EulerSwap White Paper

Euler Labs

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Abstract

EulerSwap is an Automated Market Maker (AMM) that improves capital efficiency using Euler lending vaults. Unlike traditional AMMs that fragment liquidity across multiple pools, EulerSwap allows a single, cross-collateralised vault to support multiple asset pairs at once. Through the Ethereum Vault Connector (EVC), market makers can borrow the out token of a swap using the in token as collateral, unlocking deep liquidity. This model enables up to 40x the liquidity depth of traditional AMMs by making idle assets more efficient. At its core, EulerSwap uses a flexible AMM curve to optimise swap pricing, ensuring deep liquidity while maintaining market balance. By combining on-demand just-in-time liquidity, shared liquidity across pools, and customisable AMM mechanics, EulerSwap reduces inefficiencies in liquidity provision, offering deeper markets, lower costs, and greater control for liquidity providers.

1   Introduction

EulerSwap is a novel Automated Market Maker (AMM) that increases capital efficiency and liquidity depth beyond traditional AMMs. By leveraging Euler lending vaults and just-in-time liquidity provisioning, EulerSwap enables market makers to service significantly larger swaps while reducing the need for fragmented liquidity pools.

This is achieved through a combination of advanced liquidity mechanisms and customisable AMM curves. Unlike conventional AMMs that require separate liquidity pools for each asset pair, EulerSwap utilises a single, cross-collateralised vault to support multiple asset pairs simultaneously. When a user initiates a swap, EulerSwap borrows the required out token against the in token as collateral using the Ethereum Vault Connector (EVC), dynamically scaling liquidity without requiring large static deposits.

This liquidity-sharing model increases capital efficiency, allowing EulerSwap to achieve up to 40x the liquidity depth of traditional AMMs. The integration of check deferrals and operator features further enables market makers to automate liquidity provisioning and optimise capital usage.

Beyond individual swap accounts, EulerSwap enhances liquidity further by allowing multiple swap accounts to operate within the same lending vault. This modular design ensures that idle liquidity is repurposed efficiently across multiple trading pairs. Much like Curve's 3pool, but generalised to any number of asset pairings, a USDC vault could provide deep liquidity for 10+ correlated assets without requiring separate liquidity pools for each.

EulerSwap's exchange rates are governed by a highly customisable AMM curve (illustrated in Figure 2), which dynamically adjusts incentives to maintain market balance. Unlike traditional AMMs that use constant-sum or constant-product formulas, EulerSwap's curve allows for asymmetric liquidity deposits and single-sided concentration. This flexibility enables it to simulate the behaviour of atypical AMM protocols, such as the MakerDAO Peg Stability Module (PSM).

For end-users, EulerSwap functions like a typical Uniswap-style interface. However, behind the scenes, it incorporates advanced mechanisms such as dynamic borrowing and repaying, customisable pricing curves, and shared liquidity provisioning. The primary target audience for liquidity providers includes professional market makers, token issuers, and DAOs, while swappers include leverage traders on Euler, aggregators, intent solvers, and MEV bots.

2 Example

Suppose that Euler allows borrowing of USDT with USDC as collateral at a loan-to-value (LTV) ratio of 0.95, and vice versa. This means that for every \$1 of USDC or USDT collateral, a user can borrow up to \$0.95 of the other asset.

Now suppose you have a swap account with 1M USDC deposited as initial liquidity. Using maximum leverage your account could support deposits of 20M USDC and debts of 19M USDT. Alternatively, if you swapped your 1 million USDC to 1 million USDT, it could support the opposite. Let's say another user wants to swap 10M USDC for USDT. The steps are as follows:

1. They send 10M USDC to your swap account as the swap input.

2. Your swap account deposits the 10M USDC as collateral in Euler.

3. Your swap account borrows approximately 10M USDT against the account's collateral, which includes your original deposit, alongside the swap input.

4. It sends the borrowed USDT to the user as the swap output.

Importantly, this isn't a 1:1 swap because: a) you charge a fee for facilitating the swap; and b) the exact swap output is determined by an AMM curve, which factors in increasingly large price impact as the swap input amount increases. After the swap, your swap account now holds 11M USDC deposits and 10M USDT debt. It earns interest on the supplied USDC but must also pay interest on the borrowed USDT.

