A Global Guide to Legal Issues in Securitisation

TRANSACTIONAL POWERHOUSE
A Global Guide to Legal Issues in Securitisation

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Foreword

Dear Reader,

We are pleased to share with you our fully updated and expanded Global Guide to Legal Issues in Securitisation. This guide presents you with an overview of the general legal, tax, accounting and regulatory issues typically relevant to securitisation structures. The guide now covers 32 jurisdictions in EMEA, APAC and the Americas.

The Global Securitisation Group’s wide network of offices allows us to provide consistent, high quality legal advice in an efficient and co-ordinated manner. Our extensive securitisation experience across multiple jurisdictions means we can provide a seamless, cross-border service in international transactions.

Given the current economic challenges, as well as the increasing cross-border nature of securitisation transactions and structures we see in the market, up-to-date knowledge of securitisation laws, practice and structures in various jurisdictions is vital to structure innovative and legally compliant transactions. We hope that you find the information in the guide useful.

The guide has been prepared by members of Baker McKenzie’s Global Securitisation Group, and I thank all the chapter authors, my valued colleagues, for sharing their knowledge of the key legal issues relevant to securitisation transactions in the respective markets.

Please do not hesitate to contact me or any of the local Baker McKenzie chapter authors referenced in the guide if you have any questions, comments, or require assistance or advice. We welcome your feedback. Detailed experience statements are also available on request.

For more information, please visit our website at www.bakermckenzie.com/securitisation.

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Contents

Introduction to Securitisation ........................................ 1
The Securitisation Regulation ........................................ 15
Australia ..................................................................... 21
Austria ....................................................................... 27
Belgium ....................................................................... 31
Brazil ......................................................................... 37
Chile ......................................................................... 43
China ......................................................................... 47
Colombia ..................................................................... 57
Czech Republic .......................................................... 63
England ...................................................................... 71
France ......................................................................... 77
Germany ...................................................................... 81
Hong Kong ................................................................... 85
Indonesia ...................................................................... 91
Italy ............................................................................ 101
Japan .......................................................................... 119
Kazakhstan ................................................................. 127
Luxembourg ................................................................. 135
Malaysia ...................................................................... 143
Mexico ......................................................................... 153
Peru ........................................................................... 157
Russia ......................................................................... 165
South Africa .................................................................. 173
Spain .......................................................................... 179
Switzerland ................................................................. 187
Taiwan ........................................................................ 192
Thailand ...................................................................... 197
The Netherlands ......................................................... 205
The Philippines .......................................................... 217
Turkey ......................................................................... 225
Ukraine ........................................................................ 237
United Arab Emirates .................................................. 245
United States of America ............................................. 251
Introduction to Securitisation
Introduction

The history of the securitisation market to date is an interesting one. In the early years, during which the technique was growing in popularity, securitisation transactions were complex finance arrangements confined to a small number of specialised lenders and borrowers in a limited number of jurisdictions. As the techniques for securitisation became more widespread and investor demand increased, new structures were developed. Increasingly diverse asset types have been successfully securitised — from residential mortgages to trade receivables and credit cards — and a variety of entities seeking to raise finance by way of securitisation have entered the market, from consumer lenders to utility companies. There are also particular types of securitisation that have their own specific structures and terminology that are beyond the scope of this chapter, e.g., Collateralised Loan Obligations (CLOs).

Terminology and basic structures

Like many esoteric markets, securitisation has its own jargon. Thus, the word “asset”, which is used by asset finance specialists to denote a physical piece of equipment, is employed by securitisation practitioners in the sense of a financial asset or debt owed to a creditor. The main international accounting/financial reporting standards refer to a financial asset as including:

- any asset that is: (a) cash; (b) an equity instrument of another entity; (c) a contractual right: (i) to receive cash or another financial asset from another entity; or (ii) to exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another entity under conditions that are potentially favourable to the entity.

Typically, a securitisation transaction will concern contractual rights to receive cash or another financial asset, i.e., receivables.

The parties to a securitisation transaction will be referred to in accordance with their role in the transaction. The entity seeking to raise the finance provided by a securitisation structure is typically referred to as the originator because that entity normally generates the financial assets to be securitised ("Originator"). An administrator or servicer will also be appointed (who is often the Originator, but is not necessarily the same party) to provide ongoing servicing of the securitised assets in accordance with specifically agreed credit, collection and arrears policies. Typically, although this is not always the case, the assets will be sold, or the risks associated with the assets will be transferred, to a special purpose entity (SPE) established for the purposes of the securitisation transaction. The SPE will purchase, or have transferred to it, the risks associated with the assets against which the securitised financing is being raised. Establishing the SPE is an important part of the securitisation process, especially if the financing being raised is to be rated by one or more of the internationally recognised rating agencies, because the SPE will be required to satisfy numerous criteria in terms of restrictions on its operation, likely levels of tax and independence (in terms of ownership/shareholding) from the Originator and/or its group.

The SPE usually provides finance to the Originator by way of a purchase price in respect of the securitised assets. As part of the securitisation structure, funding will be provided to the SPE usually by the issue of debt securities of some description (or sometimes by way of a loan). In this way, the assets are turned from illiquid non-tradable assets belonging to the Originator into tradable securities — hence the term “securitisation”.

Figure 1 shows the aspects of a simplified typical securitisation structure in diagrammatic form.

Methods of transfer

The essence of traditional securitisation transactions (as opposed to synthetic transactions) is that the assets against which the finance is to be raised are effectively isolated from the ownership of (and thus the credit of) the Originator who sells/ transfers them to the SPE. Typically, this requires a true sale analysis to be carried out in relation to the way in which it is proposed that the assets be transferred. It is important to note that this is not only a legal issue because the requirements for a recognisable legal transfer of the assets are also prerequisites for appropriate accounting treatment; regulatory capital treatment, including central bank and supra-national support schemes; and frequently relevant tax arrangements, all of which are considered below.

Traditional securitisations

As mentioned above, at the heart of a traditionally structured securitisation transaction will be the transfer or true sale of the assets being used by the Originator to raise the finance. The consequences of failing to comply with the relevant jurisdictional rules relating to what is required for a true sale vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, but in many cases the risk of a proposed sale that fails in form or substance to comply with what is required is that the transaction will be recharacterised as an unsecured loan that may not be enforceable against certain third parties for lack of registration. Accordingly, the legal analysis for sale treatment is of paramount importance. Again, typically most legal regimes' requirements either relate to the form taken by the transaction documents (e.g., whether they are expressed to be sale documents) or the substance (i.e., whether the transaction is consistent with a sale on closer analysis). In many jurisdictions, specified forms of wording are required in order to effect a sale/ transfer, depending upon the asset type and the terms of the underlying contract that has given rise to the rights relating to the asset. In addition, in some jurisdictions,
INTRODUCTION TO SECURITISATION

Servicing the assets/due diligence

In most jurisdictions, the ability of an Originator to identify receivables with payment flows in its accounting systems is an important factor influencing whether/how the receivables can legally be sold. Put simply, if the receivables cannot be identified so as to be properly specified in a contract of sale, most legal systems would regard the sale contract as insufficiently certain as to subject matter. The due diligence carried out by arrangers in structuring a securitisation transaction will normally determine whether this is likely to be a concern. Structures such as undivided interest arrangements (essentially “whole pool” sales) are designed to alleviate this problem, allowing for a securitisation of an Originator’s assets, even if the systems do not allow “tagging” (that is, identification of receivables and associated payments) within the records maintained by the Originator.

Legal due diligence in relation to the contracts giving rise to the receivables will concentrate upon the legal form of the various contracts. Thus, in a securitisation involving mortgages, all of the mortgage terms and conditions, the associated security and collateral arrangements will be examined. In some instances (such as consumer loan contracts), applicable legislation may provide a specific format for the contracts and prescribe penalties for a contract’s failure to comply with the rules. In many jurisdictions, a breach of the relevant consumer credit laws and/or regulations may mean that the underlying contractual terms are rendered unenforceable, or enforceable only with leave of the court. Other legal issues that may have a significant bearing on how the transaction is structured include the governing law of the underlying receivables contracts (which may be different from the law of the jurisdiction of incorporation of the Originator), the ability/fairness of provisions penalising or prohibiting the assignment of the rights under the receivables contracts as well as set-off rights and data protection provisions.

As important as the legal due diligence exercise is the financial due diligence, which will concentrate upon the credit, collection and arrears policies of the servicer who will be appointed to service the portfolio of assets sold to the SPE purchaser. In order to determine the level of credit (and, therefore the amount of financing that can be provided), the performance of the receivables (in terms of time of collection, recovery rate, etc.) must be ascertained. Ideally, the Originator will have comprehensive records and systems available for this purpose. The procedures underpinning the way in which the underlying receivables are originated will be analysed, so for example, in a mortgage-backed transaction, the way in which credit checks are carried out in relation to a customer seeking a mortgage will be verified, as well as the way such information is gathered, processed and stored. In addition, the collection process of the Originator/servicer — payment methods, account arrangements, etc. — will all be reviewed and will form the basis of the documented agreed collection and servicing procedures to be carried out by the servicer for the SPE. In order to ensure ongoing compliance and to allow monitoring of the performance of the portfolio, the due diligence will also be used to design a reporting framework on key data pertinent to the receivables. This will also drive the calculation of any covenant ratios in the legal documentation drafted for the transaction.

In some jurisdictions there are different types of sale (e.g., legal or equitable sales and sales under particular statutory regimes), and it is important to consider exactly if, how and when debtors and other parties are notified of the sale and security arrangements. Each section included in this guide provides an overview of some of these issues as they relate to each relevant jurisdiction.

Even if the terms of the contracts giving rise to the receivables that are the subject of the securitisation permit the sale/transfer of the rights (and often significant due diligence may be required to establish this), the legal work will not stop at the true sale analysis referred to above. Most jurisdictions will also have a number of clawback or unwind risks — normally tied to the insolvency of the Originator — under which a sale can be unwound or reversed if the transaction breached certain rules relating to the fair treatment of creditors to an Originator on the onset of insolvency. Thus, if the amount of the purchase price for the assets is too low or there is deemed to be an intention to prefer creditors, the transaction could be voided. Legitimate investors/lenders of the securitised debt as unsecured creditors in the insolvency of the Originator. For the above reasons, the provision of a true sale legal opinion by relevant legal counsel is typically expected in a securitisation transaction and requires a considerable amount of work to prepare, as the opinion will need to provide an analysis of both the sale/transfer arrangements, as well as a detailed analysis of applicable insolvency legislation.

Synthetic securitisations

In a synthetic securitisation, there is no initial sale or transfer of the underlying assets. Instead, there will be a contractual arrangement between the Originator and the SPE, which may take the form of a participation, a credit default swap or credit-linked note, pursuant to which the economic risk associated with ownership of the assets is transferred contractually by the Originator to the SPE. It is important to recognise that the synthetic structure may not be ideal for all types of asset or Originator and may not allow for the relevant Originator to derecognise those assets from an accounting perspective. In particular, the contractual counterparty, such as the SPE, takes full contractual, and therefore, credit risk on the Originator. Since the risk of the assets has not been isolated from the Originator, the relevant counterparty will take both the credit risk associated with the assets’ performance and also that of the Originator. Therefore, synthetic securitisations have typically been used by more highly rated Originators (such as rated banks and investment firms) and involve carefully structured SPEs.

mere compliance with the formalities is not sufficient to satisfy a thorough legal analysis that a sale has been completed and additional features of the transaction must also be considered in this context. Issues that may affect true sale analysis include:

- recourse arrangements under which the Originator is required to indemnify/buy back the assets if they default or fail to perform
- the way in which the purchase price is paid, for example, whether there are discount/interest components
- excess over-collateralisation
- payments in respect of purchased assets not being made into the correct accounts

In some jurisdictions there are different types of sale (e.g., legal or equitable sales and sales under particular statutory regimes), and it is important to consider exactly how and when debtors and other parties are notified of the sale and security arrangements. Each section included in this guide provides an overview of some of these issues as they relate to each relevant jurisdiction.

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Financing techniques

There are a number of different financial structuring techniques that may be used as part of a securitisation transaction structure. Although the market’s most visible method is the issuance of listed, rated debt securities, there are a number of types of financing techniques used in both traditional and synthetic securitisation structures that each have features to recommend them according to particular circumstances. Some common financing techniques are examined below.

Bank loan funding

The funding of a securitisation transaction with a bank loan is sometimes referred to as warehousing, particularly when the finance is being provided to a structure that is being used to build up a portfolio of high quality receivables prior to an issue of debt securities backed by the pool of receivables once the pool has grown in size. The benefit of bank market/loan funding is primarily that the loan terms can be quite specific and flexible for all parties. Since the loan will normally be made either by a single bank or a small syndicate of banks (depending upon the size of the portfolio of assets being securitised), the covenants, representations and events of default can all be tailored to the parties’ requirements, and amendments to the terms of the financing documents can be made fairly easily and without reference to large numbers of external bodies/third parties. The Originator, in turn, can obtain all of the benefits of a securitisation (such as beneficial accounting treatment and limited recourse funding) without the complications of a debt issuance programme while the banks obtain an excellent rate of return linked to assets of proven credit quality. However, bank funding is normally not provided at the sort of competitive rates that are obtainable using other financing techniques, and so the use of this funding method tends to be confined to specialised deals or, as mentioned above, warehousing schemes tied to issuance programmes.

The disadvantages of bank funding are typically cost related. Since banks will expect to recover all of their own cost of funding, the terms of bank loan documentation will typically pass on to the borrower (the SPE and ultimately, therefore, represent a cost to the transaction as a whole, together with capital adequacy and reserve costs where relevant. Accordingly all increased costs and taxes will have to be met from the transaction payments. By contrast, because investors in asset-backed securities are investing in existing tradable securities, typical bond terms will not provide for payment or a combination of both) is competitively priced. The ABCP issuer will issue commercial paper notes and then purchase, on-lend or otherwise use the proceeds of the issuance to finance the assets of the Originator looking to raise securitised funding. In most cases, an Originator will be taking advantage of an ABCP programme that is already in existence, having been established by a sponsor well before the transaction specific to the Originator. What this means is that the private placement memorandum, relied upon by investors interested in purchasing the commercial paper notes, the dealer agreements and conduit management arrangements will all already be in place, leaving only the terms of the specific financing arrangement to be determined. Although this method of financing has a great deal to recommend it in terms of speed of execution and flexibility, there are a number of additional features common to most ABCP conduit programmes that add some complications to the structure.

In the first place, because commercial paper is usually short-term, the type of asset more naturally suited to this form of financing is also short-term; thus trade receivables (i.e., invoices issued to customers relating to the supply of goods or services with payment terms of a few months, creating non-interest bearing debts owed to the Originator) have a tenor that is ideal for a financing involving equally short-term flexible note issuances. Residential mortgages, which are typically far longer in term, are much less suited, although with revolving issuance structures it is possible to finance them using an ABCP-funded transaction structure.

Currency mismatches may also need to be addressed. Although the euro-based asset-backed commercial paper (Euro ECP) market is gradually increasing in size, the largest market is the US dollar denominated US Commercial Paper (USCP) market. Originators taking advantage of the USCP market will also normally need to pay for the associated foreign exchange costs if they are raising finance in a currency other than US dollars. Fortunately, most ABCP programmes already have existing foreign exchange lines available, but the incremental cost of foreign exchange will be incorporated into the overall costs of financing passed on to the Originator (but typically paid for out of the allocated collections from the payments made in respect of the receivables). A further additional cost to the transaction, which will again ultimately be borne by the Originator (but paid out of such collections), is the provision of a dedicated liquidity facility. This is important to ensure that commercial paper noteholders are repaid amounts due to them on a timely basis.

Debt securities

As mentioned elsewhere in this chapter, by far the most visible method of providing financing to a securitisation transaction is the issuance of debt securities. The debt securities, which are normally issued by the SPE purchaser and secured on the purchased assets, are typically listed on a recognised stock exchange and often are assigned a rating, or more commonly a series of ratings attributable to a variety of...
tranche notes. The legal work involved in an issue of asset-backed securities tends to be more extensive than for the transaction types thus far discussed, chiefly because of the amount of work involved in putting together the disclosure document that will be required in order for the debt securities to be admitted to trading on a recognised stock exchange. By contrast to the more flexible, less formal loan or ABCP funding, the terms and conditions of listed debt securities must be finalised and fixed so that all likely investors in the instruments know exactly what those terms are. The rules set by the relevant stock exchanges in accordance with the various listing rules and laws relating to disclosure specify the type and detailed level of the information that will be required in order to permit potential investors to make a fair and full assessment of the material features of the transaction so as to be able to make the decision on whether the investment should be made. Although there are a number of asset-backed debt issuance programmes and master trust structures in existence, the more common approach to date has been to document each issue of asset-backed securities separately (i.e., on a standalone basis). Since the offering document or prospectus for the asset-backed securities will also be required to contain a substantial amount of information about all of the material documents relating to the securitisation transaction, as well as descriptions of all the parties involved and the assets which are providing the credit for the transaction, the offering document tends to become very large (often running to several hundred pages). The careful examination of all of the information contained in the offering materials is essential to ensure compliance with relevant rules on disclosure (such as under Regulation EU 2017/1129 (“Prospectus Regulation”) in the EU, the Financial Services and Markets Act 2000 (FSMA) in the UK and the US Securities Act of 1933 in the US). There are significant penalties and liabilities associated with the breach by a responsible party of the duty to prepare an offering document and/or to disclose material information to an issue.

The issue of debt securities to fund securitisation transactions remains a frequently adopted method for a number of reasons. First, the debt securities are constituted so as to be in a tradable form with an acceptable rating (see below), with which many capital markets investors are familiar, and cleared and settled through recognised clearing systems. In addition, asset-backed securities tend to be attractively priced, in that their complexity tends to command a premium over the typical margin for ordinary debt securities of a comparable credit quality. The investors in capital markets instruments are well used to seeing debt securities with long-dated maturities, which means that assets (such as mortgages) with longer terms can properly be funded to term and there is likely to be less concern with respect to the refinancing risk that arises where short-term financing is put into place to cover long-dated assets. Finally, delining the credit profile of the asset pool from the credit profile of the Originator coupled with robust due diligence on the asset pool, structural bankruptcy-remoteness and credit enhancement features embedded in these transactions (as described below) allows investors to gain exposure to debt securities with improved credit quality.

Increasingly the securitisation market has developed to include many bespoke, private and unrated and/or unlisted deals. These often have a similar structure to securitisations funded by public issuance of debt securities and use similar technology and terminology but are often structured to meet transaction or party-specific requirements.

Funding costs

Common to all securitisation transactions, since the object of the exercise for all is the raising of finance, is the fact that built in to the financing arrangement will be a financing cost, interest rate, commitment fee and overall cost of funding that will need to be repaid. Since the essence of a securitisation is that the assets provide the source of repayment for the funding raised, the relevant interest/financing charges will normally be paid/repaid out of collections relating to the securitised assets; typically, these costs will be the first costs/expenses to be met from the collections. The payments to be made during the life of the transaction will be organised into a priority of payments referred to as the waterfall, which will determine the order in which they are to be met on an ongoing basis.

The type of cost to be met will depend upon the funding method being used for the transaction in question. Equally, the method of covering the cost or ensuring sufficient funds are available to pay the finance charge will vary depending upon the type of asset being financed by way of the securitisation. Although asset types and their terms vary considerably, for present purposes it is useful to draw a distinction between two categories, into which most will fall, namely interest-bearing and non-interest-bearing assets. For example, trade receivables generally tend to be non-interest bearing, whereas most residential mortgages will require the borrower to pay interest based upon the principal amount of the mortgage loan. Accordingly, in most trade receivables transactions, the interest/finance charges applicable (which, for example, may be the discounted amount of maturing commercial paper plus the applicable commitment fee for the liquidity facility being provided together with relevant foreign exchange amounts) will be provided for by incorporating a non-returnable discount in the purchase price paid for the receivables.

Figure 2 shows purchase price components in a trade receivables transaction.
Over-collateralisation, or credit enhancement, is often provided by way of a retention to the full value of the receivable as well (see “Credit enhancement” below).

In a mortgage-backed transaction, however, the interest/finance charge (such as the interest rate payable on the listed, rated notes issued to provide the funding) will normally be provided for by virtue of the interest payments being received by the purchaser SPE in relation to the underlying mortgage loans, although if the basis on which the interest is charged is different from the basis of interest applicable to the debt securities, a swap or other financial instrument or reserve may be required to ensure that the interest costs investors are expecting will always be met.

Credit enhancement

Reference has been made throughout this chapter to the fact that securitisation transactions rely on the credit quality of the assets being securitised as opposed to the credit quality of the Originator itself. Despite the fact that the credit quality of a portfolio of diverse assets can be very high, it is highly unusual for the assets, without anything further, to be of sufficiently high credit quality to support a highly rated debt securities issue or investor requirements for unrated securities. Therefore, in most securitisation transactions, it is essential to design the legal and financial structure so as to accommodate additional financial support to the transaction to permit the desired rating to be achieved for the financing. This financial support is usually referred to as credit enhancement. Credit enhancement can be provided to a transaction in a multitude of different ways, always with the same goal. Support can be built into the assets, or provided specifically to the funding side of the transaction. Thus in a trade receivables transaction, a retention, assessed as the likely default rates of the portfolio, will typically be made from the financing amount or purchase price (see figure 2 above), often referred to as over-collateralisation, because the result is, in effect, that the finance raised will be secured over its principal amount — in a similar way to a traditional loan-to-value ratio calculation.

This result may also be achieved by paying the full face amount for the receivables being securitised (with no over-collateralisation) but additionally providing for a subordinated loan, or fund, or deposit of cash (sometimes referred to as a ‘reserve’) to be made available to the SPE purchaser in the event that defaults on the underlying receivables would otherwise prevent principal payment being made when due in accordance with the funding instruments. Guarantee letters of credit and even credit default swaps provided in each case by counterparties of sufficient credit quality have all been used to enhance the credit of securitisation transactions. Sometimes excess spread (or amounts of interest payable on the receivables in excess of amounts required to pay the finance charges) is used or “trapped” to build up a cash reserve, which in turn is used as credit enhancement. In each such case, the legal form of each of the agreements must be carefully documented and analysed — in some jurisdictions for example, over-collateralisation is not permitted or is fatal to the true sale analysis (see above). Some legal regimes may not recognise the concept of subordination, and the ability of a counterparty to provide the sort of facility required will also need to be carefully checked.

Liquidity facilities

Many securitisation transactions will involve the provision of a liquidity facility to the SPE in the transaction. Liquidity facilities, as distinct from credit enhancement facilities, are provided to cover the shortfalls arising from delays in payments under the assets, which if not covered, would mean that payments could not be made under the securitisation financing. A liquidity facility, provided by an appropriately rated bank is thus often made available for drawdown by the SPE/issuers if such shortfalls have arisen.

Rating securitisation structures

Issues of asset-backed securities are frequently rated by one or more of the internationally recognised credit rating agencies. Effectively a rating (which can be either short-term or long-term), when issued, is an assessment by the relevant rating agency of the likelihood that the debt in respect of which the rating is sought will pay out in full and in a timely manner in accordance with the terms of the obligation. A short-term rating will be given to debt which is outstanding for less than one year, whereas a long-term rating applies to all debt sought to be rated in excess of one year.

The reason why a large number of arrangers of securitisation transactions seek a rating for an issue is that a rating typically significantly increases the potential pool of investors and impacts on pricing, and, more recently, may well be a pre-requisite to satisfying internal investment policy requirement or to including a transaction in a central bank support facility. A great deal of specific legal and other structural issues arise in the context of the obtaining of a rating, but these are beyond the scope of this chapter. However, most of the larger agencies have published papers or criteria explaining what is expected in relation to a transaction structure if a rating is sought.

Failure to comply with rating agency criteria will mean that the issue will be rated lower than the level anticipated or not rated at all. Each of the agencies adopts a grading or notation system that ranges from an extremely high likelihood of full repayment of principal and interest, through to the lowest common level acceptable to an investor, which is commonly referred to as investment grade, and continues through the credit spectrum down to default. The grades (or notations) for long-term and short-term ratings can be correlated but are not exactly matched. The rating agency (or agencies) involved in rating a transaction will (or should) be drawn into the transaction process at an early stage and frequent drafts of the documentation will be circulated to the rating agency analysts. As a robust legal structure is always a prerequisite to the provision of any rating, the rating agencies will expect to see the legal opinion provided by counsel addressing the structure, true sale and insolvency issues to a particular standard, hence the need for legal counsel appointed to assist on the transaction to be familiar with the detailed rating requirements for securitisation transactions.

Accounting for securitisation transactions

It is beyond the scope of this chapter to provide a full review of all of the current accounting standards relevant to securitisation transactions, and in any event, accountancy firms specialise in the provision of relevant accounting advice to parties to such transactions. Often Originators entering into a securitisation transaction are seeking particular accounting treatment under applicable standards and, therefore, will need to structure the transaction accordingly.
Tax issues in securitisation

Tax issues feature prominently in all securitisation transactions. The transfer of the assets by the Originator may attract tax, there may be documentary levies (such as stamp taxes) imposed on the instrument transferring the assets and all of the payments associated with the securitisation transaction will need to be examined from (at the very least) the Originator’s, the SPE’s and the investors’ perspective. Where different jurisdictions are involved (for example, where the Originator and the SPE are incorporated in different jurisdictions), it will be necessary to consider the effect of cross-border payments and the impact of tax treaties may also need to be considered.

A detailed analysis of specific tax issues for every type of securitisation transaction is beyond the scope of this chapter, so what is set out below is a list of some of the tax considerations commonly encountered in most securitisation transactions. The aim in most transactions is, of course, not to increase the amount of tax payable by the Originator above the level it already pays; this is often referred to as preserving “tax neutrality”.

Transfer taxes

In some jurisdictions, a tax is levied on the instrument of transfer. Payment of the tax may afford better ownership protection and non-payment may prevent the enforcement of the sale by the transferee. Depending upon the level of cost and likely consequence of failure to pay the tax, it may be necessary to provide a reserve fund to be used for the payment of the tax at enforcement, which at the very least will impose an additional cost on the transaction.

Withholding taxes

Withholding taxes are essentially taxes imposed by a fiscal authority upon the payer of an amount to a payee that represents the fiscal authority’s assessment of the tax liability on the profit made by the payee, i.e., the recipient of the payment. Withholding taxes are particularly an issue in relation to cross-border payments. Since there will be a number of payments made in accordance with a securitisation transaction, each will need to be assessed to determine whether a withholding tax will be imposed. Thus, if an Originator sells interest-bearing assets to an SPE, it will be essential to ensure that the redirection of the interest referable to the assets from the Originator as recipient to the SPE as new owner of the assets will not result in any (or any additional) withholding taxes. In turn, all of the payments made by the SPE by way of interest (for example to bondholders/investors or banks providing liquidity or credit enhancement facilities) should also not result in withholding taxes. Many jurisdictions provide for specific exemptions for payments made under recognised debt securities that are listed on a recognised stock exchange and where payments are made to recognised banks already subject to tax in the relevant jurisdiction. Experienced legal and tax counsel are normally needed to assist in the initial structuring of the transaction to ensure that no unplanned withholding taxes are present in the proposed structure.

Taxes on profit

Where the transaction is structured as a sale of the assets, and depending on the asset type, some jurisdictions will assess the sale proceeds received by the Originator as pure profit and impose tax on the whole amount, unless the asset transfer arrangements are carefully structured. It will also be imperative to ensure that the SPE can match its income and expenditure, i.e., the relevant fiscal authority will permit the finance costs to be deducted so as to ensure that the SPE itself makes little or no profit. If the payments to be made by the SPE are not allowed to be deductible from its receipts, then the SPE will be assumed to have made a larger profit and be liable to additional tax, for which it will not have the resources with which to pay. At best, added tax will be a cost to the transaction. At worst, the SPE will be technically insolvent and the transaction’s rating will be at risk. In many jurisdictions, the corporation tax treatment of certain SPEs has been addressed by specific tax legislation and/or regulations intended to apply to securitisation transactions so that if the relevant SPE falls within the strict parameters set by these regulations, the tax treatment can be assessed with a fair degree of certainty.

Supply taxes

Where an Originator is selling assets that are originated as a result of the supply of goods or services (as is the case with most trade receivables), many jurisdictions levy upon the Originator value added or supply taxes. Some assets are specifically exempt from these taxes, but where they apply, an Originator may be entitled to reclaim all or part of the tax paid if the debtor defaults on payment. In the securitisation context, this can prove a major issue because, in respect of debtors who default in relation to assets that have been sold to the SPE, the Originator may no longer be able to reclaim the tax relief (often referred to as bad debt relief) as it is no longer the owner of the asset. Since a pre-existing agreement between the Originator and the SPE to resell defaulted debts may affect the true sale treatment, legal and tax counsel will need to structure the transaction carefully to mitigate against the impact of the lost tax relief.

Regulatory issues in securitisation

As set out in a separate section of this guide, there have been a number of recent developments in EU regulation of securitisation transactions and for market participants in the US or various other countries, different regulatory regimes will apply. For multi-jurisdictional transactions, often multiple regulatory regimes will apply for different purposes and transactions may be classified in different ways for different purposes. It is important to establish the relevant regulatory considerations early on in structuring a transaction so that the transaction can be structured appropriately and efficiently.

For further information, please contact your usual Baker McKenzie contact or any of the contacts set out at the end of this guide.
The Securitisation Regulation
Background

The European regulatory regime for securitisation has undergone significant change following the entry into force of the Regulation (EU) 2017/2402 (“Regulation”) on 1 January 2019.

There are two key changes within the European securitisation market as a result of the Regulation:

- a new harmonised securitisation regime that is applicable to all institutional investors (including UCITS and pension funds) across the EU. As a result, many of the existing securitisation rules and provisions relating to risk retention, due diligence and transparency have been repealed and replaced by the new regime.
- the introduction of a specific regulatory framework for ‘simple, transparent and standardised’ securitisation (STS)

In addition, the Regulation introduces consequential amendments to related, sectoral pieces of legislation and creates a system to ensure compliance with the framework (and related sanctions for failure to do so).

The Regulation applies to all securitisations issued on or after 1 January 2019. Pre-existing securitisations are grandfathered and will only be subject to the Regulation if new securities are subsequently issued or a new position is created in that transaction, although there is considerable debate in the market as to what might trigger the creation of a new position.

The framework

The legislative framework comprises the Regulation and the Regulation Amending the Capital Requirements Regulation (CRR), accompanied by numerous Regulatory Technical Standards (RTS), Implementing Technical Standards (ITS) and guidance. Importantly, as at the date of publication of this guide (June 2019), the majority of the Level 2 legislation (the RTS/ITS) has not been adopted, including the final rules governing transparency and risk retention.

The Regulation Amending the CRR primarily sets out the revised regulatory capital treatment for certain bank investors in securitisation transactions. In addition, it sets out some additional criteria to be met by STS transactions in order to qualify for beneficial risk-weighting (10% as opposed to 15%) for those bank investors.

Application: What is a securitisation?

The Regulation applies to securitisations. For the purposes of the Regulation, securitisation is defined as a transaction or scheme whereby (a) the credit risk associated with an exposure or a pool of exposures is tranched and (b) the transaction features each of the following characteristics:

- Payments in the transaction or scheme are dependent upon the performance of the exposure or the pool of exposures. In other words, there should be a credit risk attributable to the pool of underlying exposures.

- The subordination of tranches determines the distribution of losses during the ongoing life of the transaction or scheme. The definition of tranche within the Regulation is not entirely clear. However, the commonly held view is that tranching must be contractual, it must be done at the transaction level (as opposed to the investor level) and must come from an assumption of risk that is either more junior or senior than another tranche. As a consequence, the junior tranche(s) are more likely to suffer losses, while the senior tranche(s) continue to perform. Tranching may occur through the use of subordinated notes, subordinated loans or the payment of a deferred purchase price.

- The transaction or scheme does not create lending exposures as defined in Article 147(8) of Regulation (EU) 575/2013. This would exclude financings of physical assets, such as aircraft finance.

Whilst all securitisations (as defined) are in scope, the Regulation is clear that re-securitisations are out of scope. In fact, they are banned entirely except in limited circumstances where there is a legitimate purpose for the re-securitisation.

Application: Who is caught?

If a transaction meets the definition of securitisation, certain key transaction parties will have obligations under the Regulation. These are:

- Originator - the Originator is the entity that is either directly or indirectly involved in the original creation of the asset, or an entity that acquired the asset for its own account and then securitised it.

- Sponsor - the sponsor is an entity that sets up and manages a securitisation but does not actually securitise its own assets. Typically, this will be the sponsor of an ABCP conduit or collateral managers of CLOs.

- Issuer - the issuing vehicle (typically a special purpose vehicle) through whom the tranching of debt has been created. In the parlance of the Regulation, the issuer is referred to as the securitisation special purpose entity (SSPE). The SSPE must meet certain requirements regarding taxation, anti-money laundering and transparency if not established in the EU.

- Institutional investors - entities who meet the definition of an institutional investor are subject to the due diligence rules under the Regulation and must carry out their own checks that the transaction complies with the provisions of the Regulation (see further below). The Regulation has also significantly expanded the scope of investors who are caught by these due diligence requirements; in addition to EU-regulated banks (including investment firms), EU-regulated insurers (including reinsurers) and alternative investment fund managers (AIFMs) either established in the EU or with a full EU passport, the Regulation captures UCITS funds, EU pension funds and non-EU AIFMs.

Inevitably, given that the Regulation is EU-focused, questions arise as to the jurisdictional nexus of each of these key parties. There are important (and unresolved) issues as to how the rules apply to non-EU branches and subsidiaries of EU entities and, in a post-Brexit world, UK entities (although the UK has passed legislation clarifying some of these issues. Please refer to the chapter on England).
Moreover, for STS transactions, the Regulation requires each of the Originator, sponsor and SSPE to be located in the EU.

**Grandfathering**

Transactions issued prior to 1 January 2019 will remain subject to the existing rules under the CRR, AIFM Directive (Directive 2011/61/EU) and Solvency II Directive (Directive 2009/138/EC) (as applicable) unless an existing transaction issues new securities or creates a new securitisation position after 1 January 2019.

Crucially, this means that existing transactions that closed prior to 1 January 2019 but issue new securities after that date (such as master trusts or ABCP conduits) may well be subject to the general provisions of the Regulation, which would inevitably require amendments to the underlying transaction documents to ensure full compliance.

It also means careful consideration of proposed amendments to pre-1 January 2019 transactions, to ensure any amendment does not add new exposures or create a new securitisation position.

**Rules for all securitisations**

The general framework applies to all securitisations, not just those for which the designation of STS is sought. There are four key categories of obligations set out in the Regulation:

- **Risk-retention**: The 5% level of risk-retention, as well as the various retention methods, remain largely unchanged under the Regulation’s general framework. However, in addition to the existing indirect method of risk retention (which requires investors to ensure the retention obligation is met prior to investing), there is a new, direct obligation on the Originator, sponsor or original lender to retain. A more explicit statement as to how retention is also required: the parties must agree who will hold the retention (with the Originator being the fall-back retainer in the absence of agreement).

A new sole purpose test explicitly rules out entities with no real substance (with subjective tests to establish this) from holding the retention, and a change in the retaining entity is allowed under the Regulation in certain circumstances.

- **Transparency**: The Regulation significantly extends the disclosure and ongoing reporting requirements. In particular, disclosure obligations have been widened and extended to private securitisations (such as ABCP conduits and transactions), in addition to public deals. It is commonly accepted that the factor determining whether a transaction is a public or private transaction is the listing location; notes issued on a regulated market will be considered public, whereas notes issued on an unregulated market (even one as commonly used as the Irish Stock Exchange’s Global Exchange Market) are considered private. The obligations set out in the draft RTS are sufficiently onerous to consume the additional disclosure obligations found in the Prospectus Regulation and Transparency Directive.

Unfortunately, there are a number of outstanding questions relating to disclosure and transparency as the technical standards and guidelines have not yet entered into force. However, with the relevant RTS now in a form that the market perceives to be final, many entities have started to report in line with the draft requirements to the extent they are able to do so.

- **Due diligence**: Institutional investor due diligence requirements remain largely unchanged but are brought together in one place.

- **Credit granting**: The Regulation includes credit-granting criteria, requiring Originators, sponsors and original lenders to apply the same sound and well defined criteria relating to securitised exposures as they apply to non-securitised exposures. Going forward, these parties need to have clearly established processes and systems for the approval, amendment, renewal and refinancing of loans, thereby ensuring that the credit granted is based on a thorough assessment of the relevant obligor’s credit-worthiness.

**Optional** framework for **Simple, Transparent Standardised (STS) securitisation**

Both term securitisation and ABCP transactions can achieve STS status if they meet high standards of simplicity, transparency and standardisation.

The STS framework comprises over 50 individual criteria for traditional deals and almost 100 individual criteria for ABCP transactions and programmes. It is important to note that certain of the STS criteria must have been met at the date of issuance, and others must be met as at the date of notification of the deal’s STS status.

Many of these criteria go beyond purely technical, legal amendments to transaction documentation and require practical compliance in terms of Originator policy, homogeneity of the underlying assets, etc.

In order to achieve STS status:

- The transaction must meet the appropriate (and detailed) criteria relating to simplicity, transparency and standardisation.

- The Originator and sponsor must notify ESMA that the transaction meets the STS requirements.

- The transaction must have been added to the list of STS transactions maintained by ESMA on its website.

To assist market participants, ESMA has provided for an optional process whereby authorised third parties can attest to the satisfaction of the STS criteria. Independent bodies such as PCS and TSI are now authorised third-party verification agents, assisting Originators, sponsors and original lenders in determining whether the STS criteria has in fact been met. Importantly, the fact a transaction has been reviewed by a verification agent will not absolve the principal parties from making STS assertions that turn out to be false. It will, nonetheless, be a helpful argument that those parties have, in good faith, endeavoured to check the relevant transaction qualifies.
Transactions that meet the STS requirements do not need to be new transactions brought to the market after 1 January 2019. It is possible for an existing deal to comply, although some amendment of the underlying documents would be inevitable.

**Conclusion**

On 1 January 2019, the Regulation caused the biggest legal shake-up the European securitisation market has seen. Until such time as all the final RTS and ITS have been adopted, there will inevitably be questions and uncertainty regarding the scope of certain provisions. In the same way that market consensus has built around key interpretive issues such as the geographical scope of the Regulation, treatment of branches and exactly what constitutes a private transaction, it is expected that the markets will also forge a consensus around questions arising from the draft RTS and ITS. There has been a flurry of transactions brought to market in the last 12 months, including a number of STS transactions. The history of securitisation has shown that securitisation is a resilient funding source — the reaction of the market to the new Regulation and to the challenges posed by COVID-19 certainly bears this out.

If you have any questions on the Regulation and how it may affect any of your transactions or proposed structures, please contact your usual Baker McKenzie contact or any of the contacts set out at the end of this guide.
Legal framework

There is no specific legislative framework for securitisation; however, securitisation transactions may be captured by various laws, regulations and authorities depending on the nature of the participants or underlying receivables contracts. There is a specific framework for covered bonds, which are regulated under Division 3A of Part II of the Banking Act 1959 (Cth) (“Banking Act”).

The main regulator of relevance to securitisation activities is the Australian Securities and Investments Commission (ASIC), which governs:

- issuances of securities
- Australian financial services licences (AFSL), which are required to deal in financial products or provide financial services and therefore necessary for certain roles or activities in securitisation transactions (e.g., trustees and managers)
- conduct of corporations and compliance with the Corporations Act 2001 (Cth) (“Corporations Act”), which is relevant because parties to securitisation transactions are predominantly corporations
- foreign companies, which may be required to register with ASIC in circumstances where their activities, including securitisation, amount to “carrying on business in Australia”

The Australian Prudential Regulation Authority (“APRA”) is responsible for regulating prudential standards and Australian Prudential Standard 120 - Securitisation (“APS 120”) applies to securitisations that involve authorised deposit taking institutions (“ADIs”). APS 120 aims to ensure that ADIs appropriately manage securitisation risks, and ensure sufficient capital is held against the associated credit risk. It requires that ADIs involved in securitisation activities:

- give a risk management framework covering its involvement in a securitisation
- ensure there is clear and prominent disclosure of the nature and limitations of its obligations arising from its involvement in a securitisation
- do not provide implicit support to a securitisation
- calculate regulatory capital for credit risk against its securitisation exposures

Many entities involved in securitisation escape regulation by APRA because they do not take deposits and are therefore excluded from the definition of “banking business”.

General laws may impact securitisation transactions in a number of ways, including:

- There are ongoing disclosure and reporting requirements under the Corporations Act where securities are not issued to professional investors in minimum subscription amounts of AUD 500,000 (although this is infrequent, with most Australian securitisations being to institutional investors and through wholesale transactions).
- Security interests in personal property are governed by the Personal Property Securities Act 2009 (Cth) (PPSA), which requires registration of security interests on the Personal Property Securities Register.
- Various tax legislation (and potentially multiple regimes) will apply depending on the chosen structure and nature of the underlying assets (e.g., stamp duty).
- Relevant state or territory trust legislation will apply where a trust structure is used (as is generally the case).
- Certain consumer lender providers will be subject to the National Consumer Credit Protection Act 2009 (Cth). An originator may be required to obtain an Australian credit licence (ACL) where underlying receivables contracts involve credit activities (although exemptions do apply for specific securitisation entities).
- A servicer will require an ACL where exercising the rights and obligations of a credit provider and an AFSL where the underlying receivables contracts involve regulated financial services (e.g., insurance or margin loans).
- Priority of payment in a waterfall context may be affected by Australian laws that cannot be contracted out of (e.g., liquidators’ rights to remuneration ahead of secured creditors and employee entitlements).
- Consumer protections, including false and misleading representations and misleading and deceptive conduct set out in the Australian Competition and Consumer Act 2010 (Cth), may apply depending on the nature of the parties involved in the transaction.
- There are registration requirements for exchange listing (e.g., Australian Securities Exchange (ASX) listing rules) or trading through a clearing system.
- Consumer due diligence and reporting of suspicious matters is required under the Anti-Money Laundering and Counter-Terrorism Financing Act 2006 (Cth).
- The collection, use and disclosure of personal information must comply with the Privacy Act 1988 (Cth), which sets out data breach notification requirements and specific restrictions for credit information (a concurrent equitable duty of confidentiality may also apply).

