MSRs through aggregation are more negatively affected by the regulatory change compared to correspondent lenders with lower MSR exposure. The estimated coefficients imply that, for a given one standard deviation increase in the correspondent lender level exposure, mortgages supply decrease by 12.5%.

5.2 Robustness Tests

5.2.1 Pre-trends and Dynamic Effects

A possible concern with the identification strategy could be that there are pre-existing trends that are driving the difference in lending of differentially exposed correspondent lenders after the regulatory shock. To address this concern, I check the existence of trends in the aggregation and origination volume. I estimate the following model:

$$Y_{s,c,t} = \sum_{\tau=-2}^{5} (\beta_{\tau} MSR\%_s \times Post_{t+\tau}) + \gamma X_{s,t-1} + FE + \epsilon_{s,c,t}.$$
 (5)

The dependent variables are log aggregation amount, log origination amount of correspondent lenders and log origination amount of correspondent lenders. The main coefficients of interest are β_{τ} , which show the difference in aggregation and origination in treated and control groups in each period in the sample. This specification also allows us to see the dynamic effects of the shock on origination. Figure 6 shows the 95% confidence interval plots for the estimated coefficients from Equation 5. It is evident from the figure that there is no pre-trends in either the aggregation amount or origination amount of correspondent

lenders prior the announcement of Basel III implementation in 2012. The figures also show interesting dynamic effects. After the Basel III implementation, the aggregation volume declines and correspondent lenders never revert their origination volume to the pre-shock level, which represents a permanent shift in the market structure.

The lack of pre-trends does not necessarily rule out the possibility that low quality correspondent lenders are more likely to be matched with aggregators that hold a high ex-ante level of mortgage servicing rights. I further conduct balanced t-stats tests for the characteristics of the treated and control groups, where the treated and control group are defined as having exposure higher and below the median level. Table A.3 shows that there is no significant difference along observable characteristics including capital ratio, liquidity ratio, return on assets and size.

5.2.2 Effects of Basel III Capital Requirement

Identification using Basel III capital requirement on mortgage servicing rights is tricky because the banking sector regulations could affect multiple players through various channels. I try to address concerns arising from Basel III capital requirement below.

First, I check the main results using shadow correspondent lender subsample. Since shadow banks are not regulated by the Basel III capital requirement, this subsample analysis is not subject to the concern that lending reduction are directly driven by Basel III capital requirement. Table A.5 shows that shadow bank correspondent lenders experience significant decline in the origination volume.

However, 60%-70% of shadow bank funding comes from bank credit lines(Jiang, 2019). Shadow bank correspondent lenders may reduce lending if large aggregators decrease their warehouse funding to shadow banks due to regulatory exposure from Basel III capital requirement. Using the credit line data from shadow bank call reports data, I test if the log credit line amount, utilization ratio of shadow banks' credit line and estimated interest change according to the regulatory exposure of their warehouse lenders. I estimate the

following model

$$y_{s,b,t} = \beta_1 \text{Exposure}_b \times \text{Post}_t + FE + \epsilon_{s,b,t}$$
 (6)

Similar to Equation 4, I add correspondent lender-year fixed effects $FE_{s,t}$ which absorb any confounding factors at the shadow bank-year level that may correlates with the funding amount utilization rate. Moreover, I add correspondent lender-aggregator fixed effects $FE_{s,b}$ to address the endogeneous matching between shadow banks and their warehouse lenders. The main variable of interest the coefficient β of the interaction term $Exposure_b \times Post_t$, where the measure $Exposure_b$ is defined as in Equation 1. The main coefficient of interest captures the difference in the funding supply of warehouse lenders that are affected by the Basel III MSR exposure. Table A.4 shows that across all specifications, the coefficient β is not significant. The MSR exposure does not has a significant impact on the funding of shadow banks.

Second, bank correspondent lenders may reduce lending because of their capital shortfall. If their capital shortfall is positively correlated with their exposure to MSR through aggregation, then I cannot conclude that the decrease in purchase volume leads to the decrease in the origination volume. I test if the positive correlation exists in the data. Table A.6 shows the correlation between Basel III capital shortfall and correspondent lenders' MSR exposure through aggregation.¹⁷ There is no positive correlation between the exposure to aggregator treatment and their own Basel III capital shortfall across all subsamples.

5.2.3 Confounding events

The U.S. mortgage market underwent significant changes after the global financial crisis. Mortgage lenders face heightened and uncertain put-back and litigation risks in addition to tight banking regulations. I discuss how these risks confound the main analysis.

¹⁷Thanks to Berrospide and Edge (2016) for providing the capital shortfall measure.

Put-back risk: Put-back risk can lead to lending cut and disproportionately affect low-quality loans. Put-backs occur when the origination documents are faulty or fraudulent, e.g. the credit worthiness of borrowers and appraisal value of the property are misrepresented. The put-back risks were material for loans originated during 2006 and 2008 with the fraction of loans repurchased reached about 1% and 2% for 30-year fixed rate, full-amortized and full documentation loans(Goodman, Parrott, and Zhu, 2015). Though the fractions seem small, lenders could be impacted because the share of put-backs on their books could be large. In addition, lenders were concerned about the lack of clarity in repurchase activities, which led to tighter lending standards despite of the low realized repurchase rate. Since low-quality loans are more likely to be repurchased, put-backs mainly affects lending of low-quality loans. The predictions seem to align with the impact of Basel III capital requirement of MSR on correspondent lending if aggregators with a larger servicing right exposure are also the ones more exposed to put back risks.

However, there are at least two reasons to believe that my results are unlikely to driven by put-back risks. First, the magnitude of realized repurchase rate was unlikely to explain significant decline in lending. Put-back risks were lower in and after 2013. The realized repurchase rate is only 0.2% for loans originated in 2013, comparable to the repurchase rate before housing boom. Second, the FHFA, Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac each announced a new "rep and warrant relief" framework which relives sellers from repurchasing obligations for loans that met specific pay history requirements on or after January 1, 2013 after recognizing the negative impact of put-back uncertainty on lending. The announcement of new framework led to the ease of lending standards among lenders and bias my estimates towards to 0 for the negative impacts I found among correspondent lenders.

Litigation risk: After the global financial crisis, the U.S. Department of Justice brought

 $^{^{18}} See\ https://www.federalreserve.gov/newsevents/speech/bernanke20121115a.htm$

law suits against main FHA lenders under the False Claims Act for alleged fraudulent origination of FHA mortgages. The liability stemming from these prosecutions caused the exit of large FHA lenders from the origination market (Frame, Gerardi, Mayer, Xu, and Zhao, 2024) and the exit of one large FHA aggregator - JPMorgan Chase from the aggregation market (Benson, Kim, and Pence, 2023). It is possible that my results are driven by the litigation risks faced by large aggregators in their FHA market.

To address the problem, I first show that the aggregation and origination pattern of correspondent lenders did not diverge until 2013, one year after the main wave of law suits started, see Figure 6. I next show that the decrease in aggregation amount also presents in conventional loan market, a segment less likely to be directly impacted by the lawsuits aiming FHA market, see Table A.7.

Guarantee fee change: Starting in 2011, the GSEs erased the volume discount on guarantee fees. Top 10 GSE sellers on average paid 9 bps lower guarantee fee compared to sellers outside the top 100 before 2011(Begley and Srinivasan, 2022). The spread was reduced to 6 bps in 2012 and 0 in 2013. The removal of volume discount decreased the profits of mortgage aggregation and led the exit of some aggregators. However, the removal of volume discount did not target bank aggregators. To show that my results are not driven by guarantee fee change, I check if my results are sensitive to controlling for the negative effect from top 10 GSE sellers. Table A.8 shows the regression results. Controlling for the effect arising from top 10 GSE sellers does not affect the coefficient estimate of the effect of Basel III mortgage servicing right effect on aggregation volume. Though the removal of guarantee fee volume discount reduced total aggregation volume, it did not disproportionately affect the set of correspondent lenders that are more exposed to aggregators affected by Basel III capital requirement on MSRs.

 $^{^{19}\}mathrm{The}$ top 10 GSE sellers in 2010 Q4 are Wells Fargo, N.A., GMAC Mortgage, LLC, U.S. Bank, Citi Mortgage, JP Morgan Chase Bank, Flagstar Bank, Phh Mortgage Corporation, BB&T, Provident Funding Associates, L.P., Bank of America

5.3 Aggregate Credit Supply Effects

After showing that mortgage aggregation market disruption affects credit supply at the correspondent lender level, I turn to county level analysis to estimate the aggregate effects of mortgage aggregation on credit access.

The effects on credit access is unclear. The mortgage origination market is generally viewed as national and competitive, which allows for easy substitution of credit suppliers. Though correspondent lenders cut lending in response to the decrease in aggregation volume, borrowers can switch to other lenders to obtain credit. The overall credit availability would remain unaffected despite of credit supply from correspondent lenders if borrowers frictionlessly transition to other lenders and still achieve favourable application outcomes.

The effect on overall credit access can mask heterogeneities along borrower characteristics. Given that correspondent lenders are more likely to operate in low-income areas, see Figure 8, they may specialize in providing credit to low-income borrowers. The funding impact on these lenders can thus disproportionately affect the disadvantaged borrower group.

To estimate the impact on overall credit access and how much credit would have been provided to low-income borrowers without the reduction in aggregation and correspondent lender credit supply, I conduct my analysis at the county level. I construct the county level treatment variable as the following:

$$MSR\%_{Agg,c} \equiv \sum_{b \in s} \left(\mathbb{1}_{\frac{MSR_{b_{2011}}}{Tier1Capital_{b_{2011}}} \ge 0.1} \times \frac{Aggregation_{bc_{2011}}}{\sum_{b \in c} Aggregation_{bc_{2011}}} \right)$$
(7)

where $\frac{MSR_{b_{2011}}}{Tier_1Capitals_{b_{2011}}}$ is the share of MSRs in Tier 1 capital of traditional bank b in Q4 2011 and measures the exposure of bank b to the regulatory change in the capital treatment of MSRs. 10% is the cap on MSRs' contribution towards tier 1 capital set up by new Basel III capital requirement. If the share of MSR over tier 1 capital is over 10%, then the

aggregator would be assigned 1. I aggregate bank-level exposure to Basel III to the county level by using bank b's aggregation share in a given county c, $\frac{Purc_{bc_{2011}}}{\sum_{b \in c} Purc_{bc_{2011}}}$. The measure thus captures the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante MSR/Tier 1 capital over 10% in a county c.

I estimate the following model in county level regressions:

$$y_{c,t} = \beta_1 M SR \%_{Agg,c} \times Post_t + \xi' X_{c,t-1} + F E_c + F E_t + \epsilon_{c,t}$$
(8)

The dependent variables are the number of correspondent lenders originating mortgages, share of mortgage applications from low-income borrowers, and log amount of mortgages originated. The low income borrowers are defined as borrowers with income below 80% of the MSA level median income.

The coefficient of interest β_1 captures the differential effect of exposure to mortgage aggregation reduction on mortgage lending to low income borrowers. Following ?, I control for population, population density, racial and ethnic characteristics, education, income and poverty, and home ownership statistics in the county level regressions. I also control for lagged unemployment rate to adjust for differences in local economic conditions that might drive local loan demand. The specification further includes year and county fixed effects to account for persistent county characteristics and macroeconomic trends. I cluster standard errors by county.

Table 4 reports the results. The coefficient on the interaction term between county level MSR treatment and post is negative and statistically significant for the number of low-income borrowers operating in local counties, credit supply to borrowers. While the application share of low-income borrowers remain unchanged, they experience larger credit decline compared to high-income borrowers.

6 Channels

After confirming the effect of aggregation on credit supply, I show that funding frictions drive the lending reduction. In addition, aggregators' preference and correspondent lender specialization lead to the disproportionately larger impact on low-income borrowers in the mortgage market.