Later, when a swap occurs in the reverse direction, the incoming 'in token' repays the outstanding loan, and any excess collateral is returned as the 'out token.' The AMM curve dynamically adjusts incentives such that imbalances encourage swaps in the opposite direction, facilitating natural rebalancing. This mechanism ensures that positions do not remain open for extended periods, reducing exposure to borrowing costs. Over time, you will incur costs due to small interest rate differentials, whilst generating significant swap fees through utilisation of idle liquidity in the lending protocol. The whole process is depicted in Fig. 1.
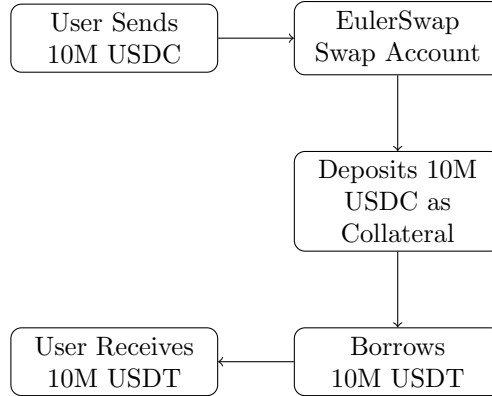

Figure 1: **Swap flow in EulerSwap AMM**. EulerSwap's just-in-time liquidity borrowing. The swap account dynamically increases liquidity by borrowing the "out token" against the "in token."

3 Curve

The space of possible reserves in a EulerSwap AMM is determined by how much debt a swap account is allowed to hold. The EulerSwap curve passes through an equilibrium point (x_0, y_0), at which the marginal price is defined by:

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\bigg|_{(x_0,y_0)} = -\frac{p_x}{p_y}. \tag{1}$$

Unlike most AMM curves, which are usually defined by a single convex function, EulerSwap uses a piecewise-defined curve, with different functions providing trading behaviour either side of the equilibrium point:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} f_1(x), & 0 < x \le x_0 \\ f_2(x), & x_0 < x \end{cases}. \tag{2}$$

In the domain $0 < x \le x_0$, the curve is defined by

$$f_1(x) = y_0 + \frac{p_x}{p_y} (x_0 - x) \left(c_x + (1 - c_x) \left(\frac{x_0}{x} \right) \right). \tag{3}$$

In the domain $x_0 < x$, the curve is defined by

$$f_2(x) = \frac{\sqrt{\left(\frac{p_x}{p_y}(x - x_0) + y_0(1 - 2c_y) \right)^2 + 4c_y(1 - c_y)y_0^2} - \left(\frac{p_x}{p_y}(x - x_0) + y_0(1 - 2c_y) \right)}{2c_y}. \tag{4}$$

The c_x, c_y parameters here are liquidity concentration parameters that control how liquidity is distributed along the curve, with values closer to 1 concentrating liquidity around equilibrium and values closer to 0 distributing it across a wider price range. A full derivation is given in the Appendix 5.
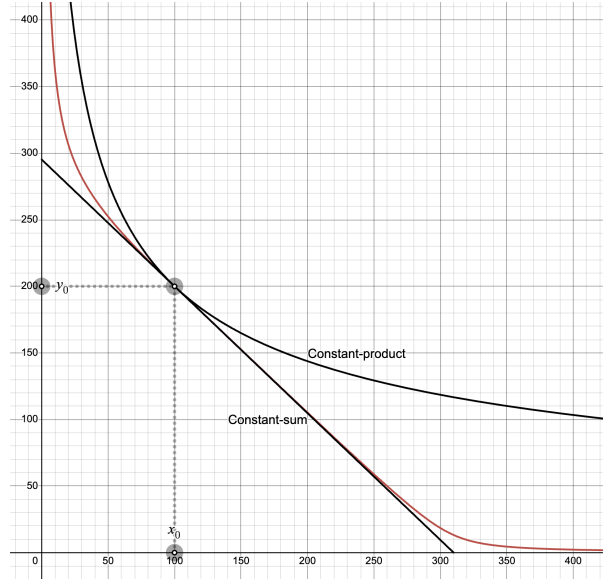

Figure 2: **EulerSwap AMM curve.** The EulerSwap curve (red line) consists of two sides with separate reserve values x_0, y_0 and liquidity concentration parameters c_x, c_y, allowing liquidity to be distributed asymmetrically. This means liquidity can be more or less dense or concentrated on one side of the AMM relative to the other. The exchange rate at equilibrium is determined by the pricing parameters p_x, p_y and is fully flexible. You can interact with the curve here on Desmos to compare its behaviour with traditional constant-sum and constant-product curves (black lines).