Common securitisation transaction structures

There are no specific laws relating to the establishment of securitisation special purpose vehicles (SPVs).

A special purpose trust is the most commonly used securitisation structure in Australia. The trust is usually established in Australia but may be established offshore for regulatory purposes or investor preferences.

With a trust structure, profits can be distributed to beneficiaries under units of a trust, paid as a return on notes that have been subscribed for, or extracted for fees (e.g., servicer or manager fees).

Trusts have a number of advantages, including:

- on insolvency of the underlying corporate entity
- familiarity of the Australian market with trust structures
- efficient to establish and govern, by way of a trust deed, with special duties and rights allocated to managers and servicers
A general security interest is usually granted over all assets in favour of the security trustee for the benefit of the secured creditors. The security trustee will have the sole right to enforce the security, and investors usually retain powers to direct the security trustee to take actions.

Alternatively, special purpose companies or a two-tier combination of an issuing company and an asset-holding trust may be used.

In addition to general law, a special purpose entity will be governed by:

- its constitution or articles of association and, unless expressly excluded, the replaceable rules in the Corporations Act if it is a special purpose company,
- its trust deed if it is a special purpose trust

Method of transfer

A transfer of receivables is usually by way of equitable assignment. It is critical that the receivables are identified with sufficient certainty by listing, eligibility criteria or the exclusion of particular receivables. Receivables under contracts restricting or prohibiting assignment without consent are generally considered unable to be securitised.

For a purchaser of receivables to obtain legal title in the event of insolvency, they must perfect their interest in accordance with the relevant state or territory statutory regime.

Tax

A number of tax issues may arise regarding securitisations in Australia, including:

- transfer duties (stamp duty) may be imposed by the relevant state or territory (e.g., declaration of trust or asset transfer to the SPV);
- withholding taxes, including a 10% interest withholding tax and up to 30% royalty withholding tax, may be imposed on payments to foreign resident recipients and deducted by the issuer (unless an exception applies).
- income tax will be payable by:
  - in the case of a special purpose company, that company
  - in the case of a special purpose trust, the beneficiary where presently entitled to income
- a 10% goods and services tax (GST) will apply for services supplied under transaction documents (e.g., serving and management agreements).
- Australian securitisation entities will generally need to comply with the FACTA Intergovernmental Agreement, as "Investment Entities".
- Careful consideration of the application of Australia’s thin capitalisation rules is needed to ensure deductibility of debt issued by the securitisation vehicle.

Accounting treatment

There are no specific accounting standards applicable to securitisation under Australian taxation laws.

Regulatory concerns

Insolvency laws have been significantly affected by the introduction of broad ipso facto reforms. An ipso facto contractual clause allows one party to terminate or modify the operation of the contract upon the occurrence of a specified insolvency related event (such as the appointment of an administrator, receiver or liquidator) in respect of another party. A stay on enforcement of ipso facto contractual clauses triggered by the counterparty becoming subject to a specified formal corporate insolvency events came into effect and applies to all contracts, agreements or arrangements entered into from 1 July 2018. The Corporations Regulations 2001 (Cth) set out types of contracts and rights that have been excluded from the stay and include:

- a contract, agreement or arrangement that is, or governs, securities, financial products, bonds or promissory notes
- a contract, agreement or arrangement under which a party is or may be liable to subscribe for, or to procure subscribers for, securities, financial products, bonds or promissory notes
- a contract, agreement or arrangement that involves a special purpose vehicle and that provides for securitisation

In recent years, non-ADIs have effectively competed in the residential mortgage lending market (which accounts for a significant portion of securitisation transactions in Australia) against APRA-regulated ADIs, who have been subject to an increase in lending rates for investor and interest-only loans. However, APRA’s powers have recently been expanded to non-ADIs in the following ways:

- There has been a reduction in the available exemptions from registration and reporting under the Financial Sector (Collection of Data) Act 2001 (Cth), previously relied upon by non-ADIs. A registrable corporation (having at least AUD 50 million in outstanding debts due to it resulting from the provision of finance, and/or providing AUD 50 million in loans or other financing arrangements in the previous financial year) must, among other things, register with the Financial Sector (Collection of Data) Act 2001 (Cth).
- Some tax will be payable by:
  - in the case of a special purpose company, that company
  - in the case of a special purpose trust, the beneficiary where presently entitled to income
- a 10% goods and services tax (GST) will apply for services supplied under transaction documents (e.g., serving and management agreements).
- Australian securitisation entities will generally need to comply with the FACTA Intergovernmental Agreement, as "Investment Entities".
- Careful consideration of the application of Australia’s thin capitalisation rules is needed to ensure deductibility of debt issued by the securitisation vehicle.

Most recently, the release of the Final Report of Australia’s Royal Commission into Misconduct in the Banking, Superannuation and Financial Services Industry on 1 February 2019 is expected to influence changes to lending processes with likely impacts on underlying securitised assets and indirect consequences for securitisation transactions.
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Legal framework

Much like other jurisdictions, Austrian law does not provide for a dedicated securitisation regime. Accordingly, the general rules of Austrian law, in particular, the Civil Code (Allgemeines Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch), the Commercial Code (Unternehmensgesetzbuch), the Insolvency Code (Insolvenzordnung) and the Banking Act (Bankwesengesetz), as well as tax laws, apply to securitisation transactions in Austria. In addition, EU regulations, such as the Securitisation Regulation and the Capital Requirements Regulation (“CRR”) — being directly applicable in Austria — have to be considered.

From a civil law perspective, the crucial issue is the recognition of the true sale. While not recognised formally under Austrian law, the concept of a true sale has been accepted in Austrian legal writing. However, it should be noted that, to date, the approach taken in Austrian securitisation transactions has not yet been tested before the Austrian Supreme Court. However, we are confident that — provided that the transaction is structured accordingly — a true sale can be achieved as a matter of Austrian law.

Austrian special purpose vehicles (SPVs)

It is generally possible to establish an Austrian special purpose entity. Such entity would need to have a limited scope of business only, restricting its activities to those necessary for securitisation transactions. In that case, the SPV would not need to obtain a banking licence as such operations would be exempt from the scope of banking business. However, the SPV would still be bound by Austrian statutory bankruptcy secrecy. Further, it should be noted that there is no Austrian law equivalent to a trust. Accordingly, in Austrian securitisation transactions, SPVs are typically established in other jurisdictions that provide a more favourable legal framework for securitisation transactions.

Method of transfer

In order to effect a true sale under Austrian civil law, an agreement over the sale and purchase of receivables has to be put in place between the seller and the purchaser. This agreement constitutes the legal title (Verpflichtungsgeschäft) and thus establishes the contractual obligations between the parties. In addition, the actual transfer of the assets to be sold has to take place, thus completing the in rem aspect of the true sale. This is referred to as the modus (Verfügungsgeschäft). Only upon both title and modus being completed, ownership in the receivables will pass from the seller to the purchaser.

By contrast, it is not mandatory to notify the underlying debtors of the receivables of the assignment. However, as long as the debtors have not been made aware of the assignment, they can still validly discharge their obligations vis-à-vis the seller.

Over-collateralisation/yield

As part of credit enhancement practices, it is common for discounts (which are used to cover funding costs) and deferral elements (to cover over-collateralisation levels) to be factored into the purchase price calculation. It is generally accepted that, as long as such adjustments to the purchase price are calculated based on previous/historical default rates (potentially including a margin) or are fixed at the time when the relevant receivable is assigned and hence can be considered reasonable, they should not prevent a true sale.

Withholding tax

There are generally no withholding or other taxes imposed on payments made by Austrian debtors with regard to claims that are assigned in the course of a securitisation transaction. For other countries, the applicable (double tax) state treaties need to be considered.

Stamp duty

Under Austrian law, assignments (such as the sale of receivables in the context of a securitisation transaction) are subject to stamp duty in the amount of 0.8% of the agreed consideration (i.e., the purchase price and not the value of the receivable) if they are signed in Austria or are signed abroad and subsequently brought into Austria.

The assignment of receivables to an SPV is generally exempt from Austrian stamp duty. However, there is some uncertainty as to the scope of such exemption. In addition, a potential reassignment of receivables, e.g., upon a clean-up, would not be exempt from the duty to pay stamp duty thereon. Therefore, it is common practice for Austrian securitisation transactions to be executed abroad.

Tax on Austrian source income

As mentioned above, in an Austrian securitisation transaction, the purchaser of the receivables will typically be incorporated outside Austria. Should the purchasing company be in Austria, it would be subject to Austrian corporate taxation. When the SPV is located outside Austria, it would normally not be subject to corporate income and trade tax provided that, in particular, it is incorporated, managed and administered outside Austria, it does not have a permanent establishment in Austria, the significant part of its assets is located outside Austria and there is no agent acting on its behalf in Austria.
AUSTRIA

Accounting treatment

The Austrian legal framework does not provide specific rules on the accounting treatment of an Austrian securitisation transaction. Accordingly, where an Austrian seller is controlled by a parent company in Austria, the seller will be consolidated by way of the rules set out in the Austrian Commercial Code. Under Austrian general accounting principles, the seller of receivables can only remove the receivables sold to the purchaser from its balance sheet upon a true sale having taken place. One of the crucial points for assessing whether a true sale has taken place is that the credit risk (i.e., the risk that the debt fails to pay) has to pass from the seller to the purchaser and the sale has to be final in the sense that no general repurchase obligation of the seller is agreed at the outset. Additional factors such as potential default guarantees, the relationship between the seller and the purchaser, discounts or limited repurchase obligations would also have to be considered carefully.

Regulatory concerns

If an Austrian SPV is used, special care needs to be taken to ensure that it does not inadvertently pass the threshold of activity subject to a licence under the Austrian Banking Act. As mentioned above, the regulatory framework in Austria is mainly driven by legislation enacted at the level of the EU, in particular the Securitisation Regulation and the CRR.

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Legal Framework

SECURITISATION VEHICLE

Belgium has a special legal framework for securitisation transactions consisting of dedicated securitisation vehicles and provisions facilitating the mobilisation of certain types of receivables to securitisation vehicles. The dedicated Belgian securitisation vehicle is the so-called company for the investment in receivables (vondstzaak voor belegging in schuldvorderingen/société d’investissement en créances (SIC/VBS)) (“Belgian SIC”). Strictly speaking, parties could also set up an investment fund, but in practice parties usually opt to incorporate a company in the form of a Belgian SIC. Belgian SICs are subject to a specific (generally light) regulatory framework introducing a series of rights, rules and obligations. For example, Belgian SICs:

- can only be funded by institutional or professionals investors
- should be registered on a list held by the federal ministry of finance
- can only invest in receivables held by third parties, which are transferred to the Belgian SIC by means of a transfer agreement
- are required to manage the SPV in accordance with the principle of risk spreading in the sole interest of the investors, which entails that Belgian SICs should diversify their investments as to the type of investment instruments and the number of counterparties in accordance with certain quantitative and qualitative requirements
- benefit from a beneficial tax regime (as set out in more detail below)
- benefit from various other Belgian law provisions facilitating transfers of receivables and addressing for example transferability, transfer formalities and set-off
- are subject to certain requirements as to the organisational form of the SPV, the management company of the SPV (if any) and the depositary of the SPV (if any)
- are subject to certain specific rules on accounting, the issuance of units in the SPV and conflicts of interest

It could be argued that a party may also incorporate any other type of (unregulated) Belgian company deemed useful for the envisaged securitisation, but this would lead to a less favourable tax regime being applicable. Foreign securitisation SPVs can also be used. These would be subject to the relevant foreign regulatory framework and would not benefit from the special tax regime applicable to Belgian SICs.

INCORPORATING A BELGIAN SIC

As mentioned above, a Belgian securitisation vehicle generally takes the form of a Belgian SIC. Before starting its activities, the Belgian SIC must apply for registration with the Belgian Federal Public Service Finance on the list of institutional undertakings for investment in receivables. The registration requirement also applies to each of the sub-funds established by the Belgian SIC. The registration is mandatory in order to be able to benefit from the specific beneficial tax regime that applies to Belgian SICs.

The minimum capital requirement of a Belgian SIC amounts to EUR 61,500 and must be fully paid-up.

Although there is no formal timeframe within which the Belgian Federal Public Service Finance must decide on a registration request, setting up a Belgian SIC and obtaining registration with the Belgian Federal Public Service Finance generally takes around 2-3 months.

Under this regime, the Belgian SIC may not hold any assets, make any legal commitments or engage in any other business outside the framework of its securitisation operations or outside the investments authorised by law.

LICENCE REQUIREMENTS IN RELATION TO THE PURCHASE OF CERTAIN RECEIVABLES

Residential mortgage credit receivables and consumer credit receivables can only be transferred to certain purchasers, including licensed mortgage and consumer credit providers respectively and entities qualifying as securitisation vehicles (including, among others, a Belgian SIC) under the Belgian Act of 3 August 2012 on various measures to facilitate the mobilisation of receivables in the financial sector (“Mobilisation Act”).

Securitisation vehicles purchasing consumer credit receivables do not need to obtain a specific licence as a consumer credit provider. However, a securitisation vehicle purchasing residential mortgage credit receivables should also be licensed as a mortgage credit provider, although the licence requirements are less restrictive for securitisation vehicles.

PROSPECTUS REGULATIONS

Any public offer of investment instruments or admission to trading on a regulated market in Belgium may be subject to prospectus requirements, unless an exemption applies.

A Belgian SIC may issue securities to be listed on a regulated market if it includes selling restrictions in the placement documentation clarifying that only institutional and professional investors can buy these securities. In such case, the Belgian SIC will in principle also have to issue a prospectus accompanied by an external credit rating.

Method of transfer

Under Belgian civil law, receivables are transferred by way of assignment (cession). Such transfers are enforceable against third parties (with the exception of the debtor of the relevant receivable and any third party having previously acquired a concurrent right with respect to the same receivable) from the date of the relevant transfer agreement.

For the transfer to be enforceable against the debtor of the relevant receivable, the assignment must be notified to, or acknowledged by, the debtor of that receivable. For the transfer to be enforceable against any third party having previously acquired a concurrent right with respect to the same receivable, the transfer must be notified.
to, or acknowledged by, the debtor of that receivable prior to that third party having notified its concurrent right to that debtor, or prior to that debtor having acknowledged that third party’s concurrent right.

As long as any transfer has not been notified to, or acknowledged by, the debtor of the transferred receivable, then, notwithstanding such transfer, (i) the debtor may still validly pay and discharge its debt to the transferor, (ii) in case a bona fide third party acquires the same receivable as a result of a subsequent transfer, sale or pledge of that receivable, that bona fide third party will be entitled to that receivable if it has notified the debtor or obtained the debtor’s acknowledgement first, and (iii) set-off may still take place between the transferor and the debtor if the receivable and a debt owing from the transferor to the debtor both become due and payable (although it should be noted that, even after notification or acknowledgement, set-off may still take place in certain circumstances).

Ancillary rights that are considered accessory to the receivable (e.g., security rights, statutory privileges, retention of title) will in principle transfer automatically together with the receivable.

Additional formalities may apply to the transfer of the receivable or the ancillary rights depending on the type of transferred assets, such as, e.g., specific rules applicable to the transfer of consumer credit receivables or mortgage credit receivables. However, some of those specific transfer rules are not applicable in the case of a transfer by or to an entity that qualifies as a financial institution, a credit institution or a securitisation vehicle under the Mobilisation Act.

Belgian law does not have a statutory definition of “true sale” and Belgian courts have not yet provided firm guidelines on this subject either. Based on legal doctrine, the economic effects of a transaction will have to be taken into account and, for example, a transfer of receivables may not be a true sale of these receivables if (among other things) the default risk is not effectively transferred to the transferee. On that basis, Belgian courts are likely to consider (A) whether or not the transferee has (full or partial) recourse against the transferor for defaulted receivables and (B) whether or not the purchase price actually paid by the transferee for the purchased receivables is a market price for such receivables.

**Tax**

Tax issues feature prominently in all securitisation transactions and are to be considered from the perspective of the originator, the SPV, the investors in the SPV and the debtors. The transfer of assets by the originator to the SPV may give rise to income tax in the hands of the originator and could also give rise to VAT, withholding taxes or transfer taxes/stamp duties becoming due (depending on, among other things, the jurisdiction of the originator, the transfer price and application of a discount, the nature of the assets transferred, etc.). The cash flows generated by the transferred receivables and any other assets generating the income.

**TAX TREATMENT OF A BELGIAN SIC**

A Belgian SIC is virtually exempt from income tax on its profits. In reality, it is subject to corporate income tax at the ordinary rate of 25% (as of FY 2020), but its taxable basis is limited to the following items:

- the sum of its disallowed expenses (with certain exceptions, such as the write-downs and capital losses on shares and, importantly, the non-deductible portion of the net borrowing costs exceeding the 30% ceiling under the 30% EBITDA-rule introduced into Belgian law following the EU Anti-tax avoidance Directive)
- the sum of any abnormal or gratuitous advantages (deemed) received by the Belgian SIC (as a result of any non-arm’s length transaction to the benefit of the Belgian SIC)

Belgian SICs are, however, also subject to the special (103% or 51.5%) secret commission tax if they do not properly justify their expenses by issuing appropriate tax slips. The tax is applied on the amount of expenses that are not properly mentioned on the appropriate tax slips.

Disallowed expenses include, in particular, interest expenses on debt owed to non-resident investors that are not subject to tax (or benefit with respect to such interest income from a tax regime that is notably more favourable than in Belgium (low-taxed entity)) when and to the extent such loans exceed a 5:1 debt/equity ratio.

Since abnormal or gratuitous advantages received are included in the taxable basis of Belgian SICs, it is of particular importance that any transaction between the SIC and other (related) parties be made at “arm’s length” (market) conditions.

**VAT ASPECTS**

The transfer of receivables to a Belgian SIC will, as a rule, be exempt from Belgian VAT.

A general VAT exemption is also available for services regarding the management of a Belgian SIC (covering management services rendered to the Belgian SIC and services rendered with respect to the management of its assets). This exemption does not apply with respect to services of a mere material or technical nature.

It should also be noted that financial services are typically exempt from VAT, with the exception of services related to the collection of debt, which are generally subject to VAT.

**Withholding tax**

There is no Belgian withholding tax due on income (in particular interest income) received by the Belgian SIC on financial assets (with the exception of Belgian-sourced dividends). This exemption is subject to the Belgian SIC issuing an affidavit to the debtor of the income, which confirms that the Belgian SIC is the legal owner of the assets generating the income.

Payments of interest or dividends made by a Belgian SIC to its investors are generally subject to Belgian withholding tax at a rate of 30%, subject to available exemptions or reductions under domestic law or tax treaties, as the case may be.
Stamp duties

Generally, no stamp duty or similar charge is due in Belgium upon the transfer of receivables, irrespective of the transfer method chosen.

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Legal framework

Strictly speaking, securitisation has always been allowed in Brazil, as each step of its structure, individually considered, is supported by an existing statute law. Furthermore, it is fully grounded on civil law principles (e.g., assignment of credit, deferred payments, etc.). However, there is no specific law in Brazil that regulates securitisation transactions in general and as a whole, which means that many of the laws and regulations are related to the workings of securitisation vehicles and the rules for the assignment of credits, among others.

The regulatory bodies for securitisations in Brazil are the Brazilian Exchange Commission (“CVM”) and the Central Bank of Brazil (“BCB”).

One of the most used, important and common special purpose vehicles (SPVs) that can undertake the securitisation of receivables in Brazil is the so-called Investment Funds in Credit Rights (“FICRs”), regulated by Resolution CMN No. 4,694 dated 29 October 2018, as amended, and CVM Instruction No. 444 dated 8 December 2006, as amended.

For the securitisation of real estate receivables, two specific SPVs are used: (i) the Real Estate Credit Securitisation Company (“Companhia Securitizadora de Créditos Imobiliários”), under Federal Law No. 9,514 dated 20 November 1997, as amended, and CVM Instruction No. 414 dated 30 December 2004, as amended; and (ii) the Real Estate Investment Fund (“Fundos de Investimentos Imobiliários” — FII), regulated by Federal Law No. 8,668 dated 25 June 1993, as amended, and CVM Instruction No. 472 dated 31 October 2008, as amended.

The securitisation of financial receivables can be undertaken through the aforementioned SPV, via the issuance of: (i) Real Estate Receivables Certificates (Certificados de Recebíveis Imobiliários — “CRI”), issued exclusively by the Real Estate Credit Securitisation Company, under Federal Law No. 9,514 dated 20 November 1997, as amended, and CVM Instruction No. 414 dated 30 December 2004, as amended; or (ii) covered bonds (“Letra Imobiliária Garantida” — “LIG”), under Federal Law No. 13,097 dated 22 February 2015, as amended, and CVM Instruction No. 563 dated 15 January 2015, as amended.

The securitisation of agribusiness receivables can also be made through the issuance of Agribusiness Receivables Certificates (Certificados de Recebíveis do Agronegócio — “CRA”), under Federal Law No. 11,076 dated 30 December 2004, as amended, and CVM Instruction No. 600 dated 1 August 2018, as amended.

Incorporating an SPV

An SPV in Brazil is usually an investment fund or a securitisation company.

The FIDC and the FII are investment funds owned by investors, via interest (cotas) issued by the fund, in the legal form of joint ownership (condominium), without legal personality. Investment funds must abide by the rules and they are under the regulation of the CVM in which they must be registered.

Securitisation companies must be public companies (sociedade anônima). Investors and creditors acquiring the securities or the credit instruments issued by the securitisation companies (e.g., CRA and CRI) are not usually shareholders of the securitisation companies.

Method of transfer

Receivables in a Brazilian securitisation transaction are usually transferred through an assignment of credit rights agreement. In such agreement, it is common and advisable for the assignor to notify its client of the assignment of the receivable (although it is important to note that such notification is not a requisite for the perfection of the assignment) and to have the agreement registered with the registry of titles and deeds of the domicile of both parties (assignor and assignee, if resident in Brazil) to make the assignment agreement valid and effective against third parties.

The assignment of certain financial credits by financial institutions must also be registered in a registration and clearing system accredited by the BCB (currently, this is the C3 — Câmara de Cessões de Crédito).

Note that in Brazil the assignment of receivables should be made on a non-recourse basis to characterise it as a true sale, with no risk of re-characterisation as a secured loan. An assignment of receivables with recourse against the assignor may be re-characterised as a loan for tax or other legal purposes.

Lastly, the assignment of a receivable includes its related security and guaranties, except if provided otherwise in the relevant assignment agreement (Article 287 of the Brazilian Civil Code).

Tax

Brazilian tax legislation is sparse with respect to securitisation transactions. The effective tax levy depends highly on the design of the transaction, the nature of the SPV, the credits acquired and the funding mechanism. Therefore, we present below the general aspects of the taxation of SPVs organised as securitisation companies or investment funds. Furthermore, we also present general aspects of the taxation of CRIs and CRAs, and the levy of the Tax on Financial Transactions (“IOF”).

Note

This information is intended for general guidance only. Specific advice should be obtained to determine the tax effects of a particular situation.
SECURITISATION COMPANY

In a local securitisation, the financial institution usually assigns its financial credits with a discount to the securitisation company. The originator is entitled to the deduction of the discount. The securitisation company should recognise the corresponding gain.

According to Brazilian tax legislation, securitisation companies of real estate, financial and agribusiness receivables are subject to the actual profit regime for the determination of the corporate income taxes ("IRPJ/CSLL"). There is a discussion regarding whether securitisation companies of commercial receivables are also mandatorily subject to the actual profit regime. There is no express provision in Brazilian legislation in this sense. Nevertheless, the Brazilian tax authorities issued rulings stating that the actual profit method would be, in principle, mandatory for all securitisation companies.

The actual profit method is determined by the sum of revenues less costs and expenses that result in the net profit. The actual profit is the net profit adjusted by additions and exclusions provided in the corporate income taxes. Therefore, the taxable income is calculated based on the securitisation company’s gross revenue minus allowed deductions. The combined IRPJ/CSLL rate is 34%.

The timing of deductions of expenses and the recognition of gains by the securitisation company may vary depending on the specifics of its capital structure.

For the purpose of social contributions over revenues ("PIS/COFINS"), a securitisation company of real estate, financial and agribusiness receivables is subject to the cumulative regime. Therefore, the revenues deriving from the discount of the receivable is subject to a combined rate of 4.65% on its gross revenues. It is possible to deduct the funding expenses in the determination of the PIS/COFINS tax basis.

At first glance, there is no mandatory regime of PIS/COFINS applicable to securitisation companies of commercial receivables. However, considering the understanding of the Brazilian tax authorities that all securitisation companies would be subject to the actual profit method for corporate income tax purposes, the non-cumulative regime would be the mandatory regime of PIS/COFINS for securitisation companies of commercial receivables. Therefore, the gross revenues of a securitisation company of commercial receivables would be subject to PIS/COFINS at a combined 9.25% rate. According to the provisions of the legislation, it is possible to deduct credits in the determination of the PIS/COFINS tax basis in the non-cumulative regime.

INVESTMENT FUNDS

As mentioned above, two of the most used investment funds for the securitisation of receivables are the FIDC and the FII.

As a rule, investment funds are not subject to taxation on earnings or gains derived from their portfolios and the taxation is focused on the level of the quotaholders. In other words, earnings and gains derived from investments in investment funds are subject to income tax only at the redemption, amortisation or sale of its quotas.

The FIDC is subject to the general rules for the taxation of investment funds in Brazil.

Brazilian resident quotaholders of the FIDC are subject to withholding income tax ("WHT") at regressive tax rates on the amortisation, redemption and disposal of the FIDC quotas. If the FIDC is considered a long-term investment fund, the applicable tax rates would vary from 22.5% to 15%, depending on the investment maturity date, which can vary from less than 180 days (subject to 22.5% WHT) to more than 720 days (subject to 15% WHT). If the FIDC is considered a short-term investment fund, the applicable tax rates are 22.5% (if the investment maturity date is less than 180 days) or 20% (if more than 180 days).

The FII is subject to specific tax regulations. Brazilian resident quotaholders of the FII are subject to WHT at a flat 20% tax rate in the amortisation, redemption and disposal of the FII quotas. Brazilian tax legislation provides that the FII shall distribute 95% of its earnings to its quotaholders every six months based on financial statements determined on 30 June and 31 December of each year. The distribution of profits is also subject to WHT at a 20% tax rate.

Non-resident quotaholders that do not invest in the fund, according to the terms of Resolution 4,373, including investors domiciled in low-tax jurisdictions, are subject to the same taxation as Brazilian residents, as explained above.

Regarding non-resident quotaholders not domiciled in low-tax jurisdictions that invest in an FIDC or an FII, pursuant to the terms of Resolution 4,373, the redemption and/or amortisation of the fund quotas will be subject to a flat 15% withholding income tax, regardless of whether the fund is considered a short- or long-term investment fund.

With respect to a future sale of the FIDC or FII quotas by a foreign investor under Resolution 4,373, the gain will be taxable at 15%. If the FIDC or FII quotas are sold on the Brazilian stock exchange, in view of a specific legal provision, there are reasonable arguments to support that the gain could benefit from 0% WHT.

CRI AND CRA

The earnings deriving from the receivables certificates CRI and CRA are subject to WHT. In the case of Brazilian individuals, the earnings of investment in CRIs and CRAs are exempt from WHT. This exemption also applies to non-resident individuals investing in Brazil under the terms of Resolution 4,373, even if they are domiciled in low-tax jurisdictions.

Brazilian legal entities are subject to WHT at regressive rates that may vary from 22.5% to 15%, depending on the maturity date of the investment. In this case, the WHT is only a payment in advance of the corporate income taxes (IRPJ/CSLL). Therefore, the revenue deriving from the CRI or CRA will be included in the determination of the legal entity’s corporate income taxes tax basis as a financial revenue and the WHT can be used to offset the due amount of IRPJ/CSLL.

Non-resident legal entities investing under the terms of Resolution 4,373 are subject to a 15% WHT. Non-resident quotaholders that do not invest in CRIs and CRAs under the terms of Resolution 4,373, including investors domiciled in low-tax jurisdictions, will be subject to the same WHT taxation as a Brazilian legal entity, according to regressive rates from 22.5% to 15%.
TAX ON FINANCIAL TRANSACTIONS (“IOF/EXCHANGE” AND “IOF/BONDS”)

Pursuant to the Brazilian tax legislation, the conversion of Brazilian currency into foreign currency and vice versa (e.g., for the purposes of investing in the Brazilian financial and capital markets by means of the acquisition of investment fund quotas, CRIs and CRAs) is subject to the IOF/Exchange. The current applicable rate for most types of foreign exchange transactions is 0.38%. However, foreign exchange transactions related to the inflow and outflow of funds in connection with investments carried out by a foreign investor in the Brazilian capital markets, including the repatriation of funds invested in the Brazilian capital and financial markets, are currently subject to the IOF/Exchange at a 0% rate.

The Brazilian government may increase the rate of the IOF/Exchange at any time up to 25% of the amount of the foreign exchange transaction. However, any increase in rates may only apply to transactions carried out after this increase in rates and not retroactively.

Brazilian tax legislation also imposes the IOF/Bonds on transactions involving bonds and securities, including those carried out on a Brazilian stock exchange. The rate of IOF/Bonds applicable to transactions involving CRIs and CRAs is currently zero, although the Brazilian government may increase such rate at any time up to 1.5% of the transaction amount per day, but only in respect of future transactions.

Accounting treatment

Brazilian companies that issue publicly traded securities (the originator of the receivables or the securitisation vehicle) must prepare their consolidated financial statements according to International Accounting Standards Board (IASB) standards (Article 177(5) of Federal Law No. 6,404 dated 15 December 1976, and Instruction CVM No. 457 dated 13 July 2007).

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Legal Framework

The main regulatory framework for securitisation in Chile is contained in Title XVIII of Law No. 18.045 ("Securities Market Act"), which establishes the rules applicable to the incorporation, registration and surveillance of the so-called "Sociedades Securitizadoras" or "Securitisation Companies", which are special purpose corporations that must be registered with the Chilean Financial Markets Commission ("FMC") and which sole and exclusive business purpose is the issuance and placement of asset-backed securities referred to in the law as "Securitisation Bonds".

The Securities Market Act governs as well the securitisation process, including provisions concerning the issuance and registration of Securitisation Bonds; the creation of special purpose vehicles based on said issuances; and special rules governing the transfer of assets when these are made in connection with a securitisation.

It is important to note that Securitisation Companies are the only companies entitled to issue and conduct a public or private placement of Securitisation Bonds, which can be defined as debt securities which payment is backed-up with a pool of assets that are being contributed to a "patrimonio separado" which is integrated with the assets and liabilities held by the Securitisation Company acting as issuer.

Incorporating an SPV

The Securities Market Act provides that each issuance of Securitisation Bonds made by a Securitisation Company creates a "patrimonio separado" which is a patrimony (pool of assets and liabilities) that is legally segregated from all other assets and liabilities held by the Securitisation Company acting as issuer. The patrimonio separado is a special purpose vehicle, but it is not a legal entity; it is just a segregated patrimony or fund that is managed by the Securitisation Company in accordance with the rules established under the Securities Market Act and under the indenture pursuant to which the Securitisation Bonds are issued; based on said rules, the only third parties having recourse against the patrimonio separado are the bondholders and the service providers (who in turn can only be those recognised as such in the Securities Market Act and in the corresponding indenture).

As established under the Securities Market Act, each issuance of securitisation bonds automatically creates a "patrimonio separado" which is integrated with the assets and liabilities identified in the indenture.

Method of transfer

The Securities Market Act provides special rules in order to expedite the transfer of those assets that are being contributed to a "patrimonio separado" pursuant to an indenture governing the issuance of Securitisation Bonds.

Specifically, the Act provides the following:

a. A Securitisation Company can acquire, among others, "credits and rights that are evidenced in writing and that are of a transferrable nature".

b. For securitisation purposes, it shall be understood that the contracts, credits, rights or their corresponding titles (documents evidencing them) are of a transferrable nature even if they qualify generally as "nominative credits", in which case their acquisition or transfer can be made simply by endorsing the document on which said nominative credits are evidenced.

c. For the securitisation purposes, the transfer or assignment of contracts, credits and rights will be enforceable against the corresponding debtors from the date on which the indenture is executed (provided said contracts, credits and rights have been identified in the indenture). As of that date, the obligors will not be able to invoke defences but for their personal defences against the assignee (this is the patrimonio separado).

We note that the above implies an important change to the general rule applicable under Chilean Law for purposes of assigning nominatives credits, which requires either the notice to the debtor, or his acceptance, in order that the transfer or assignment of said nominative credit be valid and enforceable against him.

Over-collateralisation/yield

Internal credit enhancements have played an essential role in achieving high credit ratings on the securities issued. While over-collateralisation was most used in the past, a senior/subordinated structure with several tranches of bonds has been the primary tool in obtaining such ratings, while spread accounts and mandatory prepayment obligations have also played an important role.

External credit enhancement has been common in future flow securitisations, which have been guaranteed with mortgages over real estate or by insurance providers. Forward and swap arrangements have also been used to support issuances backed with Yankee bonds.

Tax Exemptions

The Securities Market Act provides the following tax exemptions in connection with the securitisation industry:

a. The issuance of securitisation bonds is exempt from stamp duty, in a pro rata equivalent to the same pro rata that represents the total assets contributed to the patrimonio separado, those assets that have already paid stamp duty when issued or that were expressly exempted from paying stamp duty.
b. The difference between the purchase price and the face value of a credit being acquired for securitisation purposes shall not be considered as taxable income. Only the difference (existing at the proper time) between the purchase price of the credits (duly adjusted) and the amount received upon their collection or sale (if applicable) is considered as taxable income.

c. All fees and other compensation paid by a Securitisation Company to a third party in connection with the management and custody of the underlying assets of a securitisation are exempted from VAT.
History and development of Chinese securitisation legal framework

The Chinese securitisation market began to emerge and develop during the 1990s. After the first residential mortgage-backed securitisation (RMBS) in 1992, securitisation transactions were mainly conducted through offshore structures.

This was mainly to evade legal barriers such as currency control and the lack of a specific legislative framework. It was only between 2005 and 2008 that the Chinese securitisation market began to develop significantly.

In 2003, the China Securities Regulatory Commission (CSRC) first launched the initiative of special asset management (SAM) with the legal basis being Interim Measures on the Administration of Customer Asset Management Business by Securities Companies ("Interim Measures"). In 2005, a ministerial-level working group led by the People’s Bank of China (PBOC) and the China Banking Regulatory Commission (CBIRC) — which has now merged with the China Insurance Regulatory Commission and the People’s Bank of China — issued a set of rules that formed a pilot legal framework for securitisation in China, with the most important rule being the Administration of Pilot Projects for Securitisation of Credit Assets (jointly issued by the PBOC and the CBIRC), with other rules addressing tax, accounting issues, etc. (together referred to as “Pilot Regulations”). The Interim Measures and the Pilot Regulations initiated the so-called pilot securitisation programme. The Interim Measures allowed Chinese securities companies to securitise corporate assets, whereas the Pilot Regulations allowed Chinese banks and other financial institutions to securitise their loan receivables.

At the end of 2008, due to concerns that securitisation transactions would threaten its financial stability (as a result of the amount of assets taken off-balance sheet), the PBOC, the CBRC and the CSRC suspended the approval for the transactions under the pilot securitisation programme. Following this, Chinese financial institutions and securities companies were not permitted to securitise credit and corporate assets. The Chinese domestic securitisation market was relaunched in 2012 after a four-year suspension, with the issuance of the Notice on Relevant Matters Concerning Further Expanding the Pilot Securitisation of Credit Assets ("Credit Assets Regulation"), jointly issued by the PBOC, the CBRC and the Ministry of Finance of the People’s Republic of China. The Credit Assets Regulation expanded the scope of assets eligible for securitisation and permitted investors, and sets out further requirements in relation to risk self-retention and credit rating, etc.

In 2015, the PBOC issued a public announcement on the implementation of a recordal regime for credit asset securitisation, pursuant to which the issuer and the originator may apply for a “shelf” registration with the PBOC, and obtain a quota for the issuance of asset-backed securities within a prescribed validity period. The issuer and the originator may issue asset-backed securities in instalments within the quota during the validity period. Prior to each issuance, the relevant transaction and offering documents should be filed with the PBOC for recordal.

Thereafter, with authorisation from the PBOC, the National Association of Financial Market Institutional Investors (NAFMII), a self-disciplinary organisation of institutional financial institutions in China, published a series of information disclosure guidelines in respect of the securitisation of different types of underlying assets, including auto loans, mortgage loans, consumption loans, non-performing loans, micro and small enterprises loans and shantytowns transformation project loans respectively. In late 2016, NAFMII reformed the rules for the asset-backed notes (ABN), previously an asset-backed debt financing instrument for non-financial institutions introduced by NAFMII in 2012, and transformed ABN into a new type of securitisation instrument in the Interbank Bond Market.

The CSRC followed suit and promoted the securitisation market for corporate assets by issuing the Provisions on the Administration of Securities Companies’ Asset Securitisation Business ("Securities Companies’ Assets Regulation") in 2013. The Securities Companies’ Assets Regulation sets guidance for asset-backed securities backed by corporate assets. In 2014, the CSRC issued the Provisions on the Administration of Securitisation Business of Securities Company and Subsidiary of Fund Management Company ("Securitisation Business Administration Provisions") and a set of rules on information disclosure and due diligence. These rules replaced the Securities Companies’ Assets Regulation and further streamlined the securitisation process under the SAM structure (see below). Since then, SAM securitisation no longer requires approval from the CSRC, but transactions will be recorded with the Asset Management Association of China (AMAC), a self-disciplinary organisation for the investment fund industry in China, after the issuance.

The asset-backed securities under the SAM structure are traded on the Shanghai Stock Exchange or the Shenzhen Stock Exchange, subject to a non-objection letter from the relevant exchange. The Shanghai Stock Exchange and the Shenzhen Stock Exchange issued their general guidelines on assets-backed securitisation business in 2014, followed by a series of specific rules on the listing of asset-backed securities and information disclosure in respect of different kinds of underlying assets, such as receivables, financial leasing assets, infrastructure assets and PPP assets. These rules provide for a comprehensive risk-management system for the asset-backed securitisation business.
Parallel securitisation markets

Depending on the type of institution and regulatory authority, there are generally two main types of securitisation structures:

- A securitisation with a special purpose trust (SPT) structure. The securitised products are issued and traded on the Interbank Bond Market. This type of structure employs a trust company, which is approved by the CBIRC with a finance licence granted by the CBIRC pursuant to the Administrative Measures for Trust Companies, as the vehicle that will act as trustee under a trust agreement for the credit assets originated by a financial institution. In accordance with the Pilot Regulations, the SPT issues bonds backed by credit assets entrusted by banks and other eligible financial institutions. Most ABNs by non-financial institutions also adopt the SPT structure; however, they are subject to a different set of rules issued by PBOC and NAFMII. Investors are qualified institutional investors for the Interbank Bond Market, a market organised and regulated by the PBOC.

- A securitisation with a SAM structure under which the securitised products are traded on the regulated stock exchanges. This type of structure engages a customer asset management business, as the SAM Manager that will act as asset manager under a specific asset management plan for receivables originated by corporations as the underlying assets. The SAM Manager issues beneficiary certificates backed by the relevant underlying assets and those beneficiary certificates may be traded on the Shanghai Stock Exchange and the Shenzhen Stock Exchange. Investors are qualified institutional investors for these two stock exchanges. Pursuant to the Chinese Securities Investment Fund Law and Securitisation Business Administration Provisions, the SAM structure is supervised and approved by the CSRC.

True sale issues

TRUE SALE IN SPT STRUCTURE

Under the Pilot Regulations, credit assets transferred to the trustee are trust properties, which are independent of properties of the originator, trustee, loan servicer, fund depositary institution, securities register and fund custodian institution or any other transaction party. Further to this rule, the property and benefits generated by a trustee, loan servicer, fund depositary institution and other institutions providing services for securitisation transactions, from managing or operating the special purpose trust or under other circumstances, will fall under the trust property. If originators, trustees, loan service providers, fund depositary institutions, securities registration, custodian agencies and other institutions providing services for securitised transactions become insolvent or bankrupt, trust properties will be excluded from the insolvency estate of these parties.

TRUE SALE IN SAM STRUCTURE

Transactions using the SAM structure may be structured as either off-balance sheet or on-balance sheet transactions. Assets related to a specific asset management plan are segregated from the assets associated with other specific asset management plans. Investors in a specific asset management plan only have recourse to the underlying assets relating to that particular asset management plan, and not to all of the assets of the originator or the SAM Manager, such as other underlying assets or receivables. A number of debates have arisen in respect of whether assets transferred to a specific asset management plan should be regarded as a sale from the perspective of Chinese contract law under this structure.

Taxation

STAMP TAX

Currently, parties to an assets transfer agreement will be subject to stamp tax, and no stamp tax will be levied on the other various transaction documents entered into by the parties to a securitisation transaction, including the trust agreement, servicing agreement, account agreement, agency agreement, etc. The sale of notes from the issuer or the sale of notes between investors is also not subject to any stamp tax.