6.1 Funding Frictions

Correspondent lenders have multiple margins of adjustment when facing decline in aggregation. First, correspondent lenders can sell their mortgages to other aggregators. Second, correspondent lenders can consider channels other than aggregation to sell their mortgages. One the one hand, they can try to establish new relationships with government agencies and sell a fraction of mortgages directly to agencies without relying on aggregators. On the other hand, they can use their balance sheet funding to support new mortgage lending if they are depository institutions. The effect of the aggregation volume reduction would be limited if correspondent lenders can switch to any of the channels mentioned above. However, if correspondent lenders face search frictions in the aggregation market or cannot frictionlessly switch to other funding sources, they may reduce their credit supply as shown in Section 5.

To show the searching frictions in the aggregation market, I first check if correspondent lenders have sticky relationships with their aggregators. Correspondent lenders and aggregators usually set up their contract as an advance commitment on a mortgage for sale. Though sellers can sell mortgages via auctions through an online platform like Optimal Blue, these auctions are invited auctions sent out by the sellers to their connected aggregators. Thus, the relationship between sellers and aggregators could be sticky regardless of the method of sale. To test the sticky relationship between correspondent lenders, I construct a dataset using all possible pairs of correspondent

lenders and aggregators in their choice sets for aggregation relationships. I next test if previous relationship between a correspondent lender and an aggregator can predict their relationship in the next period. Table A.10 shows the regression result. While the probability of finding a random match between a correspondent lender and a aggregator is close to 0, the aggregator that served as the prior aggregator of a correspondent lender has a 45% greater likelihood of servicing as the new aggregator, even after controlling for an aggregator's average market share.

Having verified the sticky relationships between correspondent lenders and aggregators, I consider the switching frictions within aggregator-correspondent lender relationships and correspondent lenders' outside options of aggregators. First, correspondent lenders that connect with multiple aggregators may be able to sell their mortgages to unaffected ones if one aggregator is shocked. These correspondent lenders may be less affected by the aggregation volume decline if they can optimally reallocate their sell volume based on treatment exposure of aggregators. Second, correspondent lenders that have low diversification in selling mortgages to their aggregators may experience difficulty in switching to other aggregators. Third, correspondent lenders that are located near aggregators may find it easier to establish new relationships. Thus these correspondent lenders could be less affected by aggregation shocks.

Motivated by the above observations, I construct three measures for frictions in aggregation relationships: number of aggregators, herfindahl-hirschman index (HHI) of selling concentration, number of nearby aggregations. I define nearby aggregators as those with headquarters within 100 km radius of a correspondent lender. For each variable, I assign 1 if the value is above median and otherwise 0. I estimate the following equation:

$$y_{s,c,t} = \beta_1 \text{MSR}_s \times \text{Post}_t \times \text{FundingFriction}_s + FE + \epsilon_{s,c,t}$$
 (9)

FundingFriction, is a correspondent lender-level measure based on my correspondent

lender-aggregator relationships data. Table 5 reports the results.

I next explore other options that correspondent lenders can use to attenuate the negative effects arising from aggregation shocks. Correspondent lenders can choose to establish new relationships with Fannie Mae, Freddie Mac and Ginnie Mae and sell more mortgages to these purchasers directly. They can also try to extend their aggregator network. I formally check how correspondent lenders use these options by estimating the following equation:

$$y_{s,t} = \beta_1 \text{MSR}_t \times \text{Post}_t + FE + \epsilon_{s,t}$$
 (10)

The dependent variable are a dummy variable indicating if a correspondent lender directly sell to Fannie Mae, Freddie Mac and Ginnie Mae, the share of mortgages directly sell to agencies, the share of mortgages sell to aggregators and the number of connected aggregators. MSR_t is the correspondent lender level treatment exposure as defined in Equation (2). Post_t is a dummy variable that is 1 if the year is on or after 2013 and otherwise 0. I add a vector of lagged time-varying lender-level controls $X_{s,t-1}$ from various balance sheet data, including logarithm of assets, return on assets, capital ratio and liquidity ratio. I find that after the shock, correspondent lenders with larger ex-ante exposure are more likely to form relationships with agencies, sell more mortgages directly to agencies. They also connect to more aggregators while actively reduce the fraction of mortgages sold to aggregators.

Since deposit is another main source of funding for banks to originate mortgages, I now check if correspondent lenders increase the amount of deposits to boost mortgage origination. Results in Table 7 show that more exposed correspondent lenders are not likely to increase their deposit funding. One possible explanation is that the cost of increase deposit funding may be high for correspondent lenders. With other options to securitize mortgages, deposit funding channel is less attractive.

Overall, the above results show that correspondent lenders can attenuate the effect

of mortgage aggregation on origination by selling to other aggregators. However, correspondent lenders cannot fully avoid the effect on origination, either by switching aggregators, selling to agencies directly, or using their own balance sheets.

The funding frictions should exacerbate if correspondent lenders are more likely to face adverse selection in the funding market, which includes the cases when correspondent lenders ex-ante have lower capital, lower liquidity and smaller. To test these cases, I further estimate the following regression model:

$$y_{s,c,t} = \beta_1 \text{MSR}_s \times \text{Post}_t \times \text{LenderType}_s + FE + \epsilon_{s,c,t}$$
 (11)

LenderType_s is a correspondent lender-level measure to proxy for the level of adverse selection that correspondent lenders face in the funding market. Table 8 reports the results. Consistent with my hypothesis, correspondent lenders that face higher level of adverse selection in the funding market experience larger decline in lending.

In summary, I show that correspondent lenders experience funding frictions that constrain lending. The impact of aggregation market disruption intensifies as adverse selection in the funding market increases. However, the funding frictions do not explain the heterogeneous impacts on low-income borrowers. In the next two subsections, I explore the channels for disproportionately larger low-income credit decline.

6.2 Aggregation Choices

In this section, I show that aggregators play an important role in shaping the composition of lending portfolio of correspondent lenders.

Aggregators face a complex profit maximization problem. Their aggregation decisions based on marginal aggregation revenue and cost. Their revenues come from the spread between resale/securitization and aggregation prices, plus servicing fees set by mortgage-backed securities issuers. Their costs include servicing expenses and the balance sheet cost

of holding mortgage servicing rights. While increasing the number of serviced mortgages increases revenue given that they have paid the fixed costs to set up a servicing system, it also increases the likelihood of servicing low-quality loans that are more likely to be delinquent. The servicing cost of a delinquent mortgage is over 10 times higher than that of a performing loan.²⁰ As balance sheet costs rise, low-income borrowers' mortgages are more likely to be on the margin and first excluded from the aggregation portfolio. This is similar to the practice that large servicers sell low-quality servicing asset first when facing increasing balance sheet cost of holding mortgage servicing rights(Hamdi, Jiang, Lewis, Padi, and Pal, 2023).

I first check if aggregators decrease their aggregation volume more for low-income, high-risk mortgages. I estimate the following regression at the correspondent lender-aggregator level using an within-firm estimator (Khwaja and Mian, 2008). Specifically, I estimate the equation:

$$y_{s,b,i,t} = \beta_1 M S R_b \times Post_t \times Loan Type_i + F E + \epsilon_{s,b,i,t}$$
 (12)

Here MSR_b is a bank level exposure to MSR policy change. I further interact the interaction between MSR_b and $Post_t$ with LoanType_i. The LoanType_i is a dummy variable to proxy for the risk level of mortgages. I use three measures for loan risk: borrower income, property location, and loan-to-income ratio. I first classify mortgages by borrower income, property location, and loan-to-income ratio, assigning 1 to mortgages of low-income borrowers, from low-income areas, of low-income borrowers from low-income areas and high loan-to-income ratio and summarize the loan level data at the correspondent lender, aggregator, loan type level. In the specification, I add correspondent lender-year fixed effects $FE_{s,t}$ which absorb any confounding factors at the correspondent lender-year level that may correlates with the aggregation volume. Moreover, I add correspondent lender-aggregator fixed effects $FE_{s,b}$ to address the endogeneous matching between correspondent lenders and aggregators.

²⁰https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/77626/2000607-Servicing-Costs-and-the-Rise-of-the-Squeaky-Clean-Loan.pdf

Table 9 reports the results. Aggregators with larger exposure to Basel III capital requirement on MSR reduce their aggregation for *ex-ante* riskier mortgages.

Motivated by the anecdotal evidence and observed aggregation choices, I test the heterogeneous effects on low-income borrowers at the correspondent lender level. Given that aggregation is a main source of funding for correspondent lenders, the changes in aggregation composition can be passed down to the origination decisions of correspondent lenders. To test this hypothesis, I estimate the following regression model

$$y_{s,c,t,i} = \beta_1 \text{MSR}_t \times \text{Post}_t \times \text{LoanType}_i + FE + \epsilon_{s,c,t}$$
 (13)

where i indicates borrower type group. I adopt two measures for disadvantaged borrower groups, low income borrowers, borrowers from low income areas. All other variables are as previously defined in Equation (3) and I cluster standard errors at the lender level. The coefficient of interest is β_1 , which captures how borrowers could be differentially affected by the regulatory shock through the aggregation market. A negative β_1 indicates that low income borrowers or borrowers from low income areas experience larger origination volume decline compared to other borrowers.

Table 10 shows the results. The coefficient on the tripple interaction term is negative and statistically significant. This implies that the aggregation effect on credit supply is stronger for both low income borrowers and borrowers from low income areas. The magnitude indicates that given one standard deviation increase in correspondent lender exposure, low income borrowers experience 4.5% larger decline in credit supply. The results suggest that the behavior of aggregators transmits to origination decisions of correspondent lenders through aggregation market connections.

6.3 Specialization of Correspondent Lenders

In this section, I show how the specialization of correspondent lenders in serving low-income borrowers can contribute to credit decline. If correspondent lenders specialize in using soft information to screen or serve low-income borrowers, their exit or reduced credit supply can worsen credit access for these borrowers. Low-income borrowers may struggle to find equivalent credit from other lenders, further limiting their access.

I first examine if low-income borrowers, compared to high-income borrowers, are more likely to seek mortgage credit from correspondent lenders in the same location and period. The regression specification is

$$Correspondent_{j,k,t} = \beta \times LowInc_{i,j,k,t} + \gamma X_{i,j,k,t} + FE_k + FE_t + \epsilon_{i,j,k,t}$$
 (14)

for borrower i, lender j, property's census tract k, and year t. Correspondent $_{j,k,t}$ is a dummy variable for correspondent lender and $LowInc_{i,j,k,t}$ is a dummy variable indicating if the borrower is a low-income borrower. $X_{i,j,k,t}$ are borrower and loan characteristics. Borrower characteristics include gender and co-borrower presence dummies. Loan characteristics include loan-amount percentile and loan type fixed effects. Census tract-year fixed effects are also included to account for local application trend. The coefficient of interest is β , which represents the propensity of a low-income borrower applying for credit from correspondent lenders.

I estimate the specification (14) for 2010-2015. The results are reported in column (1) of Table 11. Controlling for observable borrower and loan characteristics, low income borrowers are 0.7% more likely to apply for mortgages from a correspondent lender.

Second, I test if correspondent lenders, compared to other types of lenders, are more likely to provide credit to low-income borrowers given the same demographic characteristics of borrowers and the same set of loan characteristics. It is ex-ante ambiguous whether low-income borrowers are more or less likely to be rejected by correspondent lenders. On the

one hand, correspondent lenders may be better at screening low income borrowers thus have higher rejection rates compared to other types of lender given observable characteristics of low-income borrowers. If this is true, the mortgages originated by them should have better performance. On the other hand, correspondent lenders may specialize in providing credit to low-income borrowers. If they provide detailed instructions and are willing to file additional reports for low-income borrowers, then they may be less likely to reject low income borrowers. This may be observed from their rejection reasons - their rejection reasons should be less likely to be incomplete or unverifiable information. In addition, the loans originated by them should not necessarily have worse performance, but they may charge higher interest rate or origination fees for additional service.