4   Conclusion

EulerSwap enhances Automated Market Making by leveraging just-in-time borrowing to expand liquidity depth dynamically. By integrating Euler's lending vaults, it enables market makers to amplify positions efficiently while offering a customisable AMM curve that supports concentrated, distributed, and asymmetric liquidity structures. These features make EulerSwap adaptable to a wide range of trading strategies. However, this efficiency is not without some trade-offs. Swap accounts incur interest costs on borrowed assets, which can erode profitability if not offset by swap fees, interest on collateral, or

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token incentives. Additionally, EulerSwap inherits Euler's risk parameters, making it most effective for correlated asset pairs with high loan-to-value (LTV) ratios, while volatile assets pose higher liquidation risks if positions become imbalanced. Despite these trade-offs, EulerSwap represents a breakthrough in AMM design by repurposing idle liquidity in lending protocols, reducing capital inefficiencies, and optimising swap execution. By catering to professional market makers, DAOs, and algorithmic traders, it positions itself as a powerful tool for on-chain liquidity optimisation. Future research could explore optimal strategies for setting liquidity concentration parameters dynamically based on market conditions. EulerSwap's design opens new possibilities for AMM efficiency, setting a foundation for further DeFi innovation.

Acknowledgments

5 Appendix

5.1 Curve derivation

We begin with an Automated Market Maker (AMM) holding initial liquidity reserves of two assets, X and Y, denoted as x_0 and y_0, respectively. In the absence of trading, the AMM remains at equilibrium at the point (x_0, y_0).

Our goal is to derive a curve for a trading function that supports swaps between the two assets with the following properties:

- Passes through the equilibrium point (x_0, y_0).

- Maintains an exchange rate, given by the slope of the AMM curve, of $-p_x/p_y$ at (x_0, y_0).

- Allows liquidity concentration to be adjusted via parameters c_x and c_y, which control the liquidity available for swaps to the left and right of the equilibrium point.

To develop such a function, we first introduce two fundamental AMM curve models.

5.1.1 Constant-sum and constant-product AMM curves

The constant-sum and constant-product AMM curves are given by:

$$x + y = x_0 + y_0, \tag{5}$$
$$xy = x_0 y_0. \tag{6}$$

The constant-sum curve is simply a line, whilst the constant-product curve is a hyperbola. They can be thought of as two extremes when it comes to the distribution of liquidity. The constant-sum curve concentrates liquidity at a single exchange rate, whilst the constant-product curve distributes liquidity across a wide range of different exchange rates. By default, these curves intersect at the point (x_0, y_0), where their slope is:

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\bigg|_{(x_0,y_0)} = -1.$$

Since real-world markets often operate at variable exchange rates at equilibrium, we introduce custom pricing parameters p_x and p_y to allow flexibility in defining the slope:

$$p_x x + p_y y = p_x x_0 + p_y y_0, \tag{7}$$
$$x^{p_y y_0} y^{p_x x_0} = x_0^{p_y y_0} y_0^{p_x x_0}. \tag{8}$$

The constant-sum curve is now a line with a slope parameterised by the ratio of the pricing parameters, whilst the constant-product curve is now a weighted hyperbola. Taking the derivatives of these equations with respect to x, we obtain:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{p_x}{p_y}, \tag{9}$$
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{p_x}{p_y} \frac{x_0 y}{y_0 x}. \tag{10}$$

These results confirm that at equilibrium (x_0, y_0), the slope of both functions is:

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\bigg|_{(x_0,y_0)} = -\frac{p_x}{p_y}.$$

Whilst these curves sufficiently generalise the constant-sum and constant-product curves to an arbitrary price at equilibrium, in practice equation (8) has limited practical application as a trading function because it involves an exponential form that is computationally intensive and impractical for on-chain calculations. To resolve this, we introduce the concept of artificial reserves, which simplify price calculations while preserving trading behaviour.