VALUE ADDED TAX (VAT)

Although it remains unclear under the VAT Regulation, tax advisers tend to take the view that the transfer of assets from the originator to the trust company should not be subject to VAT.

From 1 January 2018, the trustee or SAM Manager will pay VAT at the rate of 3% on its taxable activities during the operation of the SPT or the SAM.

All of the interest derived from the underlying credit assets, any service fee received by the servicer, and any remuneration received by the issuer, the account bank, the paying agent, the custodian or other intermediaries that provide services to the securitisation transaction will be subject to VAT at the rate of 6%, which is slightly higher than the rate of business tax (5%) before the VAT reform.

For investors, the trading of asset-backed securities will be subject to VAT at the rate of 6%, which is levied upon the gap between the original purchase price and the selling price.
ENTREPRISE INCOME TAX

The originator’s profits arising from the transfer of the assets to the trust company are subject to enterprise income tax. If losses are incurred, the amount may be deducted in accordance with enterprise income tax policies and regulations. In the event the originator repurchases the transferred assets, tax authorities will make an adjustment to the enterprise income tax if such repurchase is not conducted on an arm’s length basis.

So long as the trust company has distributed all profits generated from the securitised assets to the investors during the current financial year, no enterprise income tax is currently levied at the trust level. However, such non-taxed earnings received by institutional investors are taxable income at the investor level. If the profits have not been distributed by the trust company to the investors during the current financial year, such profits are subject to enterprise income tax. When such taxed profits are distributed to the institutional investors later, the institutional investors are not subject to enterprise income tax.

Any service fee received by the servicer and any remuneration received by the trustee, the account bank, the custodian or other intermediaries that provide services to the securitisation transaction will be subject to enterprise income tax.

Enterprise income tax will be levied on the investors who have earned profits from the trading of the securitisation products based on the relevant enterprise income tax rate. If trading losses are incurred, the relevant amount may be deducted in accordance with enterprise income tax policies and regulations.

Any income of the investors arising from the liquidation of the trust company is subject to enterprise income tax and any liquidation losses may be deducted in accordance with enterprise income tax policies and regulations.

Latest developments

LAUNCH OF PUBLICLY TRADED REITS

In April 2020, CSRC and the National Development and Reform Commission jointly issued the Circular on Work Related to Advancing the Pilot Scheme of Real Estate Investment Trusts (REITs) for the Infrastructure Sector. CSRC simultaneously published the draft Guidance on Public Offering of Infrastructure Securities Investment Fund (Trial) for public consultation. These two documents mark the initiation of the pilot scheme for China’s publicly traded REITs in the infrastructure sector.

Publicly traded REITs would help translate the underlying assets in the infrastructure sector into finance products with high liquidity and enhance fund utilisation efficiency. It encourages originators’ investment in new infrastructure and public utilities by utilising the issuance proceeds, which would form a virtuous circle and greatly improve the liquidity and profitability of underlying assets in the infrastructure sector. According to the preliminary framework proposed in the two documents, the security investment fund, as the issuance vehicle of publicly traded REITs, should invest 80% of the funds in single infrastructure asset-backed security, through which it will indirectly acquire the interests of ownership or franchising rights over the underlying infrastructure. Publicly traded REITs learn from international standards in several respects, for example, at least 90% of the audited annual distributable profits will be distributed in cash to investors and operation on borrowings is allowed. However, so far there has been no special tax preference policy available to support publicly traded REITs.

Examples of infrastructure projects include warehouses and logistics, toll roads, airports, ports, other public transportation, water, power, gas and heat supply, other public utility facilities and industrial parks. Residential and commercial real estate are specifically excluded from the permitted list of investments. During the pilot stage, the first publicly traded REITs will invest in certain preferred areas within China, including the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei area, Yangtze River Economic Belt, Xiong’an New Area, Greater Bay Area, Hainan, and the Yangtze River Delta, as well as national new areas and qualified national economic and technological development zones.

FINTECH FUELS SECURITISATION INNOVATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Fintech refers to the new business models, new technology applications, new products and services, etc. that are driven by big data, block chain, cloud computing, artificial intelligence and other emerging frontier technologies, which have a profound impact on the financial market and the supply of financial services. With the rise of major domestic fintech enterprises, innovative securitisation products supported by fintech are springing up. In the field of consumer credit asset securitisation, big data risk control and artificial intelligence management have almost become indispensable technical tools for financial institutions to carry out business. Fintech can help perform credit checks, loan issuance and daily monitoring on a second-to-second basis. It also plays an important role in post-loan collection and management. Block chain technology provides safe and reliable technical support for frequent transactions in asset securitisation and directly promotes the emergence and development of new business models such as multi-level transfer platform of account receivables. Nowadays, a considerable number of securitisation business and product operations heavily rely upon the support of fintech.

STANDARDISED NOTES

As a measure to broaden the financing channels for SME enterprises, in August 2019, PBOC launched an innovative pilot project of standardised notes. PBOC, together with institutions participating in the pilot project, prepared the draft Administrative Measures for the Standardised Notes and published the same for public consultation on 34 February 2020. Standardised notes pack the notes as underlying assets and are traded and circulated in the bond market.
Table: Comparison of Legal Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regulator(s)</th>
<th>Credit asset securitisation</th>
<th>Asset-backed notes</th>
<th>SAM securitisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PBOC &amp; CBIRC</td>
<td>NAFMII</td>
<td>CSRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main regulations</td>
<td>PRC Trust Law (信托法)</td>
<td>PRC Contract Law (合同法)</td>
<td>PRC General Rules of Civil Law (民法总则)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Measures for the Supervision and Administration of Pilot Projects of Credit Asset Securitisation of Financial institutions (effective as of 1 December 2005) (金融机</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Notice on Relevant Tax Policies Related to Credit Asset Securitisation (effective as of 20 February 2014) (关于金融资产证券化涉税政策问题的通知)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Notice on Issues concerning the Alteration of Registration of Mortgage Involved in Securitisation of Personal Housing Mortgage Loans for Trial Implementation (effective as of 16 May 2005) (关于个人住房抵押贷款证券化涉及有关抵押权变更登记有关问题的通告)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Notice on Relevant Matters Concerning Further Expanding the Pilot Securitisation of Credit Assets (effective as of 17 May 2012) (关于进一步扩大信贷资产证券化试点有关事项的通知)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eligible originators</td>
<td>Financial institutions</td>
<td>Non-financial institutions</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eligible assets</td>
<td>Credit assets of financial institutions</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trading platform</td>
<td>Interbank Bond Market</td>
<td>Interbank Bond Market</td>
<td>Shanghai Stock Exchange and Shenzhen Stock Exchange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registrar</td>
<td>China Central Depository &amp; Clearing Co. Ltd</td>
<td>Shanghai Clearing House</td>
<td>China Securities Depository &amp; Clearing Corporation Limited</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 On 28 May 2013, the National People’s Congress published the Civil Code of the PRC, which will come into effect on 1 January 2021. The Civil Code will codify and supersede existing major civil legislations such as the PRC Contract Law and Security Law, etc. This table has been prepared based on the laws and regulations in effect as of 4 June 2020; it has not taken into consideration the Civil Code.
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**Legal framework**

Colombia has a specific regulatory regime concerning the securitisation process. The legal framework is mainly found in the financial sector compilation regulation, Decree 2555/2010. This regulation addresses different securitisation methods, specialised securitisation entities and underlying assets. Securitisation of residential mortgages is regulated by Law 546/1999, which contains specific provisions on entities that may originate these assets, as well as rules regarding securitisation companies in relation to mortgage assets.

Transaction documents relating to securitisation are governed by the Commercial Code, which contains the rules for the trust structures often used as SPV, as well as other ancillary contracts entered into with the securities depositary and the stock exchange.

In addition, civil law rules govern the transfer of underlying assets to the SPV, as well as true sale issues, which are discussed below.

The types of securities issued may adopt one of the following forms:

- **a. Equity-type securities**: these grant the investor a specific share of the underlying pool of assets. The investor will not receive a fixed cash flow, but will partake in the gain or loss produced by the securitised assets.
- **b. Debt-type securities**: these grant investors the right to receive principal and interest under the predefined terms. The assets transferred to the SPV serve as collateral for the indebtedness transaction.
- **c. Mixed securities**: these contain the rights conferred by equity-type securities and may be subject to a specific amortisation schedule or may grant a minimum rate of return.

The securities market is divided between the main market and the institutional investors market (so-called segundo mercado, which is comparable to a type of alternative investments market or AIM). The main differences between these two are: under the AIM, the issuer will negotiate the terms of the offering directly with qualified investors during the offering preparation; under the AIM, only qualified investors may purchase securities; there is no mandatory credit rating; and the AIM issuance process is simpler and faster. Finally, an AIM issuance requires less information to be revealed to the market, resulting in a considerably shorter prospectus.

**Incorporating an SPV**

Colombian regulation allows for different mechanisms, which serve as SPVs. Firstly, an irrevocable commercial trust may be set up. Commercial trusts do not give rise to a legal entity, but are a contractual structure whereby certain assets are transferred to a segregated estate in order to serve a specific purpose determined by the contracting parties. Under this structure, a regulated entity administers the trust. The trust itself acts as the issuer SPV. Whenever the originator is a public entity, the trust to be set up is an SPV will be subject to public procurement rules.

Secondly, an investment fund may be set up to act as the issuing SPV. Investment funds have a similar structure to those of commercial trusts. They do not give rise to legal personality, and they are also managed by regulated entities. These are mainly pooled funds that are administered by an appointed manager with the purpose of generating income for the investors.

Thirdly, securitisation may be carried out by specialised securitisation corporations that are set up for such purpose. The only such corporation currently set up is the Titularizadora Colombiana, which is mainly owned by local banks. Such corporation mainly purchases assets originated from local banks (e.g., housing mortgages) and securities these assets.

**Method of transfer**

The transfer method will vary depending on the underlying asset. The most common securitised asset consists of a set of pooled credit rights. The transfer of such assets to the SPV is achieved via assignment of such rights under the rules of the Civil Code. The procedure mandates that the assignor (the originator) and assignee (the issuing SPV) enter into a contract whereby title to the assigned assets must actually be delivered by assignor to assignee.

Although a valid assignment may be made without notice to the debtors, such notification is required for the assignment to be enforceable against the debtors. Notification is usually done by exhibit of the assignment title but may also be evidenced by conclusive means, such as the actual payment of the debt to the SPV. Once the underlying debtors have been notified of the assignment, they may only discharge their obligations by paying to the issuing SPV.

Whenever the credit rights to be securitised are contained in promissory notes or other negotiable instruments, the method of transfer will be indorsement, as governed by the Commercial Code. Other underlying assets may result from the actual transfer of real estate properties to the SPV, in which case different formalities will apply.

**Over-collateralisation/yield**

Over-collateralisation and credit enhancement may include both internal and external mechanisms. So-called internal credit enhancement mechanisms are most common in underlying assets that generate cash flows. Such internal credit enhancement mechanisms may include, among others, structural subordination of the issuance, excess cash flows generated, replacement of defaulted assets and liquidity credit lines. External credit enhancement mechanisms include guarantee by regulated entities and insurance companies, cash collateral and collateral trust arrangements.

There are a few particularities depending on the type of underlying asset involved. These include:

- **Loan portfolios or other similar cash-flow-generating assets**: over-collateralisation must reach 1.5 Times the portfolio’s default index. Such default index must be calculated following the method contained in the regulation. When the securitisation is directed at the aim, no over-collateralisation is required.
b. Real estate securitisation: the value of the securitisation shall not exceed 110% of the value of the real estate property.

c. Construction projects securitisation: the participation rights of the project’s originators will be subordinated to those securities offered to market investors. Alternatively, any of the external credit enhancement mechanisms explained for the loan portfolios may be implemented.

d. Infrastructure and public utilities securitisation. The expected cash flow returns may be backed by any of the methods discussed in other types of securitisation.

Tax

For tax purposes, trusts are deemed flow-through entities. It means trusts are transparent vehicles and consequently, they are not considered income tax taxpayers.

The transparency principle, defined in Article 102 of the Colombian Tax Code (CTC), states that the beneficiary of the trust should include in their correspondent income tax return the income, costs and expenses incurred/accrued at the trust level in the same taxable period of the accrual with the same tax conditions, such as source, nature, deductibility and concept, as if the taxable activity had been directly carried out by them.

Article 102-1 of the CTC provides specific rules applicable to securitisation processes as follows:

a. The originator is subject to income tax on all the amounts realised or recognised in their favour during the corresponding fiscal period provided these exceed the cost of the assets, titles or rights of their property assigned in the securitisation process.

b. In that sense, the income that will be taxable for the originator is the difference between (i) the value paid by investors to acquire the financial instruments resulting from the securitisation and (ii) the cost of the underlying assets.

c. The holders of the securities are subject to income tax on the income generated by the titles and on the profits obtained from the titles sale.

d. Income derived from titles including credit rights are treated as interest for tax purposes; those derived from participation titles will have the tax treatment applicable according to their nature. In mixed titles, the tax treatment will depend on the revenues obtained for each concept.

e. When assets or rights are acquired though a securitisation process, their cost will be the sum of the costs of the respective titles.

On the other hand, Article 271-1 of the CTC states that the beneficiary of the trust should report the assets and liabilities of the trust as if these had been held directly by the beneficiary. This means that for tax purposes, the underlying assets are still considered as part of the taxpayer’s net worth despite the fact that, from a legal perspective, they were transferred to the trust.

Hence, the trust’s rights and the trust’s underlying assets share the same tax characteristics. Article 102 of the CTC establishes that the trust rights received by the beneficiary of the trust have the same tax basis and tax conditions that the contributed assets had before being contributed to the trust.

Accounting treatment

Under Colombian law, there are no specific rules setting out the accounting treatment of securitisation transactions. Accordingly, rules set forth in the International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) must be observed in order to determine the assets and liabilities recognition and to consider whether the SPV financial information requires consolidation by the parties involved in the securitisation transaction.

Regulatory concerns

Securitisation in Colombia is considered to be somewhat limited in terms of structures and underlying assets. Currently, the market is heavily concentrated in residential mortgage assets, which are in turn purchased mainly by the same originating banks. The Central Government set up an expert consulting group to provide recommendations to deepen the local securities market. In December 2019, the group published its final report, noting that there should be incentives to broaden the scope of securitised assets. Furthermore, the study notes that several public entities currently have material assets sitting in their balance sheets, which could well be securitised in order to provide liquidity for such entities and deepen the securities market while providing attractive alternatives for investors.

Other recommendations contained in the study include the need for the state to set up an entity to provide a guarantee to such public securitised assets. Such guarantee would be particularly useful in relation to securitisation of alternative assets, such as those derived from education, the health system, agriculture business and infrastructure.

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Raising funds by means of asset securitisation transactions remains a relatively new concept in the Czech Republic. The first successful Czech-based transaction in the form of a securitisation was finalised in 2003 when Home Credit Finance a.s. (a non-banking provider of consumer credits) securitised its portfolio of credit card receivables. A further securitisation transaction was completed in 2006 when Raiffeisenbank a.s. together with Raiffeisen Bank Polska S.A. securitised their portfolio of bank loans. However, it is worth noting that certain industries present numerous opportunities for this method of off-balance sheet financing, and potential investors have also shown interest in financing them. After the slowdown during 2009, the conditions for household lending became much more favourable for debtors, since the financial and real estate sector was substantially affected by the crisis. However, the Czech economy has fully recovered from the crisis years and there still appears to be great potential for further growth. Accordingly, securitisation appears to have become attractive in the Czech Republic particularly in the areas of consumer credit, credit cards and business loans. With regards to mortgage loans, it should be noted that in the Czech Republic there is an established practice of issuing mortgage-backed bonds, which is effectively a method by which banks can fund their mortgage loans portfolios in a relatively inexpensive and tested manner. Mortgage bonds are attractive but are clearly limited to specified classes of loans.

General legal framework

Currently, there is no specific securitisation legislation in the Czech Republic (although there is certain pressure from the finance industry to introduce such legislation). General provisions of Czech law will therefore apply to the respective legal relationships within a securitisation. Any legal uncertainty can be eliminated by sophisticated structuring.

Method of transfer

The most common method of transferring receivables governed by Czech law is by way of an assignment. This is achieved by an agreement between the Originator (the assignor) and the Special Purpose Vehicle (“SPV”) (the assignee). Generally, an effective assignment involves a true transfer of the underlying receivables from the Originator to the SPV along with the necessary documentation relating to the receivable which is necessary to enforce the receivable against the debtor.

The debtor’s consent is not required in order to assign receivables under Czech law; however, this rule can be overridden by contract and it is therefore necessary to review the underlying documentation. If the debtors are not notified by the Originator that an assignment has taken place, or the assignment is not proved to the debtors by the SPV, the debtors may validly discharge their obligations by paying, or entering a settlement with the Originator rather than paying the SPV. The assignment would be binding only on the parties to the assignment agreement.

As mentioned above, in order to make an assignment effective against the debtor, the assignment must either be notified to the debtor by the Originator (or a person acting on behalf of the Originator) or by the SPV if the SPV can provide evidence of the assignment to the debtor. In the latter case, the debtors can request a copy of the assignment agreement. In both cases, notice should, but does not have to, be given in the form of a written statement delivered to the individual debtors in relation to each receivable. There are, however, no mandatory rules governing notification of assignment to the debtors. Notice is effective when it is received by the debtor. When the receivable is assigned to multiple subjects, the first assignment which is notified to the debtor is effective.

It should be noted that, even after the effective assignment occurs, the debtors are entitled to set off against the receivables transferred to the SPV the sums owed to them by the Originator as well as the sums which were not due at the time of the assignment. However, the debtors must notify the SPV of such set-off rights against the Originator without undue delay after being notified of the assignment. After the debtors receive the notice of assignment, the SPV will be entitled to receive payments (payment to the Originator will not release the debtor from its obligation in relation to the receivable) and ultimately enforce outstanding receivables on its own account. Further, the SPV may under specified conditions instruct the Originator to enforce the receivables in the Originator’s name and on the account of the SPV. If the receivables are enforced by the Originator, the debtor is entitled to set off his own rights against the obligations to the Originator but not against obligations to the SPV, even after the debtors are notified of the assignment.

In practice, one can limit the above risk by prohibiting set-off in the underlying documentation. In this regard, it should be noted that enforceability of such a clause is an issue which is not provided for by specific provision of Czech law, but by general legal practice. In addition, a decision of the Czech Supreme Court confirmed that a clause prohibiting set-off is valid. Despite the fact that, unlike in common law systems, Czech court decisions do not set a precedent which is binding in other cases, Czech courts will usually follow decisions made by the Supreme Court.

It should also be noted that without the consent of the debtor only the Originator’s rights (not obligations) may be assigned. Therefore, any obligations of the Originator arising from the underlying documentation will remain with the Originator. This inevitably raises commercial issues which can be solved (for example) by using a back-to-back contractual arrangement between the Originator and the SPV. However, after the enactment of the new Czech Civil Code in 2014, the concept of assignment of the whole contract was introduced. This allows the assignment of both rights and obligations under the contract. Such assignment becomes effective only after the consent of the other party to the contract (the non-assigning party) has been given. The non-assigning party may express its consent in advance. In such case, the assignment becomes effective upon its communication to the non-assigning party by the assignor or upon the assignment being proved to it by the assignee (i.e., the same system of notification as in the case of receivables assignment). However, it should be noted that the non-assigning party may disagree with the fact that the assignor is freed from its obligations towards the non-assigning party upon such assignment. Therefore, if the non-assigning party expresses such disagreement, the assignor will still be obliged to perform its obligations under the contract in case the assignee does not fulfill them.
**CZECH REPUBLIC**

**Appurtenances and the security package**

One issue that needs to be given proper consideration is the quality of the security package related to the assigned receivables. In this regard, it should be noted that in many cases the security interest is perfected by the process of registration in the relevant registry (real estate registry, commercial registry, notarial register of movable pledges, etc.). The review of the quality of the security package is a task to be undertaken during the due diligence process to ensure proper perfection has occurred. If perfection has not occurred, enforcement of the security package may be problematic.

It is important to recognise that appurtenances (e.g., interest) and also any forms of security, are transferred automatically with the assigned receivables. However, with regard to the security, in order to properly transfer a receivable encumbered with any form security, the person providing such security must be properly notified of the assignment by the assignor (or the assignment must be proved to such person by the assignee). Until such notification has been made, the assignment is not effective towards the security provider.

Unlike in other jurisdictions, the transfer of the security package does not depend on the registration in the relevant registries (i.e., the transfer takes place at the date of assignment, provided that the assignment is properly notified), although in most cases it is practical or even necessary to amend the records in such registries prior to the enforcement of the rights under the security package. Such amendment of the records in the relevant registries does not affect the ranking of the transferred security interest. The time necessary for making the required changes in the relevant registries can vary depending on the type of security interest created and also on the relevant authority involved in the registration. For example, notarial registries of movable pledges can be amended in a matter of hours or days, while amending the records of the real estates registries can take several weeks or months depending on the particular authority involved.

**“True sale”/insolvency issues**

It is also important to pay attention to the structuring of the assignment, because there is a risk that, if not structured properly, the transaction could be construed as a security assignment rather than a “true sale” transaction. The principle of security assignment is that the assignment contains an undertaking of the assignee to assign the transferred receivable back to the assignor when the underlying (secured) obligation is properly fulfilled by the debtor.

The terms of the assignment should be bona fide, and on arm’s length commercial terms. If these principles are not followed, and if the Originator experiences financial instability (including insolvency), the assignment could be challenged by the creditors of the Originator and/or its bankruptcy administrator. Nevertheless, the price paid for the receivables can reflect genuine discounts provided on a commercial basis without disturbing the “true sale” character of the transaction. On condition that it is reasonable (i.e., reflecting the commercial basis), payment can be deferred as well.

**Liability of the Originator to the SPV**

In respect of the assignment agreement, the Originator will be liable to the SPV if:

a. the assigned receivable does not meet the eligibility criteria set or agreed upon;

b. the Originator does not notify the SPV of certain defects which the receivable has and/or does not have;

c. the Originator assures the SPV, contrary to the reality, that the receivable does not have any defect or that it is fit for a particular use; or

d. the Originator is not the legal owner of the receivable assigned.

It should also be noted that if consideration was provided for the assignment of the receivable, the Originator would be liable to the SPV if the receivable does not in fact exist at the time of its assignment. Such liability is limited by the total amount of the consideration plus interest. In addition, the Originator is also liable for the recoverability of the receivable by the SPV.

**Global assignment of existing and/or future receivables**

In addition to assigning specifically identified receivables each time they arise, Czech law enables a global assignment of both existing and future receivables by way of one (framework) assignment agreement. Such receivables must be clearly identified. Global assignment of future receivables is easier in terms of deal structuring as there is no need for a periodical assignment of the respective receivables. Such future receivables would be assigned as at the moment of their creation with no follow-up actions needed on the part of the assignor or the assignee which are typical where individual receivables are assigned.

**Conflict of law**

Under the Rome I Regulation on the law applicable to contractual obligations, which has been adopted at EU level and is binding in the Czech Republic, it is possible to choose the governing law for individual contractual arrangements of the securitisation transaction without limitation. Parties to the assignment of receivables can choose the law which will govern their relationship, while the law governing the right to which the assignment relates will determine its assignability, the relationship between the assignee and the debtor, the conditions under which the assignment can be invoked against the debtor and any question as to whether the debtor’s obligations have been discharged. However, it should be noted that in contracts, where all elements relevant to the transaction at the time of choice of law are concerned with one country only, the choice of law does not prejudice the application of rules of that country which cannot be derogated from by that contract (so-called “mandatory rules”).
SPV

The SPV is an entity established for the purposes of a securitisation transaction. Its activity is limited to acts essential for the completion of the securitisation. The SPV should be “bankruptcy remote”.

In order to create an independent ownership structure for the SPV, the form of a trust fund (svěřenský fond) can be used. This allows for SPV structuring similar to trusts recognised in common law systems. If the form of a trust fund is not used, the SPV should be created and controlled by independent third parties to ensure it is bankruptcy remote.

A Czech-based SPV does not need to be licenced or otherwise qualified in order to perform its role in the securitisation transaction. In particular, it need not be a bank or a financial institution under Czech banking regulations.

Regulatory issues

DATA PROTECTION

Regulation (EU) 2016/679 on the protection of natural persons with regard to the processing of personal data and on the free movement of such data (General Data Protection Regulation) (“GDPR”) and ensuing Czech delegated Data Processing Act deal only with individuals, therefore if the debtors are companies, data protection legislation would not apply. Information related to companies (e.g., their name, reputation, trade secrets, etc.) is protected by general provisions of the Czech Civil Code.

In the case of individuals, the assignment of receivables to the SPV represents a legitimate interest of the Originator as required by the GDPR and, as a result, a consent of the debtor with the transfer and processing of his or her personal data is not required. In case that an entity different from the assignee (the SPV) will service the receivables (as would typically be the Originator) a data processing agreement pursuant to Art. 28(1) of the GDPR needs to be concluded.

It should also be noted that the export of personal data outside the EU is limited by equivalent EU data protection legislation. Only those non-EU Member States that received an equivalency decision of the European Commission pursuant to Art. 45(1) of the GDPR are considered to have an equal level of data protection as an EU Member State. Therefore, no specific requirements need to be fulfilled with regard to the transfer of personal data to those jurisdictions.

BANKING SECRECY

Banking secrecy laws apply to debtors whether they are individuals or companies. The regulation of banking secrecy under Czech law is quite strict, causing potential obstacles not only to structured securitisation transactions but also to other common bank business activities. Banks are not allowed to provide any information about their customers during the course of their business without the customers’ consent. Outsourcing arrangements provide another example of potential problems with banking secrecy in terms of protecting the information by the outsourcing party in the same way as the bank.

We note, however, that the Czech National Bank has approved (by way of example) the sale of non-performing loans as compatible with banking secrecy. Moreover, the Czech Supreme Court has ruled several times that an agreement on assignment of receivables which are due is not invalid just because the assignor is a bank and the assigned receivables are subject to banking secrecy. It is therefore advisable that banking secrecy issues in respect of the assignment of loans which are not due or not classified by the Czech National Bank as non-performing loans should be discussed with the Czech National Bank.

CONSUMER PROTECTION

The regulation of consumer rights in the Czech Republic is compliant with corresponding EU rules. As far as consumer receivables are concerned, a mere assignment of receivables is not subject to any specific consumer protection law requirements. However, legislation governing the fairness of contract terms may apply. The rate of interest (as well as default interest) that may be charged to debtors (consumers) can either be determined on a contractual basis or by way of reference to the relevant legislation, however, certain principles of good moral conduct (i.e., the restriction on usurious interest rates) must also be considered.

Securitisation of consumer receivables may trigger further consumer protection issues. In particular, consumer credits may be prepaid at any time without the imposition of charges, fair settlement among contracting parties (goods provider, credit provider and consumer) must be reached if the consumer returns the purchased goods, and damages claims made by a consumer may result in the set-off of its claim for damages against a receivable.

If the underlying contracts are held not to be compatible with the consumer protection regime, the relevant clauses will be unenforceable, provided that those relevant clauses are separable from the main body of the contract. If they are not separable, then the whole contract may be rendered unenforceable. This issue should be covered during the due diligence process as it is assumed that consumer credit contracts will be in standardised form.

FOREIGN EXCHANGE CONTROLS

Since the Foreign Exchange Act has been repealed, there are no foreign exchange controls in place during ordinary periods. Remaining are only the notification duties in respect of the Czech National Bank, which should be considered in respect of each particular transaction. In case of emergencies, however, the Czech Government may impose foreign exchange controls pursuant to the Emergency Act.
FOREIGN EXCHANGE RATES AND INTEREST RATES RELATED RISK

One of the issues which should be taken into account during the structuring of any cross-currency securitisation transaction is the risk connected with the changes in foreign exchange rates and the risk connected with fluctuations in interest rates. FX risk is prominent in cases where the securities issued by the SPV are denominated in a different currency than the securitised assets. Interest rate risk is particularly prominent in all cases where the securitised receivables have floating interest rates (or a fixed rate where the securities issued by the SPV have a floating interest rate). Each of the above risks can be eliminated by using appropriate derivative instruments.

ANTI MONEY LAUNDERING REGULATION

Any entity purchasing debts and receivables for business purposes falls within the scope of the “Regulated Person” definition under the Czech Anti-Money Laundering and Terrorist Financing Act. Therefore, depending on the deal structure, the SPV would likely have to comply with such regulation.

Conclusion

After the economy recovered from the crisis years, the economic potential of financing through asset securitisation seems to be great again. It appears to be only a question of time before securitisation will begin to play a more substantial role in the Czech Republic. Initial securitisation deals have been completed and further transactions are likely to be contemplated in the future. From a legal perspective, the environment of uncertainty resulting from the piecemeal and incomplete legal regime applicable to securitisation may be successfully eliminated by the use of well-thought-out legal structures.

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**Legal framework**

Other than certain tax laws and Brexit-related legislation (as described below), there is no specific securitisation legislation in England and the legal framework is based on general principles of English law, market practice and, in particular, common law. Furthermore, the English securitisation market is, for the time being, generally regulated by the EU directives and regulations (including the Securitisation Regulation, which came into effect on 1 January 2019 — please see the chapter starting on page 15 of this guide).

Transaction documents relating to securitisations in England are typically governed by the law of England and Wales. There is a common misconception that English law is the appropriate law for any transaction involving assets or obligors located in the UK. This is the case as it relates to England and Wales. However, if any of the underlying assets or any of the underlying obligors are governed by or located in Scotland or Northern Ireland, separate Scottish law or Northern Irish advice will be required.

**Incorporating a special purpose vehicle (SPV)**

An English SPV is typically incorporated as a public or private company limited by shares, depending on whether the transaction involves an offer of securities to the public. Unless there are compelling reasons to do otherwise, it is standardmarket practice in England to establish an SPV as an orphan entity that does not form part of the same corporate group as any other party to the transaction (including the originator). Typically, a third-party entity (a corporate services provider) would have membership interests in the orphan entity, held in trust for discretionary charitable purposes.

**Method of transfer**

In order to effect a legal assignment of receivables, the following requirements must be met:

- The assignment must be absolute rather than by way of charge.
- The rights being assigned must relate to the whole (and not part only) of the debt.
- The assignment must be in writing under the hand of the assignor.
- Express notice of the assignment must be given to the obligor.

Where the underlying asset portfolio comprises a number of receivables, it is typical for the assignment of receivables to take effect in equity only. This is a practical approach, but it has the added benefit (for originators) that the underlying obligors are not notified of the assignment while the transaction is being performed.

An assignment that takes effect in equity only will have the following consequences:

- **(a)** An obligor is likely and entitled by virtue of its lack of knowledge of the transfer of receivables pursuant to a securitisation transaction to continue to make payments under the relevant financing contract with the originator as legally entitled to receive the same.
- **(b)** The originator can give an obligor a good discharge for payment upon the originator receiving the relevant monies from such obligor.
- **(c)** An obligor may set off against the SPV claims against the originator arising prior to the receipt by the obligor of a notice of transfer, although the giving of such notice to the obligor will not preclude a subsequent claim of the obligor against the originator being available for set-off against the debt assigned to the SPV if it is closely or inseparably connected with the relevant financing contract.
- **(d)** A later assignee of (or taken of a fixed charge over) a financing contract without notice of the transfer by the originator of the relevant receivables pursuant to a securitisation transaction who first gives notice to the obligor of its interest would take priority over the SPV.
- **(e)** The SPV would be required to join the originator in any action to enforce the relevant debt against an obligor prior to notice being given.

Given the above consequences, it is typical for transaction documents to include specified default triggers that would entitle the SPV/trustee to serve notice of the assignment on the underlying debtors, thereby perfecting the assignment.

An insolvency office holder would ordinarily be bound by a valid assignment (whether an equitable assignment or a legal assignment) effected prior to the onset of insolvency, subject to any clawback rights. However, if the assignor is required to take further steps to realise the recoverables (for example, where the securitised receivables relate to vehicle-related financing contracts, in the event that a vehicle is returned and is required to be monetised via an auction sale), there is scope for the proceeds of realisation to accrue to the insolvency estate of the assignor and not the assignee.

**Over-collateralisation/yield**

Both a discount (to cover funding costs) and a deferred element (to cover over-collateralisation levels) can be incorporated into the purchase price paid for the relevant English receivables without affecting the true sale nature of the transaction.
Tax

CORPORATE INCOME TAX

There is a special corporation tax regime for "securitisation companies" in the UK. The Taxation of Securitisation Companies Regulations 2006 (SI 2006/3296) (“2006 Regulations”) was introduced to tax securitisation companies on their actual cash profit, rather than on the accounting profit (to address potential distortions in accounting and tax reporting arising from accounting changes in 2005). This ensures that there is minimal tax leakage from a structure that uses an English SPV.

Certain conditions need to be met for an SPV to be a "securitisation company" for the purposes of the 2006 Regulations (as amended by the 2018 Regulations, defined below).

Among other things:
- The assets securitised have to be financial assets for accounting purposes.
- Broadly, the SPV has to distribute all the cash that it receives within an 18-month period (except where reserves of cash are required to be retained, for example, for credit enhancement purposes).
- Generally, the SPV has to satisfy certain requirements in relation to the issuance of securities and their status under UK insolvency law.

The Taxation of Securitisation Companies (Amendment) Regulations 2018 (‘2018 Regulations’) amend and update the existing 2006 Regulations, addressing the uncertainty regarding the application of certain tax rules on securitisation companies.

The 2018 Regulations:
- (a) remove the obligation to withhold income tax in respect of residual payments
- (b) make revisions to the definition of “financial assets” (for arrangements made after 6 February 2018), including:
  - i. to clarify that derivatives whose underlying subject matters include land or shares and loan relationships with embedded derivatives relating to shares or land are included (to address doubt had been cast on this point).
  - ii. to disregard small and insignificant non-financial assets where they have been inadvertently included in a portfolio of otherwise qualifying financial assets
- (c) exclude securitisation companies from the recovery of unpaid corporation tax provisions
- (d) make revisions to the definition of a “warehouse company” to allow a warehouse securitisation company to transfer assets indirectly to a note-issuing company or an asset-holding company on a securitisation

INTEREST WITHHOLDING TAX

England (and the UK generally, given that tax rules apply across the UK) is a jurisdiction where withholding tax (as at the date of this guide, at the rate of 20%) generally applies to payments of interest. Therefore, it is important to ensure that appropriate withholding exemptions apply to all payments within the securitisation structure to avoid tax leakage.

Generally, payments of interest with a UK source may be paid without withholding UK tax where the recipient is either:
- a UK resident company
- a non-resident carrying on business in the UK through a branch or agency to which the payment of interest is attributable

Therefore, if the SPV is located in England, there is generally no UK withholding on underlying assets. Where payments of interest that arise in the UK are made to a non-UK resident company (including a securitisation SPV), these payments are usually subject to withholding and the SPV will generally have to apply for relief under an applicable double tax treaty. Non-UK resident SPVs that purchase English assets are generally located in Ireland, Luxembourg or the Netherlands, as each has a double tax treaty with the UK.

Payments of interest made by an English SPV can generally (and subject to certain exceptions) only be paid without withholding of UK tax where the SPV’s securities are listed on a “recognised” stock exchange and are therefore entitled to the UK “quoted Eurobond” exemption.

STAMP DUTY

Generally, UK transfer taxes (stamp duty, stamp duty reserve tax and stamp duty land tax) are levied only on transfers of shares, real estate and non-standard loans carrying characteristics that UK legislation has deemed equivalent to equity. There are currently no other stamp duties or transfer taxes applicable to the issue of notes or transfers of receivables in the UK.

Accounting treatment

Currently, the two sets of accounting standards of primary relevance to corporate entities acting as originators in a securitisation transaction are the International Financial Reporting Standards ("IFRS") and the Generally Accepted Accounting Principles ("GAAP"). Under both regimes, if the securitisation transaction or structure under review includes one or more SPVs, the first accounting issue to consider will be whether the SPV is required to be consolidated by one or more of the relevant parties involved.

The second question is whether the receivables will be treated as off-balance sheet items. These are accounting, as opposed to legal, questions and it is important to recognise that it is possible for there to be a legal true sale in circumstances where off-balance accounting treatment is not achieved (and the converse also applies).
Regulatory concerns

In recent years, regulatory change has been increasingly driven by new European legislation. In particular, the Securitisation Regulation (please see the separate chapter in this guide on the Securitisation Regulation) and the revised European capital requirements framework are significantly affecting securitisations in England.

In a post-Brexit environment, and following the transition period set out in the Withdrawal Agreement, existing EU legislation will become domestic UK law pursuant to an “onshoring” process. Certain “onshored” legislation will require amendments to properly operate. In relation to the Securitisation Regulation, the Securitisation (Amendment) (EU Exit) Regulations 2019 provide certain amendments to the Securitisation Regulation, which are designed to apply in the UK after the Brexit transition period. Although closely aligned with the Securitisation Regulation, the Securitisation (Amendment) (EU Exit) Regulations 2019 introduce certain deviations that may be the start of a diverging path for English securitisation.

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Regulatory concerns

France has banking monopoly rules which, in principle, forbid the performance of credit operations made on the French territory (such as the purchase of non-matured receivables) by anyone other than a French-licenced or EU-passported financial institution or a French investment fund specifically authorised to do so.

Legal framework

The legal framework of securitisation in France is largely shaped by reference to the entities developing securitisation activities, regulated by the Code monétaire et financier (CMF). Additionally, the core principles of contract law set out in the Code civil (FCC) apply. French domestic legislation is complemented by the European Union rules applicable, particularly EU Regulation 2017/2402 ("Securitisation Regulation").

Until 2017, securitisation activities were restricted to organismes de titrisation (OT) and then extended by the Ordonnance No. 2017-1432 of 4 October 2017 to organismes de financement spécialisé (OFS), both belonging to the generic category of organismes de financement (OF) constituted under the CMF.

In order to facilitate access to the French financial, the Ordonnance of 2017 has introduced an exception to the banking monopoly rule allowing non-licenced entities to purchase unmatured receivables arising from credit operations provided that the debtor is not an individual acting for non-professional purposes.

Incorporating an SPV

Until 2017, securitisation transactions were usually structured through two alternative forms of OF: the fonds commun de titrisation (FCT) or the société de titrisation (SDT). The FCT is set up as a fund without legal personality, while the SDT is incorporated as a limited liability company and is usually employed in transactions with an international tax element to allow an efficient tax treatment.

The 2017 legislative reform has introduced a new type of entity, the organisme de financement spécialisé (OFS). OFS can take two forms: fonds de financement spécialisé (FFS) or société de financement spécialisé (SFS). The FFS can be set up as a fund with no legal personality and the SFS can be set up as a limited liability company.

All the above structures are typically managed by a management company licensed by the Autorité des Marchés Financiers (AMF) as a portfolio management company (société de gestion de portefeuille) and authorised to manage alternative investment funds (Fonds d’investissement alternatifs). A custodian is appointed to act as depositary of the receivables held by the OT or OFS and of any other liquid assets. The custodian must be a credit institution established in a country belonging to the European Economic Area or a credit institution specifically authorised by the French Ministry of Economy and Finance.

French OT and OFS (including their compartments) are bankruptcy remote, pursuant to section 214-175 (III) of the CMF.

Method of transfer

French law allows securitisation of existing and future receivables to be either governed by French or foreign law and also allows different originators to sell into a single securitisation entity.

Under French law, securitisation receivables are usually transferred using the method provided in the CMF, using a bordereau delivered by the seller/originator to the OT/ OFS management company. The bordereau effectively assigns the receivable as well as any security attached thereto without need for further formalities and is enforceable towards third parties on the date thereof, irrespective of the date of creation or maturity of the receivables.

Transfer of existing and/or future assets to a bankruptcy-remote OT or an OFS is not typically open to challenge upon the seller/originator’s insolvency given that, pursuant to the provisions of the CMF, the assets are effectively insulated from risk of consolidation in the originator/seller’s balance sheet and from clawback risk.

Over-collateralisation/yield

Although there are no specific requirements in relation to over-collateralisation or credit enhancement under French law, transactions are usually structured to include a certain degree of over-collateralisation and certain credit enhancement features.

Tax

The transfer of assets to OTs and OFCs is generally tax neutral. The tax regime applicable to FCTs is designed to make these entities not subject to corporate income tax. This is not the case with SDFs, which are often constituted on the basis of bespoke agreements with the relevant tax authorities.

No withholding tax applies on interest payments made by debtors established in France. Securities issued by OTs and OFCs are subject to 75% withholding tax in relation to payments made to entities located outside France in a non-cooperative state or territory, with a few limited exceptions (the list of which is updated every year) (Section 125 A of the Code Général des Impôts).

Accounting treatment

Section 214-175 (I) of the CMF establishes the accounting obligations of French OTS and OFS and their management companies, which include a balance sheet, profit and loss account and other annexes prescribed by the relevant competent authority.

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Legal framework

Germany does not have a dedicated securitisation regime. Thus, the German legal framework mainly applicable to securitisation transactions includes the Civil Code (Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch), the Insolvency Code (Insolvenzordnung), German tax laws and the German Banking Act (Kreditwesengesetz). In addition, several European regulations, which are directly applicable, play an increasing role, in particular, the Securitisation Regulation, as well as the Capital Requirements Regulation (“CRR”) and the Alternative Investment Fund Managers Regulation (“AIFMR”).