To test the above hypotheses, I check rejection action, rejection reasons, interest rate and loan performance of low-income borrowers who submit their applications to correspondent lenders vs other lenders using the following specification:

$$y_{i,j,k,t} = \beta \times Correspondent_{i,k,t} + \gamma X_{i,j,k,t} + FE_k + FE_t + \epsilon_{i,j,k,t}$$
 (15)

where $y_{i,j,k,t}$ is the lending outcome of an application or an originated mortgage of borrower i, lender j, property's census tract k, and year t. I use the rejection dummy, rejection reason dummy and delinquent dummy as y variables and the delinquent dummy is 1 if the loan is more than 90 days delinquent within 2 years after origination. $X_{i,j,k,t}$ are borrower and loan characteristics. Borrower characteristics include gender, minority indicator, and co-borrower presence dummies. Loan characteristics include loan-amount percentile fixed effects. I use HMDA data to check rejection pattern and rejection reasons and use Attom-HMDA-FF data to examine loan interest rate and performance. Since Attom-HDMA-FF data allows me to observe more mortgage contract terms and borrower characteristics, e.g. LTV, DTI, FICO, first time home buyer indicator, I use these variables as controls as well. Census tract-year fixed effects are also included to account for local application trend. The

coefficient of interest is β , which shows how correspondent lenders' differ from other lenders in originating mortgages.

Columns (2)-(4) of Table 11 report the results for rejection and rejection pattern. Correspondent lenders are 4.28% less likely to reject applications from low income borrowers compared to other. Given the average rejection rate for low income borrowers is 15%, this indicate that the rejection rate of correspondent lenders for low income borrowers are 28% lower. In addition, they are 1.34% less likely to reject applications due to unverifiable information and 6.09% less likely to reject applications due to incomplete information, suggesting that correspondent lenders may provide additional service to help borrowers satisfy application requirements.

Columns (5)-(6) of Table 11 report the results for interest rates and delinquency. Correspondent lenders seem to charge higher interest rate compared to other lenders, but the economic magnitude is small - their interest rate is only 0.007% higher compared to other lenders. It is possible that they charge service through points and origination costs.²¹ However, such variables are not observable during this sample period. The results here also partially address the concern that high quality low-income borrowers are more likely to apply for mortgages from correspondent lenders.

Having provided evidence for the potential benefits of low income borrowers to get credit from correspondent lenders, I provide suggestive explanation for the special role played by correspondent lenders in providing low-income credit. One possible explanation is geographical proximity. Correspondent lenders are more likely to locate in low income area, which makes it easier for low income borrowers to access credit from them. The geographical proximity does not only provide convenience, but may also allow correspondent lenders to obtain soft information about local borrowers. Though the mortgages are more likely to be examined by Automated Underwriting System (AUS),

²¹Buchak and Jørring (2021) and Liu (2019) both indicate that origination cost is an important pricing dimension. Lenders can raise origination when they face less competition or higher funding costs.

lenders can also use discretion to overwrite the decision from the system. Correspondent lenders can specialize in providing such service and facilitate the credit access of low income borrowers. For the proximity channel, I show that the share of mortgages sold to aggregators has a significant and negative correlation with the census tract median family income, see Figure 8.

7 Conclusion

After the Global Financial Crisis, the mortgage market underwent significant transformations, including stricter bank regulations, the rise of shadow banks, and a sharp decline in credit supply to low-income borrowers.

This paper examines whether the decline in mortgage aggregation, driven by Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights, impacts credit supply, particularly for low-income borrowers. Using a unique dataset, I find that disruptions in the aggregation market reduce credit availability to low-income borrowers due to matching frictions and the specialization of correspondent lenders.

These findings underscore the critical role of mortgage aggregation in mitigating securitization frictions, especially in underserved low-income areas predominantly served by small correspondent lenders. Financial technologies that reduce search frictions between correspondent lenders and aggregators could help address the credit access gap in these regions. This also suggests that regulators must account for the close ties between mortgage aggregation and mortgage servicing rights when crafting regulatory weights and caps. Efforts to enhance financial stability may inadvertently limit credit access, particularly in the mortgage market.

References

- Acemoglu, D., and A. Tahbaz-Salehi, 2020, "Firms, Failures, And Fluctuations: The Macroeconomics Of Supply Chain Disruptions," working paper, National Bureau Of Economic Research.
- Afonso, G., A. Kovner, and A. Schoar, 2013, "Trading Partners In The Interbank Lending Market," FRB Of New York Staff Report, (620).
- Auer, R., A. Matyunina, and S. Ongena, 2022, "The Countercyclical Capital Buffer And The Composition Of Bank Lending," *Journal of Financial Intermediation*, 52, 100965.
- Bartlett, R., A. Morse, R. Stanton, and N. Wallace, 2022, "Consumer-Lending Discrimination In The Fintech Era," *Journal Of Financial Economics*, 143(1), 30–56.
- Bech, M. L., and E. Atalay, 2010, "The Topology Of The Federal Funds Market," *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics And Its Applications*, 389(22), 5223–5246.
- Begley, T. A., and K. Srinivasan, 2022, "Small Bank Lending In The Era Of Fintech And Shadow Banks: A Sideshow?," *The Review Of Financial Studies*, 35(11), 4948–4984.
- Benson, D., Y. S. Kim, and K. M. Pence, 2023, "Nonbank Issuers And Mortgage Credit Supply," *Available At SSRN 4615551*.
- Berrospide, J., and R. Edge, 2016, "The Effects Of Bank Capital Requirements On Bank Lending: What Can We Learn From The Post-Crisis Regulatory Reforms," Working Paper, Federal Reserve Board.
- Bhutta, N., S. Laufer, and D. R. Ringo, 2017, "The Decline In Lending To Lower-Income Borrowers By The Biggest Banks,".
- Bichsel, R., L. Lambertini, A. Mukherjee, and D. Wunderli, 2022, "The Pass-Through

- Of Bank Capital Requirements To Corporate Lending Spreads," *Journal Of Financial Stability*, 58, 100910.
- Blank, B. D., M. J. Highfield, and R. T. Yerkes, 2022, "Risk In Loan Pools Of GNMA-Guaranteed MBS: Evidence From Bank And Non-Bank Issuers," *Journal Of Housing Research*, 31(2), 135–162.
- Buchak, G., V. Chau, and A. Jørring, 2023, "Integrated Intermediation And Fintech Market Power," *Available At SSRN 4552425*.
- Buchak, G., and A. Jørring, 2021, "Do Mortgage Lenders Compete Locally? Implications For Credit Access," *Implications For Credit Access (January 7, 2021)*.
- Cespedes, J., E. X. Jiang, C. Parra, and J. Zhang, 2024, "Branching Out Inequality: The Impact Of Credit Equality Policies," *Available At SSRN 4702125*.
- Chodorow-Reich, G., 2014, "The Employment Effects Of Credit Market Disruptions: Firm-Level Evidence From The 2008–9 Financial Crisis," *The Quarterly Journal Of Economics*, 129(1), 1–59.
- Chu, Y., D. H. Zhang, and T. Zhang, 2023, "Small Mortgages And The Rise Of Fintech And Shadow Banks," *Available At SSRN 4682458*.
- Craig, B., and Y. Ma, 2022, "Intermediation In The Interbank Lending Market," *Journal Of Financial Economics*, 145(2), 179–207.
- DeFusco, A. A., S. Johnson, and J. Mondragon, 2020, "Regulating Household Leverage," The Review Of Economic Studies, 87(2), 914–958.
- D'Acunto, F., and A. G. Rossi, 2022, "Regressive Mortgage Credit Redistribution In The Post-Crisis Era," *The Review Of Financial Studies*, 35(1), 482–525.

- Frame, W. S., K. Gerardi, E. J. Mayer, B. Xu, and L. C. Zhao, 2024, "Government Litigation Risk And The Decline In Low-Income Mortgage Lending," *Available At SSRN* 4846638.
- Frame, W. S., R. Huang, E. J. Mayer, and A. Sunderam, 2021, "The Impact Of Minority Representation At Mortgage Lenders," *SMU Cox School Of Business Research Paper*, (22-08).
- Friewald, N., and F. Nagler, 2019, "Over-The-Counter Market Frictions And Yield Spread Changes," *The Journal Of Finance*, 74(6), 3217–3257.
- Fuster, A., M. Plosser, P. Schnabl, and J. Vickery, 2019, "The Role Of Technology In Mortgage Lending," *The Review Of Financial Studies*, 32(5), 1854–1899.
- Gete, P., and M. Reher, 2021, "Mortgage Securitization And Shadow Bank Lending," *The Review Of Financial Studies*, 34(5), 2236–2274.
- Goodman, L., J. Parrott, and J. Zhu, 2015, "The Impact Of Early Efforts To Clarify Mortgage Repurchases," *Housing Finance Policy Center, The Urban Institute*, 28, 2016.
- Hakura, D., and T. F. Cosimano, 2011, "Bank Behavior In Response To Basel Iii: A Cross-Country Analysis,".
- Hamdi, N., E. X. Jiang, B. A. Lewis, M. Padi, and A. Pal, 2023, "The Rise Of Non-Banks In Servicing Household Debt," Olin Business School Center For Finance & Accounting Research Paper No. Forthcoming.
- Hollifield, B., A. Neklyudov, and C. Spatt, 2017, "Bid-Ask Spreads, Trading Networks, And The Pricing Of Securitizations," *The Review Of Financial Studies*, 30(9), 3048–3085.
- Huang, R., J. S. Linck, E. J. Mayer, and C. Parsons, 2024, "Can Human Capital Explain Income-Based Disparities In Financial Services?," SMU Cox School Of Business Research Paper, (22-16).

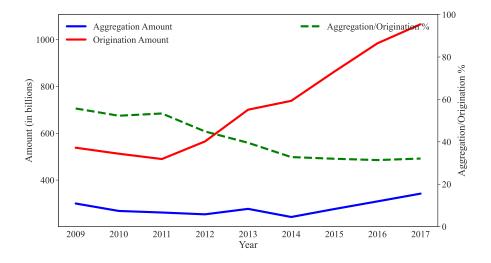
- Huber, A. W., 2023, "Market Power In Wholesale Funding: A Structural Perspective From The Triparty Repo Market," *Journal Of Financial Economics*, 149(2), 235–259.
- Hurtado, A., and J. Sakong, 2022, "The Effect Of Minority Bank Ownership On Minority Credit," George J. Stigler Center For The Study Of The Economy & The State Working Paper, (325).
- Irani, R. M., R. Iyer, R. R. Meisenzahl, and J. L. Peydró, 2021, "The Rise Of Shadow Banking: Evidence From Capital Regulation," *The Review Of Financial Studies*, 34(5), 2181–2235.
- James, J., I. Marsh, and L. Sarno, 2012, Handbook Of Exchange Rates. John Wiley & Sons.
- Jiang, E., G. Matvos, T. Piskorski, and A. Seru, 2020, "Banking Without Deposits: Evidence From Shadow Bank Call Reports," working paper, National Bureau Of Economic Research.
- Jiang, E. X., 2019, "Financing Competitors: Shadow Banks' Funding And Mortgage Market Competition," USC Marshall School Of Business Research Paper Sponsored By iORB, No. Forthcoming.
- Jiang, E. X., G. Y. Yu, and J. Zhang, 2022, "Bank Competition Amid Digital Disruption: Implications For Financial Inclusion," USC Marshall School Of Business Research Paper Sponsored By iORB.
- Kashyap, A. K., J. C. Stein, and S. Hanson, 2010, "An Analysis Of The Impact Of 'Substantially Heightened' Capital Requirements On Large Financial Institutions," *Booth School Of Business, University Of Chicago, Mimeo*, 2, 1–47.
- Khwaja, A. I., and A. Mian, 2008, "Tracing The Impact Of Bank Liquidity Shocks: Evidence From An Emerging Market," *American Economic Review*, 98(4), 1413–1442.