5.1.2 Introducing artificial reserves for simplicity

Note that in the interval $0 < x < x_0$ swaps should only increase liquidity beyond y_0 and deplete x_0 liquidity. That is, our trading function in this interval need not depend on the initial amount of y_0 liquidity. This suggests that we can split the domain of the AMM curves into two, and replace the real reserve y_0 in the interval $0 < x < x_0$ with an idealised artificial reserve y_v. The artificial reserve is chosen such that the value of the reserves, as weighted by their price parameters, are equal at the equilibrium point (x_0, y_0). That is, we have

$$p_x x_0 = p_y y_v,$$

such that:

$$y_v = x_0 \frac{p_x}{p_y}.$$

Substituting this into our pricing equations for y_0 and simplifying, we obtain two modified AMM equations:

$$y = \frac{p_x}{p_y}(2x_0 - x), \tag{11}$$

$$y = \frac{p_x}{p_y} \frac{x_0^2}{x}. \tag{12}$$

Since these curves no longer pass through (x_0, y_0), we correct them by adding back the difference $y_0 - p_x/p_y x_0$. This leads to:

$$y = y_0 + \frac{p_x}{p_y}(x_0 - x), \tag{13}$$

$$y = y_0 + \frac{p_x}{p_y}(x_0 - x)\left(\frac{x_0}{x}\right). \tag{14}$$

Note that simply shifting the curve up or down like this does not impact the slope or shapes of the curves and therefore has no impact on trading behaviour.

5.1.3 Unifying into a single curve in the region $0 < x < x_0$

To create a single unified curve, we introduce a liquidity concentration parameter $c_x \in [0, 1]$, which determines the curve's behaviour:

- When $c_x = 1$, the AMM functions as a constant-sum model.
- When $c_x = 0$, the AMM behaves as a standard constant-product AMM.
- Intermediate values of c_x create a hybrid liquidity curve.

This gives the final equation:

$$y = y_0 + \frac{p_x}{p_y}(x_0 - x)\left(c_x + (1 - c_x)\left(\frac{x_0}{x}\right)\right). \tag{15}$$

This is equivalent to the function $f_1(x)$ given by equation (3) in the main text.

5.1.4 Extending the curve to the $x > x_0$ region

It is important to remember that equation (15) only works as a trading function in the interval $0 < x < x_0$. For $x > x_0$, we construct a reflected curve that also passes through (x_0, y_0) and maintains the required derivative:

$$x = x_0 + \frac{p_y}{p_x}(y_0 - y)\left(c_y + (1 - c_y)\left(\frac{y_0}{y}\right)\right). \tag{16}$$

Since this equation defines x in terms of y, we invert it by solving for y, leading to the quadratic equation:

$$y = c_y y^2 + \left(\frac{p_x}{p_y}(x - x_0) - y_0(2c_y - 1)\right)y - (1 - c_y)y_0^2. \tag{17}$$

Taking only the positive real root, we obtain:

$$y = \frac{\sqrt{\left(\frac{p_x}{p_y}(x - x_0) + y_0(1 - 2c_y)\right)^2 + 4c_y(1 - c_y)y_0^2} - \left(\frac{p_x}{p_y}(x - x_0) + y_0(1 - 2c_y)\right)}{2c_y}. \tag{18}$$

This corresponds to the function $f_2(x)$ given by equation (4) in the main text.

5.2 Invariant derivation

In traditional AMM protocols, the curve is typically defined as an implicit function of y. For example, the classic Uniswap AMM follows a constant-product equation:

$$xy = x_0 y_0 \tag{19}$$

where x_0 and y_0 are the initial liquidity reserves. This equation defines an invariant condition, ensuring that any valid swap must satisfy:

$$xy \geq x_0 y_0. \tag{20}$$

This condition guarantees that after any trade, the product of the new reserves remains at least as large as the initial product, ensuring that swaps cannot drain liquidity from the pool.

Rearranging this condition, we can express the invariant as a lower bound for y:

$$y \geq \frac{x_0 y_0}{x}. \tag{21}$$

This means that for any valid trade, the resulting reserve state must lie on or above the AMM curve.

5.2.1 Extending the invariant to EulerSwap

For EulerSwap, we apply a similar principle. Given any reserve state (x, y), we check whether it satisfies an equivalent invariant condition.

From equation (15), for values where $0 < x < x_0$, the AMM curve constraint requires:

$$y \geq y_0 + \frac{p_x}{p_y}(x_0 - x)\left(c_x + (1 - c_x)\left(\frac{x_0}{x}\right)\right). \tag{22}$$

For values where $x > x_0$, we could derive a similar condition for y from equation (18). However, a simpler and computationally cheaper approach is to use the inverse equation (16), which defines the lower bound for x instead:

$$x \geq x_0 + \frac{p_y}{p_x} (y_0 - y) \left(c_y + (1 - c_y) \left(\frac{y_0}{y} \right) \right). \tag{23}$$

These conditions together define the valid liquidity states in EulerSwap, ensuring that the AMM remains balanced while allowing for greater flexibility in liquidity provisioning.

6   Disclaimer

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