German special purpose vehicles (SPVs)

German special purpose entities are predominantly established for the securitisation of bank loans for which an exemption in relation to trade tax applies. In such case, the SPV usually takes the form of a German limited liability company (Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung — GmbH). Within the corporate form of GmbH, a small form of GmbH is commonly used (Unternehmergeellschaft (haftungsbeschränkt) — UG) which can be quickly established with a minimal share capital of EUR 1 only. Offshore SPV jurisdictions are customarily used for other asset classes.

Method of transfer

While the sale agreement between seller and purchaser establishes the contractual obligation of the seller to sell the receivables, the common method of title transfer of claims governed by German law (i.e., claims arising from any agreement governed by German law, either expressly or impliedly) is effected by way of assignment. This is achieved by an agreement between the assignor (i.e., the seller of the receivables) and the assignee (i.e., the purchaser of the receivables), which is typically created by way of: (i) a written offer by the assignor to the assignee; and (ii) payment of the relevant purchase price by the assignee to the assignor by way of acceptance (offer and acceptance method). In contrast, it is not necessary to inform the underlying debtor/obligor of the assignment for it to be valid. From a practical perspective, obligor notification is required if the purchaser wishes to enforce the collection of due receivables directly.

Over-collateralisation/yield

Both a discount (to cover funding costs) and a deferred element (to cover over-collateralisation levels) can be incorporated into the purchase price paid for the relevant German receivables without disturbing the true sale nature of the transaction. However, this is subject to the proviso that the discount and/or deferred element is either reasonable (i.e., based on historical default rates plus a certain margin) or is fixed at the time of sale so as not to endanger any removal (if intended) of the receivables from the transferor’s balance sheet (see under “Accounting treatment” below).

Withholding tax

Generally, there are no withholding or other taxes imposed on payments made by German debtors with regard to claims that are sold and assigned in the course of a securitisation transaction. As a rule, this position is no different if these payments bear interest.

Stamp duty

Currently, there is no stamp duty or any similar documentary charge in Germany levied on the assignment of claims, irrespective of the method of transfer chosen.

Tax on German source income

For a typical securitisation transaction, the purchaser will typically be incorporated and based outside Germany, mainly for tax reasons (corporate income tax, trade tax and VAT). However, where the assets are securitised by a bank, a German SPV can be operated on a tax-neutral basis. An SPV incorporated outside Germany will be subject to limited corporate income and trade tax only if the originator, in its capacity as a seller and/or servicer, is regarded as either the purchaser’s “permanent establishment” or “permanent representative” in Germany. However, this can be avoided by structuring the transaction carefully.

Accounting treatment

Under German law, there are no specific rules setting out the accounting treatment of a German securitisation transaction. Accordingly, Germany’s Generally Accepted Accounting Principles must be applied. Under these rules, the transfer of claims shown in the seller’s balance sheet results in a removal from the balance sheet if the transfer can be qualified as a true sale. This is the case if the so-called “economic ownership” (wirtschaftliches Eigentum) passes from the seller to the purchaser. In contrast, the transfer of legal title alone is not sufficient. Generally, the conditions for a true sale include the following:

- From an economic perspective, the credit risk (i.e., the risk that the debtor of the receivables does not meet its payment obligations) is assumed by the purchaser.
- The sale of the receivables is final (which would not be the case, for example, if the reassignment/resale of the receivables had already been agreed at the time of the sale).
- There are no default guarantees from the seller and neither a total return swap nor an agreement pursuant to which the purchase price will be adjusted in accordance with the losses of the sold receivables are entered into between the seller and the purchaser.
- The seller of the receivables does not hold equity in the purchaser and does not acquire debt securities issued by the purchaser (either in full or in a significant amount).
• Any purchase price discount agreed between the parties is either non-adjustable or, if adjustable, qualifies as appropriate and customary in the market (e.g., because it is determined based on the quota of actual past losses plus a reasonable risk surcharge).

Any remaining risk retained by the seller could jeopardise the off-balance sheet treatment and should therefore be considered very carefully. An obligation of the originator to repurchase merely those receivables that are subject to misrepresentation, however, will not jeopardise a true sale. Where the dividing line between these two extremes falls, and how best a transaction can be structured to achieve off-balance sheet treatment, would need to be addressed in detail. Nevertheless, off-balance sheet treatment can often be achieved.

**Regulatory concerns**

In recent years, regulatory change has mainly been enacted by European legislation. The Securitisation Regulation and the revised European capital requirements framework continue to have the greatest impact on securitisations in Germany.

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Legal framework

There is no specific securitisation legislation in Hong Kong. Instead, the framework applicable to securitisation transactions in Hong Kong is primarily based on common law principles, as well as a number of Hong Kong statutes that may be relevant to certain aspects of securitisation transactions, such as: (a) the Companies Ordinance (in relation to establishment of SPVs, originators and registration of security); (b) the Companies (Winding Up and Miscellaneous Provisions) Ordinance (in relation to insolvency); (c) the Law Amendment and Reform (Consolidation) Ordinance (in relation to transfer of loans and receivables); (d) the Money Lenders Ordinance (in relation to lending); (f) the Securities and Futures Ordinance (in relation to issuance of securities); (g) the Conveyancing and Property Ordinance (in relation to dispositions with an intent to defraud creditors); and (e) the Personal Data (Privacy) Ordinance (in relation to the use and transfer of personal data).

Incorporating an SPV

A special purpose vehicle (SPV) is typically used in securitisation transactions in Hong Kong. The SPV will normally beneficially own the assets (e.g., debts and other receivables) purchased from the originator and issue notes to investors. The SPV will usually be established as bankruptcy-remote from the originator in order to prevent creditors of the originator from having any claims against the SPV on the insolvency of the originator. In addition, SPVs are generally orphan entities that fall outside of the corporate group of the other parties to the securitisation transaction (such as the originator).

The Companies Ordinance provides a legal framework for the establishment of companies in Hong Kong (which includes SPVs), but there are no specific laws relating to the establishment of SPVs for securitisation transactions. Although the SPVs can be incorporated in Hong Kong, it is more common to establish SPVs in offshore jurisdictions such as the Cayman Islands, which may provide more favourable tax treatment and enhanced provisions regarding SPV status.

It is common for the constitutional documents of the SPV to impose restrictions on the activities that SPVs can undertake (namely, those which relate to the securitisation transaction, such as the ownership of the assets purchased from the originator and the issuance of notes) so as to minimise the risk of the SPVs conducting other business and incurring liabilities to third party creditors.

Method of transfer

The method of transfer for receivables that are governed by Hong Kong law (such as where the receivables arise under a Hong Kong law contract) is by way of assignment of such receivable to the SPV. An assignment may be effected as either a legal or equitable assignment. In order for an assignment of receivables to take effect as a legal assignment under Hong Kong law, the following requirements set out in the Law Amendment and Reform (Consolidation) Ordinance must be met:

- The assignment must be an absolute assignment, rather than an assignment by way of security.
- The whole amount of the receivable must be assigned, rather than a partial assignment of the receivable.
- The assignment must be in writing and signed by the assignor (i.e., the originator).
- Express written notice of the assignment must be given to the debtor.

Any assignment that does not satisfy the above criteria (such as where the assignment is not disclosed by notice to the debtor) will take effect as an equitable assignment, whereby the originator retains the legal interest in the assigned receivables. An equitable assignment will also have the following key consequences:

i. A debtor may obtain a good discharge of the debt owed by it in respect of the assigned receivable by paying the originator (and not the SPV).
ii. A debtor may have rights of set-off or counterclaim against the originator, which would be binding against the SPV.
iii. The originator may agree with the debtor to amend the underlying contract under which the assigned receivables arises without the SPV’s consent.
iv. A subsequent security or assignment of the receivables to a third party may rank in priority to the SPV’s interest in the assigned receivables if the third party does not have notice of the SPV’s rights and if the debtor receives notice of the subsequent security or assignment prior to receiving notice of the SPV’s interest.
v. The SPV would be required to join the originator in any action to enforce the relevant debt against the debtor prior to notice being given.

As such, if the assignment is on an undisclosed basis and takes effect as an equitable assignment only, it is common for the transaction documents to include specific triggers entitling the SPV (or requiring the originator) to serve a notice of assignment to the relevant debtor in order to perfect the assignment as a legal assignment.

Over-collateralisation/yield

Both a discount (for the purpose of covering funding costs) and a deferred element (to cover over-collateralisation levels) can be incorporated into the purchase price paid for the relevant Hong Kong receivables without disturbing the true sale nature of the transaction.

Tax

Gains on the transfer of capital assets are not taxed in Hong Kong. The special purpose vehicle (SPV) could be subject to profits tax in Hong Kong if it is considered to be carrying on trade or business in Hong Kong. Depending on the structure, the chargeable income could be minimal to the extent that the SPV can claim tax deduction for its interest expenses.
These factors include the following:

1. **Security Grant**: The assignment of receivables involves the grant of security and therefore should be recharacterised as a secured loan. This means that if a transaction is intended to be a true sale, then generally speaking, no security should be granted in support of the obligations of the originator to avoid the risk that a Hong Kong court would recharacterise the transaction into a secured loan.

2. **Recovery of Receivables**: A true sale of the receivables by the originator to the SPV would constitute a sale of the receivables, rather than a loan secured by the relevant assigned receivables. A true sale of the receivables would result in the originator ceasing to be the beneficial owner of the receivables, such that the receivables would not constitute assets of the originator (or its estate) or become subject to any insolvency proceedings relating to the originator.

3. **Auditor's Perspective**: In determining whether or not a particular transaction is a true sale or whether it involves the grant of security and therefore should be recharacterised as a secured loan, auditors would typically consider certain factors. One of the key factors that auditors would typically consider is whether the assignment of the receivables takes effect as a true sale, that is, whether the assignment of the receivables by the originator to the SPV would constitute a sale of the receivables, rather than a loan secured by the relevant assigned receivables. A true sale of the receivables would result in the originator ceasing to be the beneficial owner of the receivables, such that the receivables would not constitute assets of the originator (or its estate) or become subject to any insolvency proceedings relating to the originator.

4. **Regulatory concerns**: Where the originator is a licenced bank in Hong Kong (or another form of authorised institution in Hong Kong), it may need to approach the Hong Kong Monetary Authority or otherwise observe the guidance issued by it prior to undertaking a securitisation. For completeness, in certain cases, a liquidator of the originator appointed under Hong Kong law may seek to set aside or disclaim a sale and assignment of receivables under Hong Kong insolvency laws, such as in cases of transactions at an undervalue, unfair preference, disclaimer of onerous property, disposition with intent to defraud creditors and so on.

### Accounting treatment

Whether or not a securitisation transaction can receive off-balance sheet treatment from the originator’s group would need to be analysed and confirmed by auditors. One of the key factors that auditors would typically consider is whether the assignment of the receivables takes effect as a true sale, that is, whether the assignment of the receivables by the originator to the SPV would constitute a sale of the receivables, rather than a loan secured by the relevant assigned receivables. A true sale of the receivables would result in the originator ceasing to be the beneficial owner of the receivables, such that the receivables would not constitute assets of the originator (or its estate) or become subject to any insolvency proceedings relating to the originator.

The factors include the following:

- **Under a true sale**: A seller would not be entitled to recover the assets sold by paying the purchase price back to the purchaser. Conversely, under a secured loan arrangement, security providers have an equity of redemption entitling them to demand the release of any assets from any security granted by it upon the repayment of any money owed to the secured party. For example, if the purchaser has a general right to demand the seller to repurchase all receivables originally sold by it and repay the purchase price, this may undermine the true sale analysis.

- **Under a true sale**: A purchaser would be free to deal with the assets purchased by it without having to account for any profit to the seller. However, under a secured loan arrangement, the security provider would be entitled to the surplus funds remaining after the sale of any secured assets once the relevant amounts owed have been discharged. By the same token, under a true sale, if a purchaser sells any purchased assets at a loss, such loss would be on the purchaser’s own account and it cannot look to the seller to recover any such loss. Under a secured loan arrangement, the security provider would still be liable for any amounts owed that are not discharged in full by the proceeds of sale of the secured assets.

- **Similarly, under a true sale**: A purchaser would have no right of recourse against a seller for deficiencies in the receivables or for any failure to receive payment on them for any reason (i.e., general non-payment risk and insolvency risk would be assumed by the purchaser), or for deficiencies under the contracts under which the receivables arose, other than a very limited degree of recourse.

- **If an assignment is intended to be a true sale, then, generally speaking, no security should be granted in support of the obligations of the originator to avoid the risk that a Hong Kong court would recharacterise the transaction into a secured loan.**

- **It is also important to note that it is possible for there to be a true sale from a legal perspective in circumstances where off-balance accounting treatment is not achieved (and the converse also applies).**

- **For completeness, in certain cases, a liquidator of the originator appointed under Hong Kong law may seek to set aside or disclaim a sale and assignment of receivables under Hong Kong insolvency laws, such as in cases of transactions at an undervalue, unfair preference, disclaimer of onerous property, disposition with intent to defraud creditors and so on.**

### Regulatory concerns

Where the originator is a licenced bank in Hong Kong (or another form of authorised institution in Hong Kong), it may need to approach the Hong Kong Monetary Authority or otherwise observe the guidance issued by it prior to undertaking a securitisation. There are a number of other regulatory ordinances that need to be considered, in particular the Companies (Winding Up and Miscellaneous Provisions) Ordinance (which deals with disclosure requirements for Hong Kong companies issuing a prospectus, and for non-Hong Kong companies issuing a prospectus in Hong Kong) and the Securities and Futures Ordinance (setting out the licensing requirements for the regulated activities of dealing in securities and providing investment advice).

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Background

Although the concept of securitisation of assets has long been recognised in Indonesia, the utilization of the structure as a fundraising alternative or form of investment began to appear on the Indonesian market in the early 2000s. To date, not many companies or investors have set up this structure to fundraise or invest onshore.

Securitisation of assets in Indonesia is governed under various regulations issued by the Indonesian Financial Services Authority (Otoritas Jasa Keuangan, "OJK"), depending on the type of assets designated to be used as underlying assets for the creation of securities.

Under the current regulations, securitisation of assets is done either through collective investment contracts ("CIC") or through the issuance of participation letters. CICs are entered into between a licenced Indonesian investment manager and a licenced Indonesian custodian bank, where the investment manager is authorised to manage the portfolio investment, and the custodian bank is authorised to carry out the collective custody of the investment funds and the securities through participation units. The CICs have to be established by a notarised deed signed by notaries who are registered with the OJK.

The CIC will form a fund, but it is not a legal entity as with securitisations in other jurisdictions. A CIC mainly governs the relationship between the investment manager, the custodian bank and the participation unit holders, as well as how the underlying assets are managed.

In Indonesia, what is commonly understood as "asset securitisation" is limited to financial assets structured under asset-backed securities CICs (kontrak investasi kolektif-efek beragun aset, "KIK-EBA") or asset-backed securities in the form of a participation letter (Efek Beragun Aset berbentuk Surat Partisipasi, "EBA-SP").

There are additional structures similar to the aforementioned asset securitisation including (i) real estate investment funds (which are more similar to REIT in other jurisdictions, dana investasi real estat, "DIRE") and infrastructure investment funds (dana investasi infrastruktur, "DINFRA"). While DIRE and DINFRA are not asset securitisations (like KIK-EBA and EBA-SP), a brief description on these structures is provided below.

KIK-EBA

In a KIK-EBA structure, the CIC fund that is established for this purpose will issue securities in the form of participation units to raise funds from investors, the proceeds of which will be used to purchase certain financial assets (underlying assets) from the company that intends to monetise its financial assets and raise funds utilizing this structure (the originator/original lender).

The financial assets that are used in the KIK-EBA’s portfolio must fulfil the following criteria: (i) they have or will produce cash flow; (ii) they are legally owned or under the possession of the originator; and (iii) they can be freely transferred to the KIK-EBA.

These include:

- commercial paper receivables
- credit card receivables
- any future receivables
- credit facility receivables
- government-backed debt securities
- credit enhancements
- future cash flows or commercial paper conferring rights to future cash flows
- future income or commercial paper conferring rights over future income
- other equivalent financial assets and other financial assets that are related to the above assets

EBA-SP

Another asset securitisation model is asset-backed securities in the form of a participation letter. The participation letter (Efek Beragun Aset berbentuk Surat Partisipasi, "EBA-SP") is a form of security that can only be issued by Indonesian limited liability companies ("Sponsor Company") whose business activity is sponsoring financing for housing loans. To be a Sponsor Company, a company, primarily banks and finance companies, must obtain the relevant licence from the OJK.

The Sponsor Company raises funds from investors or the public by issuing the EBA-SP (whether through a public offering or a private offering). The proceeds of which are used to purchase the receivables of home ownership loans (kredit pemilikan rumah) from the originators (either banks or financing companies). The home ownership loan receivables are the only portfolio assets that can be used as the underlying asset for the issuance of an EBA-SP.

From the outset, the structure of an EBA-SP is similar to a KIK-EBA structure. However, the EBA-SP structure is not established under the CIC framework. In the EBA-SP structure, the Sponsor Company (as the issuer) will enter into an issuance agreement with a trustee (wali amanat) and a custodian bank, where the agreement will govern: (i) the representation of the unitholders by the trustee, (ii) the custody and the administration of the investment and (iii) the issuance.

DIRE AND DINFRA

DIRE and DINFRA do not involve financial assets, but are backed with specific underlying assets:

- for DIRE, real estate assets, constituting at least 80% of the net asset value ("NAV") of the fund
- for DINFRA, public infrastructure assets, constituting at least 51% of the NAV of the fund

DIRE and DINFRA structures also use the CIC framework, similar to the KIK-EBA structure.
Unlike KIK-EBA which also uses the CIC framework, there is no specific “true sale” test (as further elaborated below) for transferring assets to DIRE and DINFRA. However, these schemes require a CIC (or the special purpose vehicle (“SPV”) established for the purpose of the funds) to own and be able to control or protect their investment in the underlying assets.

**CREATION AND OFFERING OF SECURITIES**

Securities created using the above framework in the form of participation units or participation letters can be offered through a public offering or a private offering. Securities offered in a manner that constitutes a “public offering” under Law of the Republic of Indonesia No. 8 of 1995 on Capital Market (“Capital Market Law”) must go through a process akin to an IPO, which includes filing a registration statement to the OJK and preparing a prospectus. A private offering of the participation units or participation letters would only be subject to a certain post-reporting obligation to the OJK.

The OJK has indicated that a “public offering” within the meaning of the Capital Market Law will be deemed to have been made if an issuer makes an offering of securities (including participation units and participation letters) in Indonesia, where any of the below conditions is fulfilled:

- The offer is made using the mass media;
- The offer is made to more than 100 parties in Indonesia; or
- The offer is made to fewer than 100 parties in Indonesia but results in sales to more than 50 parties in Indonesia.

Generally, the term “parties in Indonesia” will refer to any Indonesian citizens, Indonesian entities and foreign nationals residing in Indonesia. Generally, the term “issuer” refers to the party making an offer of the securities.

**Incorporating an SPV**

**KIK-EBA AND EBA-SP**

KIK-EBA and EBA-SP structures do not involve an SPV. In the KIK-EBA structure, the fund will purchase the financial assets directly from the originator. In the EBA-SP structure, the Sponsor Company (as the issuer of the securities) will purchase the underlying asset (i.e., the receivables of home ownership loans) directly from the originator (banks/financial institutions).

**DIRE AND DINFRA**

A structure involving the incorporation of an SPV can be used in both DIRE and DINFRA. Having an SPV in the structure limits the exposure of risks from the ownership of the underlying assets to the sponsors or the funds. The CIC, represented by the investment manager, will be the owner of the SPV (to create an investment layer) and the SPV can purchase the asset for the benefit of the funds. With this SPV structure, the CIC will not invest directly in the required underlying assets, for example real estate assets or public infrastructure assets.

The SPV must be in the form of Indonesian limited liability companies (perseroan terbatas), which are at least 99.9% owned by the CIC but registered under the name of the investment manager or the custodian bank, for the benefit of the unitholders. In practice, the investment manager is recorded as the shareholder in the shareholders’ register of the special purpose company. If an SPV is established, the actions of the SPV must be regulated under the CIC, because the CIC is the only instrument that is binding on, and can be relied on by, the unitholders.

**Method of transfer**

**TRUE SALE OF FINANCIAL ASSETS**

KIK-EBA and EBA-SP structures require a true sale of financial assets from the originator to the CIC/fund or the issuer, respectively. A true sale in Indonesia can be done through a transfer of rights over the receivables, known as cessie.

A cessie is implemented based on the provisions of Article 613 of the Indonesian Civil Code (“ICC”). According to Article 613 paragraph (1), the valid transfer of ownership rights of receivables can be effected through a notarial or private deed, in which all the rights to the receivables are assigned to the transferee. The deed is construed to constitute the actual delivery and acceptance of the ownership rights by the transferee, in this case, the originator, and the transferee, in this case, the CIC or the issuer of EBA-SP. The valid transfer of the ownership rights does not require any approval from the obligors (e.g., the borrowers, if the financial assets transferred are receivables from credit facilities). If a cessie is done, the obligors will need to be notified.

Based on the above, the ICC does not require a formal notice or written acceptance by the obligor to constitute a legal and valid transfer of the receivables under a transfer agreement. The transfer agreement may be in a simple form of a private deed between the parties with a schedule containing a list of all receivables to be transferred. Article 613 paragraph (2) of the ICC specifies that until the obligor has been duly served notice, preferably through a court bailiff, or has accepted and acknowledged the transfer of the relevant receivables in writing, the obligor can discharge its obligations to pay to the transferee and continue paying to the transferor/original creditor in respect of the amounts of the receivables due by payment of these amounts. Therefore, in practice, although it would not affect the validity of the assignment, the parties and especially the transferee would usually require written acceptance and acknowledgment of such an assignment from the obligor to perfect the assignment. Considering that a cessie will, in theory, only transfer the rights to the receivables, and not the obligations, an assumption of liability will also need to be arranged in order for the KIK-EBA to assume all liabilities of the financial asset.

Specifically under the OJK regulation governing KIK-EBA, the true sale must fulfill the following requirements:

- The financial assets must be separated from the originator’s assets, and there must be an effort from the investment manager to ensure that the financial assets are not part of the bankruptcy estate of the originator.
• The originator must transfer all rights and obligations in relation to the financial asset to the fund, and the originator is prohibited from retaining any benefit from that financial asset.
• The originator no longer acts as the holder of the rights to the financial assets.
• The originator cannot be the controller of the fund in the relevant securitisation of assets.
• The transfer of financial assets must be without recourse.
• If the originator also acts as the servicer, the service being provided by the servicer must be provided on an arm’s-length basis.
• If the originator also acts as the paying agent, there must be no obligation imposed on the originator to provide the funds to the KIK-EBA unless the funds have been received from the debtors.

The underlying assets transfer agreement between the originator and the fund must also consist of one of the following features:
• If there is a depreciation of the value of the financial asset held by the fund to a non-economic scale, the originator has the right of first offer or right of first refusal with regard to the buyback of the asset with a fair value.
• The originator can buy back the assets if there is a pre-agreed provision in the transaction documents that obliges the originator to buy back the assets from the fund if there has been a breach of the terms and conditions or warranties.

The fulfilment of the true sale requirements must be supported by a legal opinion issued by a legal consultant registered with the OJK. An auditor’s opinion (with respect to the true sale) may also be obtained in order to support the satisfaction of the true sale itself.

As mentioned, in the context of DIRE and DINFRA, there is no specific “true sale” test imposed by applicable rules. However, these schemes would require the CIC (or the SPV established for the purpose of the funds) to own and be able to control or protect their investment in the underlying assets.

SERVICER

A servicer is the party responsible for processing and supervising the payment conducted by the debtors, conducting preliminary actions in the form of warning, or other acts if the debtor is late or fails to fulfil its obligation. The servicer will negotiate and settle things with the debtors, as well as provide any other services as may be stipulated in the CIC.

Given the nature of the underlying assets, this concept is only relevant to KIK-EBA and EBA-SP structures. Usually, the originator will be appointed as the servicer as it may be easier for them to deal with their clients/debtors. The servicer may be compensated in accordance with the terms of the CIC.

This servicer concept is not relevant in DIRE and DINFRA structures.

Credit enhancement

A credit enhancement may be provided to increase the quality of the KIK-EBA’s investment portfolio in relation to the repayment to the securities holders. Below are the instruments that are allowed to be used as a credit enhancement for a KIK-EBA.

• subordination of a class of asset-backed securities to another class of asset-backed securities, in relation to the same CIC
• letters of credit
• guarantee funds
• allowance for bad debts
• guarantee for liquidity upon maturity
• guarantee on tax payments
• options
• interest rate or foreign exchange rate swap

A practical example of this credit enhancement is the issuance of two classes of securities under the KIK-EBA framework, where the priority class securities, comprising the majority of the participation units, are offered to the public. On the other hand, the other class of the securities, comprising the minority of the participation units is held by other parties who are willing to have the repayment subordinated (e.g., the sponsor). The cash obtained by the KIK-EBA based on the performance of its underlying assets is distributed to the participation unit holders based on the cash waterfall scheme applicable to each class of the securities, where payments for the priority class securities holder will be prioritised.

Listing on the Indonesia Stock Exchange

The KIK-EBA, EBA-SP, DIRE and DINFRA can be listed on the Indonesian Stock Exchange (“IDX”). Listings of participation units are usually publicly offered, so when processing the registration statement with the OJK, a parallel listing process with IDX will need to be undertaken. One of the key elements that needs to be considered is obtaining the listing approval from the IDX, which can be done by satisfying the specific requirements set out in the relevant IDX regulations.

Tax

DISTRIBUTION TO PARTICIPATION UNIT HOLDERS

Generally, based on Art 4(3)(i) of Law No. 7/1983 as last amended by Law No. 36/2008 on Income Tax (“Income Tax Law”), distribution of profit from CIC to the participation unit holders is not taxable object. However, if the participation unit holders would receive a fixed cash flow/profit from their participation in certain CIC arrangement (e.g., KIK-EBA Fixed Cash Flow), the participation unit holders will be treated as loan/bonds creditors for tax treatment purposes and the income received will be considered as interest compensation that is subject to withholding tax on interest from bonds. The withholding tax rate is 15% for resident taxpayers and 20% for non-resident taxpayers.
**TRANSFER OF ASSETS**

The assets transfer for the purpose of securitisation triggers tax implication. The tax rate applicable would depend on the underlying assets that will be contributed in the assets securitisation.

For instance, under the DIRE framework, in a transfer of real estate, the transferee is obliged to pay the 0.5% income tax on the transfer of right of land and/or building, subject to the fulfilment of certain requirements. This tax is final in nature. This tax is payable by the party that transfers the land and/or the building prior to the transfer of the legal ownership of the right to the land and/or the building. In addition, the party who purchases the land or building (in this structure, the SPV) will also be subject to 5% Land and/or Building Transfer Duty (Bea Perolehan Hak atas Tanah dan Bangunan/ BPHTB).

Specifically on the transfer of receivables, the prevailing tax rules are silent, and the tax implications would likely be subject to the tax authorities’ interpretation and discretion.

**VAT**

Services provided by the originator (as a service provider) to collect payments on behalf of the fund from the debtors would be subject to 10% VAT if the service provider is a registered taxable entrepreneur for VAT purposes.

**SPV STRUCTURE**

In a structure involving an SPV (i.e., in DIRE or DINIRA structure), the dividend payment from the local operating company that holds the assets to SPV will generally be subject to 15% withholding tax. The 15% withholding tax may be exempted if the SPV (that is a limited liability company) participates a minimum of 25% of the issued and paid up capital of the local operating company (in the form of a limited liability company), and the dividend payment is originated from the retained earning reserves.

The distribution from the SPV to the fund will be subject to 15% withholding tax.

**STAMP DUTY**

Securities transactions in Indonesia are subject to stamp duty. The nominal amount of the Indonesian stamp duty is IDR 6,000 for transactions having a value greater than IDR 1 million and IDR 3,000 for transactions having a value of up to IDR 1 million.

Generally, the stamp duty is due on execution. Stamp duty is payable by the party that benefits from the executed document unless both parties state otherwise.

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Securitisation transactions in Italy have evolved over the past 20 years on the back of substantial legislative activity. Most significantly, the Italian parliament passed Law No. 130 of 30 April 1999, as amended and implemented from time to time (“Securitisation Law”), following which the volume of transactions implemented by Italian originators significantly increased in each subsequent year.

**Methods of transfer**

Italy has specific legislation on securitisation and factoring: the Securitisation Law and Law No. 52 of 21 February 1991 (“Factoring Law”), respectively.

**Securitisation Law**

The Securitisation Law was enacted on 30 April 1999 to simplify the securitisation process and to facilitate the increased use of securitisation as a financing or deleveraging technique in the Republic of Italy.

It applies to securitisation transactions involving the true sale (by way of non-gratuitous assignment) of receivables, where the sale is to a company created in accordance with Article 3 of the Securitisation Law, and all amounts paid by the assigned debtors are to be used by the relevant company exclusively to meet its obligations under notes issued to fund the purchase of such receivables and all costs and expenses associated with the securitisation transaction. The Securitisation Law addresses some specific issues with respect to the transfer of assets:

- **Object of the transfer**: Article 1 of the Securitisation Law clarifies that the Securitisation Law applies to transactions involving the sale of existing or future monetary receivables, which — in the event of a transfer of a pool of receivables — must be identifiable as a block (in blocco) in accordance with Article 58 of Legislative Decree No. 385/1993 (as amended, “Italian Banking Law”) and the relevant instructions issued by the Bank of Italy, which means that any such receivables, in order to be identifiable as in blocco, should be:
  - credits, debts and contracts that have a common element of identification; such element could consist of the technical form, the economic sector of destination, the type of counterparty, the geographical area or any other element which allows identification of the relationship transferred in blocco.

- **The nature of the transferee and the servicer**: the Securitisation Law does not provide for any restrictions on the nature of the transferee, but it is worth noting that the originators of the receivables ("Originators") are predominantly banks or other financial intermediaries. However, following recent amendments to the Securitisation Law that render the assignment of trade receivables under the Securitisation Law less burdensome, corporates could play a more active role in the market in the future. On the other hand, as stated above, the law requires that the transferee of the receivables is a special purpose company (SPV) enrolled on a special register held by the Bank of Italy. In addition, it is also expressly provided that servicing activities (which include the collection and recovery of the receivables but also monitoring compliance of the transaction with applicable law and the prospectus under which the securities are issued) be carried out by a bank or another financial intermediary enrolled with a register held by the Bank of Italy in accordance with Article 106 of the Italian Banking Law (it is worth noting that such role is often played by the Originator and, in the context of NPLs transactions, the role is played by a third independent specialised servicer, to the extent in both cases it is a bank or eligible financial intermediary). In this respect, it is now also envisaged that, pursuant to Ministerial Decree No. 53/2015, entities licenced under Article 115 of Royal Decree No. 773/1931 (which would include entities that have receivables recovery activities among their corporate objects) are entitled, under certain conditions, to purchase receivables without being a bank or an intermediary enrolled pursuant to Article 106 of the Italian Banking Law.

- Sale perfection requirements: the Securitisation Law introduces a significant departure from the common ordinary rules set out in the Italian Civil Code, according to which any transfer of receivables becomes enforceable against the assigned debtors by serving a notification of the transfer upon them or by obtaining the assigned debtors’ acceptance of the transfer that occurred (both bearing a date certain at law, which implies the involvement in the notification process of a court bailiff or in the establishment of a PEC (certified electronic email) account or of a notary in the certification of the acceptance). Pursuant to Article 4 of the Securitisation Law (by way of reference to Article 58 of the Italian Banking Law, which sets forth the rules for the transfer of rights, assets and businesses to banks and financial intermediaries), a transfer of receivables complying with the criteria set out under the Securitisation Law can become enforceable against the underlying debtors and the Originator’s third-party creditors through the publication of the relevant transfer notification in the Italian Official Gazette and the registration of such transfer in the SPV’s Companies’ Register. Following the date on which such formalities have been perfected: (i) the transfer cannot be challenged or disregarded by any subsequent assignee of the transferor, the creditors of the transferor, the liquidator of the transferor and the assigned debtors; and (ii) any collections from the transferred receivables will be reserved to exclusively meet the payment obligations due by the SPV under the notes and the payment of the costs associated with the transaction. Furthermore, under the Securitisation Law, no formalities are required in order to perfect the transfer to the SPV of collateral security (including mortgages) pertaining to the transferred receivables, to the extent that any such guarantees are reserved for bank or financial intermediaries and, hence, could not be formally exercised by the SPV (i.e., so-called Patto Marciano).
Important changes to the Securitisation Law and the Factoring Law have been introduced in the last few years, which have reshaped and expanded the two instruments. The changes have been brought about by the following statutes:

- Law decree No. 50 of 2 April 2017 (published in Official Gazette No. 95 of 24 April 2017) ("Decree 50/2017")
- Law decree No. 50 of 24 April 2017 (published in Official Gazette No. 95 of 24 April 2017) ("Decree 50/2017")
- Law decree No. 34 of 30 April 2019 (published in Official Gazette No. 100 on 30 April 2019) ("Crescita Decree")
- Law decree No. 140 of 26 December 2019 (published in Official Gazette No. 51 of 29 February 2020) ("Milleproroghe Decree")

**LAW DECREE 145/2013**

With reference to the underlying assets backing the notes, in order to promote a wider use of the so-called mini bonds (i.e., bonds issued by non-listed Italian SMEs under Legislative Decree No. 83 of 22 June 2012), Law Decree 145/13 has amended the Securitisation Law in order to expressly make clear that, to the extent such instruments are not equity-linked, hybrid and/or convertible, they may be purchased or subscribed by the SPV and used as underlying assets backing the notes issued by the SPV under the Securitisation Law reintroducing this asset class (CDOs) in the Italian securitisation market under the category of "basket bonds". This reform has recently been supplemented by the amendments to Article 1-bis of the Securitisation Law, introduced by the 2019 Budget Law (see below for further details).

With reference to investors, Law Decree 145/13 clarified that the notes may be subscribed by a single underwriter, provided that it qualifies as a qualified investor (investitore qualificato) under Legislative Decree No. 58 of 24 February 1998 (as amended, "Financial Act"). Although this is merely a clarification, it clearly indicates the general trend toward liberalising the Italian finance industry by allowing the structuring of simpler securitisations.

The two above changes clearly aim to open the securitisation market to SMEs, as a source of cheaper and more diversified financing.

From the perspective of commingling risk, a significant innovation was introduced by Law Decree 145/13 and later perfected by Law Decree 91/14. The result of the changes was to substantially eliminate the factual commingling risk of collections (and relevant investments) deposited in bank accounts. Whilst the Securitisation Law always contemplated the statutory segregation of the securitised assets (receivables relating to each transaction form a separate estate from other transactions carried out by the SPV and the SPV’s own assets and no actions are permitted on such estate by any creditors other than the holders of the notes issued to finance the purchase of the relevant securitised receivables) a certain risk was always identified where collections on such receivables and investments made with such monies were deposited in bank accounts. This, coupled with legal uncertainties concerning the validity of floating charges over bank accounts in Italy, often led to the use of bank and investment accounts located in other jurisdictions, typically England. The new provisions now clarify that:

- Any sums paid into the segregated accounts can be freely and immediately disposed of by the SPV to pay exclusively the noteholders, and the hedging counterparties covering the risks on the securitised receivables/notes and other transaction costs; no actions are permitted on the segregated accounts by other creditors.

- Should any insolvency procedure be opened against the servicer or other depositories, no suspension of payments will affect the monies standing to the credit of the segregated accounts or any sums that will be credited during the insolvency procedure. Hence, any sums transferred or credited in the segregated accounts will be immediately available to effect the payments due under the securitisation.

- Similarly, no actions are permitted by the creditors of the servicers or sub-servicers on the accounts opened with any other depositories to collect any amounts on behalf of the SPV, other than for amounts exceeding the monies due to the SPV under the securitisation.

- Should any insolvency procedure be opened against a depository, any sums existing or that will be credited on such accounts during the insolvency procedure will be immediately returned to the SPV without the need for procedural requests, filing or submission of claims/petitions, and without waiting for any composition and/or restitution among the creditors.

The above changes seem to have led to the abandonment of the use of offshore cash accounts (at least a rating agencies’ requirement) and accounts created for the deposit of eligible investments.

Moreover, it is also envisaged that the assignment of any existing and future receivables arising from credit agreements (aperture di credito), even where settled in a current account (conto corrente), will be enforceable provided that the credit agreements are entered into on or prior to the payment of the purchase price with date certain at law (data certa).
Law Decree 145/13 also amended the Securitisation Law to the effect that (i) trade receivables no longer need to be transferred to the SPV as a pool (in blocco), and (ii) the parties to a securitisation of trade receivables may elect to perfect the assignment of any receivables through the formalities provided for by the Factoring Law (i.e., full or partial payment of the purchase price; bearing a date certain at law or those contemplated in the Italian Civil Code; i.e., notice of the transfers to the assigned debtors or acceptance of the transfers by the assigned debtors, each bearing a date certain at law), in lieu of the perfection formalities provided for by the Securitisation Law (i.e., publication in the Official Gazette and registration in the competent Companies’ Register). In light of the above, the Securitisation Law now provides that: starting from (i) the date of payment with a date certain at law (data certa), in respect to trade receivables, or (ii) the date of publication in the official gazette for other types of receivables (each, a “Ring-fencing Date”): (i) no actions will be permitted on the assigned receivables or cash-flows collected from the debtors, other than to satisfy the note holders’ rights and transaction costs; (ii) no set-off will be permitted to the assigned debtors, between any amounts relating to the assigned receivables against credits owed to the SPV or assignee that arise after the Ring-fencing Date; (iii) the assignment to the SPV will be enforceable against the assignor’s: (i) permitted assigns who have not perfected the assignment prior to the Ring-fencing Date; and (ii) creditors who have not started enforcement proceedings on the assigned receivables before the Ring-fencing Date.

The transfer of claims owed by public entities has also been made easier. Law Decree 145/13 now clarifies that transfers are effective against third parties where the perfection formalities provided for by the Securitisation Law have been met and so no other formalities are required for the purpose of the validity of the assignment; however, pursuant to the underlying contracts or by law, for obtaining payment from Italian local entities directly to the SPV — such as the case of healthcare receivables — however, pursuant to the underlying contracts or by law, for obtaining payment from Italian local entities directly to the SPV — such as the case of healthcare receivables — it could be required that a notice is served to each debtor (even by way of PEC).

As regards the risk of insolvency of the assigned debtors, Law Decree 145/13 has extended the protection from clawback actions to prepayments (which are not governed by Article 67, which generally governs payments from debtors and had already been neutralised by the Securitisation Law, but by Article 65 of Royal Decree No. 267 of 16 March 1942 (“Italian Bankruptcy Law”), which captures prepayments of debts that fall due on or after adjudication in bankruptcy, effected in the two years preceding such adjudication. Thus, payments from debtors are now clawback free. Other payments and the assignments themselves are still subject to clawback in accordance with Article 67 of the Italian Bankruptcy Law, but the suspect periods are shortened to three and six months, respectively.1

1 To this end, it will be sufficient to record the transfer into the bank account of the assignor in accordance with Article 2 para. (b) of Legislative Decree No. 170 of 21 May 2004, which implemented in Italy the Financial Collateral Directive 2002/47/EC.

2 Under general rules pursuant to Article 67 of the Italian Bankruptcy Law, a transfer is subject to clawback: (i) if the transfer was not at an undervalue (if bankruptcy follows within six months (reduced to three months in the case of a Securitisation Law transfer), where the transferee was insolvent at the time of the transfer and the receiver can prove that the SPV was, or ought to be, aware of the insolvency; and (ii) if the transfer was at an undervalue (i.e., the consideration received is at least 25% lower than the real value), if bankruptcy follows within 12 months (reduced to six months in the case of a Securitisation Law transfer), if the transferee was insolvent at the time of the transfer and the SPV cannot prove that it was not, and ought not to be, aware of the insolvency. It is worth noting that proving ignorance of insolvency is very difficult; a party can generally try to show reliance on the assignor’s rating, solvency certificates, good standing certificates, execution searches, protests bulletins, etc., but it will ultimately be a matter of fact.

Law Decree 145/13 also introduced the possibility of structuring transactions through the assignment of assets to collective investment schemes (“Investment Funds”), providing that:

- For such securitisations, the collection and payment services can be carried out by the asset manager (società di gestione del risparmio (SGR) (“Asset Manager”) already managing the Investment Fund (as opposed to appointing third-party servicers). This amendment allows the transaction to remain subject to the Bank of Italy’s supervision, without increasing the transaction costs, as would be the case if a third-party servicer had to be appointed. Therefore, if the Asset Manager is appointed to act as collection agent, it will be responsible for the collection and payment services and will have the express obligation, as servicers have under the Securitisation Law, to verify that the transactions comply with the applicable laws and the terms of the prospectus.

- The assignment of receivables to the Investment Funds is subject to Articles 4 and 6 of the Securitisation Law (and the other provisions of Securitisation Law to the extent compatible). This means that Article 58 of the Italian Banking Law will apply, by effect of which: (i) the assignee must give notice of assignment by registration in the Companies’ Register and publication in the Official Gazette; and (ii) there will be an automatic transfer to the assignee of the security interests securing the receivables (without the need for further registrations or annotations).

**LAW DECREE 91/2014**

Law Decree 91/2014 amended the Securitisation Law by, among other things: (i) confirming and extending the segregation effect as set out above; and (ii) allowing SPV to grant financings subject to the relevant requirements summarised below. In this respect, Law Decree 91/2014 provides that the Securitisation Law applies also to securitisation transactions carried out through the granting of one or more loans by the SPV, and the following applies:

- From the (certified) date the loan is drawn, in whole or in part, no action is permitted on the receivables and on any sums paid by the assigned debtors other than in satisfaction of the rights of the note holders and to cover the other costs of the securitisation.