- Kim, Y. S., S. M. Laufer, K. Pence, R. Stanton, and N. Wallace, 2018, "Liquidity Crises In The Mortgage Market," *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*.
- Li, D., and N. Schürhoff, 2019, "Dealer Networks," The Journal Of Finance, 74(1), 91–144.
- Liu, L., 2019, "Non-Salient Fees In The Mortgage Market," Available At SSRN 3437374.
- Loutskina, E., and P. E. Strahan, 2015, "Financial Integration, Housing, And Economic Volatility," *Journal Of Financial Economics*, 115(1), 25–41.
- Mian, A., and A. Sufi, 2009, "The Consequences Of Mortgage Credit Expansion: Evidence From The Us Mortgage Default Crisis," *The Quarterly Journal Of Economics*, 124(4), 1449–1496.
- ———— , 2022, "Credit Supply And Housing Speculation," *The Review Of Financial Studies*, 35(2), 680–719.
- Peltonen, T. A., M. Scheicher, and G. Vuillemey, 2014, "The Network Structure Of The CDS Market And Its Determinants," *Journal Of Financial Stability*, 13, 118–133.
- Piskorski, T., A. Seru, and V. Vig, 2010, "Securitization And Distressed Loan Renegotiation: Evidence From The Subprime Mortgage Crisis," *Journal Of Financial Economics*, 97(3), 369–397.
- Stanton, R., J. Walden, and N. Wallace, 2014, "The Industrial Organization Of The US Residential Mortgage Market," *Annual Review Of Financial Economics*, 6(1), 259–288.
- ——— , 2018, "Mortgage Loan Flow Networks And Financial Norms," *The Review Of Financial Studies*, 31(9), 3595–3642.

Xu, C., 2022, "Reshaping Global Trade: The Immediate And Long-Run Effects Of Bank Failures," *The Quarterly Journal Of Economics*, 137(4), 2107–2161.

Figure 1: Size of the mortgage aggregation market

This figure shows the size the mortgage aggregation market relative to origination. The upper figure uses data from the Home Mortgage Disclosure Act data. The red line is the time series of the national mortgage origination amount (in billions). The blue line is the time series of the national mortgage aggregation amount (in billions). The green dashed line is the time series of aggregation amount over origination amount (in percentage). The lower figure uses data from Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac Single Family Loan Level data. The green dashed line shows the time series of the share of fixed-rate conventional mortgages from the correspondent channel, i.e sold to Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac via aggregators.



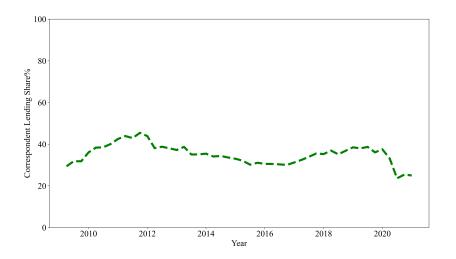


Figure 2: Market structure

This figure illustrates the mortgage market structure analyzed in this paper. The red arrows show the flow of mortgage funding. The blue arrows show the flow of mortgages. The black dashed arrows show the flow of mortgage payments. Agencies are main securitizers such as Fannie Mae, Freddie Mac and Ginnie Mae. Aggregators are large financial institutions such as Wells Fargo, Bank of America and JP Morgan Chase. They have three roles in the mortgage market: (i) originating mortgages to borrowers (ii) purchasing originated mortgages from other financial institutions and (iii) collecting mortgage payments and transferring payments to investors of mortgage backed securities (MBS), also called servicing. They have business relationships with agencies. Correspondent lenders do not have direct access to securitizers, they originate mortgages and sell them to non-affiliated financial institutions (aggregators).

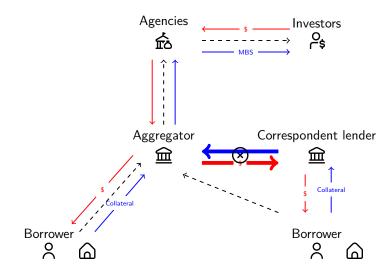


Figure 3: Sample construction

This figure shows the data coverage and sample construction using Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA) data. The green rectangle represents the data covered by HMDA, and the red rectangle represents the data covered in my sample.

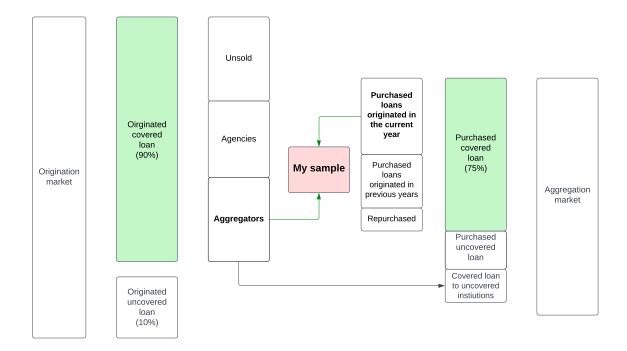


Figure 4: Purchasers of aggregated mortgages

This figure shows the fraction of originated and aggregated mortgages sold to different purchasers/securitizers. Sample period is 2009 - 2017. The originated mortgages have an action taken code 1 and aggregated mortgages have an action taken code 6 in Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA) data. Aggregators include commercial banks, savings banks or savings institutions, credit unions, mortgage banks, financial companies, life insurance companies and finance companies.

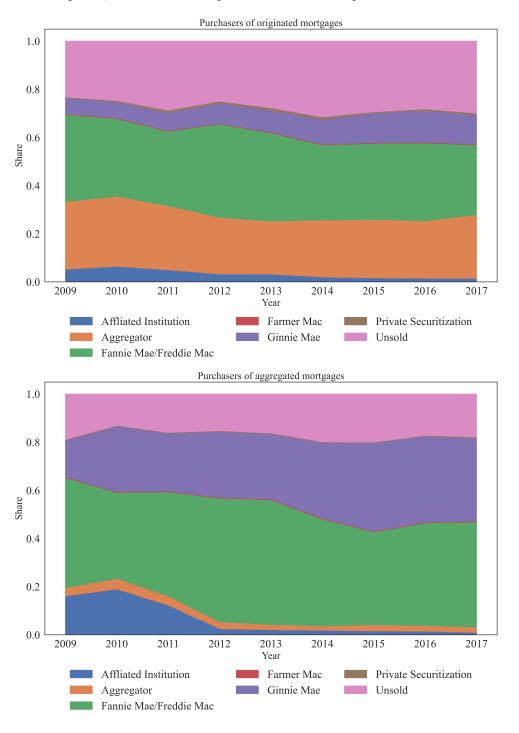


Figure 5: Mortgage servicing and aggregation

This figure is a binned scatter plot that shows the relationship between servicing market share and aggregation market share of commercial banks. The servicing market share MSRShare_b of bank b is measured as $\frac{\text{MSR}_b}{\sum_b MSR_b}$, where MSR_b is the amount of mortgage servicing right held by bank b. The aggregation market share AggShare_b of bank b is measured as $\frac{\text{Agg}_b}{\sum_b MSR_b}$, where Agg_b is the amount

aggregation market share AggShare_b of bank b is measured as $\frac{Agg_b}{\sum_b Agg_b}$, where Agg_b is the amount of mortgages aggregated by bank b. Both servicing market share and aggregation market share are residualized by logarithm of bank assets. The residualized servicing market share and aggregation market share are grouped into 20 equal-sized bins. Each dot shows the average for mortgage aggregation market share for a given level of mortgage servicing market share, holding the asset value constant. The blue line is the best linear fit line for residualized aggregation market share and servicing market share.

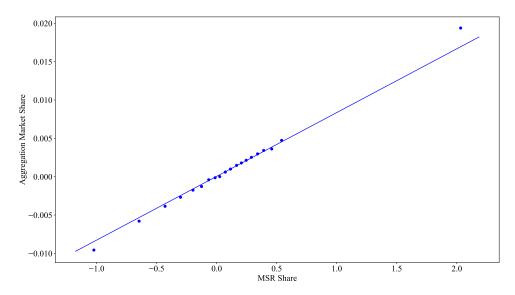
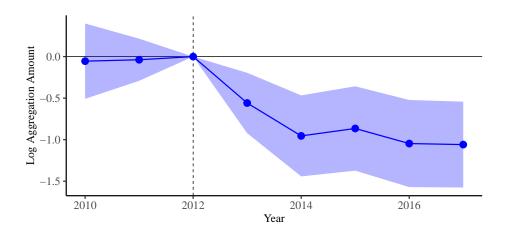


Figure 6: Seller county level - Coefficient estimates by year

This figure shows the coefficients estimated using $Y_{s,c,t} = \sum_{\tau=-2}^{5} (\beta_{\tau} \text{MSR}_s \times \text{Post}_{t+\tau}) + \gamma X_{s,t-1} + FEs + \epsilon_{s,c,t}$. The sample period is 2010 - 2017. The main independent variable is $\text{MSR}_s \times \text{Post}_t$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_s) and the post dummy variable (Post_t). Correspondent lender-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to bank aggregators with ex-ante MSR/Tier 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (2). The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. The control variables include capital ratio, liquidity ratio, return on assets and log assets. Fixed effects include correspondent lender fixed effects, County×Year fixed effects and correspondent Lender×County fixed effects. The standard errors are clustered at the correspondent lender level. In the upper panel, the dependent variable is the logarithm of aggregation amount and in the lower panel, the dependent variable is the logarithm of origination amount of correspondent lenders. The ribbon shows the 95% confidence interval.



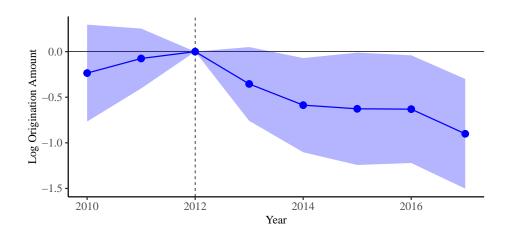


Figure 7: Persistence of correspondent lender-aggregator relationship

This figure shows the persistence of relationship between correspondent lenders and aggregators. The real probability is measured as the faction of sellers selling to the same aggregator in year i conditional on selling to the aggregator in year i-1. The baseline is measured as the fraction of sellers selling to the same aggregator in year i when the seller is equally likely to sell to any aggregators in the data set.

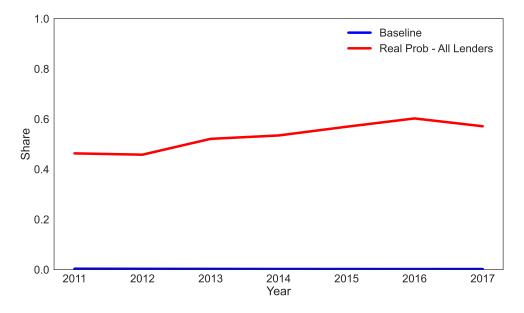


Figure 8: Census tract income and aggregation market share

This figure is a binned scatter plot that shows the relationship between logarithm of census tract income and the fraction of mortgages sold to aggregators. The logarithm of census tract income and the fraction of mortgages sold to aggregators are grouped into 20 equal-sized bins. Each dot shows the average for the fraction of mortgages sold to aggregators for a given level of census tract income. The blue line is the best linear fit line for the logarithm of census tract income and the fraction of mortgages sold to aggregators.

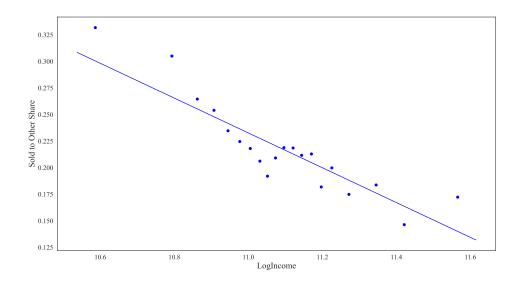


Table 1: Summary statistics

This table shows the summary statistics of the panel dataset at the correspondent lender-county level. The sample period is 2010 - 2017. The logarithm of mortgage amount is calculated as $\log(1 + \text{amount})$ and the amount is in thousands. Low income borrowers are defined as borrowers with income less than 80% of MSA median income. Low-income areas are defined as census tracts with median income less than 80% of MSA median income. MSR_s is the correspondent lender level exposure to Basel III capital requirement on mortgage servcing rights as defined in Equation 2. This table also reports measures for aggregation market relationships: (i) the number of aggreators that a correspondent lender sell their mortgages to, (ii) the concentration in the selling relationships, measured using the Herfindahl–Hirschman index and (iii) the number of nearby aggregators measured as the number of aggregators with their headquarters within 100 kilometers.

	Count	Mean	Std	25%	50%	75%
Log aggregation amount	693,191	4.37	3.13	0.00	5.29	6.49
Log origination amount	693,191	5.11	3.26	4.01	5.77	7.31
Approval rate (%)	550,344	76.59	26.90	63.94	83.06	100.00
Log low income borrower home purchase amount	693,191	2.82	3.20	0.00	0.00	5.67
Log low income area home purchase amount	693,191	1.77	2.87	0.00	0.00	4.68
MSR_s	693,191	0.33	0.25	0.11	0.33	0.50
Capital ratio (t-1)	$437,\!272$	0.13	0.06	0.09	0.11	0.14
Liquidity ratio (t-1)	$437,\!272$	0.15	0.12	0.06	0.12	0.21
Return on assets (t-1)	$437,\!272$	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01
Log assets (t-1)	$437,\!272$	16.25	2.93	13.53	15.94	18.96
Shadow bank dummy	693,191	0.59	0.49	0.00	1.00	1.00
Number of aggregators	693,191	8.13	7.84	2.00	6.00	12.00
Aggregation market Herfindahl–Hirschman index	693,191	0.30	0.18	0.20	0.25	0.33
N. aggregators within 100 Km	$624,\!026$	8.37	7.94	2.00	5.00	14.00

Table 2: Effects on aggregation amount

This table shows the effect of MSR regulation on aggregation amount. It reports the estimates from Equation (3) at the lender-county level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variable is the logarithm of aggregation amount from correspondent lender s in county c and year t. The main independent variable is $\mathrm{MSR}_s \times \mathrm{Post}_t$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_s) and the post dummy variable (Post_t). Correspondent lender-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante MSR/Tier 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (2). The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Lender controls include lagged log asset, capital ratio, liquidity ratio and return on assets. Column (1) adds Lender×County fixed effects; column (2) adds Year fixed effects; and column (3) adds County×Year fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the correspondent lender level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Log Aggregation Amount			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	
$\overline{\mathrm{MSR}_s \times \mathrm{Post}_t}$	-0.823***	-0.764***	-0.817***	
Post_t	(0.190) 0.791^{***} (0.080)	(0.188)	(0.185)	
Lender controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Lender×County FE Year FE County×Year FE	Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	
Observations R ²	429,318 0.745	429,318 0.748	429,318 0.767	

Table 3: Effects on origination amount

This table shows the effect of MSR regulation on mortgage origination activities. It reports the estimates from Equation (3) at the lender-county level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variable is log origination amount and the approval rate (in percentage) of mortgages by correspondent lender s in county c and in year t. The main independent variable is $\mathrm{MSR}_s \times \mathrm{Post}_t$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_s) and the post dummy variable (Post_t). Correspondent lender-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante $\mathrm{MSR}/\mathrm{Tier}$ 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (2). The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Lender controls include lagged log asset, capital ratio, liquidity ratio and return on assets. Columns (1) and (4) add Lender \times County fixed effects; columns (2) and (5) add Year fixed effects; and columns (3) and (6) add County \times Year fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the correspondent lender level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Log Origination Amount			A	pproval Ra	ate
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
$MSR_s \times Post_t$ $Post_t$	-0.516** (0.223) 0.782*** (0.087)	-0.451** (0.220)	-0.505** (0.234)	-4.90** (2.15) 2.14*** (0.690)	-4.76** (2.18)	-4.58** (2.14)
Lender controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lender×County FE Year FE County×Year FE	Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes
Observations R ²	$429,318 \\ 0.825$	$429,318 \\ 0.827$	$429,318 \\ 0.841$	355,200 0.618	$355,200 \\ 0.617$	355,200 0.656

Table 4: Aggregate effects

This table reports estimates from Equation (8) at the county level over the period 2010 - 2017. In columns 1-3, the dependent variables are the number of correspondent lenders, the share of applications from low-income borrowrs, and the origination amount at the county level; the main independent variables are $MSR_c \times Post_t$, the interaction between county-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_c) and the post dummy variable ($Post_t$). County-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante $Post_t$ is 2013 or later. In column 4, the dependent variable is the log origination amount by county-year and loan type. LowInc_i is 1 for the origination amount of mortgages to low-income borrowers and 0 for the high-income borrowers in county c and year t. Low-income borrowers are defined as borrowers with income less than 80% of the MSA median family income. All columns have county and year fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the county level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Num Crspdt Lenders	Low Inc Appl Share	Log Origination Amount		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	
$MSR_{Agg,c} \times Post_t$	-2.3***	-0.009	-0.10***	-0.07	
337	(0.48)	(0.008)	(0.04)	(0.04)	
$MSR_{Aqq,c} \times Post_t \times LowInc_i$				-0.12**	
337				(0.05)	
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
County FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Observations	18,646	18,646	18,646	37,292	
\mathbb{R}^2	0.967	0.861	0.992	0.960	

Table 5: Matching frictions in the aggregation market

This table shows the matching frictions in the aggregation market. It reports estimates from Equation (9) estimated at the correspondent lender-county level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variable is log origination amount in year t. The main independent variable is $MSR_s \times Post_t$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_s) and the post dummy variable (Post_t). Correspondent lender-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante ex-ante ex-ante MSR/Tier 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (2). The Post_t dummy variable equals 1 if year ex is 2013 or later. Connected Aggregators_s is the number of aggregators that correspondent lender ex-sold their mortgages to in 2011. Concentration_s is a Herfindahl-Hirschman index measuring the concentration in mortgages that correspondent ex-sell to connected aggregators in 2011. Outside Option_s is the number of aggregators whose headquarters are within 100 kilometers of the headquarter of correspondent lender ex-such that controls include lagged log asset, capital ratio, liquidity ratio and return on assets. All columns have Lender × County and County × Year fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the correspondent lender level are reported in parentheses. ***: ex-color, **: ex-color,

	Log O	rigination A	Amount
	(1)	(2)	(3)
$MSR_s \times Post_t \times ConnectedAggregators_s$	0.086 (0.113)		
$\mathrm{MSR}_s \times \mathrm{Post}_t \times \mathrm{Concentration}_s$, ,	-0.239*** (0.075)	
$\mathrm{MSR}_s \times \mathrm{Post}_t \times \mathrm{OutsideOption}_s$			0.541*** (0.079)
$MSR_s \times Post_t$	-0.582*** (0.105)	-0.392*** (0.055)	-0.776*** (0.057)
$\textbf{ConnectedAggregators}_s \times \textbf{Post}_t$	-0.018 (0.046)		
$Concentration_s \times Post_t$		-0.017 (0.037)	
${\rm OutsideOption}_s \times {\rm Post}_t$			-0.261*** (0.040)
Lender controls	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lender×County FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
$County \times Year FE$	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations R^2	437,272 0.842	437,272 0.842	425,026 0.843

Table 6: Substitution margins

This table show substitution margins of correspondent lenders. It reports estimates from Equation (10) estimated at the correspondent lender level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variables are agency relationship dummy, the share of mortgages sold to agencies, the share of mortgages sold to aggregators, and the number of connected aggregators of correspondent lender s in year t. Agency relationship is 1 if correspondent lender s sell its mortgages to either Fannie Mae, Freddie Mac or Ginnie Mae. The main independent variable is $MSR_s \times Post_t$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_s) and the post dummy variable $(Post_t)$. Correspondent lender-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante MSR/Tier 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (2). The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Lender controls include lagged log asset, capital ratio, liquidity ratio and return on assets. All columns use lender and year fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the correspondent lender level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Agency Relationship	Share - Agency	Share - Aggregator	Num Aggregators
$MSR_s \times Post_t$	0.113***	0.081***	-0.045**	1.80***
	(0.028)	(0.017)	(0.018)	(0.351)
Lender controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lender FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations R ²	13,686	13,686	13,686	13,686
	0.735	0.817	0.824	0.849

Table 7: Balance sheet funding

This table show the effect of MSR regulation on the deposit funding of correspondent lenders. It reports estimates from Equation (9) estimated at the Lender×County level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variable is log deposit amount of correspondent lender s in county c and year t. The deposit amount comes from FDIC Summary of Deposits. The main independent variable is $MSR_s \times Post_t$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_s) and the post dummy variable ($Post_t$). Correspondent lender-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante MSR/Tier 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (2). The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Lender controls include lagged log asset, capital ratio, liquidity ratio and return on assets. All columns use lender and year fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the correspondent lender level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Log Deposits				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	
$\overline{\mathrm{MSR}_s \times \mathrm{Post}_t}$	0.155	0.064	0.067	-0.136	
	(0.114)	(0.049)	(0.049)	(0.123)	
MSR_s	0.048				
	(0.110)				
$Post_t$	-0.023	0.046^{***}			
	(0.033)	(0.014)			
Lender controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Lender×County FE		Yes	Yes	Yes	
Year FE			Yes		
County×Year FE				Yes	
Observations	15,933	15,933	15,933	15,933	
\mathbb{R}^2	0.026	0.944	0.945	0.979	

Table 8: Adverse selection in the funding markets

This table reports estimates from Equation (11) estimated at the seller county level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variable is log origination amount in year t. The main independent variable is $\mathrm{MSR}_s \times \mathrm{Post}_t$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_s) and the post dummy variable (Post_t). Correspondent lender-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante $\mathrm{MSR}/\mathrm{Tier}$ 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (2). The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Size $_{s,t-1}$, CapitalRatio $_{s,t-1}$ and LiquidityRatio $_{s,t-1}$ are the lagged size, capital ratio and liquidity ratio of correspondent lender s. Lender controls include lagged log asset, capital ratio, liquidity ratio and return on assets. Standard errors clustered at the correspondent lender level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Log Or	igination .	Amount
	(1)	(2)	(3)
$MSR_s \times Post_t \times Size_{s,t-1}$	0.380**		
$MSR_s \times Post_t \times CapitalRatio_{s,t-1}$	(0.149)	-1.89	
$MSR_s \times Post_t \times LiquidityRatio_{s,t-1}$		(1.26)	0.856***
$MSR_s \times Post_t$	-1.59***	-0.268*	
$Size_{s,t-1} \times Post_t$	(0.439) -0.206***	(0.153)	(0.073)
$\text{CapitalRatio}_{s,t-1} \times \text{Post}_t$	(0.045)	-1.08*	
$\text{LiquidityRatio}_{s,t-1} \times \text{Post}_t$		(0.599)	0.014
			(0.144)
Lender controls	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lender×County FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
County×Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations R ²	437,272 0.842	398,294 0.836	398,294 0.836

Table 9: Choices of aggregators

This table shows the choices of aggregators. It reports estimates from Equation (12) estimated at the correspondent lender-aggregator level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variable is log aggregation amount sold by correspondent lender s to aggregator b in year t by loan typei. The main independent variable is $MSR_b \times Post_t \times LoanType_i$, the interaction between aggregator-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_b) and the post dummy variable (Post_t) and loan type LoanType_i. Aggregator-level exposure to Basel III is 1 if ex-ante MSR/Tier 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (1) and otherwise 0. The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Loan types LoanType_i include a low income borrower dummy LowInc_i, a low income area dummy LowIncArea_i, a dummy variable for low income borrowers from low income area LowIncLowIncArea_i and a dummy for high loan-to-income (LTI) mortgages. Low-income borrower is defined as borrowers with income less than 80% of the FFIEC MSA median family income. Low-income area is defined as census tracts with median family income lower than 80% of the FFIEC MSA median family income. High LTI is the mortgages with a loan-to-value ratio above median level of loan-to-value ratio in mortgage applications. Lender×Year, Aggregator, Year, and Lender×Aggregator fixed effects are added to all columns. Standard errors are clustered at the correspondent lender-year level. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	L	og Aggrega	tion Amou	nt
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
$MSR_b \times Post_t \times LowInc_i$	-0.125*** (0.029)			
$MSR_b \times Post_t \times LowIncArea_i$,	-0.110*** (0.032)		
$\mathrm{MSR}_b \times \mathrm{Post}_t \times \mathrm{LowIncLowIncArea}_i$			-0.103*** (0.035)	
$MSR_b \times Post_t \times HighLTI_i$				-0.066*** (0.025)
$MSR_b \times Post_t$	-0.072* (0.041)	-0.060 (0.042)	-0.076* (0.044)	-0.058 (0.040)
$\text{LowInc}_i \times \text{Post}_t$	-0.102*** (0.018)			
$\text{LowIncArea}_i \times \text{Post}_t$. ,	0.273*** (0.019)		
$\text{LowIncLowIncArea}_i \times \text{Post}_t$			-0.152*** (0.021)	
$HighLTI_i \times Post_t$				-0.020 (0.016)
$MSR_b \times LowInc_i$	-0.147*** (0.021)			
$MSR_b \times LowIncArea_i$		-0.412*** (0.026)		
$MSR_b \times LowIncLowIncArea_i$			0.013 (0.028)	
$\mathrm{MSR}_b \times \mathrm{HighLTI}_i$				0.032* (0.019)
LowInc_i	-0.818*** (0.014)			
$\operatorname{LowIncArea}_i$		-1.65*** (0.016)		
${\bf LowIncLowIncArea}_i$			-0.179*** (0.017)	
${\bf HighLTI}_i$, ,	0.241*** (0.012)
Lender×Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Aggregator FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lender×Aggregator FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	$152,\!685$	145,039	79,527	155,966
\mathbb{R}^2	0.772	0.773	0.760	0.778