- The servicer of the securitisation is to be responsible for verifying the correctness of the financing transactions and the relevant compliance with the applicable legislation.

The possibility for an SPV to perform lending activity is consistent with the general trend toward the opening of the Italian lending environment to new players, including foreign qualified institutions acting as investors of securitisations and bonds, to grant private companies (including SMEs) easier access to different sources of funding, ensuring at the same time adequate regulatory control through the involvement of regulated entities acting as servicers of the securitisation.
The SPV may only grant loans:

- to borrowers other than individuals and “micro-enterprises” identified by a bank or a financial institution registered under Article 106 of the Consolidated Banking Act
- provided such bank or financial institution retains a significant interest in the securitisation, which is aligned with the rules for risk retention requirements set out by the applicable EU legislation
- subject to the purchasers of the securitisation notes being qualified investors

**DECREES 50/2017**

Article 60-sexies of Decree 50/2017, included at the time the decree was converted into law by Law No. 96 of 21 June 2017 introduced new provisions into the Securitisation Law, the purpose of which is to improve recoveries in respect of non-performing loan receivables acquired by the SPV.

In accordance with these new provisions of the Securitisation Law, the SPV will be able to, among other things:

i. disburse loans (always in accordance with the general rules on loans by securitisation SPVs set out in Article 11-ter) to such distressed debtors in order to improve recovery of the debt or the debtor

ii. where there is (i) an economic and financial restructuring agreement or plan in place with the debtor, or (ii) an agreement made under Articles 124, 160, 182-bis and 186-bis of the Italian Bankruptcy Law or (iii) a similar corporate recovery or restructuring procedure or agreement in place, acquiesce and/or subscribe for equity in such debtors and at the same time grant loans; the decree expressly exempts the SPV from the equitable subordination rules contained in Articles 2467 and 2497-quinquies of the Italian Civil Code

iii. establish corporate vehicles to directly acquire the real estate and other (registered) assets securing the relevant receivables. This includes property financed by financial leasing contracts, regardless of whether such contracts have been terminated, together with the related contractual rights. As is the case with amounts deriving from instruments purchased or subscribed for by securitisation companies, amounts deriving from these assets and the proceeds of sale will be deemed to be ring-fenced assets of the SPV which must be used exclusively to satisfy the noteholders and to meet transaction costs.

**2019 BUDGET LAW**

In late 2018, the Italian Parliament approved the 2019 Budget Law; paragraphs 1088 to 1090 of Article 1 of such law introduced some welcome clarifications and additions to the Securitisation Law.

i. As set out above, the Securitisation Law had already been amended in 2014 in order to provide the possibility for securitisation SPVs to advance loans in certain circumstances. However, Securitisation SPVs were prevented from advancing loans to physical persons and to microenterprises (as defined by Article 2, paragraph 1 of the exhibit of Commission Recommendation 2003/361/EC, of 6 May 2003). The microenterprises lending ban has recently been lifted by the amendments to Article 1-ter of the Securitisation Law introduced by Article 1, paragraph 1090 of the 2019 Budget Law, having been replaced by a ban on lending to enterprises that have a balance sheet total lower than EUR 2 million. In addition, Article 1, paragraph 1090 of the 2019 Budget Law has clarified that lending by a securitisation SPV may also occur (subject to the rules and limitations set out by the Securitisation Law and outlined above) in the framework of, among other things, a traditional securitisation (i.e., one contemplating the true sale of existing receivables to securitisation SPV).

The above amendments are of specific interest for the purpose of certain NPL securitisations, particularly those involving unlikely-to-pay claims (UTPs), which often require active management of the securitised portfolio of claims, possibly including new finance. The latter legislative change confirms an interpretation of the Securitisation Law already adopted by practitioners in recent UTP transactions. The former change eliminates the unintended result of limiting financing sources for real estate undertakings (often undercapitalised) in the context of UTP securitisations.

ii. Article 1, paragraph 1088 of the 2019 Budget Law amended Article 7 of the Securitisation Law in respect of non-true sale or “subrogation” securitisations. In addition to clarifying that such securitisation transactions must involve the transfer of the risk in respect of the underlying claims, the amended provisions allow the borrower/owner of the claims to ring-fence, segregate and encumber such claims (and underlying assets) for the benefit of the SPV lender as well as transfer all collections to it, as would be the case in a true sale securitisation. This provision however will still need to be implemented by the Ministry of the Economy and Finance (MEF), which will need to identify assets and rights that can be ring-fenced and the formalities needed to achieve the ring fencing and security. With particular regard to third parties’ rights and insolvency situations. In mandating the MEF to issue implementing regulations (which are now expected by the end of 2020), the 2019 Budget Law also states that the beneficiaries of the ring-fencing and segregation could be not only the noteholders but also the hedging counterparties of the lending SPV.

iii. By another amendment made to Article 7 of the Securitisation Law, the legislator extended the operation of the Securitisation Law to include “revenues” arising from the ownership of real estate assets (as well as registered movables, such as vehicles) and rights in rem or personal rights over such assets. The aim of such amendment would appear to facilitate RMBS/CMBS securitisations; given the high level of the change and the lack of further provisions coordinating this principle with the rest of the law, it is uncertain what application is to be expected in the future. The following Crescita Decree (see below) has tried to bring some more clarity.

iv. Finally, the 2019 Budget Law made changes to Article 1-bis of the Securitisation Law, which deals with the securitisation of securities. In essence, the change makes it possible for a Securitisation SPV to purchase or subscribe for bonds even
if these do not meet some of the statutory requirements: essentially, (i) in relation to SPA’s, the limitation that the size of the issuance not exceed twice the size of the corporate capital unless the bonds are listed, is waived to the extent that the securitisation notes are listed and the Securitisation SPV has purchased the entire issue; and (ii) in relation to SRL’s, the requirement that the bond be issued only to professional investors subject to regulatory supervision is waived, so that a Securitisation SPV will be able to subscribe for bonds issued by an SRL despite not being such a professional investor.

CRESCESTA DECREE

In line with the 2019 Budget Law, further changes were introduced into the Securitisation Law by the Crescita Decree, in order to facilitate the transfer of non-performing loans and/or registered movable assets and real estate assets.

i. The Crescita Decree modified Article 71 of the Securitisation Law providing that, among other things, one or more backup SPVs (società veicolo d’appoggio) may also be established as stock companies (società di capitali) (so-called, “REOCOs”) with the exclusive purpose of acquiring, managing and developing — in the interest of the securitisation transaction — directly or through one or more further backup SPVs authorised to assume the original debt in whole or in part, real estate and registered movable assets, as well as other granted or newly established assets and rights and including assets financed by financial leasing agreements (even if terminated) and the relationships deriving therefrom (in such cases, the backup SPV is typically referred to as “LEASCOs”). Therefore, it is clarified that even more than one backup SPV can be incorporated for the same securitisation transaction. The related assets and rights may be transferred pursuant to Article 58 of the Consolidated Banking Act, even if they cannot be identified ex bloc, without any formalities or additional notes other than those provided for therein. The Crescita Decree has also extended the statutory segregation regime to these assets and rights, as well as the proceeds arising from them, they are segregated by law, in favour of the noteholders and constitute segregated assets (patrimonio separato), from the assets of the backup SPVs. With reference to leasing, LEASCOs are assimilated, from a tax point of view, to companies engaged in financial leasing. Furthermore, in the event that — together with assets — financial lease contracts or the legal relationships resulting from their termination are transferred to the backup SPV, it is sufficient that the LEASCO is fully consolidated in the balance sheet of a financial intermediary under Article 106 of the Consolidated Banking Act. Article 71 also confirmed that assignment of non-performing receivables may be effected even if the receivables cannot be identified ex bloc and publishing in the Official Gazette only provides details on transferor, transferee, transfer date, information on the type of underlying agreements, the period under which the underlying relationships arise and the website on which information on the receivables will be uploaded. As regards the transferability of the assets to REOCOs and subsequent transfer to third parties, the Crescita Decree introduced and confirmed certain new tax provisions in respect of which we would refer you to the “Tax Aspects” section set out below.

ii. The Crescita Decree has also introduced a new article in relation to transactions involving real estate assets, registered movable assets and rights in rem or in person. Article 72 specifies that an SPV operating in this context can carry out only real estate securitisation transactions. Assets and rights designated to satisfy rights of noteholders and hedging counterparties must be identified in respect of each transaction. Also in this type of securitisation transaction, assets, rights and revenues constitute separate assets, which must be administered by a qualified Asset Manager.

iii. Changes have been made also to Article 4 of the Securitisation Law, with the purpose of facilitating the securitisation of bank UTPs deriving from overdraft facilities; the selling bank may now transfer and assign to another bank or financial intermediary, registered under Article 106 of the Consolidated Banking Act, the right/obligation to provide further funding as per the relevant overdraft facility or credit agreement, separate from the relevant current account associated with such overdraft facility. Collections received in the current account (including those relating to new advances) shall no longer belong to the assigning bank but to the securitisation transaction.

iv. Finally, the Crescita Decree has allowed the SPV to grant loans not only to debtors, but also to entities assuming the assigned debtors’ liabilities and affiliates of the assigned debtors, pursuant to Article 2359 of the Italian Civil Code.

2020 BUDGET LAW

The 2020 Budget Law has extended the rules set out in Article 71 (i.e., securitisation transactions of non-performing loans executed by banks and financial intermediaries) to assignments of receivables carried out as part of transactions of social value (valore sociale), where the SPV leases to the debtor the real estate asset granted as security for the assigned receivables. In addition, paragraph 8-bis of Article 71 has extended to transactions of social value the time requirement for the application of the tax regime provided for deeds of transfer or security on real estate assets purchased by the SPV.

MILLEPROMOGRGHE DECREE

Recently the Millepromoghe Decree has introduced significant changes and specifications in relation to the Securitisation Law.

Without amending the text of the Securitisation Law, the Millepromoghe Decree introduced general principles. In particular, the exemption from declaration of ineffectiveness and clawback pursuant to Articles 65 and 67 of the Italian Bankruptcy Law is extended also to securitisations carried out by way of granting of financements. Furthermore, in relation to the loans granted pursuant to Article 7, paragraph 1, letter a) of the Securitisation Law (securitisation made through financing from the SPV to the seller), the financed party can establish segregated assets (patrimonio destinato) to the exclusive satisfaction of the claims of the noteholders, by a specific corporate resolution that contains: (i) the segregated assets and rights identifiable as a pool, (ii) the beneficiaries of the segregation, (iii) the rights granted to the beneficiaries, (iv) the terms related to the disposal and replacement of the assets, and (v) limits and circumstances in which the financed party may use the receivables generated by the
segregated assets. In case of insolvency proceedings regarding the financed party, the agreements relating to the segregated assets remain in force and the relevant receivables, assets, rights and legal relationships continue to be considered for the benefit of the noteholders.

In addition to the above, the Milleproroghe Decree has provided the following amendments to the Securitisation Law: (i) loans granted by SPV pursuant to Article 1, paragraph 1-ter of the Securitisation Law can also be disbursed through banks or financial intermediaries, and the receivables arising out of such loans can be segregated in favour of the noteholders; and (ii) loans pursuant to Article 7, paragraph 1, letter a) of the Securitisation Law can be granted simultaneously and in addition to transactions carried out in accordance with Article 1, paragraphs 1, 1-bis and 1-ter of the Securitisation Law. Finally, the Milleproroghe Decree has specifically extended the regime of assignment of receivables arising out of overdraft facilities to other forms of revolving facilities.

**FACTORING LAW**

As an alternative to the transfer of assets under the Securitisation Law, receivables can be transferred on a factoring basis, pursuant to the Factoring Law, which is typically applied in the context of corporate principal finance but is often also considered for the establishment of trade receivables securitisation programmes.

The Factoring Law also allows the transfer of future receivables even if they are not identified, provided they will come into existence within a 24-month period. However, a trustee in bankruptcy of the transferor can withdraw from the transfer of future receivables by paying back the transfer price. Partial receivables and conditioned receivables, as long as they are identifiable, are also permitted.

The Factoring Law introduces a special regulation (in derogation from the general rules contained in the Italian Civil Code) concerning the transfer of receivables, such as simplified perfection formalities. In particular, as already stated above as having been introduced into the Securitisation Law with reference to the alternative method for perfecting the assignment, a transfer of receivables under the Factoring Law is perfected vis-à-vis third parties (other than assigned debtors) upon partial or full payment of the relative purchase price, such payment being made on a date certain at law (data certa). Moreover, also in respect of a Factoring Law transfer, Article 67 of the Italian Bankruptcy Law is stated to be not applicable to the payment by the assigned debtors to the transferee. However, the payments can still be clawed back from the transferee if they were aware of the insolvency at the time the payment was made, and, if the transfer is without recourse, the transferee then has recourse against the transferor.

In order to fall within the Factoring Law, the transferor in a securitisation transaction must be a business entity (an entrepreneur), and the receivables must arise out of a contract entered into in the course of the transferor’s business. The factor, on the other hand, must be a bank or financial intermediary enrolled with a register held by the Bank of Italy and have the activity to purchase receivables as a corporate object. In this respect, it is worth noting that the Factoring Law has recently been amended in order to expand the transfer of trade receivables to corporates (incorporated as società di capitale) belonging to the transferor’s group and carrying out the activity of purchasing receivables owed by third parties’ debtors to the same group’s companies, which are not banks or financial intermediaries. However, this provision has been very recently introduced and so remains untested in commercial and legal practice.

The Factoring Law may be also used in a cross-border transaction by structuring a first sale ("First Sale") to an EU bank. The EU bank in turn sells the Italian receivables on to the foreign SPV that issues the notes. The First Sale would qualify for the application of the Factoring Law.

The Factoring Law is usually relied upon by sellers of non-interest bearing trade receivables that do not have collateral attached to them. On the contrary, where an Italian securitisation involves interest-bearing receivables and/or collateralised receivables, the securitisation will usually be structured under the Securitisation Law (for the reasons set out under “Tax aspects” below).

**OVER-COLLATERALISATION/YIELD**

Both a discount and a deferred element — to cover funding costs and over-collateralisation levels respectively — can be incorporated into the purchase price paid for the relevant Italian receivables without necessarily affecting the true sale nature of the transaction. However, should a deferred purchase price element be envisaged, the assignor will normally be required to report in its financial statements the percentage of the assigned receivables corresponding to the deferred purchase price.

**Tax aspects**

**TRANSFER**

Withholding tax applies in principle to cross-border interest payments. Cross-border interest payments are subject to a 26% withholding tax, unless exemptions provided for by specific domestic law provisions or by tax treaties against double taxation apply. Assuming the receivables are non-interest bearing and are assigned without recourse, then, as between the transferee and the transferor, there is no withholding tax imposed on the payments in respect of Italian receivables, except where receivables are purchased at a discount and such discount includes an interest component, i.e., a component destined to the payment of interest to the transferee’s financiers, in which case withholding tax could apply to such interest component.

Under a certain interpretation of Italian law, the financial component embedded in the difference between the nominal value of the receivables and the purchase price ("Discount") representing the consideration for the financing, granted to the Italian Originator by a non-Italian resident purchaser through the purchase of the receivables, may be characterised for Italian income tax purposes as capital income (reddito di capitale) pursuant to Article 44 of the Italian Income Tax Code. Consequently, Italian withholding tax at 26% would be applicable to the financial element embedded in the Discount. Exemptions may be available under specific domestic law provisions or under tax treaties against double taxation.
The gains and other proceeds realised "...through the transfer for a consideration or the reimbursement of pecuniary credits" other than that representing the financial element noted above and taxed as capital income, qualify in the hands of the non-Italian purchaser as miscellaneous income (reddito diverso) pursuant to Article 67(1) (c-quinquies) of Presidential Decree No. 917/1986. According to Article 5(5) of Legislative Decree No. 461 of 21 November 1993, capital gains from the sale or redemption of debt claims are exempted from Italian income taxes when realised by a non-Italian resident person that is resident for tax purposes in a country allowing an adequate exchange of information with Italy (and which complies with all the documentary requirements).

Law Decree 91/14 has exempted payments on medium-long term financings from withholding tax interest (i.e., financing having a duration longer than 18 months) granted by banks established in the EU. It is still unsettled whether this exemption can apply to committed programmes for the purchase of receivables entered into by banks established in EU with Italian Originators (under the Factoring Law).

Registration tax is applicable on contractual documents executed in Italy, unless structured as exchange of correspondence.

Further, if registered collateral (i.e., collateral that needs to be registered in public registries for perfection purposes as pledges over quotas, mortgages, special lien, pledges over IP rights) is transferred as part of the transfer of the receivables (whether automatically as a matter of law or otherwise), registration tax may be payable at a rate of 0.5% and mortgage and cadastral tax may be payable on the mortgages at a rate of 0.2% of the amount secured by such collateral. If the transaction is effected under the Securitisation Law, no formalities (other than publication in the Official Gazette) are required to perfect the transfer of such collateral, and therefore no registration tax or mortgage and cadastral tax will become payable.

**Notes**

Notes issued by a SPV, pursuant to Article 6, paragraph (1), of the Securitisation Law will be subject to the tax regime provided for by Legislative Decree 1 April 1996, No. 239, as subsequently amended and supplemented ("Decree 239/1996").

Pursuant to Decree 239/1996, withholding tax applies at the rate of 26% on any interest, premiums and other proceeds ("Interest") payable in respect of the notes. However, it is worth noting that, subject to compliance with certain requirements and procedures, Decree 239/1996 provides an exemption from the 26% substitutive tax for any payment of interest in respect of the notes pursuant to the Securitisation Law made to: (a) non-Italian resident beneficial owners, without a permanent establishment in Italy to which the notes are effectively connected, who are resident, for tax purposes, in a country that has entered into a tax information exchange agreement with Italy; (b) international bodies and organisations established in accordance with international agreement ratified in Italy; (c) foreign institutional investors, even if they are not taxable persons, set in a white list country; and (d) Central Banks and entities also managing official state reserves.

**NEW PROVISIONS ON TAX TREATMENT OF THE BACKUP SPV (SOCIETÀ VEICOLO D’APPOGGIO)**

The Crescita Decree introduced some amendments to the Italian Securitisation Law for tax purposes.

In particular, with respect to backup SPVs (società veicolo d’appoggio) Article 71, par. 4 states that their assets, rights and proceeds originating from such assets and rights establishes a segregation of assets (patrimonio separato) in favour of the SPV in the interest of the noteholders, so clarifying that the accounting treatment, i.e. off-balance sheet treatment, and the related tax-neutral regime applicable to SPVs also apply to the backup SPVs set up in the context of the securitisations of non-performing loans. Therefore, as a general principle, any income derived by the backup SPVs is not subject to any income taxation, with the only exception of amounts, if any, available to the backup SPV at the end of the securitisation process.

Moreover, the above-mentioned decree provides for the application of registration, mortgage and cadastral taxes at a fixed amount of EUR 200 each on the transfer to a backup SPV of the assets and rights granted or set up to guarantee the receivables that are object of the securitisation.

The same tax treatment applies on the transfer of the real property or other rights on the real property from the backup SPV to:

- entities performing business activity if they declare in the transfer deed their intention to resell the same assets or rights within five years
- individuals not performing a business activity if the conditions for the application of the beneficial regime, so-called prima casa, are met and the purchaser does not resell such assets in the following five years from the date of purchase

As to the VAT aspect, the Italian Tax Authority, with guidelines No. 18/2019, provides some clarifications on the proceeds paid by the SPV to the backup SPV. In particular, the ITA clarified that:

- The amount paid by the SPV to the backup SPV for the managing of the assets falls within the application of the VAT (management fees).
- The transfer of money from the SPV to the backup SPV to refund the purchase, management, insurance, development and sale costs of the real property does not fall within the application of the VAT.
- The transfer of assets from the backup SPV are exempt from the VAT application, according to the Article 10, par. 1, no. 8-bis) and 8-ter) of Presidential Decree No. 633 of 1972.

**DATA PROTECTION**

Broadly speaking, under Italian law, no data on natural persons can be transferred without their prior written consent. Nevertheless, in the context of a transfer, no consent is needed, but simple notification. Facilitations are contemplated in the case of transfers under the Securitisation Law, in respect of which notification to the assigned debtors may be performed through publication in the Italian Official Gazette for privacy purposes (subject to a later, more detailed notice).
NPL SECURITISATIONS

There has been a primary market for non-performing loans and leases (NPLs) in Italy for several years following a boom in the early 2000s (due largely to the introduction of the Securitisation Law).

To assist larger banks in disposing of high volumes of NPLs, new measures have been introduced in recent years, including:

- a state-backed guarantee on senior tranches of securitised NPLs (GACS)
- the establishment of two private funds ("Atlante") for the purpose of subscribing for new equity in Italian banks and purchasing mezzanine and equity tranches of securitised NPLs
- reforms of bankruptcy and foreclosure proceedings in order to accelerate and make more efficient the recovery procedures and the reduction of NPLs on banks’ balance sheets

In particular, Italian Law No. 49 of 8 April 2016 ("Law 49/2016") was enacted in order to introduce the scheme for the GACS (structured in order to meet the European Commission demands to avoid state aid and to be renewed from time to time, as renewed in 2019 for two further years until 27 May 2021) that envisages the use of true sale securitisation to facilitate the disposal of NPLs by banks in the Italian market. Law 49/2016 as amended by Law Decree 25 March 2019 No. 22 published in Official Gazette No. 71 of 25 March 2019 in the context of the emergency measures adopted by the government for the COVID-19, contemplates the issue by the Italian State (through the Italian Ministry of Economy and Finance (MEF)) of a first demand NPL securitisation guarantee (Garanzia Cartolarizzazione Sofferenze or GACS) assisting the most senior tranches of notes issued under an NPL securitisation. Under the envisaged scheme, any subordinated tranches are not to be repaid until such senior tranches have been fully repaid. A fee calculated as a yearly percentage of the amount guaranteed will be paid by the SPV to the MEF, which increases over time to incentivise an accelerated recovery.

The guarantee will need to be previously approved by the MEF upon request of the relevant Originator and will only be issued after the senior tranche is rated investment grade or higher by a rating agency included in a list accepted by the Eurosystem and subject to at least 50% of the mezzanine/junior tranches issued under the securitisation being sold to the market. The servicing of the securitised portfolio of NPLs shall be carried out by a third entity independent from the relevant Originator and its group.

It is worth noting that certain requirements of the GACS mechanism are currently under review of the Italian legislator in the context of the package of law provisions that the Italian government is going to enact in order to support the national economy in light of COVID-19.

In the same context, other amendments have also been introduced by Italian Law No. 119 of 30 June 2016 ("Law 119/2016") with the aim of accelerating enforcement proceedings both in existing and future lending transactions and increase the volume of new financing for the Italian lending market, and also supporting the development of Italian NPLs securitisations.

In particular, under Law 119/2016 a new floating charge over movable assets (pegno mobiliare non possessorio) has been introduced in order to improve access to financing and the growth of the lending sector. Pursuant to the pegno mobiliare non possessorio, any entrepreneur (imprenditore) registered in the Companies’ Register (Registro delle Imprese) is now allowed to grant a floating charge over its assets to a broad range of creditors while retaining the right to use and dispose of the relevant property. The pegno mobiliare non possessorio can be created to secure the obligations (arising in the course of business) of the security provider itself and/or any third parties. The new pegno mobiliare non possessorio can be granted to any creditor and is available as a security for any obligations (including those arising from short-term credit lines and future obligations, as long as a maximum amount is indicated). This new security interest must be registered with a new online register held by the Italian tax authority (Agenzia delle Entrate) and is enforceable vis-à-vis third parties as from the date of registration. In the context of insolvency, the pegno mobiliare non possessorio may be enforced by the creditor provided that the secured obligations have been admitted as priority claims (credito privilegiato) in the bankruptcy.

Under Law 119/2016, it is now possible for banks and other Licensed Financial Intermediaries to include in the banking financing arrangements an agreement ("Patto Marciano") to obtain, in case of default, title to a designated real estate asset(s) (real estate assets where the owner, their spouse and/or immediate relatives live are not eligible). Repossession upon default can be exercised directly by the creditor or by designating a real estate affiliate. In order to repossess, a payment default needs to be outstanding and continuing for more than nine months (from the date on which the third instalment is due, in case of monthly instalments, or from the date on which any payment is due for longer instalments or bullet financings). If at the time of the payment default, at least 85% of the principal of the relevant financing has already been repaid, the period of the outstanding payment default necessary to trigger the repossession is extended from nine months to 12 months. Upon the occurrence of a default, the creditor is entitled to notify the debtor (or the third-party security giver) and other secured creditors, of its intention to proceed with the repossession of the asset(s). After 60 days from such notification, the creditor may ask the competent court to appoint an appraiser. In the event that the appraisal value exceeds the outstanding debt and the transfer costs, the creditor will pay the difference to the debtor. The transfer is perfected on the date on which the appointed appraiser communicates the value of the real estate asset(s) or, should the value exceed the outstanding debt, on the date on which the creditor pays to the debtor the difference. Even if the borrower (or the third-party security provider) challenges the appraisal value, repossession is not suspended. If the opposition is successful, the borrower will be entitled to receive the difference between the outstanding debt and costs and the updated value.
Summary

The above is, by necessity, only a very brief discussion of some of the issues raised by securitisation and the advantages and benefits of this particular method of financing in Italy. However, it is hoped that this brief discussion has shown that securitisation is an innovative and flexible method of financing that ought to attract the interest of all corporate treasurers and other professionals seeking new and more economic methods of arranging finance and to facilitate the structuring of investments in non-performing exposures.

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Securitisation - legal issues in Japan

This document deals with specific legal considerations in relation to the securitisation of receivables in Japan and the securitisation of receivables governed by Japanese law, and should be read in conjunction with the Baker McKenzie “Introduction to Securitisation Financing” brochure.

The Japanese securitisation market developed significantly during the 1990s, with the support of active investments from various funds, lenders and other investors, as well as relatively steady economic conditions. Securitisation refers to a certain finance/investment approach based on cash flow derived from particular assets or business performance, rather than finance or investment for a company’s creditability. Typically, underlying assets include various receivables (lease receivables, housing loan receivables, auto loan receivables, etc.), infrastructure projects, whole businesses, various real estate (commercial, residential, industrial, hospitality, etc.) and credit-linked products and derivatives.

The field of real estate securitisation developed significantly during this period to include many of the types of securities available in other major markets, including asset-backed securities, commercial mortgage-backed securities, residential mortgage-backed securities and real estate investment trusts (known as “J-REITs”). Laws and regulations were introduced and developed to facilitate the expansion of and regulate the securitisation market in Japan. Those laws and regulations introduced to regulate the Japanese securitisation market include certain licensing requirements, risk disclosures, rules concerning bankruptcy remoteness, tax restrictions and rules concerning conflicts of interest. Together with other codes of conduct, the legal and regulatory framework has ensured that the Japanese securitisation market is safe, reliable and attractive to originators and investors alike.

Despite this considerable growth, the decline in share prices worldwide and the financial downturn caused by the subprime crisis caused a dramatic slowdown in Japan’s economy, and in particular, the Japanese real estate market. After the Lehman collapse in September 2008, the Japanese market came to a near standstill and real estate prices fell nationwide. This sudden downturn in the real estate market resulted in the bankruptcy of dozens of real estate companies and asset managers.

Nevertheless, the securitisation market in Japan has shown signs of once again becoming attractive to investors. The Nikkei index continues to follow a general upward trend as companies experience increased profits and look to identify new opportunities for investment. Meanwhile, the real estate market continues to recover as investors seek to capitalise on depressed property prices in the residential and commercial real estate sectors. There are indications that the Japanese securitisation market is recovering and that this recovery will continue over time. In particular, the J-REIT market has begun to recover. The REIT Index of the Tokyo Stock Exchange has been increasingly attracting public investors and led the recovery of the real estate market in 2013. Nevertheless, in early 2020, the J-REIT market has been adversely affected by COVID-19 pandemic as mentioned below.

**TMK structure and GK-TK structure**

Japanese law allows an investor to take advantage of various tax-friendly securitisation schemes. Although a joint-stock corporation (kabushiki kaisha) can be used to own and invest in securitised assets, including receivables or real estate, the prevailing investment trend is to make use of a securitisation structure or private fund using a special purpose company (SPC). With respect to investments in real estate in particular, two types of structures are frequently used by securitisation or private real estate funds — TMK or GK-TK structure.

**TMK STRUCTURE**

One of the primary laws governing securitisation in Japan is the Asset Securitisation Law (formerly the Special Purpose Company Law). The Asset Securitisation Law confers a certain tax benefit intended to support the securitisation market, and in particular, real estate securitisations. This tax benefit is generally available to securitisation schemes making use of a bankruptcy remote SPC to hold the underlying assets (or trust beneficial interests thereto).

This type of structure uses an SPC called a tokutei makuteki kaisha (TMK), incorporated under the Asset Securitisation Law, as the vehicle that will own the real estate or trust beneficial interest (“TMK structure”). In a typical financing structure, the TMK issues preferred shares to investors and bonds to the lender or institutional investor. Both the preferred shares and bonds are backed by the real estate or trust beneficial interest owned by the TMK.

TMKs enjoy favourable tax treatment, provided they meet certain requirements under Japanese law. A qualified TMK that meets certain tax law requirements can deduct dividends and interest from its taxable income, minimizing the TMK’s effective corporate tax rate. A TMK also enjoys lower real estate acquisition tax and registration tax rates, which can be quite substantial if the value of an asset portfolio is significant.

A TMK is strictly regulated under the Asset Securitisation Law. Among other things, it must file a notification of a certain asset liquidation plan with the local financial bureau before it commences business. The plan sets forth the type of business in which the SPC may be involved. It must also file a notification of any amendments to the plan. In late 2011, the Asset Securitisation Law was amended to loosen such strict filing requirement and give TMK flexibility on additional investment into real estate in the form of trust beneficiary interest.

**GK-TK STRUCTURE**

Another common structure is the GK-TK structure, which makes use of a godo kaisha (GK) or Japanese limited liability company. Under this structure (“GK-TK Structure”), the GK, as the TK operator, owns and operates the real estate or trust beneficial interest under a Tokumei Kumiai (Silent Partnership) Agreement (“TK Agreement”) with the TK investors. As silent “partners”, the investors may not participate in the business or management of the GK. Although the parties enter into a so-called Silent Partnership Agreement, no actual partnership is formed between the TK operator and the TK investors. Instead, the relationship between them is purely contractual.
The GK-TK structure has been commonly used as the preferred structure for private real estate funds, due, in part, to its simplicity. The GK-TK structure has been generally used to acquire real estate indirectly in the form of trust beneficiary interests of trusts owning real estate due to the licence requirements of the Real Estate Syndicate Law (RESL) (as discussed further below). Previously, the law applicable to the GK-TK structure did not impose particularly strenuous licensing requirements on the GK holding a trust beneficiary interest in real estate. However, with the implementation of the Financial Instruments Exchange Law (FIEL) in 2007, trust beneficial interests held by a GK became subject to licensing requirements, which apply, among other things, to TK Agreements.

In addition to licensing requirements, the FIEL provides a regulatory regime for “self-investment business”, which applies to TK Agreements under which investments are made “primarily” in securities (including trust beneficial interests in real estate). Any TK operator who engages in the management or investment of such a collective investment scheme fund must be licenced to conduct “discretionary investment business” ("DIB Licence") under the FIEL.

An exemption to the DIB licence requirement is available if at least one of the Japanese investors is a qualified institutional investor (QII). If this is the case, under the QII special business exemption, the TK operator is exempted from obtaining a DIB Licence, but it must file prior notification with the local financial bureau of the Financial Supervisory Agency. To qualify for the QII special business exemption, at least one of the TK investors must be a QII and there must be fewer than 50 total non-QII TK investors.

Another exemption to the DIB licence requirement under the FIEL is available if the TK operator delegates under a discretionary asset management agreement all of its investment business (i.e., fund management services) to a third-party asset manager that is properly licenced to conduct discretionary investment business in Japan.

The asset manager in a GK-TK structure who engages in asset advisory business for the GK must have a DIB licence or at least an investment advisory business licence ("IAB Licence"), depending on the structure. An asset manager with only an IAB Licence cannot engage in discretionary investment business and, as a result, cannot make any investment decisions on behalf of the GK.

Until recently, a GK would have itself needed to be licenced under the RESL in order to acquire real estate in fee simple and to enter into TK agreements with TK investors subject to certain exceptions. However, effective in December 2013, the RESL was amended to eliminate those licence requirements and has permitted the GK itself to acquire real estate in fee simple and to enter into TK agreements with TK investors if the GK retains a licenced real estate syndication operator. This licence was newly introduced by the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transportation and Tourism.

Although there is qualification as to who could participate in such new type of TK-GK, we expect that the amended RESL will stimulate additional real estate investments in Japan by institutional investors such as pension funds, and help increase investments in, including renovation of, hospitals, nursing homes, elderly care facilities and other types of smaller or medium-sized properties without involving a trustee in Japan.

J-REITS

In Japan, most J-REITS use the investment corporation structure and a number of such J-REITS are listed on the Tokyo Stock Exchange. The J-REIT is an investment corporation that is a vehicle incorporated pursuant to the Investment Trust and Investment Corporation Law. The investment corporation must delegate its asset management to a licenced asset management company. The investment corporation owns real properties and distributes the profits generated by such real properties to its shareholders (unit-holders). The shares (units) of a number of investment corporations are listed on Japanese stock exchanges where their shares are publicly traded. The target assets of the J-REIT are a broad range of real properties, including residential buildings, offices, commercial or retail buildings, hotels or resorts, warehouses and logistic buildings.

In June 2013, the Law Concerning Investment Trust and Investment Corporation Law (which governs J-REITS) ("Investment Trust Law") was reformed. The amended Investment Trust Law reforms to the J-REIT system include the implementation of rights plans for J-REITS, regulation of insider trading and measures to allow investment in foreign assets by J-REITS.

Similar to the TMK, J-REITS enjoy special tax treatment with respect to dividends to investors, which, subject to certain qualifying requirements, are treated as a deductible expense for the purposes of corporate tax. Since investment corporations are prohibited from carrying profit forward to the next fiscal year for the principal purpose of enjoying special tax treatment, they tend to rely on debt finance.

Listed J-REITS are subject to disclosure requirements under the FIEL, which include: (i) securities registration statements in the case of public offering of new shares or bonds; and (ii) continuing disclosure of annual (or bi-annual) securities reports. In addition, the listing rules of the stock exchange require the listed J-REITS to disclose information where certain events (especially related to assets and financial conditions) occur, on a timely basis. Most listed J-REITS have disclosed detailed information on real property (such as net operating income generated from the property and appraisal value) and detailed and timely financial information after the end of their fiscal periods (such as estimated distribution of profits).

During the financial distress after the Lehman collapse in 2008, one listed investment corporation became insolvent and filed a court protection of civil rehabilitation proceedings, and many listed investment corporations fell into difficulties with obtaining finance or refinancing. In response, after 2009, a series of J-REITS announced mergers between listed J-REITS to expand their scale of assets. However, in 2013, a series of new J-REITS went public on the Tokyo Stock Exchange, and a series of listed J-REITS restarted the public offering of shares for market capitalization. As a result, the REIT Index of the Tokyo Stock Exchange was increasing in 2013 and early 2014, leading the recovery of the real estate market in Japan. From spring 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic situation has adversely affected the performance of a wide scope of various real estate portfolios. More specifically, Japan’s government “requested” the suspension of various businesses pertaining to real estate, such as entertainment events, hotels, restaurants, etc., which has caused a delay of returns to real estate owners and developers. Notably, the Tokyo Stock Exchange REIT Index dropped sharply by more than half from February
to March 2020. As a result, J-REITs are now facing a restructuring of their investments, while some J-REITs have allowed moratoriums to tenants and hotel operators to rescue such tenants and hospitality players in the long term.

**Trust structure**

As a recent trend, trustees are assuming the role of repackaging products. For example, a trustor will entrust its holding shares, JGBs, corporate bonds, convertible bonds, loan etc. in a certain trust bank, and the trust bank will borrow non-recourse loan from banks or issue "trust bonds" to various investors even through public offerings. These loans or trust bonds are backed by such trust asset, sometimes involving derivative transactions to which the trust bank is a party. The structure can be either a "cash trust" where the trustee will purchase relevant shares, JGBs and bonds, etc. at the instruction of the trust beneficiary interest holder, or "securities trust or loan receivable trust" where the trustor has already acquired such shares, JGBs and bonds before entering into the trust agreement. In general, trust banks in Japan are not necessarily proactive when it comes to new products and tend to take a conservative approach.

**Perfection of transferred receivables**

Perfection of transferred real estate in Japan is a relatively simple issue thanks to the unified real estate registration system, which usually accurately reflects the ownership of real estate. However, in the case of a securitisation of receivables or loans, the question of how to effectively perfect the transfer of such assets is critical.

There are two main laws relating to this issue:
- the Civil Code
- the Law Concerning the Transfer of Movables and Receivables

Under the Civil Code, notification from the creditor to the debtor is required for a creditor to perfect the transfer of a receivable. A debtor, meanwhile, may only perfect the transfer of its obligations under a receivable with the consent of the creditor and the transferee. Such notification date or consent date must also be certified by the postal service or a notary public. The Civil Code has been changed and its amendment becomes effective from 1 April 2020. As a result, detailed rules of the perfection and/or transfer of a receivable have changed, although the overall practice will not be affected much.

The traditional method of perfection under the Civil Code can give rise to significant costs, especially when a large number of receivables or loans are being transferred, such as in the context of a securitisation. To resolve this issue, the Law Concerning the Transfer of Movables and Receivables allows large numbers of receivables or loan portfolios to be transferred at one time and such transfer to be perfected by way of a certain registration system. This convenient system has greatly assisted the securitisation of receivables and loan portfolios in Japan, including auto-loan receivables, lease receivables, consumer loans, commercial loans, trade receivables and receivables of other asset classes.

In addition, the new wave of digitalisation will affect the traditional practice of registry offices and notary public offices that have relied on original paper or manual signature, and it is expected that the new system will allow e-applications and introduce a new practice of perfection. This trend has accelerated due to the COVID-19 situation.

**True sale**

An important requirement for ensuring the bankruptcy remoteness of a securitisation vehicle is that a "true sale" of the assets has taken place, regardless of whether the underlying assets are real estate or a portfolio of receivables. This issue is closely related to the "off-balance sheet" accounting treatment of the originator. If an originator becomes insolvent, the bankruptcy trustee challenges the effectiveness of the sale of assets from the originator to the securitisation vehicle, or the legal/accounting separation of such securitisation vehicle from the originator; the question of whether a true sale issue has in fact taken place will require analysis.

Although there is no clear guidance as to what constitutes a true sale under Japanese law, the Japanese securitisation market recognises certain key factors, which include:
- consideration of fair market value
- the completion of perfection
- no significant buy-back option (i.e., the level of risk transfer)
- the reasonable intention of the related parties

**Tax implications for securitisation**

In Japan, as mentioned above, there are certain special tax treatments benefiting securitisation vehicles that have allowed the securitisation market to develop significantly to date. To avoid or reduce taxes in connection with a securitisation, transaction participants should: (i) choose a securitisation vehicle that is not taxed at the entity level (a pass-through entity, such as the TK agreement in a GK-TK structure); or (ii) structure a securitisation so that profits of a taxable securitisation vehicle that are distributed to investors may be treated as a deductible expense (a pay-through entity, such as the TMK). For transactions in which the value of the asset portfolio is significant, transaction participants should consider using the TMK, which offers lower real estate acquisition tax and registration tax rates.
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Prior to the global financial crisis of 2008, there were several major cross-border securitisation transactions in Kazakhstan, including securitisation of residential mortgages and diversified payment rights. Kazakhstan’s economy was severely affected by the global economic downturn, which curtailed all attempts for securitisation transactions following 2008. In 2014 and 2015, Kazakhstan experienced another slowdown in economic growth sparked by falling oil prices, the Ukrainian Crisis and uncertainty surrounding the Russian economy.

In 2019, the central bank, the National Bank of Kazakhstan (‘NBK’), published on its website an operational plan for the development of the financial sector. For the first time in many years, the NBK stated in its plan that it would focus on the development of the securitisation market. Accordingly, while the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 remains to be seen, we expect that the securitisation market (particularly, domestic securitisation) will re-emerge and begin to play a more substantial role in Kazakhstan.

**Legal framework**

Kazakhstan has a comprehensive legal framework for the implementation of securitisation transactions, although this is as yet untested in this context. The key law that regulates securitisation in Kazakhstan is the Securitisation Law. A number of other laws and regulations contain provisions regulating various aspects of securitisation, such as bankruptcy remoteness, the issuance of bonds by a local SPV, “true sale” and capital treatment of securitisation exposures.

While Kazakhstani securitisation regulations are untested, they are sufficiently developed to allow parties to implement securitisation transactions successfully. While there may be certain gaps in legal regulation, such uncertainties can be navigated via well thought through legal structures.

Set forth below is a brief summary of the relevant provisions of the Securitisation Law.

**Incorporating an SPV**

Under the Securitisation Law, securitisation financing is conducted through a bond issuance by a special finance company (“SPV”), which is secured by the purchased receivables.

An SPV is subject to the following requirements:

- **a.** It may be established by the originator or another party in the form of a Kazakhstani joint-stock company or a limited liability partnership.
- **b.** Its capital must be paid up only by cash.
- **c.** Entities registered in certain offshore jurisdictions, or that have affiliates in such jurisdictions, are prohibited from directly or indirectly holding shares in an SPV (such jurisdictions include Cyprus, Hong Kong and the Cayman Islands).