Table 10: Effects on origination amount by borrower types

This table reports estimates from Equation (13) estimated at the correspondent lender level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variable is log origination amount of correspondent lender s in year t by borrower type i. The main independent variable is $MSR_s \times Post_t \times Borrower_i$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_s) and the post dummy variable (Post_t) and borrower type Borrower_i. Correspondent lender-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante MSR/Tier 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (2). The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. The borrower type includes a dummy variable for low-income borrowers, Low Income Borrower_i and a dummy variable for borrowers from low-income areas, Low Income Area_i. Low-income borrower is defined as borrowers with income less than 80% of the FFIEC MSA median family income. Low-income area is defined as census tracts with median family income lower than 80% of the FFIEC MSA median family income. Lender controls include lagged log asset, capital ratio, liquidity ratio and return on assets. Lender×County fixed effects and County×Year fixed effects are added. Column (1) reports the results for low-income borrowers and column (2) reports the results for borrowers from low-income areas. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Log Origin	ation Amount
	(1)	(2)
$\overline{\mathrm{MSR}_s \times \mathrm{Post}_t \times \mathrm{Low\ Income\ Borrower}_i}$	-0.183***	
	(0.040)	
$MSR_s \times Post_t \times Low Income Area_i$		-0.205***
		(0.041)
$MSR_s \times Post_t$	-0.358***	-0.279***
	(0.039)	(0.037)
Low Income Borrower _i \times Post _t	-0.474***	
	(0.018)	
Low Income Area _i \times Post _t		-0.120***
		(0.019)
$MSR_s \times Low Income Borrower_i$	0.369***	
	(0.034)	
$MSR_s \times Low Income Area_i$,	-0.010
		(0.037)
Lender controls	Yes	Yes
Lender×County FE	Yes	Yes
County×Year FE	Yes	Yes
Observations	874,544	874,544
\mathbb{R}^2	0.704	0.716

Table 11: Specialization of correspondent lenders

This table reports estimates from Equation (14) and (15) over the period 2010 - 2015. Column (1) reports the estimates from Equation (14). The dependent variable is a correspondent lender dummy for an application submitted by borrower i to lender j in census tract k and year t. It takes 1 if the lender j is a correspondent lender as defined in 3. The main independent variable is a low income dummy variables LowInc_{i,j,k,t}, which is 1 if the borrower i is a borrower with income lower than 80% of FFIEC median family income at the MSA level. Columns (2)-(6) reports the estimates from Equation (15) for low income borrowers. The y variables are rejection dummy, rejection reason dummy for unverifiable information, rejection reason dummy for incomplete application, interest rate and delinquent over 90 days within two years after origination. Columns (2)-(4) uses HMDA data and Columns (5)-(6) uses HMDA-Attom-FF data. In Columns (5)-(6), other borrower and loan characteristics including loan-to-value ratio(LTV), debt-to-income ratio (DTI), FICO, loan term, first time home buyer indicator and number of units are added as controls. In column (1) standard errors are clustered at the census tract level. In columns (2)-(6), standard errors are double clustered at the lender and census tract level. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Correspondent	Rej	Rej - Unverifiable	Rej - Incomplete	Interest Rate	Delinquent
$\text{LowInc}_{i,j,k,t}$	0.669***					
	(0.025)					
$Correspondent_{i,j,k,t}$, ,	-4.28***	-1.34***	-6.09***	0.007^{*}	0.056
		(0.604)	(0.436)	(1.19)	(0.004)	(0.046)
Income quantile FE		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Loan amount quantile FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Loan type FE		Yes	Yes	Yes		
Applicant sex FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Co-applicant FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Minority FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Census tract \times Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Other characteristics					Yes	Yes
Observations	19,912,317	6,472,836	757,621	757,621	349,318	349,318
\mathbb{R}^2	0.11	0.11	0.35	0.38	0.72	0.44

A Appendix

This document contains additional material referenced in the text.

A.1 Data Appendix

I elaborate on the data description in Section 3 by providing additional details about the Home Mortgage Disclosure Act, Attom dataset, Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac Single Family Loan Level Data, and additional datasets in Appendix A.1.1, A.1.2, A.1.3 and A.1.4. In Appendix A.1.5 I describe my matching algorithm. Descriptive figures and tables for these data sets and additional details about the matching performance are provided in Appendix A.2.

A.1.1 Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA)

I use mortgage data from Home Mortgage Disclosure Act to (i) construct the aggregator-correspondent lender network (ii) obtain mortgage origination amount/count/rejection rate by lender and county.

Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA) requires financial institutions satisfying minimum asset and loan origination thresholds to disclose information about the mortgage loan applications they receive, making this dataset the most comprehensive source of information on the U.S. residential mortgage market. It contains a rich set of characteristics about the lender, borrower, and mortgage itself at the application level. For example, I observe the location, income, race, ethnicity, and gender of borrowers and name and address, as well as a unique lender identifier for lenders.

HMDA classifies applications into origination, rejection, purchase(aggregation) and others based on the variable "action-taken code". HMDA specifies who reports the decision on application and which decision should be reported for an application. Since I use mortgages classified as origination and purchase(aggregation) to construct the aggregator-

correspondent network, I provide details of the reporting requirements related to these two action taken code.

- Origination: A financial institution reports their decision on an application if they or their agents make credit decision prior to closing or account opening. The determination as to whether one financial institution is an agent of the other is determined by state law. If more than one institution approved an application prior to closing or account opening and one of those institutions purchased the loan after closing, the institution that purchased the loan after closing reports the loan as an origination.
- Purchase: A financial institution reports a loan purchase if they purchase or repurchase a loan from another financial institution. They do not include purchase or repurchase that is part of an interim funding agreement.²²

HMDA covers over 90% of all originated mortgages in the United States.²³ Though it is the most comprehensive source of information on the U.S. residential mortgage market, it has several caveats. There are several caveats of HMDA data. First, HMDA only reports the purchaser type in the current year. A mortgage originated in November 2022 and sold in January 2023 would have a purchaser type as "unsold". Second, a financial institution records a purchased loan regardless of whether the purchase/repurchase occurs within the same calendar year that the covered loan was originated or in a different calendar year. Third, firms do not originate any loans but only purchase may not be required to file with

 $^{^{22}\}mathrm{They}$ are sometimes employed as functional equivalents of warehouse lines of credit and often referred to as "repurchase agreements"

²³Kevin Johnson and Richard M. Todd, "The Value of HMDA Coverage of Home Lending in Rural Areas and Indian Country," Center for Indian Country Development at the Federal Reserve Bank of Minneapolis Working Paper 2019-04, 2019, available at www.minneapolisfed.org/research/cicd-working-paper-series/201904-the-value-of-hmda-coverage-of-home-lending-in-rural-areas-and-indian-country. Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, "Data Point: 2017 Mortgage Market Activity and Trends: A First Look at the 2017 HMDA Data", Washington, D.C.: Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, 2018, available at s3.amazonaws.com/files.consumerfinance.gov/f/documents/bcfp_hmda_2017-mortgage-market-activity-trends_report.pdf.

HMDA. Fourth, if a loan is first purchased by a financial institution A and then sold by A to another financial institution B, both financial institutions A and B would record the loan as purchase.

With these caveats in mind, I construct the aggregator-correspondent lender network by matching the origination and purchase/aggregation part of HMDA. I merge two parts of HMDA, first, the originated loans that are labeled as sold to commercial bank, savings bank or savings association, credit union, mortgage bank, finance company, affiliated institutions, and other type of purchaser and second, purchased loans as indicated by action taken code 6. I conduct the merge over the sample period 2010 - 2023.²⁴ The merged dataset allows me to observe the buy/sell relationships between financial institutions. The details of the matching algorithm are provided in Appendix A.1.5.

The caveats of HMDA data bring concerns to my matching results. First, HMDA only records the actions on loans in the current year. If a loan is originated in year t and sold in year t+1, the loan is recorded in year t HMDA data as unsold. If a financial institution purchase most mortgages originated in the previous year, my matching algorithm that only allows match between an originated loan and a purchased loan within the same calendar would result in biased network. The concern is lessened by the following facts observed from the HMDA data: (i) majority of loans are sold within 2 months of origination by industry standard. Only 20% of loans are not sold in the current year. These loans are likely originated closer to the year end of a calendar year; (ii) By matching year t's aggregation to year t-1's unsold mortgages, the fraction of loans matched is less than 2%, which indicates only a small fraction of aggregated mortgages are not originated in the current year.

Second, HMDA includes covered loans originated and sold by the financial institutions

²⁴Note that after 2018, HMDA assigns a unique loan identifier to all applications. If the loan is originated by financial institution A and subsequently purchased by another financial institution B, both financial institutions should report the loan under the same loan identifier. However, such loan identifier is not available to the public.

but repurchased from the financial entity that the loans were sold to. There is no indicator for the loans aggregated and repurchased. This leads to errors in matching because I am only interested in the loans aggregated. However, mortgage repurchase is generally rare. For example, Fannie Mae reported that, as of the end of 2013, it requested repurchases for less than 0.25% of the mortgages it acquired between 2009 and 2012 and the repurchase volume may further decline. In addition, I compute that the fraction of mortgages purchased by a financial institution from its own origination or origination of subsidiaries is less than 10%. Note that this provides an upper bound for the fraction of repurchased mortgages in my matched dataset.

Third, HMDA reports the total loan amount of originated mortgages while unpaid balance of purchased mortgages, so that merging on loan amount and unpaid balance leads to error. However, most agency securitized mortgages are sold within two months of origination. At the time of aggregation, the loan amount barely changes within 2 months. If these two numbers are indeed different, the difference between total loan amount and unpaid balance should be small and taken care of by the amount difference allowed in my matching algorithm.

Fourth, HMDA only requires financial institutions that meet certain asset and mortgage origination count threshold to report their mortgage activities. Firms do not originate any loans may not be required to file with HMDA thus do not show up in my network. However, the aggregation market is high concentrated and the top 10 aggregators in HMDA takes up 40% of market share according to Mortgage Bankers Association survey. So the resulted network in my data still captures majority of the business relationships in the mortgage market.

Fifth, it is possible for a mortgage to be sold multiple times. The existence of long

²⁶The repurchase rate for mortgages it acquired between 2005 and 2008 was 3.7%. See Fannie Mae, Form 10-K for the Fiscal Year Ended December 31, 2013, at 143.

intermediation chain leads to inaccuracy in the network captured by my matching algorithm as I only consider the case when the loan is originated, sold to an aggregator and securitized. I show that 80% aggregated loans are sold directly to Fannie Mae, Freddie Mac and Ginnie Mae, without selling to another financial institutions subsequently, otherwise they would be recorded as other. In addition, I only keep one-to-one match in my dataset, which represents 87% of the match, which also indicates that the longer intermediation chains in HMDA is not common after the global financial crisis.

In my dataset, I define the lender that originate a mortgage and sell the mortgage to an unaffiliated financial institution as a correspondent lender and the mortgage originated by a correspondent lender and sold to an unaffiliated financial institution as a correspondent loan. HMDA does not have a variable for loan origination channels. My definition of correspondent loans or correspondent lending channel could differ from definitions from Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac Single-Family Loan-Level dataset. For example, a financial institution can have a business relationship with a correspondent lender without delegating underwriting. In HMDA, the financial institution that has underwriting records the loan as origination. If the financial institution sell the loan to Fannie Mae, Fannie Mac or Ginnie Mae directly but not to another financial institution, my dataset would not consider the loan as correspondent lending. However, in Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac Single-Family Loan-Level dataset, such a loan is considered as a correspondent lending loan if a third party correspondent lender is involved in the origination process and a broker is not used in the process. I focus on the case when correspondent lenders can make decisions because it represents their willingness to supply credit.

A.1.2 Attom real estate data

Attom Real Estate Data includes covers more than 155 million properties, 500 million real estate and loan transactions in over 2690 counties. Similar to other popular real estate datasets such as Corelogic and Zillow, the Attom dataset is divided into a transaction

dataset and an assessment dataset. The former dataset contains information on transfers, mortgages and other real estate transactions. The latter dataset contains information on property characteristics.

To clean the Attom data, I follow published papers such as Reher and Valkanov (2021), and adapt the cleaning procedure to Attom. I use the following steps: (i)I obtain a set of non-arm's length home purchase transactions. This includes excluding arm's length transactions and foreclosures flagged by Attom, observations with QuitClaimFlag as 1, observations with DocumentTypeCode as DTIT (Intrafamily Transfer) and DTGF (gift deed), observations that are not classified as "Transfer" or "Subdivision Related Transfer" in TransferInfoPurchaseTypeCode; (ii) I keep the individual transactions for home purchasing. This involves keeping only transactions where buyers are not company and properties that are single family or condo; (iii) I keep transactions with valid price, mortgage, location and transactor information. I exclude transactions with transfer amount smaller than 10000, mortgage amount larger than 99th percentile of HMDA application amount in 2022 (\$1,800,000), LTV ratio larger than 125% and transactions without valid buyer, seller names and census tracts.

These filters limit the transactions to valid residential home purchase transactions with reasonable mortgage amount and loan-to-value ratio. These filters allow me to better match the transaction to Home Mortgage Disclosure Act data and reduce underestimation in calculating match rates. For example, if I include commercial properties in the Attom dataset when I merge Attom with HMDA, I would obtain a downwardly biased estimate. The remaining filters further rule out extreme cases or observations highly subject to measurement error.

The resulting dataset is referred as the "Filtered Attom Dataset". I focus on the sample period 2010 to 2017. In terms of coverage, the filtered dataset covers 80% of U.S. counties in a population weighted basis or 70% on an unweighted basis.

I merge the Attom dataset with HMDA dataset. The merge allows me to obtain

origination month for each mortgage application and observe a subset of mortgage rates. I detail the matching algorithm in Appendix A.1.5.

A.1.3 Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac Single Family Loan Level Dataset

Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac provides single family loan level dataset provides a subset of their 30-year and less, fully amortizing, full documentation, single-family, conventional fixed-rate mortgages. The dataset does not only includes the loan characteristics but also the monthly performance of each loan. The loan characteristics includes the loan origination channel (retail, correspondent and broker), Loan to value ratio, debt to income ratio, loan amount, interest rate, seller identity, servicer identity etc, and also includes monthly performance of loans.

Seller and servicer identity is revealed if a seller or servicer sells or services more than 1% of UPB of the loans acquired in the current year quarter. For loans that are not originated through the retail channel, the identity of the original lender is unknown. In addition, these two dataset do not have the lender identity or the exact location of loans. The location of loans is at the three digit zipcode level.

To overcome these two data shortcomings, I use the resulting dataset from merging HMDA and Attom, which allows me to have the exact location and loan origination year month. I next merge the dataset with Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac based on loan origination year month and loan amount. I can obtain interest rate and loan performance for the matched loans.

A.1.4 Other Datasets

Call Reports Data I collect bank call reports data, shadow bank mortgage call reports data, thrift call reports data and credit union call reports data. I obtain these data from the following sources:

• Bank call reports data: I source the data from Wharton Research Data Services

(WRDS) Bank Regulation. The data includes balance sheet and income statements of banks and thrift financial institutions.²⁷

- Shadow bank call reports data: I submit FOIA request to Massachusetts and Washington to obtain company level information of shadow banks that operate in these two states. Though I only source data from two states, the resulting dataset covers shadow banks that originate over 80% of the origination of all shadow banks in the U.S. over 2012 2017. The dataset is available after 2011 and the coverage is only 50% in 2011.
- Thrift call reports data: I obtain the balance sheet variables for thrift financial institutions before 2012 from The Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) RIS API.
- Credit union call reports data: I download the credit union call reports data from National Credit Union Administration.

These datasets allow me to control 68% financial characteristics of the correspondent lenders in the mortgage market during my sample period and 79% financial characteristics of the correspondent lenders after 2012.

U.S. Census Data I get the county level median household income, population, fraction of households with annual income lower than \$35,000, fraction of residents with a bachelor's degree, fraction of residents over 65 years old, etc from the U.S. Census API.

A.1.5 Matching algorithm

Matching HMDA Originated Mortgages with Aggregated Mortgages: (a) merge by census tract, loan type, loan purpose and property type (b) select observations with loan amount difference in [-1,1] range (c) select observations with income difference in [-1,

 $^{^{27}\}mathrm{After}\ 2011,$ all thrift institutions file FFIEC 031/FFIEC 041/FFIEC 051 reports like banks.

1] range (d) match on race, sex, ethnicity if these variables are available (e) If there is only one unique match, keep the match. If there are more than one matches, require exact loan amount match. If there is only one unique match, keep the match and unmatched if not. (f) Examine if an originated loan is matched to multiple purchase/aggregated loans, if so, exclude the originated loan. Only keep one-to-one match.

Table A.1 compares the summary statistics of matched vs unmatched mortgages among the set of purchased mortgages in HMDA. The only noticeable difference is that the matched sample covers more conventional mortgage compared to unmatched sample.

My algorithm has a match rate of 60%, with a dip in match rate during 2007-2009 and a trend to go higher in recent years, see Figure A.1. The match rate in the recent years (2018 - 2020) reaches 78%. The match rate at the county level shows the match rate are generally high across the counties in United States, with high match rate concentrated in the middle states, see Figure A.2. My algorithm relies on the match on census tract and loan amount, which bias the match towards areas with low population density. While the findings may not extend to areas with high density, either due to data representatives, borrower financial literacy, lender competition or aggregator competition, my results are present in areas with low population density and these areas are more likely to have a high fraction of low-income borrowers.

Matching HMDA Originated Mortgages with Attom: (a) clean HMDA data to keep home purchase loans only and clean Attom data to keep residential real estate transactions with mortgage (b) merge by census tract and loan amount (c) fuzzy match lender identity. Note that Attom records the lender as the lender that closes the loan while HMDA records the lender as the lender that makes the credit decision. In case of table-funding and correspondent lending, the lender identities are likely to be different. When there is only one match based on census tract and loan amount, I ignore the lender name string match. If there are multiple matches, I check the lender name difference and require the fuzz score to be over 70. I clean the lender name in HMDA and Attom respectively before conducting

fuzzy match.

Matching HMDA-Attom with Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac dataset: (a) exact match based on loan amount and 3 digit zip code, loan type and loan purpose (c) matched based on loan origination year month, with the difference in [0, 2] months range. (d) match based on loan to value ratio, require the difference less than 5%.

A.2 Figures and Tables

Figure A.1: Time series match rate

This figure shows time series match rate of aggregated mortgages in my sample. Sample period is 2000 - 2021. The matching algorithm is described in section 3.3.1.

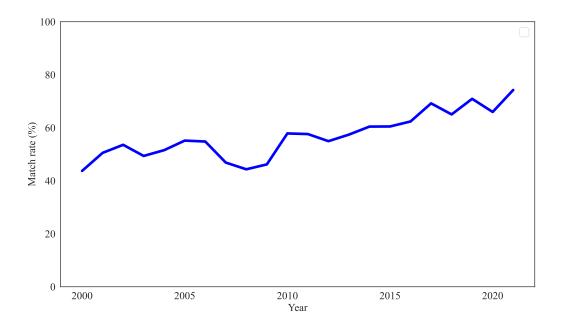
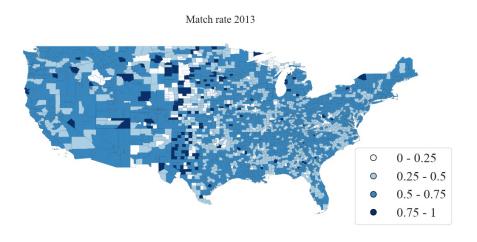


Figure A.2: Cross sectional match rate

This figure shows cross-sectional match rate of purchased mortgages in my sample. Sample year in the first graph is 2013 and in the second graph is 2021.



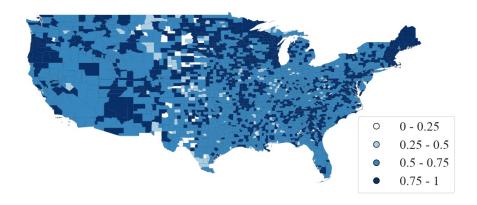


Table A.1: Summary statistics of matched and unmatched samples

This table compares loan and borrower characteristics among matched vs unmatched sample of aggregated mortgages.

Variable	Matched	Unmatched
Loan amount	177.23	170.32
Lender type		
Bank	76.92%	77.43%
Shadow	23.08%	22.57%
Owner-purpose		
Owner-occupied	92.94%	92.73%
NonOwner-occupied	6.18%	6.19%
Loan purpose		
Purchase	63.33%	59.08%
Refinance	44.04%	47.36%
${\bf Home Improv}$	0.63%	2.17%
Race		
White	35.19%	34.35%
Black	2.35%	3.59%
Asian	2.04%	2.44%
PacificIslander	0.70%	1.26%
AmericanNative	0.19%	0.29%
Missing	3.57%	3.74%
NoCo-applicant	57.89%	37.86%
NotApplicable	45.44%	47.45%

Variable	Matched	Unmatched
Applicant income	76.27	77.00
Loan type		
Cnvt	71.32%	59.31%
FHA	19.73%	29.51%
FSARHS	2.43%	2.58%
VA	6.52%	8.60%
Property type		
1-4 unit	99.43%	98.19%
Manufactured	0.57%	1.43%
multi	0.02%	0.37%
Sex		
Female	12.20%	12.85%
Male	30.63%	32.16%
NotApplicable	54.40%	52.35%
Missing	2.77%	2.64%
Ethnicity		
HispanicLatino	4.16%	5.09%
NotHispanicLatino	41.09%	38.69%
NotApplicable	50.73%	51.57%
Missing	4.03%	4.65%

Table A.2: Correspondent lender-aggregator level analysis

This table reports estimates from Equation (4) estimated at the correspondent lender-aggregator level over the period 2010 - 2015. The dependent variable is log aggregation amount in year t. The main independent variable is $\mathrm{MSR}_b \times \mathrm{Post}_t$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_b) and the post dummy variable (Post_t). Aggregator-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the banks' ratio of mortgage servicing rights to Tier 1 capital. The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Column (2) adds year fixed effects; column (3) adds aggregator fixed effects; column (4) adds Lender \times Year fixed effects; and columns (5) adds Lender \times Aggregator fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the correspondent lender level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Log Aggregation Amount							
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)			
$MSR_b \times Post_t$	-1.11*** (0.147)	-0.931*** (0.146)	-0.788*** (0.139)	-1.04*** (0.134)	-1.13*** (0.115)			
MSR_b	6.97*** (0.107)	6.93*** (0.107)	,	,	,			
Post_t	0.964*** (0.038)	,						
Year FE Aggregator FE Lender×Year FE Lender×Aggregator FE		Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes Yes			
Observations R ²	107,145 0.07	107,145 0.08	107,145 0.22	107,145 0.41	107,145 0.81			

Table A.3: Balanced t-stats

This table reports the difference of lender control variables for treated group and control group in 2012. The treated group includes lenders with above median MSR exposure defined in Equation 2 and the control group includes those lenders with below median exposure defined in Equation 2. Column (1) reports the mean of the treatment group, column (2) reports the mean of control group, column (3) reports the difference and column (4) reports the t statistics.