The law does not provide any specific requirements with respect to officers and employees of an SPV. However, the Securities Market Law provides that, at the request of the SPV’s creditors, representatives of the creditors must be included on the corporate bodies of the SPV.

The law does not prohibit the SPV from engaging an independent management company and outside accountants.

The Securitisation Law attempts to achieve a legal basis for the bankruptcy remoteness of the SPV. It does so by providing a special legal capacity for the SPV, requiring the SPV to segregate the assets assigned by the originator from its own and any other assets, and placing limits on the SPV’s voluntary reorganisation and liquidation.

In addition, the Securitisation Law provides that enforcement, with respect to the assigned assets securing the specific bond issue, may be made only for the purpose of fulfilment of the SPV’s obligations and payment of services connected with the specific securitisation transaction.

Further, under the Bankruptcy Law, the assigned assets are not included in the bankruptcy estate of an insolvent SPV. Such assets will be transferred by the bankruptcy administrator to the representative of the bondholders for the satisfaction of the bondholders’ claims.

Importantly, the law prohibits a bankruptcy administrator from challenging securitisation transactions as a preference/undervalue in bankruptcy proceedings.

**Originator**

Generally, an originator may establish an SPV as its wholly owned subsidiary. However, certain regulated Kazakhstani financial organisations are prohibited from owning shares in other legal entities, other than certain permitted entities. For example, Kazakhstani mortgage companies are prohibited from acquiring shares in companies other than:

- (a) finance organisations (locally licenced banks, insurance companies, securities market participants, etc.); and
- (b) entities whose shares are listed in the higher listing tier on the Kazakhstani Stock Exchange (“KASE”).

Accordingly, a mortgage company may be restricted from setting up an SPV as its subsidiary, given that the SPV is not a “finance organisation” for the purposes of Kazakhstani law and its shares will not be listed on the KASE. In such case, the SPV may need to be incorporated by a third party.

As noted under “Bond Issuance” below, if the originator acts as the sole shareholder of an SPV, it will need to comply with the general requirements applicable to bond issuers, i.e., it must have a rating of at least B2 from Moody’s or its debt-to-equity ratio must not exceed seven (prior to the issuance of bonds by the SPV).

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3 Law “On Rehabilitation and Bankruptcy” dated 7 March 2014 (“Bankruptcy Law”).
Securitised assets

The Securitisation Law does not restrict the types of assets, both existing and future, that may be securitised. However, they must be homogeneous for any particular securitisation transaction.

The Securitisation Law expressly permits the assignment of future receivables. The receivables that are being assigned must be determined in the agreement between the originator and the SPV. This is so that the existing receivable is identifiable at the moment of entering into the agreement, and any future receivable should be identifiable no later than the moment when it arises.

The securitised assets must be separated from the assets of the SPV and must not be used for any purposes other than in the interests of the SPV’s creditors. The assets must be entrusted to and accounted by a Kazakhstani custodian bank in accordance with a custodiance agreement between the SPV and the custodian bank.

The SPV must use proceeds from securitised assets exclusively for the payment of interest on the bonds issued in the securitisation transaction, and for payments of related services. It may also invest such proceeds in financial instruments where doing so is allowed by the Securitisation Law. If the SPV intends to carry out such investments, it must engage a licensed investment portfolio manager.

Securitised assets of an SPV cannot be subject to attachment, except for the purposes of enforcing the obligations of the SPV in a securitisation transaction. In case of an attachment, the proceeds must be repaid in the following order:

- first, for repaying the obligations of the SPV secured by the purchased receivables;
- second, for the payment of services of third parties obtained in connection with the securitisation transaction.

In case of liquidation of an SPV, the secured assets are assigned to all creditors pro rata to their claims.

True sale

In general, a true sale can be achieved under Kazakhstani law, provided that: (i) the intention of the parties and the wording of the transaction documentation make it clear that the receivables are transferred by way of sale, rather than by way of security or otherwise; and (ii) the results of the transaction (including the discretion and the level of control afforded to the purchaser and the amount of recourse to the originator) is consistent with a sale.

Banking regulations provide additional true sale requirements for banks. For example, an originating bank may exclude the securitised assets from the calculation of credit risk weighted exposures only if certain conditions are satisfied, e.g., the originator must not control the SPV and must not own any shares in it, and the risk of non-performance on the securitised assets must always be borne by the SPV, even when the originator is insolvent.

Assignment of receivables: notice requirement

The assignment of receivables in a securitisation transaction is effected by execution of an assignment agreement between the originator and the SPV, and registration of the bond issuance. Accordingly, the assignment agreement by itself will not result in the assignment of receivables, the assignment will become effective only after the SPV procures registration of its bond issuance by the regulator, the Agency for Regulation and Development of Financial Markets.

As a result of assignment of loans to the SPV, the SPV will be entitled to all receivables related to those loans. The originator will not be liable to the SPV if the proceeds received by the SPV from the assigned loans are less than the purchase price paid by the SPV to the originator.

A transfer by way of assignment is valid without regard to whether the relevant debtor has been given notice of the transfer. However, the purchaser bears the risk of any unfavourable consequences resulting from failure to give such notice. Until notice is given, the debtor can discharge its debt to the assignor rather than to the assignee. In order for the assignee to assert a direct claim against the debtor, a written notice of assignment is required. The notice may be given by the assignor or the assignee (in the latter case, proof of assignment may be required).

Governing law

In a domestic securitisation transaction, the transfer of receivables will be governed by Kazakhstani law.

Regarding a cross-border securitisation, the originator and offshore SPV may choose a foreign law to govern the transfer of receivables. However, the Civil Code provides that certain agreements must be governed exclusively by Kazakhstani law and be subject to the exclusive jurisdiction of Kazakhstani courts (e.g., mortgages, leases and other agreements relating to immovable property situated within Kazakhstan). While there is no legislative guidance or court precedents on this point, it would be reasonable to expect that a Kazakhstani court may, in theory, require that the assignment of payments under a lease agreement in respect of immovable property situated in Kazakhstan to be governed by Kazakhstani law.

Servicing

Pursuant to the Securitisation Law, the originator may continue to collect (service) payments under the assigned receivables, unless agreed otherwise.

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4 Where the originator is a Kazakhstani bank, prior written consent of the relevant debtor may be required as a matter of banking legislation.
5 Civil Code (Special Part) dated 1 July 1991 (“Civil Code”).
KAZAKHSTAN

Bond issuance

The Securities Market Law imposes certain requirements on issuers of bonds. Among other things, an entity can issue bonds only if (a) it has a rating not lower than B2 from Moody’s (or an analogous rating from other approved rating agencies), or (b) in the quarter preceding the filing of an application for the registration of the bond issuance, its debt-to-equity ratio did not exceed seven. However, those requirements do not apply to an SPV in a securitisation if the originator, which acts as the sole shareholder of the SPV, meets the above criteria.

The Securities Market Law does not envisage subordination of tranches. Thus, it is uncertain whether it will be possible to divide the bonds into different classes with differing priorities as to payment of principal and interest (e.g., senior and junior tranches). However, the junior tranche may be structured as a subordinated loan (rather than bond).

The SPV’s bond issuance prospectus must contain certain additional information applicable to the SPV, e.g., it must include, as an attachment, the receivables sale agreement.

Tax implications

Generally, tax implications of a securitisation transaction will arise in relation to the following key elements of the transaction: (i) sale of receivables, and (ii) payments made by debtors to the SPV. A generic description of the tax implications applicable to each of those elements is set forth below. Depending on the circumstances of a particular transaction, the analysis may be different, e.g., depending on the nature of receivables, the identity of the debtors, and whether the transaction is cross-border or purely domestic.

SALE OF RECEIVABLES

Kazakhstan does not impose a stamp duty or other documentary taxes on the sale of receivables.

In securitisation, receivables will be sold to the SPV, in most cases, at a discount or at par so that the sale will not generate taxable profit for the originator. Otherwise, there is a 20% profits tax and 12% VAT rate, which are payable by the originator on any positive difference between the purchase of the securitised receivables and their par value.

The SPV will be subject to a 20% profits tax, which is payable on any positive difference between the value of the securitised receivables and the purchase price paid upon their assignment to the SPV. In the case of an offshore SPV, such differences will be subject to withholding tax at a rate of 20% but may be avoided under most double tax treaties (subject to compliance with certain procedural requirements).

The sale of receivables is not subject to VAT in Kazakhstan if the underlying receivables are credit (loan) receivables.

PAYMENTS MADE BY DEBTORS (DOMESTIC SECURITISATION)

Generally, interest paid by debtors to the SPV will be subject to Kazakhstani corporate income tax at the rate of 20%. If interest is paid by corporate debtors, 15% of the tax will need to be withheld by the debtors, while the remaining 5% will need to be paid by the SPV on its own. Where debtors are individuals (natural persons), the SPV will need to pay the entire tax on its own. Interest on certain types of instruments (e.g., bonds listed on a stock exchange operating in Kazakhstan or abroad and interest in financial leasing transactions) is exempt from corporate income tax.

PAYMENTS BY DEBTORS (CROSS-BORDER SECURITISATION)

Interest payable by Kazakhstani debtors to an offshore SPV will be subject to withholding tax at the rate of 15% (provided that the SPV has no permanent establishment in Kazakhstan). The rate of the withholding tax may be reduced under most double tax treaties to which Kazakhstan is a party (the usual reduced rate is 10%), subject to compliance with certain formalities and the SPV being the beneficial owner of interest payments. In practice, it may be difficult to prove that the SPV is the beneficial owner of interest payments, and therefore, to apply the reduced rate. The repayment of the principal portion of indebtedness by the debtors will not be subject to tax. Interest on certain types of instruments (e.g., bonds listed on a stock exchange operating in Kazakhstan or abroad) is exempt from withholding tax.

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Legal Framework

The law of 22 March 2004 on undertakings for securitisation, as amended, (‘Securitisation Law’) was developed to provide an optional and favourable regulatory framework to Luxembourg-based securitisation projects. This adaptable legal and tax framework provides ample flexibility with regard to the form of issuing vehicles and the various structures that can be used. It ensures an environment that protects investors’ interests while, at the same time, offering considerable flexibility in structuring such transactions.

The preparatory works to the Securitisation Law emphasise that one of the crucial elements of securitisation transactions is the isolation of securitised assets within a specific estate, which must be exposed only to liabilities directly related to the holding or enforcement of the securitised claims. In this context, the initial purpose of the Securitisation Law was to create a legally secure and flexible environment for the securitisation of a wide range of assets.

The application of the Securitisation Law by a Luxembourg issuer remains optional. This means that the issuer can choose whether to be governed by the Securitisation Law, in addition to the other legal and tax provisions applicable in Luxembourg. Given its multiple legal and tax advantages, incorporating a new securitisation vehicle under the Securitisation Law is strongly recommended.

The Securitisation Law will only apply to securitisation vehicles located and with a registered office established in Luxembourg.

After 15 years in existence, the Securitisation Law still provides one of the most favourable and stable environments in Europe in which to structure and run securitisation transactions. It is estimated that since 2004, more than 1,300 securitisation vehicles have been incorporated in Luxembourg and around 5,000 securitisation transactions. It is estimated that since 2004, more than 1,300 securitisation vehicles have been incorporated in Luxembourg and around 5,000 compartments created.

Incorporating an SPV

The Securitisation Law allows securitisation vehicles to be set up either as

i. a securitisation company; or

ii. a securitisation fund managed by a management company.

In practice, however, securitisation funds are rarely used.

The main difference between securitisation companies and securitisation funds is that companies are opaque while securitisation funds are transparent entities.

In practice, and depending on the transaction’s characteristics, the favoured corporate forms for securitisation vehicles in Luxembourg are:

i. public limited liability company (société anonyme), followed by

ii. private limited liability company (société à responsabilité limitée).

Furthermore, the securitisation company is usually set up as a so-called ‘orphan structure’ by having its shareholder(s) legally separated from the originator of the transaction. This legal separation ensures the “bankruptcy remoteness” of the structure and allows a cheaper source of financing for the assets securitised.

Features of the Securitisation Law

A BROAD SCOPE OF RISKS THAT MAY BE SECURITISED

One of the most significant advantages of the Securitisation Law lies in the fact that any predictable stream of income or risk may be securitised. Furthermore, assets arising in the future may also be part of a securitisation transaction.

A securitisation undertaking is authorised to securitise risks relating to claims, other assets or obligations assumed by third parties or inherent to all or part of the activities of third parties. Despite Article 53 (2) of the Securitisation Law referring to the possibility to “assume those risks by acquiring the assets, guaranteeing the obligations or by committing itself in any other way”. However, according to the Commission de Surveillance du Secteur Financier (‘CSSF’) direct lending by a regulated securitisation undertaking can only be performed in specific circumstances and, in particular, where the issuer does not allocate the funds raised from the public to a credit activity on own account and the documentation relating to the issue, either:

• clearly defines the assets on which the service and the repayment of the loans granted by the securitisation undertaking will depend; or

• the issuer clearly describes (i) the borrower(s) and/or (ii) the criteria according to which the borrowers will be selected, so that the investors are adequately informed of the risks, including the credit risks and the profitability of their investment at the time securities are issued.

In both cases, information on the characteristics of the loans granted must be included in the issue documents. In general, in view of the nature of a securitisation activity, the securitisation undertakings’ action must be limited to a “prudent man” passive management of the securitised debt portfolio, irrespective of whether or not this management is delegated to a professional acting on behalf of the securitisation undertaking.

SECURITISATION VEHICLES WITH MULTIPLE COMPARTMENTS

The Securitisation Law also provides for the establishment of securitisation vehicles with multiple compartments, allowing the segregation or ring-fencing of assets and liabilities within each of the vehicle’s independent compartments. Using this structure, which involves the creation of a new compartment each time the securitisation vehicle enters into a new transaction, the investors and creditors, whose claims arise with respect to a particular transaction, will only have recourse to the assets of the specific compartment associated with that transaction, without any rights to claim over the assets of another compartment (except if otherwise provided in the constitutional documents). Each compartment can be liquidated separately, i.e., without triggering
the liquidation of the vehicle or other compartments. This ability to create independent compartments within one securitisation undertaking is almost unique in continental Europe, and allows a significant reduction in the costs as well as the formalities for multiple or recurrent transactions initiated by the same originator and/or arranger.

**RESTRICTION ON TRANSFER OF ASSETS**

In order to provide additional protection to investors, the Securitisation Law provides that a securitisation vehicle can only sell its assets in accordance with the specific provisions of its constitutional documents or its management regulations.

**“LIMITED RECOURSE”, “SUBORDINATION” AND “NON-PETITION” PROVISIONS**

The Securitisation Law specifically upholds these key provisions, commonly found in agreements documenting a securitisation transaction, which contribute to the bankruptcy remoteness of the securitisation vehicle.

**Securitisation structures**

**WAREHOUSING TRANSACTIONS**

The assets to be securitised may be pre-financed by third-party loans or intragroup financing subject to the following conditions:

i. The “warehousing phase” of the transaction should last for a limited period of time.

ii. Following this initial phase, the financing of the transaction should include the issuing of securities for a substantial amount.

**“ONE-TIER” OR “TWO-TIER” TRANSACTIONS**

The Securitisation Law expressly authorises the use of two-tier structures, whereby a first vehicle (the issuing vehicle) is used to issue securities and assign the proceeds of the issue to a second vehicle (the acquiring vehicle) that will acquire the assets being securitised.

**“TRUE SALE” OR “SYNTHETIC” SECURITISATIONS**

Both true sale and synthetic securitisation transactions (i.e., transactions where only the default risk of the portfolio of assets is transferred to the securitisation vehicle using derivative instruments, with the actual ownership of the portfolio remaining on the balance sheet of the originator) are allowed under the Securitisation Law.

**Tax**

The tax advantages offered by the securitisation framework in Luxembourg are another major driving factor behind the selection of jurisdiction when structuring a new transaction.

Incorporation or amendment of the constitutional documents of a Luxembourg registered securitisation vehicle is limited to a fixed EUR 75 registration fee.

Securitisation companies are fully liable for corporate income tax and municipal business tax, as are all companies registered under the same corporate form in Luxembourg. However, interest (which concerns dividends for a securitisation vehicle considering their qualification, tax-wise, as tax-deductible commitments toward investors/creditors) expenses incurred by the securitisation vehicle are fully tax deductible. Attention should, however, be paid to the interest deduction limitation rule provided for under the new Article 168-bis of the Luxembourg Income Tax law.

The principle is that exceeding borrowing costs will be deductible in the tax period in which they are incurred only up to 30% of the taxpayer’s earnings before interest, tax, depreciation and amortisation (EBITDA).

Exceeding borrowing costs means the portion of interest expenses exceeding interest income.

Note that securitisation companies governed by Article 2 point 2 of the Regulation (EU) 2017/2402 of 12 December 2017, referred to as simple, transparent and standardised securitisation, are not subject to the above-mentioned interest deduction limitation rule. The same applies to stand-alone entities defined as a taxpayer that is not part of a consolidated group for financial accounting purposes and with no associated enterprise (including trusts, foundations, and stichting holding directly or indirectly more than 25% of the taxpayer) or non-Luxembourg permanent establishment.

Excessive borrowing costs up to EUR 3 million (where the EBITDA limit is exceeded) remain deductible.

Securitisation companies are exempt from net wealth tax. However, a minimum net wealth tax would remain applicable. In this respect, a flat annual minimum net wealth tax of EUR 4,815 (as at 1 January 2020) would be due, assuming that the securitisation vehicle’s financial fixed assets, amounts owed by affiliated undertakings and by undertakings with which the company is linked by virtue of participating interests, transferable securities and cash deposits represent (i) at least 90% of its total balance sheet and (ii) a minimum amount of EUR 350,000 ("Asset Test"). Alternatively, should the Asset Test not be met, a progressive annual minimum net wealth tax ranging from EUR 535 to EUR 32,100 (as at 1 January 2020), depending on the securitisation vehicle’s total gross assets, would be due.

Information on progressive annual minimum net wealth tax:

- EUR 535 for companies having a total balance sheet of less than EUR 350,000
- EUR 1,605 for companies having a total balance sheet higher than EUR 350,000 and lower or equal to EUR 2 million
- EUR 5,350 for companies having a total balance sheet higher than EUR 2 million and lower or equal to EUR 10 million
- EUR 10,700 for companies having a total balance sheet higher than EUR 10 million and lower or equal to EUR 15 million
- EUR 16,050 for companies having a total balance sheet higher than EUR 15 million and lower or equal to EUR 20 million

1 For the securitisation vehicles not falling under the scope of Regulation (EU) 2017/2402 of 12 December 2017, further guidance should be released in 2020.
The "total balance" sheet is defined as the closing balance of the balance sheet gross assets of the previous financial year.

As a result, the tax impact for securitisation companies should allow the tax neutrality of the transaction.

Securitisation funds are exempt from corporate income tax, municipal business tax and subscription tax.

Dividend distributions made by a securitisation vehicle are exempt from withholding tax. Interest payments are also exempt from withholding tax, with the exception of withholding tax that may be levied on interest payments made to beneficial owners who are Luxembourg resident individuals.

Securitisation companies (as opposed to securitisation funds) are, as a matter of principle, fully entitled to benefit from the double tax treaties that Luxembourg has entered into.

Finally, securitisation vehicles are exempt from net wealth tax.

Regarding VAT, management services received by a securitisation vehicle incorporated in Luxembourg are largely exempt. Securitisation undertakings are generally not required to register for VAT with the relevant Luxembourg VAT office, except where they are liable to pay Luxembourg VAT under the reverse charge mechanism on services rendered by suppliers established outside Luxembourg, or they perform intra-Community acquisitions of goods exceeding EUR 10,000 per year (VAT excluded), such as legal or accounting services.

**Accounting treatment**

Securitisation companies registered in Luxembourg are subject to all the accounting rules applicable to commercial companies. Furthermore, where multiple compartments have been established, a specific individual presentation for each compartment should be prepared within the financial reports.

Securitisation funds will be subject to the specific accounting regime applicable to *fonds commun de placement* (i.e., collective investment schemes existing under a contractual form).

The Securitisation Law also requires the appointment of an external auditor for both forms of securitisation vehicle.

**Supervisory and regulatory concerns**

Only securitisation vehicles that fulfil the cumulative conditions of "continuously issuing securities to the public" (i.e., (i) proceed with more than three issues per year (ii) to investors that do not qualify as "professional investors") will be subject to the regulation of the CSSF.

Securitisation vehicles regulated by the CSSF should submit for prior approval to the CSSF: (i) their constitutional documents; (ii) information about their administrative, management and supervisory bodies; and (iii) details of direct or indirect shareholders that have the ability to exercise significant control. Furthermore, financial information should be disclosed to the CSSF on a periodic basis.

Securitisation vehicles incorporated in Luxembourg and subject to the Securitisation Law are out of the scope of the EU Directive on Alternative Investment Fund Managers if (i) they do not securitise loans that originated by themselves or (ii) synthetic transactions only concern the securitisation of credit-related risks. Irrespective of the assets securitised, Luxembourg securitisation vehicles remain out of scope if: (a) they have been financed only through the issuance of debt instruments; (b) they are not managed following a defined investment policy within the Luxembourg Law of 12 July 2013 on alternative investment fund managers ("AIFM law"); or (c) they meet the definition of "securitisation special purpose entity" within the meaning of the AIFM law.

Because securitisation undertakings commonly enter into different types of derivatives contracts, rules derived from the European Market Infrastructure Regulation ("EMIR") may be applicable to them. However, due to the ability to create independent compartments, Luxembourg-based vehicles are able to mitigate some of the constraints resulting from EMIR (for example, the threshold that must be reached in order to trigger the legislation’s clearing and risk mitigation obligations should be calculated at the level of each compartment, rather than at the level of the whole vehicle).

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Malaysia
**Legal framework**

The Malaysian capital market consists of markets in several assets classes, primarily the equity market, the debt securities/bond market and the market for financial derivatives.

The Malaysian bond market is viewed mainly in terms of its issuer base, which broadly consists of public debt securities and private debt securities (“PDS”), and in terms of market structure, which is comprised of listed and unlisted bonds. Unlisted bonds are largely traded over the counter (OTC) while listed bonds are traded through the Malaysian stock exchange, Bursa Malaysia.

A wide variety of debt securities products are available in the Malaysian bond market, including straight or fixed rate bonds, floating-rate bonds, asset-backed securities, exchangeable bonds, convertible bonds, etc. Malaysia, as a key Islamic financial centre, also offers a wide variety of Islamic capital market securities called Sukuk that are Sharia compliant.

The Securities Commission of Malaysia (“SC”) is the lead statutory authority entrusted with the responsibility of regulating, promoting and developing the Malaysian securitisation markets. The SC is responsible for supervising capital market activities and market institutions including the exchanges, clearing houses and registered market operators, and enforcing and administering laws and regulations pertaining to the capital market in Malaysia. The SC is also the main approval authority for bond issuance in Malaysia, both listed and unlisted. The primary legislation that governs the issuance of capital market products in Malaysia is the Capital Markets and Services Act 2007 (“CMSA”).

Pursuant to the CMSA, the SC has issued various guidelines to provide legal and regulatory framework to the Malaysian capital markets, including guidelines in relation to the offering of wholesale funds, structured products, corporate bonds, asset-backed securities and Islamic securities. These guidelines are intended to be a catalyst for corporate sector capital market transactions and put forward the SC’s criteria for the issuance of the relevant capital market products.

Previously, any issuance of capital market products would require the prior approval or acknowledgment of the SC. In 2015, the SC implemented a major reform in the SC’s funds and product approval regime by introducing the Lodge and Launch framework (“LOLA”) and the Guidelines on Unlisted Capital Market Products (“LOLA Guidelines”) which put in place an online submission system that no longer requires the issuing party to seek the SC’s approval or acknowledgment in respect of the offering of unlisted capital market products to sophisticated investors in Malaysia or persons outside Malaysia. Under the LOLA regime, the time-to-market for unlisted capital market products is significantly reduced by enabling the unlisted capital market products to be launched as soon as the required information and documents are lodged with the SC via its online submission system. The LOLA regime requires the first issuance of each lodged product be done within 60 business days from date of lodgement.

**Securitisation in Malaysia**

Securitisation in Malaysia began in 2001, following the introduction of the Guidelines on the Offering of Asset-backed Securities (“ABS Guidelines”) by the SC in response to global trends and in line with the Capital Market Masterplan initiatives to strengthen and improve the Malaysian capital markets. Similar to other jurisdictions, asset-backed securities (“ABS”) are securities that are issued pursuant to a securitisation transaction.

Securitisation transactions are recognised as having many advantages over traditional forms of financing. From the originators’ perspective, it potentially offers lower cost of funding, off-balance sheet treatment of debt resulting in improved gearing and liquidity, and diversification of funding sources. From the investors’ perspective, securitisation provides a broad selection of fixed income investments.

Under the ABS Guidelines, any person who wishes to issue, offer for subscription or purchase, or make an invitation to subscribe for or purchase ABS must seek the approval of the SC, unless the ABS are structured to fall within the ambit of the LOLA. The ABS Guidelines and the LOLA Guidelines (in the case of unlisted ABS to sophisticated investors in Malaysia and persons outside Malaysia) set out the specific requirements and criteria that must be complied with for issuance of ABS in Malaysia.

**Assets that may be securitised**

The ABS Guidelines and the LOLA Guidelines provide that the assets that are the subject matter of a securitisation transaction must fulfil all of the following criteria:

a. The assets must generate cash flow.

b. The originator has a valid and enforceable interest in the assets and in the cash flows of the assets prior to any securitisation transaction.

c. There are no impediments (contractual or otherwise) that prevent the effective transfer of the assets or the rights in relation to such assets from an originator to an SPV. For example:

   (i) The necessary regulatory or contractual consents have been obtained in order to effect the transfer of such assets from an originator to an SPV.

   (ii) The originator has not done or omitted to do any act which enables a debtor of the originator to exercise the right of set-off in relation to such assets.

d. The assets are transferred at a fair value.

e. No trust or third party’s interest appears to exist in competition with an originator’s interest over the assets.

f. Where the interest of an originator in the assets is as a chargee, the charge must have been created for a period of more than six months before the transfer.

Where the ABS is structured as a Sukuk, the assets that are the subject matter of the securitisation transaction must be Sharia compliant. It is important to note that non-Sharia compliant business assets and interest-bearing debt instruments, such as credit card receivables and mortgages are not permitted under Sharia law.
**SPV**

The SPV must be resident in Malaysia for tax purposes and have independent and professional directors or trustees.

The following requirements have to be considered to determine whether an SPV is ‘bankruptcy remote’:

a. The SPV cannot include in its objectives the power to enter into any other activities that are not incidental to its function as a SPV in relation to the securitisation transaction; it should merely hold the assets, issue the asset-backed securities and manage the cash flows arising from the assets to ensure timely payments of the securities.

b. The SPV must subcontract to third parties all services that may be required by it to maintain the SPV and its assets.

c. The SPV is not allowed to have employees or incur any fiduciary responsibilities to third parties other than to parties involved in the securitisation transaction.

d. All the present or future liabilities of the SPV (including tax) must be quantifiable and capable of being met out of resources available to it.

An additional requirement imposed on the SPV includes that the SPV must maintain proper accounts and records to enable a complete and accurate view to be formed of its assets, liabilities, income and expenditure to comply with regulatory reporting requirements in respect of an issuance.

In relation to incorporation of a SPV, the requirements set out in following Malaysian legislations will need to be considered:

a. in the case of a Malaysian SPV, the Malaysian Companies Act 2016

b. in the case of a Labuan SPV, the Labuan Financial Services Authority Act 1996 and the Labuan Companies Act 1990

**Method of transfer**

The transfer of assets from the originator to the SPV generally needs to be conducted in a manner that results in a “true sale”, and not, in substance, merely a secured financing or transfer by way of security. The transfer of assets normally occurs in the form of an assignment (being equitable or legal) or novation.

The commonly used method to effect a “true sale” of an underlying asset in an ABS transaction in Malaysia is by way of an equitable assignment. The risk that arises from an equitable assignment is that a wrong dealing by the originator may expose the transferee (the SPV in a securitisation transaction) to problems in terms of priority of its claim if it only has an equitable assignment. A problem may arise if the transferee re-transfers the underlying assets to a second transferee who then serves notice on the obligors/debtors in respect of the underlying assets (where a legal assignment is deemed created over the underlying assets in favour of the second transferee under Malaysian law); the second transferee will have priority over the first transferee. Additionally, equitable claims are decided by courts on a case-by-case basis so decisions may vary.

That being said, the perfection of legal assignments in securitisation transactions may have difficulties. From a Malaysian law perspective, in order to create a legal assignment, the obligors/debtors to the underlying assets would need to be served with a notice of the assignment. This legal formality may prove difficult to comply with when there is a large pool of obligors/debtors to the underlying assets in a securitisation transaction.

As such, the transfer of assets from an originator to the SPV in Malaysia is still widely done by way of an equitable assignment. The risks to an equitable assignment can be mitigated by restrictive covenants imposed on the originator, prohibiting them from creating subsequent security interest over the underlying assets to be transferred to the SPV under the securitisation transaction. It is important to pay attention to the structuring of the assignment, because if not structured properly, the transaction could be construed as a security assignment rather than a “true sale” transaction. On the other hand, transfer by way of novation is also a preferred method as it effectively transfers all the originator’s rights title interests and obligations in the underlying assets to the SPV.

In order to mitigate the risk of re-characterisation of the transfer of the assets from the originator to the SPV as a secured financing rather than a “true sale”, the following “true sale” criteria as set out in the ABS Guidelines and the LOLA Guidelines must be considered and observed:

a. The underlying asset must have been isolated from the originator.

b. The originator must effectively transfer all rights and obligations in the underlying asset to the SPV.

c. The originator must not hold any equity stake, directly or indirectly, in the SPV.

In addition, the originator must not be in a position to exercise effective control over the decisions of the SPV in relation to the securitisation transaction.

d. The SPV must have no recourse to the originator for losses arising from those assets save for any credit enhancement provided by the originator at the outset of the securitisation transaction.

e. Where the originator is also the servicer, the services must be provided on an arm’s length basis, on market terms and conditions. In addition, there must be no obligation imposed on the originator to remit funds to the SPV unless and until they are received from the debtor of the originator in respect of the underlying asset.

If the above principles are not followed, in the event the originator experiences financial instability (including insolvency), the method of transfer could be challenged by the creditors of the originator and/or its liquidator. To the extent that legal isolation is accomplished, investors need to look only to the assets, and not to the originator for repayment on the ABS.
Credit enhancement

Depending upon the nature of the transaction and the assets involved, the asset pool is usually supported by one or more types of internal and/or external credit and/or liquidity support in order to improve the credit risk profile of the ABS.

INTERNAL CREDIT ENHANCEMENT

A popular type of internal credit support is the senior/subordinated structure. The senior ABS are typically assigned with a higher rating, while the lower-quality (but presumably higher-yielding) subordinated classes receive a lower rating or are typically unrated.

Sometimes ‘excess spread’ (i.e., the net amount of interest payable on the underlying assets in excess of amounts required to pay the finance charges) is used or “trapped” to build up a cash reserve that in turn is used as credit enhancement.

EXTERNAL CREDIT ENHANCEMENT

External credit enhancement such as third party guarantees or security letters of credit provided in each case by counterparties of sufficient credit quality or provision of cash collaterals have all been used to enhance the credit of securitisation transactions.

In the event an information memorandum or disclosure documents are issued in relation to the ABS transaction, such information memorandum or disclosure documents must contain information on any credit enhancement and liquidity facilities put in place to support the securitisation transaction including an indication of where material shortfalls may arise.

Regulatory concerns

Apart from obtaining approval from the SC (in relation to ABS which do not fall within the ambit of the LOLA), an issuer may also need to obtain approvals and rating from various other bodies (regulators and non-regulators), in particular the Bank Negara Malaysia (“BNM”) if the originator is a financial institution or pursuant to the foreign exchange control requirements (see below), the Economic Planning Unit and relevant State authorities for transfer of real property asset, the Malaysian Registrar of Companies in order for the originator to set up the SPV in Malaysia, Bursa Malaysia if the originator is subject to the listing requirements or if applicable, listing of ABS, and the relevant rating agencies.

For the issuance of Islamic ABS, the issuer must appoint an independent Sharia adviser, and must comply with the principles approved by the SC’s Sharia Advisory Council (“SAC”) and additional conditions imposed by the SAC.

Foreign exchange control

Foreign exchange control in Malaysia is governed by the Financial Services Act 2013 (“FSA”) and/or the Islamic Financial Services Act 2013 (“IFSA”), with the controller or regulator of foreign exchange being BNM. In 2013, BNM issued Notices on Foreign Exchange Administration Rules (“FEA Rules”) which set out transactions that are allowed by BNM that are otherwise prohibited under the FSA and/or the IFSA. A party undertaking or engaging in any transactions that are not provided or allowed under the FEA Rules would have to obtain approval of BNM prior to undertaking the said transaction.

LABUAN INCORPORATED SPV

Under the FEA Rules, a Labuan incorporated SPV would be deemed non-resident.

i. Foreign currency issuance by non-residents

Paragraph 2 of Notice 5 of the FEA Rules provides that a non-resident SPV is allowed to issue a security or an Islamic security denominated in foreign currency in Malaysia to any person. Thus, a Labuan incorporated SPV is used to issue foreign currency-denominated ABS, approval from BNM would not be required pursuant to the FEA Rules.

Resident investors are allowed to subscribe to the foreign currency-denominated ABS issued by a Labuan incorporated SPV subject to the limitations set out in Notice 3 of the FEA Rules.

ii. Ringgit issuance by non-residents

Pursuant to Paragraph 10(1) of Notice 2 of the FEA Rules, a non-resident SPV is allowed to borrow in ringgit from a resident through the issuance of ringgit-denominated private debt securities or Islamic private debt securities as approved by the BNM. Pursuant to the Joint Information Note on the Issuance and Subscription of ringgit and foreign currency-denominated Sukuk and Bonds in Malaysia issued jointly by the BNM and the SC, approval from BNM would be required for a non-resident SPV to issue ringgit-denominated ABS in Malaysia.

RESIDENT SPV

Pursuant to the FEA Rules, a resident issuer is allowed to issue ABS.

a. Denominated in ringgit in Malaysia to non-resident SPV provided that such ringgit-denominated ABS does not involve any non-tradable ABS. Pursuant to the Joint Information Note, approval from the BNM would be required if the resident issuer intends to issue non-tradable ringgit-denominated ABS to non-residents investors.

b. Denominated in foreign currency to any person provided that the issuance of such foreign currency denominated ABS to non-residents investors is subject to a limit of the equivalent of MYR 100 million in aggregate. This limit is calculated based on the aggregate borrowing of the resident issuer and other resident entities within its group of entities with a parent-subsidiary relationship. Approval from BNM would be required if the ABS issued to non-residents investors exceeds the prudential limit of MYR 100 million equivalent in aggregate.
C. GUARANTOR OR SECURITY PARTY

i. Non-resident guarantor
Paragraph 14(3) of Notice 2 of the FEA Rules provides that a resident issuer is allowed to obtain financial guarantee in any amount in foreign currency or ringgit from a non-resident, unless the amount of the financial guarantee exceeds the equivalent of MYR 100 million in aggregate from a non-resident issuer (including a non-resident financial institution) to secure the liabilities under the ABS issuance to resident and non-resident investors where approval of the BNM would be required.

Additionally, the FEA Rules requires a resident issuer who obtains financial guarantee from a non-resident to register with the BNM no later than seven business days after obtaining such financial guarantee if the amount of the financial guarantee exceeds MYR 50 million or its equivalent in aggregate.

ii. Resident guarantor
Paragraph 14(1) provides that a resident is allowed to give a financial guarantee in any amount in foreign currency or ringgit in favour of a non-resident (Labuan) issuer, unless the amount of the financial guarantee exceeds the equivalent of MYR 50 million in aggregate to secure the liabilities under the ABS issuance to resident and non-resident investors where no approval from BNM would be required. No approval from BNM would be required for financial guarantees given by a licensed onshore bank.

Tax

INCOME TAX

In summary, the Income Tax (Asset-Backed Securitisation) Regulations 2014 provides that:

a. the proceeds, gains or losses from the disposal of trade receivables or stock in trade of the originator pursuant to a securitisation transaction is deemed to have been accrued throughout the period of the securitisation transaction and will constitute the gross income of the originator in the basis period for a year of assessment ("YA") that relates to the period of the securitisation transaction.

b. any balancing charge or allowance arising from the disposal of fixed assets by the originator is deemed to be made in the basis period for a YA that relates to the period of the securitisation transaction, in accordance with a prescribed formula.

c. income of the SPV (from all sources) should be considered as the SPV’s gross income from a single source consisting of a business in the basis period for a YA.

d. Section 44A of the Malaysian Income Tax Act 1967 ("ITA") on group relief does not apply to the transfer of loss between the originator and the SPV.

e. Sections 60F and 60FA of the ITA relating to deductions for investment holding companies do not apply to the SPV.

STAMP DUTY

Any instrument or document to which an SPV is a party (including instruments for the transfer or assignment of rights in any asset to or from an SPV), as well as any instrument for credit enhancement, are exempted from stamp duty if they are executed for the purpose of an asset-backed securitisation transaction approved by the SC.

REAL PROPERTY GAINS TAX

Chargeable gains accruing on the disposal of any chargeable assets (e.g., interest in Malaysian real property or shares in real property companies) for the purpose of an asset-backed securitisation transaction approved by the SC are exempted from real property gains tax if they are either:

a. to or in favour of an SPV
b. in connection with the repurchase of the chargeable assets, to or in favour of the person from whom those assets were acquired.

WITHHOLDING TAX

Generally, payment of interest derived from Malaysia to any non-resident person is subject to withholding tax at the rate of 15% gross, unless reduced under an applicable tax treaty, with specific exemptions such as interest paid to a non-resident company in respect of Sukuk or debenture issued in ringgit, other than convertible loan stock, approved or authorised by, or lodged with, the SC.

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Mexico
Legal framework

The Mexican Securities Market Law enacted in 2005 was a key element to reinforce the legal framework of securitisation transactions in Mexico. Moreover, the amendment to certain federal laws also provided certainty to the implementation of these transactions. These laws include regulations for the issuance by Mexican vehicles or trusts of securities or certificados bursátiles.

Securitisation legal framework in Mexico includes the following laws and regulations:

- Securities Market Law (Ley del Mercado de Valores)
- General Rules Applicable to the Issuers of Traded Characters and Other Participants in the Securities Market (Disposiciones de carácter general aplicables a las emisoras de valores y a otros participantes del mercado de valores), issued by the National Banking and Securities Commission (Comisión Nacional Bancaria y de Valores — “CNBV”)
- The National Banking and Securities Commission Law (Ley de la Comisión Nacional Bancaria y de Valores)
- General Rules Applicable to Credit Institutions (Disposiciones de carácter general aplicables a instituciones de crédito) issued by the CNBV
- The General Law of Negotiable Instruments and Credit Transactions (Ley General de Títulos y Operaciones de Crédito)
- The General Law of of the Mexican Stock Exchange (Reglamento interior de la Bolsa Mexicana de Valores) and the Institutional Stock Exchange (Bolsa Institucional de Valores)
- The General Law of Commercial Companies (Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles)
- The Federal Civil Code (Código Civil Federal)
- The Federal Tax Code (Código Fiscal de la Federación)
- The Commerce Code (Código de Comercio)

Incorporating an SPV

Mexican law allows for the incorporation of special purpose vehicles (“SPV”) for securitisation transactions:

- The General Law of Negotiable Instruments and Credit Transactions governs Mexican trusts (fideicomisos) and the issuance of trust certificates (certificados de participación).
- The Securities Market Law governs the issuance of trust certificates (certificados bursátiles fiduciarios), as a Mexican traded certificate.

a. Mexican trust (fideicomiso). A Mexican trust is incorporated by a settlor (fideicomitente), a financial institution as trustee (fiduciario) and a beneficiary (fideicomisario). The settlor transfers ownership over assets or rights to the trustee for the benefit of the beneficiaries. This is the most common SPV structure used in Mexican securitisation transactions.

b. Notes (certificados de participación). These certificados de participación are securities that represent: (i) the right to a pro-rata portion of yields on the assets that form part of the trust estate; (ii) the right to a pro-rata portion of the property right or of the ownership over the assets that form part of the trust estate; or (iii) the right to a pro-rata portion of the net proceeds resulting from the sale of the trust estate assets.

c. Structured Notes (certificado bursátil). A certificado bursátil is a security that represents: (i) the individual participation of its holders in a collective credit; (ii) the right to a portion of the property or ownership right over assets or rights in trust; (iii) the right to a part of the yields and, where appropriate, the residual value of the trust estate; (iv) the right to a part of the product that results from the sale of the trust estate; and (v) the right to receive the payment of principal, interest or any other amount.

Method of transfer

Under Mexican law, a true sale is performed through the assignment of receivables or assets in favour of the trust. The transfer must comply with certain requirements and formalities depending on the assets to be transferred, which should be made in writing and should be notified to the corresponding debtors. Depending on the SPV, the transfer can be included in the trust agreement or at a later stage.

Over-collateralisation/yield

Valuation reports of assets (tangible and intangible) given as collateral, cash reserves, letters of credit and concentration accounts are forms of credit enhancement for securitisations used in Mexico.

Tax

A suitable tax and accounting treatment is essential in order to avoid withholding and other unfavourable tax consequences for securitisation transactions. In general terms, any assignment or sale of assets is considered a transfer for tax purposes and is subject to income tax. This applies if the transfer is made to another company or a business trust. The SPV would not be able to conduct business activities in order to avoid being subject to this provision.

Generally, in Mexico funds are formed as pass through vehicles for tax purposes. Pursuant to article 14 of the Mexican Federal Tax Code, a transfer of assets to a trust made by the settlor would not be treated as a sale for Mexican tax purposes to the extent that the trustors retain residual rights over the trust estate; however, it is deemed as a true sale.

It is important to consider that the specific accounting treatment for a securitisation transaction will depend on the activities carried out by the SPV.
Regulatory concerns

The Securities Market Law and the General Rules Applicable to the Issuers of Traded Securities and Other Participants in the Securities Market provide for rules to be followed in order to carry out a public offer of securities. The CNBV is the regulatory institution in charge of reviewing, regulating and approving issuances and transactions carried out by individuals and corporations as well as credit institutions.

On the other hand, the Securities Deposit Institute (Instituto para el Depósito de Valores) is the only authorised agency to act as depository of public securities in Mexico.

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Mexico
Legal framework

Securitisation was introduced in Peru in 1996 by means of Legislative Decree No. 861, Ley del Mercado de Valores, whose original text and amendments were later compiled in a new official text under Supreme Decree No. 093-2002-EF, Texto Único Ordenado de la Ley del Mercado de Valores (“Securities Market Law”). Title XI of the Securities Market Law contains the main provisions regarding securitisation. Later, the Superintendencia del Mercado de Valores (the Peruvian capital markets supervisory authority, hereinafter, “SMV”) further developed these provisions by approving additional regulations through CONASEV Resolution No. 001-97-EF, Reglamento de los Procesos de Titulización de Activos (together with the Securities Market Law – “Securitisation Regulations”).

Pursuant to the Securitisation Regulations, securitisations may be arranged by means of: (i) a securitisation trust (fideicomiso de titulización) administered by a special securitisation trustee (sociedad titulizadora) or (ii) a special purpose company (sociedad de propósito especial). The first structure (securitisation trust) is the most commonly used type of securitisation in Peru, as there has been very little experience of using a special purpose company in a securitisation transaction.

Any kind of present or future assets can be transferred to a securitisation trust or special purpose company, except for assets subject to precautionary measures or those that are subject to any kind of litigation. Special purpose corporations can only receive credit assets that will generate a cash flow (such as a credit portfolio), although other types of assets may be used where they are able to generate such cash flows.

There is another limitation for when securities are going to be publicly offered: such assets may not be subject to litigation for any reason and they cannot be used if they have been seized by means of a judicial resolution. However, where it is the creditor that has initiated such legal actions, under the securitisation procedure, these assets may still be used.

Securitisation trust

Under Peruvian law, a trust is an estate with no legal personality of its own, composed by a series of rights and obligations transferred in trust (dominio fiduciario) to it by a trustor. Any assets or liabilities transferred to the trust are considered to be part of an estate separate from that of the trustor for all legal purposes. The trust shall be administered by an entity authorised by law to act as its fiduciary. The transference in trust confers on the trustee full authority over all the assets transferred in the trust. The trustee shall exercise its duties taking into account the objective for which the parties agreed to establish a trust and subject to the limitations established in the trust agreement.

A securitisation trust is a special kind of trust; its purpose is the issuance of securities backed by the trust’s assets, which are transferred to the trust estate by the trustor, denominated by the Securitisation Regulations as an originator (originador). Such assets are meant to generate cash flows that will be used to pay back investors. Proceeds from the issuance of securities will be used in accordance with the use of proceeds provisions set forth in the securitisation trust indenture.

The creation of a securitisation trust requires the mandatory intervention of a special securitisation trustee (sociedad titulizadora). The sociedades titulizadoras are corporations licenced by the SMV to perform securitisation activities and are subject to certain minimum requirements as to its infrastructure and stock capital. The sociedades titulizadoras serve as the securitisation trust’s trustee and will issue the securities (either equity or debt securities) backed by the trust’s assets.

The securitisation trust is created by an agreement between the originator and the sociedad titulizadora, or unilaterally by the latter. Investors adhere to the agreement when they purchase securities issued by the trustee on behalf of the trust, and obtain the condition of beneficiaries of the trust. From the placement of securities onward, the agreement cannot be modified without the consent of the investors. It is not mandatory to register this agreement in the National Public Record for it to be valid; however, in order to perfect the transfer of assets to the trust, the transfers must be duly registered in the National Public Records’ section applicable to each asset. The agreement must also be notarised in order to be registered.

The legal framework contains an open list of operations that can be arranged through a securitisation trust, which include the following:

i. securitisation of credit portfolios and other assets that generate cash flows
ii. transfers of real estate assets generating cash flows through commercial exploitation or liquidation that will back the payment of the securities to be issued
iii. those arranged for the development of specific projects, where the trust is integrated by design, technical studies and other assets for the project, whose cash flows shall back the payment of the securities to be issued
iv. those whose purpose is to finance infrastructure projects and public services, where the securities are backed with the future cash flows to be generated

The securitisation trust is the preferred structure because, among other reasons, the administration of the assets falls upon a third party, the sociedad titulizadora, instead of the originator itself, as would be the case in a special purpose corporation.

Special purpose corporation

Special purpose corporations are regulated, as any ordinary corporation, by Law No. 26887 (“General Corporations Law”) as well as by the legal framework, which establishes some special rules.

These types of corporations are exempt from the rule of shareholder plurality, hence, they can be incorporated with only one shareholder, which could be the originator. However, its corporate purpose is strictly limited to the acquisition of credit assets and issuance of securities. Special purpose corporations are not permitted to perform any other activities. Furthermore, its bylaws must allow the holders of its issued securities to select at least one member of its administrative organ (such as the board of directors).
When the originator is the only shareholder of the special purpose corporation, or it otherwise exercises the control of the corporation, there are certain additional limitations:

i. At least one member of each collective administrative organ must be an independent person not related to the originator.

ii. The corporation cannot file for insolvency without the vote of such independent person.

iii. The registers and financial statements must be prepared by independent accountants. There are no minimum capital requirements.

As mentioned above, in Peru the securitisation trust is the most common structure used for securitisation, the main reasons being:

i. A securitisation trust is an autonomous estate different from the estate of the trustee, the trustor and the trust beneficiaries and such trust estate is not liable for any obligations or liabilities of any of the parties to the securitisation trust.

ii. Insolvency regulations set forth in the Ley General del Sistema Concursal (‘Bankruptcy Law’) will not apply to the securitisation trust but do apply to the special purpose corporation.

Method of transfer

The transfer of assets to a securitisation trust will occur under a “transfer in trust”, where consideration does not need to be paid, nor do securities need to be issued as a result. On the other hand, the transfer of assets to a special purpose corporation can be either structured as a capital contribution to such company (thus, shares are issued in favour of the originator) or as a sale of assets.

The specific formalities to perfect the transfer of assets to the securitisation vehicle depend on the general rules applicable to each type of asset. Receivables are transferred by assignment of rights. As a general rule, for the assignment to be effective against the debtors, it is necessary to notify them of such assignment so that they may be aware of who their new creditor is and can pay accordingly. However, the Securitisation Regulations introduced a rule where, instead of notifying all debtors, the originator may fulfill such legal requirements by publishing the assignment of rights for three consecutive days in a newspaper of national circulation. Additionally, the Securitisation Regulations established a special rule where no notification is necessary if the originator remains in charge of the receivables’ collection.

The transfer of assets to a securitisation vehicle for a securitisation operation has special legal protections. According to the Securities Market Law, the transfer cannot be voided on grounds of simulation, annulled or declared without effect for fraud if it would cause damage to the investors that acquired securities from the securitisation vehicle under a public offering, or even if the securities were privately placed, if investors acted in good faith and could suffer damages. Damage is deemed to be caused to investors if the payment of the obligations owed to them may become impossible or more difficult to fulfill if the transfer is voided, or if this would cause the issuer to decrease its credit risk.

Furthermore, assets transferred to a securitisation vehicle are protected against the originator’s insolvency. The Bankruptcy Law allows creditors to request that any transfers made within a suspicion period (which extends one year backward from the beginning of insolvency proceedings) are ineffective and therefore such assets return to the debtor’s estate. Nonetheless, if assets were transferred for the purposes of a securitisation operation, the originator’s creditors cannot exercise this right.

Tax

Securitisation trusts are not considered taxpayers for tax purposes; in other words, they are transparent from an income tax perspective. Furthermore, the Peruvian Income Tax Law establishes that the taxable income shall be attributed to the originator, beneficiary or third party as agreed in the trust agreement. In any case, the withholding agent will be the trustee (sociedad titulizadora).

Generally, securitisation trusts attribute passive income to the beneficiary (investors), in which case, either (i) a withholding income tax rate of 5% for domiciled individuals or (ii) another applicable rate depending on the type of income for individuals that are non-tax residents, will apply. In addition, (i) if the investor is a domiciled taxpaying entity, its income will be considered as a corporate income and, thus, subject to a tax rate of 29.5%, and (ii) if such entity is a non-domiciled taxpayer, the tax rate applicable to its income will depend on the type of income.

The income tax applicable to the beneficiaries that are tax residents is calculated on their net income. In this regard, the trustee could deduct the expenses incurred in managing the investments. However, if the beneficiary is a non-tax resident, no deduction of expenses is allowed (they are subject to income tax on a gross basis).

In the case of capital gains obtained from the transfer of Peruvian securities issued by the securitisation trust, the Peruvian income tax rate applicable will vary depending on different factors (e.g., if the transferee is domiciled or not domiciled in Peru, if it is an individual or a company, or whether or not the securities are transferred through the Lima Stock Exchange). The tax rate could be 5%, 29.5% or 30%, respectively.

Capital gains resulting from the transfer of securities issued by securitisation trusts are exempted from income tax, as long as they comply with certain requirements. There are:

- They must be transferred through the Lima Stock Exchange.
- The taxpayer and related parties must not transfer more than 10% of the total securities issued by the company whose securities are sold in any given 12-month period (applicable only to equity type securities).
- Securities must have a stock market presence (i.e., traded on a regular basis considering certain amounts provided by the regulations).

This exemption will be in force until 31 December 2022, according to Law No. 30341.
**Regulatory concerns**

**PUBLICATION REGULATIONS**

Securities issued as a result of a securitisation transaction can be either placed on the market by a public or a private offering. Where the offering qualifies as a public offering, the documents of the transaction will need to be previously approved and registered by the SMV in the Registro Público del Mercado de Valores ("Securities Market Public Registry"), and the sociedad titulizadora will comply with all applicable ongoing disclosure obligations in connection with the securitisation trust managed by it.

Pursuant to the Securities Market Law, a public offering is an invitation to the general public or to certain segments thereof, in connection with the placement, acquisition or sale of securities (which would include securitised products). With respect to the aforementioned, the Securities Market Law provides the following private offering safe harbor, provided that no general advertising is used:

- “Adequately diffused” is defined by public offerings regulations as an offering directed to individuals, on an individual basis or otherwise, in simultaneous or successive transactions, by way of newspapers, magazines, radio, television, meetings, data processing systems or other technology that is suitable to communicate with the public.
- “Segment of the market” is defined as a group of people (individuals) that require a higher protection from the regulator because public interest is involved, given that such individuals may have difficulties in making investment decisions. It is presumed that a group equal to or greater than 100 individuals is of public interest and these individuals require protection from the SMV. However, this presumption does not discard the possibility that an offering targeted to a group composed of less than 100 individuals could be considered a public offering, which is why this aspect has to be analysed on a case-by-case basis.

Any offering that takes place in Peru that falls outside of such definition would be considered a private offering and not subject to registration. Notwithstanding the aforementioned, the Securities Market Law provides the following private offering safe harbours, provided that no general advertising is used:

- An offering directed only to institutional investors. Here, the securities purchased shall not be resold to third parties unless the sale is made to another institutional investor or the security is previously registered in the Securities Market Public Registry.
- An offering of securities where the face value or placement value of each security offered is greater than or equal to PEN 499,330 (USD 146,861 approximately). In this case, the securities shall not be sold in the secondary market at a value lower than such face value or placement value, including a sale back to the issuer.

**SECURITIES INTERMEDIATION REGULATIONS**

According to the Securities Market Law, it is mandatory that the placement of publicly offered securities is performed by duly licenced intermediation agents, unless the issuer itself directly places the securities. Hence, the participation of an intermediation agent must be taken into account when arranging a securitisation transaction as a public offering. Note that securitisation agents are not allowed to perform this activity.

In the case of a private offering, it is possible for a securitisation agent to also serve as a placement agent; however, such agent must avoid performing this activity on a regular basis to prevent being considered as performing intermediation activities without a licence. The reason for such a recommendation is that the definition of intermediation activities in the Securities Market Law makes no distinction between a private offering and a public offering of securities.

**FIBRA: a special type of securitisation trust**

A Fideicomiso de Titulización para Inversión en Renta de Bienes Raíces (FIBRA) is a special type of securitisation trust whose purpose is to invest in real estate assets and generate cash flows from its lease to third parties. A key condition to establishing a FIBRA is that the securities issued must be equity based and are publicly offered and registered in the Securities Market Public Registry. Additional conditions include the following:

- At least 70% of the trust’s assets are invested in real estate assets.
- Real estate properties built or purchased by the securitisation trust can only be transferred after four years.
- The securitisation agent must distribute and pay 95% of the profits among holders of its equity securities at least once a year.

Investors that participate in FIBRAs are subject to certain tax benefits. There are two main benefits:

- Investors that contribute real estate assets to a FIBRA can defer the payment of the applicable income tax until one of the following occurs: (i) the investor transfers the equity certificates issued as a result of the contribution made to the FIBRA, in which case, the income tax to be paid is proportional to the value of the certificates transferred; or (ii) the FIBRA transfers the real estate asset to a third party, in which case the whole deferred income tax becomes payable.
- Individuals that participate in a FIBRA are subject to a reduced tax rate of 5% over the revenues generated and distributed by the FIBRA as long as they are not considered a related party of the securitisation agent or any third parties hired by the latter to perform the FIBRA’s activities.

The aforementioned tax benefits are lost if the securitisation trust loses its status as FIBRA due to a lack of compliance with any of the applicable legal requirements.
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RUSSIA

The Russian securitisation market began in 2003. Numerous securitisations have been completed so far and various asset classes have been securitised, including mortgages, auto loans, consumer loans, credit cards, SME loans, lease receivables, diversified payment rights (DPRs) and factoring (trade) receivables.

Most of the securitisations (over 30 transactions) completed before 2008 used cross-border structures and involved a sale of receivables from a Russian originator to an offshore SPV (typically located in the Netherlands, Luxembourg or Ireland) and the issuance of asset-backed notes to public or private international investors.

Since the global financial crisis of 2008, the Russian securitisation market has been dominated by domestic mortgage securitisations and the issuance of domestic residential mortgage-backed securities (RMBS) and covered bonds. The growth in the domestic mortgage market was primarily driven by the refinancing programmes and support from the Agency for Housing Mortgage Lending (AHML) and Vnesheconombank (VEB), which allowed Russian banks and mortgage originators to refinance their mortgage portfolios at attractive funding rates. Apart from AHML and VEB the domestic investor base includes Russian banks, pension funds and insurance companies.

Following the global financial crisis, a number of cross-border securitisations were completed in Russia in 2011-2012 involving auto loans, consumer receivables and DPRs. These deals have typically been concluded with private investors.

In November 2013, Home Credit and Finance Bank completed a landmark consumer loans securitisation in Russia. The deal used a dual-SPV structure with the asset SPV located in the Netherlands and the funding SPV located in Russia. The deal allowed the bank to securitise consumer loans through the issuance of domestic rouble bonds placed with various domestic investors. The bonds received investment grade ratings from rating agencies, Standard & Poor’s and Moody’s. The structure of the deal allows the bank to securitise consumer loans through the issuance of domestic rouble bonds placed with various domestic investors. The bonds received investment grade ratings from rating agencies, Standard & Poor’s and Moody’s. The structure of the deal allows any type of assets to be securitised both domestically and outside of Russia.

On 1 July 2014 the new securitisation law (“Securitisation Law”) came into effect. The law envisaged the adoption of various secondary regulations. These were passed in the course of 2014-2015 and in 2015 the Securitisation Law became fully operational. A number of deals have already been completed under the new law — auto loans, consumer loans, leasing receivables and SME loans. The law turned a new page in the history of the Russian securitisation market.

**Regulatory framework**


The Securitisation Law is not a stand-alone legal act but rather it introduces multiple changes to existing laws, including:

- Civil Code of the Russian Federation
- Federal Law 127-FZ on Insolvency (Bankruptcy) (26 October 2002)
- Tax Code of the Russian Federation, and some others

**Mortgage-backed securities**

The MBS Law recognises two types of mortgage-backed securities:

- mortgage-backed bonds, which may be issued by banks (covered bonds) and specialised mortgage agents (SPVs)
- mortgage participation certificates, which may be issued by banks and companies licensed to manage investment, unit investment and non-state pension funds

Mortgage-backed bonds are debt securities secured by a mortgage pool on a balance sheet of a bank (covered bonds) or a specialised mortgage agent. Both RMBS and covered bonds require state registration with the Central Bank of Russia (CBR).

Unlike mortgage-backed bonds, mortgage participation certificates have no nominal value and are similar to a unit in a mutual fund. A mortgage participation certificate records the undivided right of ownership of the certificate holder in the mortgage pool.

**Asset-backed securities**

The Securitisation Law significantly extends the list of assets that may be used as security for domestic bonds — receivables (monetary claims), including future receivables; securities; and real estate. Effectively, any monetary claim may now be securitised under the Securitisation Law. The CBR may extend or limit the type of assets that may be securitised under the law as well as establish various conditions for their securitisation.

**True sale**

Under Russian law, receivables are generally transferred by way of assignment, which can be carried out by agreement of the parties or, in certain limited cases, by operation of law.

As a transfer mechanism, the assignment is distinguished from the legal transaction underlying such transfer (e.g., purchase and sale, factoring, swap or security agreement). Accordingly, the transaction underlying the assignment may be a sale by the originator to the SPV, a factoring arrangement, a swap or a transfer by way of capital contribution.

The Securitisation Law expressly permits the assignment of future receivables. Moreover, contractual prohibition of assignment of receivables (monetary claims) will not invalidate a relevant assignment but may lead only to contractual penalties for the assignor (seller).
In general, a true sale can be achieved under Russian law, provided that: (i) the intention of the parties and the wording of the transaction documentation make it clear that the receivables are transferred by way of sale, rather than by way of security or otherwise; and (ii) the results of the transaction (including the discretion and the level of control afforded to the purchaser and the amount of recourse to the originator) is consistent with the sale.

**Notice requirement**

A transfer by way of assignment is valid without regard to whether the relevant debtor has been given notice of the transfer. However, the purchaser bears the risk of any unfavourable consequences resulting from failure to give such notice. Until notice is given, the debtor can discharge its debt to the assignor rather than to the assignee. In order for the assignee to assert a direct claim against the debtor, a written notice of assignment is required. The notice may be given by the assignor or the assignee (in the latter case, proof of assignment may be required).

**Bankruptcy remoteness**

In general, in a securitisation transaction the issuer of ABS (a mortgage agent under the MBS Law or the special finance company under the Securitisation Law, collectively referred to herein as the “SPV”) should be structured as a bankruptcy-remote entity; that is, there should be little or no risk of the SPV becoming subject to voluntary or involuntary insolvency proceedings. In addition, the insolvency of the originator should not contaminate or affect in any way the activity of the SPV. The structure of a transaction should provide the means to ensure that assets are available to make interest and principal payments in a timely manner, notwithstanding the insolvency of the originator. Both the MBS Law and the Securitisation Law allow the SPV to be set up as a bankruptcy-remote entity.

Under the MBS Law, the mortgage agent may be incorporated in the form of a Russian joint-stock company or a limited liability company. Mortgage agents have limited capacity and are allowed to conduct specific activities related to the issuance of RMBS and the purchase of mortgage loans. A mortgage agent is not allowed to have employees, it should be managed by a management company.

All mortgage securitisations involve a special entity, a specialised depository, which monitors and controls all operations with mortgage collateral that is pledged under mortgage bonds. Upon bankruptcy of the mortgage agent, the mortgage collateral is excluded from the bankruptcy estate by operation of law and is used solely to discharge obligations under the mortgage-backed securities.

The special finance company (SFC) is a new domestic entity, introduced by the Securitisation Law, which is entitled to issue bonds secured by pledge of various types of receivables, securities and other assets. The structure of an SFC in many ways resembles that of a mortgage agent, and as such, the SFC may be incorporated in the form of a Russian joint-stock company or a limited liability company. Its capacity is limited to the purchase of specific assets (monetary claims) and the issuance of ABS. Unlike in mortgage securitisations, the law does not require the SFC to engage a specialised depository, and all proceeds from the receivables must be credited to a special account opened by the SFC and pledged in favour of the bondholders (a pledge account). All assets of the SFC, including receivables and proceeds on the pledge account, are pledged in favour of the bondholders whose claims should be satisfied in priority upon enforcement of the pledge.

Similar to the mortgage agent, the SFC may not enter into any employment agreements, and its management operations must be outsourced to an external management company. A company willing to manage an SFC must be enrolled on a special register maintained by the CBR.

The bankruptcy-remote status of Russian SPVs (an SFC or a mortgage agent) is further enhanced by a limitation that only a bondholder trustee (representative) rather than an individual bondholder may initiate insolvency proceedings against the SPV on the basis of a decision of the general bondholders’ meeting.

**LIMITED RECOURSE AND NON-PETITION**

The concept of limited recourse was introduced into Russian transactions by the Securitisation Law, and such provisions were initially only applicable to SFCs but have since been extended to apply to mortgage agents as well. The terms and conditions of the bonds issued by an SFC or a mortgage agent may provide that bondholders’ claims not satisfied after realisation of the underlying security (collateral) will terminate. Limited recourse provisions may also be included in other agreements entered into by a Russian SPV (an SFC or a mortgage agent) with its creditors.

The agreements entered into by a Russian SPV with its creditors may also include non-petition language limiting the ability of other creditors to the SPV to initiate insolvency proceedings against the SPV.

**RISK RETENTION RULES**

The Securitisation Law requires the originators in all non-mortgage securitisations to retain risks related to each securitisation transaction in the amount of 20% of the nominal value of the issued bonds. The CBR has adopted regulations specifying various forms of such risk retention, which include retention of the junior tranche, provision of a subordinated loan to the SFC or a guarantee in relation to the senior tranche and some others.

**DISCLOSURE OF INFORMATION AND PERSONAL DATA PROTECTION**

Under Russian law, a bank is under an obligation to preserve bank secrecy — that is, the secrecy of accounts, deposits, client transactions and information relating to the clients. Such information may be provided to the clients themselves, their representatives and, in limited cases, public authorities. In addition, the Civil Code protects against the unauthorised disclosure of commercial secrets; that is, information that:

- has commercial value due to the fact that it is unknown to third parties
- is not freely accessible
- is preserved as confidential by its owner
Persons who wrongfully disclose banking and commercial secrets may be liable for penalties and damages and subject to criminal prosecution.

Arguably, limited disclosure of information on the agreements underlying the receivables should be permitted and disclosure of such information should not affect the validity of the transfer of receivables. The authority for this is derived from the provisions of the Civil Code requiring the originator to pass on to the SPV documents proving its rights to the receivables, as well as to disclose information that is relevant for exercise by the SPV of its rights under the assignment. Furthermore, recent amendments to consumer credit and personal data legislation directly permit disclosure of borrowers’ personal data upon assignment of rights under loan agreements.

Data protection rules have recently been amended to clarify certain rules on cross-border transfers of personal data. The new regulations expressly allow the transfer of personal data to foreign companies that are registered in countries that are parties to the Council of Europe Convention for the Protection of Individuals with regard to Automatic Processing of Personal Data, dated 28 January 1981. This convention has been ratified by the majority of European countries, including Luxembourg, Ireland and the Netherlands — jurisdictions that are often used for cross-border securitisation transactions originating from Russia.

Tax implications

The tax implications arising in connection with a securitisation transaction under Russian law include those related to withholding tax, value added tax (VAT) and corporate profits tax. Russian law imposes no stamp duty in connection with the sale of receivables to an SPV. The tax implications of a particular securitisation may also depend on the type of receivable, as well as on whether the transaction is cross-border or purely domestic.

Withholding tax

Any interest payable by Russian debtors to an offshore SPV that has no permanent establishment in Russia is subject to a 20% withholding tax. The SPV may, however, be exempt from Russian withholding tax pursuant to a double tax treaty (currently there are more than 80 such treaties in force, including treaties with the United Kingdom, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Ireland).

VAT

The sale of receivables is generally not subject to VAT under Russian law, unless the underlying receivables are subject to VAT (e.g., trade receivables, rentals, leasing receivables) or are sold at a premium (in which case 20% VAT would apply to the premium).

Profits tax

The sale of receivables to an SPV for the purpose of securitisation will generally result in the receivables being discounted or sold at par; that is, the sale will not generate taxable profit for the originator. Otherwise, a 20% profits tax is payable by the Russian originator on any positive difference between the balance-sheet value of the securitised receivables and the purchase price paid upon their assignment to the SPV.

On the SPV side, neither the mortgage agent, nor the SFC are subject to corporate profits tax on proceeds obtained from their authorised activities.

CBR Lombard List

The CBR has adopted specific rules that allow RMBS and ABS to be included in the “Lombard List” of securities, which may be used as collateral with the CBR for refinancing. The CBR has discretion over which securities are admitted to the Lombard List. Apart from such material factors as volume of issuance, liquidity of the notes and others, the CBR will also take into account the following requirements:

- The level of the rating assigned by one of the CBR-accredited rating agencies should not be lower than ‘A+(RU)’ (ACRA) or ‘ruA+’ (Expert RA). In the absence of rating for domestic RMBS, a state or AHML guarantee is required.
- The notes should be traded on a Russian stock exchange or listed on a foreign stock exchange in a country recognised as a developed country by the CBR (e.g., the UK, Ireland or Luxembourg). Settlement should be cleared through a Russian depository, who should also act as the registrar of the notes.

Various RMBS and ABS notes, including international notes originated from Russia, have been included in the Lombard List.

Implementation of Basel III and STS framework

In 2018, the CBR adopted regulations that implemented key principles of Basel III. A formula-based standardised approach (SEC-SA) became the basis for calculating credit risk for securitisation exposures. The regulations generally provide favourable treatment for investors in senior tranches, as well as for originators retaining the junior tranches. The CBR also introduced STS criteria, which could result in lower-risk weights for various exposures in line with Basel III rules.

Conclusion

The Russian legal framework for securitisation is constantly developing. The Securitisation Law is expected to provide a further boost to the development and diversification of the Russian securitisation market.
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Legal Framework
Securitisation is regulated in South Africa under the South African Banks Act, 1990 and a set of regulations (commonly referred to as the Securitisation Notice) promulgated thereunder and dealing specifically with securitisations. These regulations, together with a well regulated financial services sector, facilitated a strong growth in the South African securitisation market between 2002 and 2008. The regulations were amended in 2008 in line with international best practice just before the global credit crisis, which the South African securitisation market survived relatively unscathed (from a defaults perspective), although a decrease in issuance levels is still being experienced.

The regulatory environment
Briefly, the Securitisation Notice regulates and prescribes the circumstances in which an issuer of debt instruments pursuant to a securitisation scheme will fall outside the ambit of being considered to be conducting the business of a bank and will thus not be required to obtain a banking licence or be regulated as a bank under the South African Banks Act.

There are two types of securitisation schemes recognised under the Securitisation Notice, namely a ‘traditional securitisation scheme’ (or asset-backed securitisation, which includes mortgage-backed securities) and a ‘synthetic securitisation scheme’.

A traditional securitisation scheme is defined as a scheme whereby a special purpose vehicle (‘SPV’) issues commercial paper (a term used generically in the Securitisation Notice to include both long term and short-term debt instruments) to investors and primarily uses the proceeds derived from such issue to invest in assets or receivables sold to it by an originator. Payments by the SPV on the commercial paper are made from the cash flows arising from the assets transferred to the SPV and the various facilities which may be provided to the SPV in accordance with the provisions of the Securitisation Notice. A synthetic securitisation scheme is defined as a scheme where an SPV issues commercial paper to investors but where the proceeds derived from such issue are used to obtain credit risk exposure, usually through credit derivative instruments, and to acquire collateral. Payments by the issuer on the commercial paper issued under a synthetic securitisation scheme are derived from cash flows arising from such collateral and from the fees or premium paid to the issuer by the counterparty to the relevant credit derivative instrument. In South Africa, traditional scheme and a synthetic scheme may not be conducted in the same SPV.

The issuer SPV can either be an incorporated company or founded as a trust. The sole purpose of the SPV must be the conduct of the securitisation scheme. The SPV must be “insolvency remote” within the meaning of the Securitisation Notice, meaning that the assets of the SPV may not be subject to any claim of a bank or related entity which is engaging in the relevant securitisation scheme.

Method of transfer
In terms of the Securitisation Notice, transfer in a traditional securitisation scheme takes place by the sale and actual transfer of the assets (i.e., the receivables owed to the originator are transferred from the originator to the SPV). In a synthetic securitisation scheme, transfer takes place by the transfer of risk in a pool of assets to the SPV by means of a credit derivative instrument, a guarantee or by another method of transfer authorised by the Registrar of Banks. Under the Securitisation Notice, there must be a ‘true sale’, meaning that the transfer must totally divest the transferor and all its associated companies (and, when the transferor is a bank, divest any other institution within the banking group of which such a bank is a member) of all rights and obligations in respect of the underlying transactions and all risks in connection with the assets transferred or acquired. Accordingly, for a true sale to occur for a traditional securitisation scheme, the Securitisation Notice regulates, amongst other things:

- the effective or indirect control that the transferor may continue to exercise over the assets transferred (other than through a servicing relationship or the like)
- the right of recourse in respect of losses incurred in relation to the assets transferred
- the nature of warranties that may be given
- clean-up calls or rights to repurchase assets transferred
- the ownership and control that a bank acting in a primary role under the relevant scheme (that is as originator, remote originator, sponsor or repackager) may exert

In a synthetic securitisation scheme, in order to ensure an adequate transfer of risk for risk mitigation purposes, the Securitisation Notice regulates, amongst other things:

- the prohibition of significant materiality thresholds below which the credit protection will not be triggered
- the prohibition on the termination of the credit protection based on a deterioration in the underlying asset quality
- the level at which an originator bank may invest in the commercial paper issued by the SPV so as to ensure a material portion of the risk is transferred to third party investors
- the ownership and control that a bank acting in a primary role under the relevant scheme (that is as originator, remote originator, sponsor or repackager) may exert

To effect the sale of receivables under a traditional securitisation scheme, the originator would normally conclude an assignment agreement of all its rights, title and interest in and to such assets to the SPV. The validity of an assignment in South Africa is regulated by the common law and there are no statutory formalities to give effect to such assignment, though this may be dependent on the nature of the assets transferred.

Generally, if only rights are transferred, this may take place without the co-operation, consultation or consent of the obligor (unless otherwise stipulated in the underlying contract). However, an assignment of rights and obligations would require the consent of the underlying obligor. An upfront consent contained in the relevant receivables contract would, however, suffice.
**Over-collateralisation/yield**

A credit enhancement facility may be provided to the issuer to improve the credit rating assigned to the commercial paper issued. The purpose of a credit enhancement facility is to protect investors in a securitisation scheme from losses occurring in the pool of assets or risk exposures acquired by the SPV. Credit enhancement facilities may be provided on a transaction-specific or programme-wide basis. The Securitisation Notice regulates the provision of credit enhancement facilities by banks and members of the banking group and allows for the provision of both a first-loss and a second-loss credit enhancement (though these are required to be documented separately and the first loss facility is required to provide substantial protection to the second loss facility). A first-loss credit enhancement facility may be provided through over-collateralisation, guarantees or subordinated loans and where a bank transfers assets to an SPV at a price less than the book value of those assets, the difference between the book value and such price will be regarded as first-loss credit enhancement. The extent of credit enhancement provided to an SPV under a securitisation scheme must be determined at the commencement of the scheme and there are numerous provisions of the Securitisation Notice that ensure that no additional implicit support is subsequently provided.

**Security structure**

Generally, in South African securitisation transactions, a separate SPV is set up to provide a guarantee to the holders of the commercial paper. The security vehicle receives an indemnity from the issuer indemnifying it against any claims made under the guarantee by the holders of the commercial paper, and the issuer’s obligations under the indemnity are secured by security granted over the underlying assets. The security vehicle is normally a company, but trusts can also be used.

Unlike many jurisdictions, the security vehicle does not typically act as a security agent on behalf of the holders of commercial paper, but rather as a principal with contractual obligations in relation to the holding and realisation of security. This is in order to accommodate certain statutory restrictions in South Africa around holding certain types of security as an agent and various provisions of the common law relating to the splitting of security interests.

**Tax**

The primary tax concern with regard to securitisation transactions is the avoidance of double taxation of income from the assets and, accordingly, the issuer should be set up as a tax-neutral entity. In addition, whilst there is currently no withholding tax on interest payments in South Africa, a withholding tax on interest payments to foreign investors who are not resident in South Africa for tax purposes is scheduled to be introduced on 1 January 2015. The withholding tax is expected to be introduced at a rate of 15% but may be reduced by double taxation treaties. However, if the commercial paper is listed on a recognised exchange (which would currently include the Johannesburg Stock Exchange), the interest paid on such commercial paper would be exempt from such withholding tax.

There will also be value added tax considerations that should be taken into account, but these may depend on the relevant asset class being transferred.

**Regulatory Concerns**

**DISCLOSURE**

The Securitisation Notice prescribes the disclosure obligations on a SPV issuing commercial paper under a securitisation scheme. Investors must be made aware that the instruments in which they invest do not represent deposits in a bank, but that the instruments are subject to investment risk, including possible delays in repayment and loss of income and principal amounts invested, and do not guarantee the capital value or performance of such instruments.

In addition, if the commercial paper is to be listed on the Interest Rate Market of the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (“JSE”), the issuer and the relevant disclosure document must comply with the listings requirements of the JSE relevant to debt listings.

**CONSUMER PROTECTION**

Insofar as the receivables contracts pertain to goods or services, the supply of such goods and services may be governed by the Consumer Protection Act, 2008 (“CPA”). The CPA contains various provisions which grant the consumer various rights pertaining to the quality of goods or supply of service and remedies if such good or service is defective. The purchaser of such receivables contract will have to bear the provisions of the CPA in mind.

The National Credit Act, 2005 (“National Credit Act”) governs consumer credit agreements in South Africa and applies to credit agreements entered into after 1 June 2007. It may thus apply to receivables contracts entered into by the originator. The National Credit Act applies to natural persons but not to juristic persons with an asset value or annual turnover of more than ZAR 1 million nor juristic persons with an asset value or annual turnover of less than ZAR 1 million who enter into a mortgage agreement or an agreement with a loan value of more than ZAR 250,000. Thus when evaluating the securitisation of such receivables, the National Credit Act should be taken into account as the issuer SPV may be required to register as a credit provider under the National Credit Act.

**DATA PROTECTION**

The personal information of the debtors under the original receivables contracts are currently not protected under a compulsory statutory data protection regime in South Africa, but the promulgation of legislation in this regard is imminent. As a result, such personal information can, at present, be processed by the parties to a securitisation scheme. There is, however, a right to privacy under the common law and under section 14 of the Constitution of South Africa, which restricts the utilisation of personal information which the data subject does not wish to be placed in the public domain. In respect of the protection of information of juristic entities, South African courts have recognised that juristic persons, such as the SPV or originator if it is an incorporated entity, also have a right to privacy.
The Protection of Personal Information Act, 2013 ("POPI") was signed into law in November 2013 although the commencement date is yet to be gazetted. POPI aims to give effect to the constitutional right to privacy and to regulate the manner in which personal information of individuals and juristic persons may be processed. The parties to a securitisation scheme will have to comply with the provisions of POPI once this comes into force (although there is a 12-month transition period for compliance) and may need to assess the way they collect, process and store personal information relating to the receivables contracts in light of the new legislative framework in respect of data protection.

FOREIGN EXCHANGE CONTROL

South Africa has a system of exchange controls which applies to all South African residents (including external companies registered in South Africa, which are deemed to be South African residents for exchange control purposes). These exchange controls prohibit the export of capital and/or revenue whether directly or indirectly, or the dealing in foreign exchange, without the prior approval of the South African Reserve Bank. Non-residents have been granted a general approval, pursuant to the exchange control Rulings issued by the Financial Surveillance Department of the South African Reserve Bank, to deal in assets located in South Africa and to invest and disinvest from South Africa. However, South African residents intending to attract investment by non-residents in debt securities are required to adhere to the exchange control Rulings and especially the securities control provisions thereof.

Residents will be required to obtain exchange control approval for the issue or listing of debt securities if they are to be available to be acquired by a non-resident and in the event that the interest rate to be paid or discounted is higher than the prime overdraft rate plus 3% per annum. This threshold may be amended from time to time. The JSE will not grant the listing of debt securities until the exchange control approval has been obtained. Most South African commercial banks act as authorised dealers for the South African Reserve Bank and gaining approval is a relatively straightforward process.

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Legal framework

Asset securitisation was introduced in Spain by Act 19/1992 of 7 July, which regulates Mortgage Securitisation Funds that were specifically created to securitise certain eligible mortgage loans and mortgage backed securities. Further significant legislation in relation to securitisation was set forth in (amongst other laws) Royal Law Decree 3/1993 of 26 February, Act 3/1994 of 14 April, Royal Decree 926/1998 of 14 May and Law 62/2003 of 30 December, which developed and extended the legal framework of securitisation in Spain.

Law 5/2015 of 27 April on promoting corporate financing ("Law 5/2015"), enacted in 2015, expressly derogated the former securitisation legal framework and consolidated into one piece of legislation the previously existing dispersed set of laws on securitisation in Spain. Law 5/2015 also modernised the securitisation legal framework and provided more legal flexibility in line with the laws of neighbouring jurisdictions.

Upon the issuance of the Law 5/2005, the Spanish Securities Market Commission (Comisión Nacional del Mercado de Valores — "CNMV") passed Circular 1/2016 of 20 April, on accounting regulation concerning securitisation funds, which derogated the previously existing regulation on accounting for securitisation funds.

The improvement of the Spanish securitisation regulatory framework intended to promote the use of these transactions and reinforce the investor’s protection while offering flexibility to structure different types of securitisation funds and structures.

The new legal framework of securitisation in Spain under Law 5/2015 applies to securitisation funds set up as of 29 April 2015. Securitisation funds created prior to the entry into force of Law 5/2015 continue to be governed by the previous regime.

The Spanish Securitisation Funds

Under Spanish law, securitisations are arranged through a special purpose vehicle without legal personality called a securitisation fund ("Securitisation Fund") managed by a management company. Spanish law does not allow a securitisation vehicle to be set up as a securitisation company.

Securitisation Funds in Spain are separate estates without legal personality, whose assets consist of financial assets along with other rights and whose liabilities consist of debt securities and loans granted to them by third parties. In general, a Securitisation Fund seeks to do the following:

- Issue homogenous fixed-income securities, giving the holders of such securities returns consistent with those obtained by the credit rights as a whole and transferring to such investors the risks resulting from the effective repayment thereof.

There are currently no restrictions as to the composition of the liabilities of a Securitisation Fund. The prior regulation required that at least 50% of the liabilities of an (assets) Securitisation Fund should consist of the securities issued by the fund. Additionally, the liabilities of the Securitisation Fund may include loans granted by any third parties as well as contributions of institutional investors.

The securities issued by the Securitisation Fund may be admitted to trading on a multilateral trading facility (and not only on an organised secondary market), except where such securities are solely addressed to institutional investors, in which case no trading requirement applies. However, there is no need for the issued securities to obtain a rating from a rating agency.

Securitisation Funds in Spain may be either closed funds or open funds. Closed funds may not vary their assets or liabilities, although assets may be replaced and rectified in certain circumstances. Open funds may vary their assets and liabilities during the life of the fund, which allows, for example, revolving assets to be securitised.

Finally, Law 5/2015 enabled Securitisation Fund Management Companies to perform an “active management” of the fund’s portfolio that allows the development of future activities by securitisation funds, which until now have been configured as fully static estates. In this regard, Securitisation Fund Management Companies may modify the patrimonial elements of the fund’s assets, for purposes of maximizing profitability, securing the quality of the assets, performing correct risk assessments or maintaining the conditions set forth in the deed of incorporation of the fund. Securitisation Fund Management Companies assuming the active management of securitisation funds must establish a special supervision committee and define in advance the remuneration for such services.

The Spanish Securitisation Fund Management Companies

Spanish law entrusts to specific entities, called Securitisation Fund Management Companies, the creation, management and legal representation of Securitisation Funds. Spanish law also submits to the review of the CNMV the process of incorporation of the Securitisation Fund and the issuance and placement of the securities to be created by the same, through the application of the rules and requirements governing the issuance and public offering of tradable securities.

As a consequence of the new provisions introduced by Law 5/2015, Securitisation Fund Management Companies also have also been entrusted with the administration and management of the assets grouped in the fund. Likewise, the new law enables Securitisation Fund Management Companies to delegate or sub-delegate their duties to third parties and clarifies that Securitisation Fund Management Companies may also be in charge of incorporating, managing and representing funds and special purpose vehicles similar to securitisation funds constituted abroad. These reforms clearly evidence a trend seeking to enable Securitisation Fund Management Companies to develop and grow on an international level.
Finally, Securitisation Fund Management Companies may create several compartments or sub-funds within a single Securitisation Fund, each of whose assets and liabilities would be ring-fenced from those of the other sub-funds. This possibility, which in the past had been allowed in practice by the CNMV, has been expressly recognised under the new Law 5/2015.