Variable:	Т	С	Dif	t-stats
Capital ratio	0.103	0.097	0.006	0.63
Liquidity ratio	0.237	0.246	-0.009	-1.24
Return on assets	0.007	0.008	-0.001	-0.91
Log assets	15.00	15.24	-0.24	-1.59

Table A.4: Shadow bank funding

This table reports estimates from Equation (6) estimated at the seller level over the period 2011 - 2017. The dependent variable is log credit line amount or utilization rate in year t. The main independent variable is $MSR_b \times Post_t$, the interaction between funding provider-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_b) and the post dummy variable ($Post_t$). The funding provider level The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Controls include lagged log asset, capital ratio, liquidity ratio and return on assets. Standard errors clustered at the shadow bank-year level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Log Credit Limit				Used Fraction			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
$MSR_b \times Post_t$	0.3059 (0.4329)	-0.0997 (0.4149)	-0.0319 (0.4156)	0.2461 (0.5303)	0.0159 (0.1398)	0.2535 (0.2533)	0.2719 (0.2629)	0.0940 (0.2266)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Shadow bank FE Warehouse lender FE Year quarter FE Shadow bank×Year quarter FE	Yes Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes
Observations R ²	34,828 0.85	19,705 0.83	16,999 0.78	16,999 0.83	34,828 0.35	19,705 0.31	16,999 0.28	16,999 0.57

Table A.5: Shadow bank sample

This table reports estimates the effect of MSR regulation on origination amount using the subsample of shadow banks. Panel A reports the estimates from Equation (3) estimated at the seller level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variable is log origination amount by correspondent lender s in county c and in year t and the approval rate (in percentage) of mortgages by correspondent lender s in county c and in year t. The main independent variable is $\mathrm{MSR}_s \times \mathrm{Post}_t$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_s) and the post dummy variable (Post_t). Correspondent lender-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante $\mathrm{MSR}/\mathrm{Tier}$ 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (2). The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Columns 1 and 4 add correspondent Lender \times County fixed effects; columns 2 and 5 add year fixed effects; and column 3 and 6 add County \times Year fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the correspondent lender level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Log Oı	rigination A	Amount	Approval Rate		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
$MSR_s \times Post_t$	-0.573*** (0.079)	-0.659*** (0.079)	-0.615*** (0.085)	-6.36*** (1.04)	-6.30*** (1.04)	-5.21*** (1.11)
$Post_t$	0.406*** (0.041)			3.40^{***} (0.528)		
Lender×County FE Year FE County×Year FE	Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes
Observations R ²	$175,\!358 \\ 0.869$	$175,358 \\ 0.871$	$175,358 \\ 0.885$	$149,\!350 \\ 0.678$	$149,\!350 \\ 0.678$	$149,\!350 \\ 0.727$

Table A.6: Basel III capital shortfall and MSR exposure

This table reports the correlation between lender level treatment variable and Basel III capital shortfall measure from Berrospide and Edge (2016). The sample only includes bank lenders at the bank holding company level. Column (1) uses all lenders, Column (2) include lenders that are subsidiaries of aggregators, column (3) uses all correspondent lenders. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	MSR							
	All lenders	\leq Subsidiaries	Correspondent lenders					
	(1)	(2)	(3)					
$Shortfall_s$	0.29	0.43	0.02					
	(0.31)	(0.75)	(0.33)					
Constant	0.16***	0.18***	0.16***					
	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.01)					
Observations	504	120	384					
\mathbb{R}^2	0.00175	0.00276	6.14×10^{-6}					

Table A.7: Robustness: Subsample by loan type

This table reports estimates the effect of MSR regulation on aggregation activities by loan type. It reports the estimates from Equation (3) estimated at the correspondent lender level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variable is log aggregation amount of conventional and FHA mortgages by correspondent lender s in county c and in year t. The main independent variable is $MSR_s \times Post_t$, the interaction between correspondent lender-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_s) and the post dummy variable ($Post_t$). Correspondent lender-level exposure to Basel III is measured as the share of mortgages sold to aggregators with ex-ante MSR/Tier 1 capital over 10%, as defined in Equation (2). The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Columns 1 and 4 add correspondent Lender-County fixed effects; columns 2 and 5 add year fixed effects; and columns 3 and 6 add County-Year fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the correspondent lender level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Log Aggregation Amount - Cnvt			Log Aggregation Amount - FHA			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	
$\overline{\mathrm{MSR}_s \times \mathrm{Post}_t}$	-0.516*** (0.182)	-0.470*** (0.174)	-0.527*** (0.173)	-0.839*** (0.305)	-0.812*** (0.307)	-0.858*** (0.299)	
Post_t	0.567*** (0.086)			0.208** (0.096)			
Lender controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Lender×County FE Year FE County×Year FE	Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes Yes	
Observations R ²	437,272 0.702	437,272 0.705	437,272 0.726	437,272 0.723	437,272 0.725	437,272 0.747	

Table A.8: Robustness: Guarantee fee

This table reports estimates from Equation (4) estimated at the seller-aggregator level over the period 2010 - 2017. The dependent variable is $\log aggregated$ home purchase amount in year t. The main independent variable is $\mathrm{MSR}_b \times \mathrm{Post}_t$, the interaction between aggregator-level exposure to the Basel III capital requirements on mortgage servicing rights (MSR_b) and the post dummy variable (Post_t). Aggregator-level exposure is a dummy variable that is 1 if the bank's ratio of mortgage servicing rights to Tier 1 capital is over 10% and otherwise 0. The post dummy variable equals 1 if year t is 2013 or later. Top10_s is an indicator that is 1 if aggregator s is among one of the top 10 sellers to Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac sellers and otherwise 0. The Post_{t1} dummy equals 1 if year is 2011 or later Standard errors clustered at the seller-year level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Log Aggregation Amoun				
	(1)	(2)			
$MSR_b \times Post_t$	-0.192***	-0.192***			
	(0.073)	(0.073)			
$Top10_s \times Post_{t1}$		-0.039			
		(0.069)			
Lender×Year FE	Yes	Yes			
Aggregator FE	Yes	Yes			
Year FE	Yes	Yes			
$\mathbf{Lender} {\times} \mathbf{Aggregator} \ \mathbf{FE}$	Yes	Yes			
Observations	131,935	131,935			
\mathbb{R}^2	0.801	0.801			

Table A.9: Interest rate and loan performance

This table reports estimates $y_{i,j,b,c,t} = \beta \times \text{MSR}_b \times \text{Post}_t + \gamma X_{i,j,b,c,t} + \eta X_{j,t} + FEs + \epsilon_{i,j,b,c,t}$. The dependent variable is interest rate or delinquent dummy for a loan i originated by a correspondent lender j, aggregated by aggregator k in county c and year t. The independent variable is the interaction term between MSR_b and Post_t . MSR_b is 1 if the MSR/Tier 1 capital exposure of the aggregator b exceeds 10% and otherwise 0. Post $_t$ is 1 if the year quarter is after Q2 of 2012. Borrower controls include loan-to-value (LTV) ratio, debt-to-income (DTI) ratio, FICO, log loan amount, log income, first time home buyer indicator. Lender controls include lagged log asset, return on assets, capital ratio and liquidity ratio. Columns (1), (3) and (5) add County×YearQuarter and aggregator fixed effects. Columns (2), (4) and (6) further add Lender×Aggregator fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the correspondent lender-aggregator level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Intere	stRate	Delinquent -	Delinquent - 60 days		ent - 90 days
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
$MSR_b \times Post_t$	0.004 (0.006)	0.010* (0.005)	$-8.11 \times 10^{-5} $ (0.001)	0.0008 (0.001)	-0.0002 (0.0009)	$9.97 \times 10^{-5} \\ (0.0010)$
Borrower controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lender controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
County×YearQuarter FE Aggregator FE Lender×Aggregator FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations R ²	280,096	280,096	280,096	280,096	280,096	280,096
	0.740	0.756	0.077	0.114	0.069	0.110

Table A.10: Persistence in relationships

This table shows the persistence in aggregator-correspondent lender relationships. It estimates $\text{Current}_{i,j,t} = \beta \text{Previous}_{i,j,t-1} + FEs + \epsilon_{i,j,t}$ using all possible pairs of correspondent lenders and aggregators in their choice sets for aggregation relationships. The dependent variable is an indicator that equals 1 if there is an aggregation relationship between correspondent lender i and aggregator j in year t and 0 other wise. The independent variable is an indicator that equals 1 if there is an aggregation relationship between correspondent lender i and aggregator j in year t-1 and 0 other wise. Column (2) uses aggregator fixed effects, column (3) uses aggregator j in year j and correspondent lender headquarter j state j and correspondent lender headquarter j state j and correspondent lender Size quantile j and column (5) adds correspondent Lender type j and column (6) replaces correspondent Lender type j and column (6) replaces correspondent Lender type j and effects with correspondent Lender type j and column (6) replaces correspondent Lender type j and effects with correspondent Lender type j and column (6) replaces correspondent Lender type j and effects with correspondent Lender type j and column (6) replaces correspondent Lender type j and effects with correspondent Lender type j and column (6) replaces correspondent Lender type j and effects with correspondent Lender type j and column (6) replaces correspondent Lender type j and column (7) and column (8) replaces correspondent Lender type j and j and column (8) replaces correspondent Lender type j and j and column (8) replaces correspondent Lender type j and j

	Current					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Previous	0.583***	0.469***	0.464***	0.458***	0.456***	0.453***
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Constant	0.008***					
	(0.0001)					
Aggregator FE		Yes				
Aggregator×Year FE			Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
$State \times Year FE$			Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Size quantile×Year FE				Yes	Yes	Yes
Lender type×Year FE					Yes	
Lender type \times Aggregator type \times Year FE						Yes
Observations	14,407,066	14,407,066	14,407,066	14,404,750	14,404,750	14,404,750
\mathbb{R}^2	0.288	0.340	0.368	0.371	0.372	0.374

Table A.11: Determinants of relationship formation

This table shows the matching pattern between correspondent lenders and aggregators. It estimates $\Pr(\mathrm{Agg})_{s,b,t} = \beta \mathrm{LogDistance}_{s,b} + FE_{s,t} + FE_{b,t} + \epsilon_{s,b,t}$ using a sample that includes all possible pairs of correspondent lenders and aggregators in their choice sets for aggregation relationships. The dependent variable $\Pr(\mathrm{Agg})_{s,b,t}$ is an indicator that equals 100 if there is an aggregation relationship between correspondent lender s and an aggregator b in year t and 0 otherwise. The headquarter distance is the distance between the headquarters of correspondent lender and aggregator. Column (1) reports the coefficient estimate for the full sample, column (2) reports the coefficient estimate for pairs with headquarter distance less than 500 Km, column (3) reports the coefficient estimate for pairs with headquarter distance less than 1000 Km, column (4) reports the coefficient estimate for large correspondent lenders (top 25%) and column (5) reports the coefficient estimate for small correspondent lenders (bottom 25%). Standard errors double clustered at the correspondent lender and aggregator level are reported in parentheses. ***: p < 0.01, **: p < 0.05, *: p < 0.1.

	Aggregation Relationship								
	All	≤ 500Km	≤ 1000Km	Large	Small				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)				
LogDistance	-0.930***	-1.35***	-1.22***	-0.439***	-1.07***				
	(0.013)	(0.034)	(0.022)	(0.021)	(0.029)				
Lender×Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes				
Aggregator×Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes				
Observations R ²	7,723,460	976,103	2,428,438	1,219,417	1,219,357				
	0.294	0.313	0.317	0.172	0.311				