### The specific legal framework for the securitisation of mortgage loans

Spanish law allows credit institutions to securitise mortgage loans through the issuance of mortgage backed securities, which may be incorporated as part of the assets of a securitisation fund, using the mortgage loans as collateral. The law also limits the loans that may be securitised to those mortgage loans that comply with certain provisions, including the following:

- Each loan must be backed by a first ranking mortgage created over the ownership of the entire property.
- The value of the loan backed by the relevant mortgage may not exceed 60% of the assessed value of the mortgaged property and if the construction, restoration or acquisition of the property is financed, the value of the loan may not exceed 80% of the assessed value of the property.
- The mortgaged property must have been appraised by the originator’s appraisal services.
- The mortgaged property must be insured against damages for the assessed value of the property.

However, the above requirements may be more flexible depending on the concrete instrument used to securitise the mortgage loan.

### Synthetic Securitisation Funds

The rules that specifically govern synthetic securitisations, which were introduced in Spain in 2003 and slightly developed by Law 5/2015, essentially parallel those rules set forth for ordinary securitisation funds.

Synthetic Securitisation Funds ("Synthetic Securitisation Funds") may securitise, in synthetic form, loans and other credit rights through the settlement of a credit derivative with one or more third parties. Spanish regulations allow the use of credit derivatives to replicate the effects of a true sale securitisation in which, although there is no legal transfer of the assets subject to the securitisation, the credit risk of the assets is transferred through credit derivatives.

The new legal framework introduced by Law 5/2015 expressly broadens the possibility of securitising loans and other credit rights in synthetic form by means of entering into financial derivatives with third parties or by means of granting personal guarantees or financial guarantees in favour of the holders of such loans or other credit rights. This allows an important degree of flexibility in these type of securitisation transactions.

Furthermore, it should be noted that there are no restrictions in relation to the entities that can act as eligible counterparties of credit derivatives (under the previous regulation, the counterparties ought to be credit institutions, investment services companies or foreign entities, resident and authorised to carry out these transactions in Spain).

### Alternatives for structuring financing transactions

In line with the idea of strengthening securitisation as a financing mechanism different from corporate financing, Law 5/2015 opened new possibilities to asset securitisation. In the context of Securitisation Fund’s liabilities, the law expressly provides that “securitisation funds may grant security in order to secure third party liabilities”, allowing new alternatives for structuring financing transactions that involve a specific portfolio of assets as security. In this regard, the isolation of the portfolio is a fundamental pillar in the structuring of these type of transactions, with the aim of benefitting from the bankruptcy protection regime that would apply to securitised assets in the event of the issuer’s bankruptcy.

### SAREB (Entity for the Management of Assets resulting from the Reconstruction of the Banking Sector) and FABs (Banking Assets Funds)

In 2012, by means of Law 9/2012 and Royal Decree 1559/2012, SAREB was created by the Spanish Government to restore the banking sector to health. The creation of SAREB was a condition set by the European Union in exchange for the provision of aid of up to EUR 100 billion to the Spanish banking restructuring process.

Consequently, SAREB is a sole purpose asset management company acting as a “bad bank”, acquiring, at a significant discount, full and unconditioned foreclosed real estate assets and loans for real estate development from aided Spanish banks (“Purchased Assets”). The Purchased Assets will be divested by SAREB, either by means of their direct sale to investors or, alternatively, by means of their transfer to a Banking Asset Fund (FAB), without any guarantee or assurance by SAREB that there will be a return on the investment, so that the full risk of the assets is borne by the relevant transferee.

A FAB is a special purpose vehicle without legal personality created by SAREB, which enables SAREB to transfer the assets (achieving off-balance sheet treatment) and the investor to acquire indirect ownership and control over the assets by holding a controlling stake of the securities or participations issued by the FAB. A FAB was a new type of vehicle under Spanish law, which is conceived as a hybrid between a securitisation fund and a collective investment scheme. This dual nature allows for greater flexibility for the benefit of both SAREB and potential investors. Similarly to a securitisation fund, a FAB is managed by a Securitisation Fund Management Company. Furthermore, as in a securitisation fund structure, the FAB allows for the return of the underlying assets to be passed through to the investors (net of the costs associated to the management of the FAB and the underlying assets).
**SPAIN**

**Tax issues**

**DIRECT TAXATION**

Securitisation Funds are subject to the general corporate income tax regime in Spain and, thus, they will be taxed at the tax rate of 25%.

In this respect, it should be noted that there is a specific withholding exemption on account of the corporate income tax in relation to interest received by Securitisation Funds and paid on hypothecary participations (defined as the transfer of a debtor’s right in property to a creditor without the corresponding transfer of possession or title to the creditor), loans and other rights that are considered income for Securitisation Funds.

FABS are subject to Spanish corporate income tax at a reduced 1% tax rate.

FAB investors who are subject to Spanish corporate income tax, personal income tax or non-resident income tax with a permanent establishment in Spain will be taxed as shareholders or stakeholders of Undertakings for Collective Investments in Transferable Securities (UCITS). However, for personal income tax taxpayers, it is expressly provided that the capital gains deferral will not be applicable. Non-resident investors without a permanent establishment in Spain will be exempt from tax on income received from the FAB.

**INDIRECT TAXATION**

The incorporation of Securitisation Funds is exempt from capital tax. The issue of securities by a Securitisation Fund is exempt from VAT, transfer tax and stamp duty. In addition, the services provided by the relevant management company, including the management and depositary services, are exempt from VAT.

With regard to FABS, the main peculiarities are that the transfer of assets and liabilities by SAREB to FABS is exempt from Spanish transfer tax and stamp duty (ITP-AJD) and not subject to local taxes (Municipal deemed capital gains tax or “Impuesto sobre el Incremento del Valor de los terrenos de Naturaleza Urbana”).

A new stamp duty exemption also applies to the mortgages granted to finance the acquisition of real estate to SAREB or FABS. In addition, SAREB and FABS may enjoy certain tax benefits (mainly a stamp duty exemption) related to the novation of loans mutually agreed by debtor and creditor when the creditor is SAREB or a FAB.

**REGULATORY ISSUES**

In addition to the regulation of the creation and operation of Securitisation Funds and FABS, the CNMV has wide-ranging powers regarding the verification and registration of documents in relation to securitisation transactions. These powers include, but are not limited to, the review and registration of:

- the constitution of Securitisation Funds and FABS and their corresponding Securitisation Fund Management Companies
- reports on the pool of assets subject to a securitisation
- reports required by the CNMV, including rating agency reports, auditors’ statements and other reports
- the prospectus, if required, in relation to the Securitisation Funds, the FABS and their assets and liabilities

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Securitisation in Switzerland is still under development. Following a change in the general tax framework a few years ago, the number of public securitisation transactions listed in Switzerland has increased, in particular in the credit card and auto lease sector, but has to date not reached the same attractiveness as abroad. The recognition of the concept of trust under Swiss insolvency laws also facilitates the implementation of transaction structures involving the holding of security through a trustee. Furthermore, considering the attractiveness of the Swiss real estate market, residential mortgage securitisations are expected to become more frequent. In addition, privately placed securitisations of commodity trade receivables are quite common, as Switzerland is a leading centre for commodity trading.

**Legal framework**

Currently, there is no specific securitisation legislation in Switzerland. The relevant legal issues are generally governed by the Swiss Code of Obligations, including with respect to assignments of receivables, transfers of contracts and special purpose vehicle ("SPV") incorporation formalities, the Swiss Civil Code in relation to real estate and collateralisation aspects, and certain specific laws such as the Consumer Credit Act for leasing and credit card arrangements with private customers.

**Incorporating an SPV**

Swiss law does not provide for a specific type of securitisation vehicle. The commonly used forms for incorporating an SPV are a joint-stock corporation (Aktiengesellschaft/ société anonyme) or a limited liability company (Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung/ société à responsabilité limitée). However, certain tax and commercial considerations may prompt the parties to incorporate the SPV in a foreign jurisdiction rather than in Switzerland, even if the originator and securitised assets are located in Switzerland. The determination of the location of the SPV is, therefore, an essential step of the structuring process.

Unlike other jurisdictions, Switzerland is not a specifically appropriate jurisdiction for the establishment of charitable trusts or similar structures. Hence, Swiss securitisation vehicles are in most cases owned by the originator, so that, in terms of corporate governance, the independence of the SPV is achieved through the election of independent directors (or managing officers for an SPV incorporated as a limited liability company). Independent directors may be entrusted with veto rights on all decisions that potentially affect the interests of the investors. The uninterrupted presence of independent directors on the board of the SPV and the maintenance of their prerogatives should be warranted through the insertion of corresponding provisions in the SPV’s constituent documents.

**Method of transfer**

A written assignment is required to assign claims governed by Swiss law. Claims that are subject to an assignment prohibition (contractually or otherwise) are not assignable. The acceptance of the assignment may be effected by conclusive means, such as the payment of a purchase price by the SPV. The assignment of receivables may not be sufficient to confer upon the SPV a proprietary interest in assets securing the securitised receivables, such as automotive vehicles or mortgages. In such cases, the entire contractual relationship between the originator and the obligor may need to be transferred to the SPV. This implies a preliminary consent from the obligor, which can be obtained in the respective contract. Swiss law further provides that, under certain circumstances, a transfer (outright transfer or transfer for security purposes) of assets may be made by way of agreement among the parties if the assets are directly held by a third party (e.g., the lessee). A notification of the third-party is at least recommended.

Data protection considerations may also have an impact on the actual transfer. Where the originator is a regulated bank, Swiss banking secrecy protects the relationship of the bank with each obligor and a conclusive waiver of confidentiality by the obligor must be obtained prior to the transfer.

**Over-collateralisation/yield**

Credit enhancement is typically achieved through the grant of a subordinated loan by the Originator or its subscription for junior notes issued by the SPV. That being said, the purchase price payable for the sold receivables may include a discount (for the purpose of covering funding costs) and/or a deferred element (to cover over-collateralisation levels) without impairing the assessment of the true sale characterisation of the transaction. As most transactions are made with the support of a tax ruling, the level of the discount and magnitude of the deferred element must align with the expectations of the tax authorities.

**Tax**

There is no specific tax regime applicable to securitisations in Switzerland. Typically, advance rulings may be obtained from the relevant competent tax authorities, which may include the Federal Tax Administration (Swiss withholding taxes, Swiss stamp duties and VAT) and certain cantonal tax authorities (corporate income taxes), for instance, those of the canton where the SPV is incorporated, as the case may be, or where the majority of the obligors are domiciled.

The issuance of securitised debt by a Swiss SPV generally qualifies as an issuance of bonds from a Swiss tax law perspective. Accordingly, any interest payments on the notes will trigger Swiss withholding tax at the current rate of 35%. For Swiss investors, the withholding tax is fully recoverable, provided that they duly and adequately disclose the underlying income in their tax return. The level of the recoverability for foreign investors depends on the domicile of the investor and the applicable double tax treaty.

Swiss withholding tax may be avoided by choosing a non-Swiss issuance vehicle. However, such structures are scrutinised by the Swiss tax authorities and may qualify as a tax avoidance scheme, and we would recommend obtaining an advance tax ruling from the competent Swiss tax authorities. Non-Swiss structures may also lead to additional complexity with respect to other aspects of the structure, such as, without limitation, issues in connection with data transfers abroad. In case the underlying asset...
portfolio relates to real estate located in Switzerland, the use of a non-Swiss issuance
vehicle may further lead to the incurrence of cantonal withholding taxes on interest
payment if the transaction is secured by Swiss real estate. This cantonal withholding
tax may be recoverable based on applicable double tax treaties.

Swiss resident entities and individuals holding the securities as part of their business
assets may have to include any income and gains (or loss) realised in their profit and
loss statement relevant for corporate income distributions.

Swiss resident individuals holding the securities as part of their private assets have to
include any interest payments as taxable income in their personal Swiss tax returns.

A capital gain realised upon the sale of the securities should qualify as tax-exempt
capital gain. A realised capital loss is not tax deductible. Interest payments on debt
instruments, such as bonds or notes, issued in series by a Swiss issuer are subject to
withholding tax at a rate of 35%. Investors domiciled in Switzerland can normally
recover the withholding tax, provided that it is adequately disclosed in the investor's
annual tax return. Foreign investors may claim for a refund if they reside in a jurisdiction
that is bound by a favourable double tax treaty with Switzerland. Such withholding
tax, however, is not particularly attractive to foreign investors, which sometimes leads
to the incorporation of the SPV in a foreign tax jurisdiction. Note that, in such case, the
Swiss tax authorities may look through the securitisation structure and allocate to the
Swiss originator the notes issued by the SPV. Therefore, it is important that the parties
obtain a tax ruling to have the true sale concept acknowledged by the tax authorities
and to confirm that the SPV is not effectively managed from Switzerland.

Interest payments on loans secured by way of mortgage over Swiss real estate
properties may be subject to source income tax, unless the beneficiary of the payments
is a Swiss taxpayer or a resident of a jurisdiction with which Switzerland has entered
into a favourable tax treaty.

VAT considerations must also be addressed. A VAT ruling, which may be separately
obtained from the Federal Tax Administration, would ascertain the treatment of VAT
costs, confirm that the sale of the receivables is not subject to VAT, and determine when
and if the SPV itself will be or will become liable to Swiss VAT and will be required
to collect Swiss VAT on the underlying receivables. Depending on the kind of assets
transferred, the transfer of the underlying assets potentially triggers transfer taxes and
VAT. A transfer of Swiss real estate might trigger real estate transfer taxes. In addition,
any undisclosed reserves on the assets transferred may be deemed realised and subject
to corporate income tax. In certain specific cases, a transfer of the underlying assets to
an SPV might be structured as a tax-exempt restructurings.

When the SPV is incorporated in Switzerland, the economic terms of the sale of the
securitised assets will be carefully set with a view to minimise the corporate income
and net equity tax burden of the SPV. The level of taxation should be confirmed by way
of an advance tax ruling.

Regulatory concerns
The SPV is not deemed to accept public deposits on a professional basis and thus is
not regulated under the Swiss Banking Act, provided that certain information about
the issuer and the terms of the notes are provided to the investor. In addition, typical
SPV structures are not subject to other provisions of the Swiss financial legislation,
in particular they should not be considered collective investment schemes. Related
confirmations from the Swiss Financial Market Supervision Authority (FINMA) can
usually be obtained.

The grant of residential mortgages is subject to restrictions under the Federal Act
on the Acquisition of Real Estate by Persons Abroad (the so-called Lex Koller). Such
restrictions imply that the characteristics of the securitised loans must be in line with
Swiss mortgage standards, e.g., in respect of the maximum debt-to-equity ratio. It is
possible for the parties to seek in advance a confirmation from the Federal Office of
Justice that the sale of residential mortgages to the SPV does not trigger licensing
requirements under the Lex Koller.

Finally, the public offering of the notes in Switzerland is subject to the prospectus
requirements under the new Federal Act on Financial Services, unless one of the
exemptions set out therein applies.

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Legal framework

The securitisation market in Taiwan has developed since 2002 with the announcement and enactment of the Financial Asset Securitisations Act ("Act"), which provides holders of financial assets with a legal system to improve the liquidity of financial assets through securitisation, and protect investments.

According to the Act, the "Originator" is a financial institution or an institution approved by the Financial Supervisory Commission ("FSC") which entrusts financial assets ("Assets") to a trustee ("Trustee") or transfers the Assets to a special purpose company ("SPC"). The Originator can initiate a securitisation arrangement if it owns the Assets which are to be used as the underlying assets backing the securitisation.

The Act provides that an Originator may use the following Assets within a securitisation transaction:

- rights under automobile loans or other chattel secured loans, along with their respective security interests;
- rights under housing loans or other loans secured by real estate mortgages, along with their respective security interests;
- rights under leases, credit cards, account receivables, or other monetary rights;
- beneficial interests derived from a trust contract entered into by and between the Originator and a trust enterprise with regard to Assets of a type listed above; or
- other rights approved by the competent authority.

Establishment/Incorporation of a Special Purpose Vehicle

The Act provides two models for securitisation. The Originator may: (i) entrust the Assets to the Trustee; or (ii) transfer the Assets to an SPC pursuant to the Act, whereby the Trustee or SPC issues beneficial securities or asset-backed securities on the basis of such Assets.

TRANSFER THE ASSETS TO AN SPC

An SPC shall be established by a financial institution, and shall be a company-limited-by-shares with only one shareholder. The financial institution and the Originator may not be the same affiliated enterprise. An SPC shall expressly show that it is an SPC in its official name registered with the registry.

The total amount of shares set forth in the articles of incorporation of the SPC may not be issued in instalments and the sole shareholder of the SPC may not transfer its shares to any other entity without the prior approval of the FSC.

Except for the business of asset securitisation, the SPC is not permitted to engage concurrently in any other business.

Method of transfer of receivables

Under the Civil Code in Taiwan, the transfer of receivables will not be effective as against the debtor until the debtor has been notified of such transfer by the transferor or by the transferee. When the receivables are being transferred, all the securities of the receivables and other accessory rights are transferred together, except those rights which cannot be separated from the transferor. The creditor (i.e., transferor) is bound to deliver to the transferee all documents which serve as evidence of the claim, and to provide all the information necessary for the assertion of such receivables.

To facilitate and simplify the notification process, the Act provides that public notification to the debtors is allowable and valid against the debtor, provided that:

- the Originator is appointed or entrusted by the Trustee or the SPC as the servicer to collect the payments from the debtor and such appointment or entrustment has been announced pursuant to the Act; or
- the Originator and the debtor have entered into a contract under which it is agreed that the use of other means to replace the notification or mailing of the certificate of announcement as required under the Act.

The form and content of such announcement shall be in line with the requirements prescribed by the FSC.

True sale

It is explicitly required under the Act that, after the SPC issues the asset-backed securities, the Originator and the SPC shall complete the procedure of the asset transfer within the transfer period set forth in the asset securitisation plan without any delay or false acts. With regard to such asset transfer, the accounting treatment shall comply with Generally Accepted Accounting Principles. Furthermore, where the Originator processes the asset transfer in compliance with the above and acquires consideration for transferring the Assets in accordance with the asset securitisation plan, it shall be deemed as a non-gratuitous act prescribed in Article 244, Paragraph 2 of the Civil Code.
Accounting Treatment

Based on the offering terms of different types or durations of asset-backed securities, the SPC shall establish a separate account to keep records pertaining to the management and disposal of the transferred Assets, calculate its profits and losses and distributed amounts related thereto, and shall periodically prepare written reports with regard to the book value of the transferred Assets, principal received or other interests, collectable payments, bad debts and other material information, and submit such reports to the supervisory institution appointed by the SPC (“Supervisory Institution”) and notify the asset-backed security holders. The content of such reports shall contain no false statements or concealments.

The SPC shall prepare an annual report at the end of each fiscal year, and shall register the operational report and financial report audited by the company’s supervisor to the FSC and deliver such reports to the Supervisory Institution within 15 days after the same are approved at a meeting of the board of directors.

Tax Implications for Securitisations

There are certain special tax treatments benefiting securitisation vehicles which have been favourable to the securitisation market. For instance, the revenues of the special purpose trust property shall be subject to business tax at the rate applicable to banks, i.e., 2%-5%. The transfer of the Assets shall be exempted from stamp duty, deed tax and business tax. With regard to amending the registration of real estate, real estate mortgage, movable properties subject to registration requirements and various security interests, the Trustee and the SPC may apply to the competent registration authority for registration; the registration fees shall be exempted if the relevant certificate issued by the competent authority is presented.

Other than beneficial securities being recognised as short-term bills by the FSC, the trading of beneficial securities shall be subject to securities transaction tax at the tax rate applicable to corporate bonds. The securities transaction tax on corporate bonds is currently exempted from levy from 1 January 2010 to 31 December 2016.

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Legal framework

The Emergency Decree on the Establishment of Special Purpose Vehicles, B.E. 2540 (1997) ("Act") provides the framework and requirements for securitisation programmes in Thailand.

Securitisation programmes must also comply with the regulations of the Securities and Exchange Commission of Thailand ("SEC"), the Office of the SEC, and the Capital Market Supervisory Board ("CMSB"). Under the SEC Notification (defined in the footnote) an originator that qualifies to submit an application for approval of a securitisation programme to the Office of the SEC must be one of the following:

a. An entity incorporated under Thai law that is:
   i. a financial institution;
   ii. a securities company, under the law on securities and exchange;
   iii. a juristic person established by virtue of a specific law; or
   iv. a private limited company or a public limited company; or

b. An entity incorporated under foreign law that is:
   i. a unit or organisation of foreign government; or
   ii. a juristic person incorporated under foreign law.

If the Office of the SEC is to grant approval for setting up a securitisation programme, it must be proven that:

a. If the special purpose entity ("SPE") wishes to offer the debentures to investors in general through a (public offering) and the originator is a Thai entity, none of the directors, executives, and controlling persons of the Originator have untrustworthy characteristics of directors and executives as specified in the regulations of the SEC.

b. The programme is clear and specifies the name and address of the Servicer.

c. The Assets belong to the originator, and are contractual rights (that are similar in nature or related to each other) to receive cash, which create current receivables in the future, and the originator may not revoke any rights or cause any rights to become subordinate.

d. Investment guidelines and the use of proceeds derived from current receivables are clearly described.

e. Details of the allocation of proceeds derived from the current receivables in repayment of principal and interest to the debenture-holders, expenses, and the return of all remaining Assets and benefits to the originator, are specified in accordance with the Office of the SEC regulations.

The application must contain information as specified in the SEC Notification, such as the plan for the issuance of debentures by the SPE, the description of the securitised assets and their future income stream, and investment policies for the income stream.

Incorporating a special purpose entity

The Act provides two models for securitisation. The originator may transfer the Assets:

(i) by setting up a trust established pursuant to the Trust in Capital Market Transactions Act, B.E. 2550 (2007), as amended ("Trust Act"), or (ii) to an SPE that may be in the form of a private limited company, a public limited company, or any other type of juristic person as prescribed by the SEC, whereby the Trustee or SPE issues securities and pays the purchase price to the originator using the proceeds derived from the issuance and offering of the securities. However, the devil is in the details. Notwithstanding the enactment of the Trust Act, the subordinate regulations that would enable the originator to use a trust for securitisation purposes have not been enacted. Currently, the creation of trust as a securitisation vehicle is not practicable in Thailand.

The SEC has not prescribed any other type of juristic person to be a permitted form of the SPE under the Act. In addition, an SPE is a legal entity set up temporarily to conduct a securitisation programme, and each SPE can only conduct one securitisation programme at any point in time. The SPE needs to be in a form that enables it to be set up easily and be subsequently liquidated or dissolved easily. For this reason, the SPE is usually set up as a private limited company established under the Thai Civil and Commercial Code ("CCC"), as the process and requirements for setting up a private limited company are more straightforward than those for a public limited company.

In order to set up a private limited company, three promoters, all of whom must be individuals, are required. The set-up process involves preparing the memorandum of association and the articles of association, organising the establishment meeting, subscription to and allocation of shares, and passing on the business to the directors. The total number of shareholders in a private limited company must not be less than three persons (individuals or juristic persons). The establishment process may be completed within one day.

Transferring of the assets to the SPE and perfection

A transfer of receivables is made by way of an assignment of rights under the CCC. For an assignment of rights to be valid, it must be made in writing. 4 The assignment can also be set up against the debtor or other third parties only if: (i) a written notice of the assignment has been given to the debtor; or (ii) the debtor has agreed to the assignment. There is no regulatory requirement regarding the content or the formality of a notice of assignment. However, it is advisable to specify the following information in the duly signed notice:

a. Date of the notice.

b. Description of the assigned asset.

c. Description of the agreement pursuant to which the asset is assigned.

d. Effective date of the assignment.

e. Statement requesting that the recipient give consent.

If a debtor has given consent, without reservation, they cannot raise against the
assigne a defence that they may have made against the assignor. On the other hand, if the debtor has only received a notice of assignment, they may raise against the assignee any defence that he or she had against the assignor before having received the notice.

To facilitate the securitisation markets, the Act provides that the transfer of rights will be lawful without notice being given to the debtor, if one of the following conditions has been met:

- Assignment whereby the original payee of the assigned asset (e.g., the originator) acts as the Servicer.
- Assignment whereby the original payee of the assigned asset has been charged by virtue of law as a consequence of a merger of those entities.

However, in any event, the debtor is still able to raise any defence it may have against the assignor before the assignment.

The SPE must complete the transfer of the amount of receivables specified, under the securitisation programme application, as a minimum amount of receivables that must be transferred to the SPE, within six months from the approval of the securitisation programme.

### True sale and revocable transfer under the CCC and Bankruptcy Act

Generally speaking, the assignment of rights, even if duly assigned (pursuant to the requirement of serving a notice as described above), is subject to the fraudulent conveyance provisions under the CCC and the Bankruptcy Act. The court may set aside an assignment of rights under a contemplated securitisation programme in a civil case or bankruptcy proceeding, as elaborated upon below.

#### (A) FRAUDULENT CONVEYANCE

Thai law regarding fraudulent conveyance provides that a creditor, or an official receiver, is entitled to claim cancellation by the court of bankruptcy proceedings if a transaction, transfer, payment, or any act made or performed by a debtor is considered a fraudulent conveyance under section 237 of the CCC or section 113 of the Bankruptcy Act. The difference between section 237 of the CCC and section 113 of the Bankruptcy Act is that section 237 of the CCC will be used by a creditor in a civil case, whereas a similar right to cancel a fraudulent act will be used by an official receiver in a bankruptcy case.

A transaction or transfer may be regarded as an act of fraudulent conveyance, and can be revoked by the court, if a creditor or an official receiver, alleging that the transaction was a fraudulent conveyance, can prove to the court that the act was done by a debtor, with the knowledge of both the debtor and the enriched person (or with the knowledge of the debtor only, in the case of a gratuitous act), and would prejudice the creditor at the time of the act.

Section 114 of the Bankruptcy Act provides presumptions for an act of fraudulent conveyance under bankruptcy proceedings; it will be presumed, prima facie, that the debtor and the person enriched knew that the act would be prejudicial to the creditors where a transaction, transfer, payment, or any act affecting the property of a debtor:

i. is made or performed during a one-year period before the application of the bankruptcy proceeding, or afterwards;
ii. that is a gratuitous act; or
iii. results in the debtor receiving consideration that is less than a reasonable amount.

To summarise, any transfer that falls under one of the characteristics described in items (i)–(iii) above will be presumed to be an act of fraudulent conveyance.

In that case, the duty of proof to rebut the official receiver’s accusation that the transfer is fraudulent will be shifted to the debtor, who is bankrupt or insolvent.

#### (B) UNDUE PREFERENCE

Section 115 of the Bankruptcy Act provides that a transaction, transfer, or any act performed, or allowed to be performed, by a debtor, that took place within a three-month period before the application for bankruptcy proceedings, or afterwards (notwithstanding the knowledge of the debtor or adequate consideration, and an official receiver can prove to the court that the debtor entered into a transaction, or made the payment, or performed the act with the intention to give one creditor preference over other creditors) can be cancelled by the court.

If the assignment of rights under the securitisation programme from the originator to the SPE falls under either scenario described in item (a) or (b), the assignment can be cancelled by the court in a civil case or in bankruptcy proceedings, subject to the requirements under the aforementioned provisions.

#### (C) TRUE SALE UNDER THE ACT

Under the Act, the characteristics of a “true sale”, including the assignment of rights, are not specifically provided. However, section 20 of the Act provides an exemption to the application of fraudulent conveyance and undue preference, by stating that a transfer of Assets from the originator to the SPE will be deemed to be made (i) with fair consideration and not as a transfer in which the debtor receives less than a reasonable amount in consideration; and (ii) is not prejudicial to the creditors of the assignee, if the consideration for the transfer is either:

i. the book value of the Assets, in accordance with accounting standards; or
ii. a value that is, in the opinion of a financial adviser who is not an adviser to the securitisation programme, fair consideration for the transfer of Assets for
The sale, or importation of goods or the provision of services is subject to VAT. However, VAT is exempt for certain types of goods or services, or under certain situations.

8. Generally, SBT is imposed on gross receipts generated from certain businesses or transactions prescribed under section 95/2 of the Revenue Code and the royal decrees issued thereunder. It is applicable to banking business, regular transactions similar to banking business, and the sale of immovable property, transacted in Thailand.

9. The sale or importation of dutiable documents listed in the Stamp Duty Schedule of the Revenue Code is subject to stamp duty. However, under Royal Decree No. 335, B.E. 2541 (1998), documents executed between the SPE and companies or other juristic persons under a securitisation programme approved by the Office of the SEC are exempt from stamp duty.

**Accounting treatment**

Thai companies, including an SPE, are subject to the Thailand Financial Reporting Standards ("TFRS") and Thailand Accounting Standards ("TAS"), which adopt the International Financial Reporting Standards ("IFRS") and the International Accounting Standards ("IAS"). Recently, TFRS 9 (Financial Instruments: Disclosure) and TAS 32 (Financial Instruments: Presentation) have been announced and are in effect for the accounting period starting from 1 January 2020. These standards provide classifications and measurements of financial assets and financial liabilities, impairment assessment, and hedge accounting and disclosure. If the originator is seeking "off-balance sheet" accounting treatment, applicable accounting standards must be complied with.

**Regulatory concerns**

The offering and issuance of debentures by the SPE under the securitisation programme are governed by the CMSB Notification. Debentures may be offered via public or private placement.

The SPE must not have been approved by the Office of the SEC to issue debentures under any other securitisation programme (unless the debentures are no longer outstanding). As a result, if the SPE wishes to issue both senior and junior tranches of debentures, it has to do so at the same time.

The approval and filing processes vary depending on the type of targeted investors, whereby a private placement to a limited number of investors is the least onerous. Certain types of private placement are deemed approved if the prescribed conditions are met, while a public offering requires separate approval from the Office of the SEC in addition to the approval of the securitisation programme. In terms of filing requirements, the SPE must file a registration statement and a draft prospectus with the Office of the SEC if it wishes to make a public offering or an offering to certain types of investors. A private placement to a limited number of investors is exempt from this filing requirement. The disclosure in the registration and draft prospectus for a public offering is also more rigid than other types of offering. 
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During the mid-1990s, the Dutch securitisation market began to develop with the issuance of Residential Mortgage-Backed Securities ("RMBS"). As the securitisation market grew and became more sophisticated, the types of financial assets being securitised broadened. Securitisation transactions have become increasingly important for Dutch banks and corporates as part of their funding strategies.

A number of Dutch banks continued to successfully place RMBS in 2016. In addition, trade receivables transactions, whole loan deals, auto lease securitisations and covered bonds are the primary focus of attention.

Dutch banks are now playing a central role in the recovering market for RMBS. A significant proportion of RMBS and other asset-backed securities ("ABS") transactions in Europe are originated in the Netherlands. This is mainly due to the strong reputation of the Dutch mortgage market and the fact that the Dutch residential market has performed well against other European jurisdictions. In addition to securitisation transactions involving Dutch assets, over the past decade, the Netherlands has proven to be an attractive jurisdiction for establishing special purpose vehicles ("SPVs") due to certain major tax and legal advantages for both Dutch and international securitisations and other types of structured finance transactions, including CLO transactions.

New types of lenders have entered the Dutch mortgage market in the past few years. Instead of investing in Dutch mortgages by way of securitisation or by way of purchasing an existing mortgage portfolio, these new players establish a mortgage platform and originate Dutch residential mortgages themselves by using appropriately licenced intermediaries or newly set-up SPVs with such a licence. In addition, such platforms have been issuing RMBS since 2017. Recently, such non-bank lending platforms have also entered the Dutch buy-to-let market and the first buy-to-let securitisations have taken place. More securitisations by such originators are expected soon.

The legal considerations as set out below regarding securitisation generally also apply to these kind of transactions.

**Legal framework - securitisation**

The Netherlands has not adopted any specific securitisation law. As a result, there are no specific legal limitations under Dutch law on how a securitisation should be structured, unlike in some other jurisdictions (e.g., Luxembourg). Accordingly, Dutch securitisation transactions are effected under the general laws of the Netherlands and in particular, under the Dutch Civil Code (Burgerlijk Wetboek). Furthermore, the parties to a securitisation transaction should ensure compliance with the Dutch Financial Supervision Act (Wet op het financieel toezicht, "FSA").

**Legal framework - covered bonds**

In addition to traditional securitisations, structured covered bonds have been issued by banks in the Netherlands since August 2005, using structuring techniques similar to those used for securitisation transactions. As a result of the absence of a statutory framework for covered bonds in the Netherlands, structured covered bond issues were not compliant with the Directive on Undertakings for Collective Investment in Transferable Securities ("UCITS Directive"). Therefore, specific covered bond legislation was introduced in the Netherlands, which came into force on 1 July 2008 and which was replaced by new legislation in 2015. The aim of the legislation introduced in 2015 is to strengthen regulatory supervision on registered covered bonds by the Dutch Central Bank (De Nederlandsche Bank N.V.), to increase investor confidence and to lower the financing costs of Dutch banks. The most important changes include the introduction of a minimum level of over-collateralisation of 5% and the liquidity buffer, while the minimum rating requirement for registered covered bonds has been removed.

The Dutch regulations set out the conditions and minimum requirements that an issuing bank, which has its registered office in the Netherlands, must meet for the bonds (to be) issued by that bank to qualify as covered bonds. The Dutch Central Bank registers all covered bonds that meet such criteria and this register is open to the public for inspection. The issuing bank must demonstrate to the Dutch Central Bank at least quarterly that the registered covered bonds continue to comply with the requirements for registration.

Dutch covered bond issuers can comply with the requirements of Article 52.4 of the UCITS Directive, thereby allowing UCITS to invest in Dutch covered bonds as eligible assets up to significantly higher investment limits. A Dutch regulated covered bond that complies with Article 129 of the Capital Requirements Regulation ("CRR") is eligible for receiving favourable treatment under the monetary policy operations of the European Central Bank.

Eligible assets to be held by a Dutch covered bond company typically include Dutch mortgages, but sometimes also include mortgages from other jurisdictions (e.g., Germany) as well as certain other assets prescribed by the CRR.

**Transferring the receivables**

Under Dutch law, assignment of the legal title to receivables can be effectuated by means of a notarial deed of assignment or a private deed of assignment and a notification to the debtor (openbare cessie). Assignment of the legal title can also be effectuated by means of a notarial deed of assignment or a private deed of assignment that is registered with the appropriate unit of the Dutch tax authorities, without notification of the assignment to the debtors being required (stille cessie).

A separate requirement applies to the transfer of consumer credit receivables. Pursuant to Dutch law, an assignment by a lender of its rights under a consumer credit agreement has to be notified to the consumer, except where the original lender remains the servicer of the receivable. This notification requirement, however, does not apply...
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Now or in the future, may owe to the relevant bank ("Bank"). Mortgages of acquiring the relevant property, but also other liabilities and moneys that the debtor, such mortgage deeds do not only secure the loan granted to the debtor for the purpose Dutch mortgage deeds typically provide that the mortgage rights created pursuant to if such transfer is prohibited by law. Right by its nature is, or has been construed as, a purely personal right of the assignor or nevenrecht a mortgage right is an ancillary right (afhankelijk recht) and the assignee of a receivable operation of law follow the receivable with which they are connected. Furthermore, a mortgage right is an ancillary right (afhankelijk recht) and the assignee of a receivable; or (ii) the counterclaim of the debtor has originated (counterclaim of the debtor results from the same legal relationship as the relevant legal requirements for set-off are met (see above) and further provided that: (i) the debtor, such a debtor will also have set-off rights vis-à-vis the SPV, provided that the mortgage deed: (i) specifically states that it will pass; or (ii) does not include an indication to the contrary. Any further claims of the assignor will also continue to be secured and as a consequence the Bank Mortgage will be jointly held by the assignor (originator) and the assignee (SPV) following the assignment. Whether the Bank Mortgage will remain with the original holder of the security right in the particular circumstances involved will be a matter of interpretation of the relevant mortgage deed.

**FUTURE RECEIVABLES**

Certain receivables, such as operational leases and rentals, are to be considered “future receivables” under Dutch law. Future receivables are receivables that are “earned” over a period of time in the future. If receivables are regarded as future receivables, an assignment and/or pledge thereof will not be effective to the extent the receivables come into existence on or after the date on which the assignor or pledgor has been declared bankrupt or granted a suspension of payments. This means that upon an enforcement by the SPV or security trustee, the assignee will not be entitled to the monthly instalments under leases and other receivables that qualify as future receivables that arise after such bankruptcy and suspension of payment of the assignor. Dutch auto-lease transactions have been structured so as to avoid this issue by using a hire-purchase structure.

**CODE OF CONDUCT FOR RESIDENTIAL MORTGAGE LOANS**

The Dutch Banking Association (Nederlandse Vereniging van Banken) and the Dutch Association of Insurers (Vereniging van Verzekeraars) are subject to a code of conduct for residential mortgage loans (Code of Conduct), which is ratified by all banks and insurance companies. The Code of Conduct establishes the maximum ratio of loan to market value of the collateral. Since the last revision of the Code of Conduct in 2011, the criteria for granting mortgage loans to consumers are stricter than before. For instance, the Code of Conduct limits the interest-only element of a mortgage loan to 50%. Notwithstanding certain exemption and derogation possibilities provided in the Code of Conduct, all Dutch mortgage lenders must comply with the Code of Conduct. The ministerial regulation for residential mortgage loans (Tijdelijke regeling hypothecair krediet) as amended on 1 January 2020 sets out the income criteria and limits the maximum of a mortgage loan to 100% of the market value of the related residence in 2020 in addition to the Code of Conduct. There are a few exemptions pursuant to which the loan-to-value ratio can be higher than 100%. Since 2013, the loan to value ratio has been reduced by 1% each year and since 2018 the loan to value ratio has been fixed at 100%. In case of a conflict between the ministerial regulation and the Code of Conduct, the ministerial regulation should take priority.
THE NETHERLANDS

NATIONAL MORTGAGE GUARANTEE

Since 2004, a considerable number of RMBS transactions consist of mortgage loans that benefit from a National Mortgage Guarantee (Nationale Hypotheek Garantie, “NHG”). This is an insurance scheme in the Netherlands for mortgage loans that protects both borrowers and lenders.

The Home Ownership Guarantee Fund (Stichting Waarborgfonds Eigen Woningen, “WEW”), a central private entity, is responsible for the administration and granting of the NHG. The NHG is available to all mortgage lenders in the Netherlands. The NHG guarantee is only granted when certain eligibility criteria regarding, among others, the loan, the property and the borrower are met.

In 2020, an NHG can be issued up to a maximum amount of EUR 310,000, with the current loan-to-value ratio of 100% (or 106% in case of energy saving features). Notary costs, advisory costs and transfer tax (overdrachtsbelasting) are included in this amount. The loan amount is also limited by the amount of income and the market value of the property.

The NHG covers 90% (10% is at the own risk of the lender) of the outstanding principal, accrued unpaid interest and disposal costs in the event of any residual debt after a foreclosure following a default on the mortgage loan. The lender is responsible for meeting the requirements of the NHG. In the event that the requirements are not met, there is no obligation for the WEW to pay the losses to a lender. Because the NHG reduces the loss upon a borrower’s default, securitisations with NHG mortgage loans as collateral will, in general, be awarded higher ratings from the rating agencies than ‘normal’ mortgage-backed securities.

THE MORTGAGE CREDIT DIRECTIVE

The directive on credit agreements for consumers relating to residential immovable property (“Mortgage Credit Directive”) has aimed to introduce a European single market for mortgage credit with a high level of consumer protection. The Mortgage Credit Directive’s main purpose is to reduce the substantial differences between the laws of the Member States with regard to the conduct of business in the granting of credit agreements relating to residential immovable property and in the regulation and supervision of credit intermediaries and non-credit institutions providing credit agreements relating to residential immovable property. In the Netherlands, the current Code of Conduct and the ministerial regulation for residential mortgage loans (as described above) already include many of the behavioural rules as envisaged by the Mortgage Credit Directive.

CODE OF CONDUCT FOR GRANTING CONSUMER CREDIT

The code of conduct for granting consumer credit establishes the borrowing capacity that is determined in collaboration with the National Institute for Family Finance Information (NIBUD). The borrowing capacity is based on the basic standard, which is the minimum amount that is required by a household for the cost of living. To determine the basic standard, the composition of the household and the net housing costs will be taken into consideration. When the net income of the consumer is lower than the basic standard, the bank will not be allowed to grant credit pursuant to the code of conduct for granting consumer credit.

UNIFORM INTEREST RATE POLICY

According to a decree regarding a uniform interest rate policy (eensporig rentebelend) in respect of residential mortgage loans, a residential mortgage lender should offer the same interest rate to a new borrower as to an existing borrower with the same risk profile being offered a new interest rate during the following interest rate period.

Security

Under Dutch law, a security interest over receivables is granted by means of a right of pledge in favour of the security trustee, to secure the SPV’s obligations. In Dutch securitisation transactions, the security trustee is usually a newly incorporated Dutch foundation (stichting). The security trustee must be independent from the SPV, since it acts for the benefit of the note holders and the other secured creditors of the SPV under the transaction. Therefore, it would be prudent to ensure that the directors of the security trustee and SPV are different. Under Dutch law, the security rights and the claims for which the security rights are vested cannot be separated. Consequently, the security trustee itself must also be a creditor of the SPV. In most transactions, a parallel debt structure is used to achieve this.

Regulatory considerations

Pursuant to the FSA, an SPV in a securitisation transaction might be considered to be a “credit institution” (as it may obtain repayable funds from the public and grant credits for their own account) and would therefore be required to hold a banking licence.

However, the FSA provides that if an SPV meets certain requirements, it will not be regarded as a credit institution and therefore will not be required to hold a Dutch banking licence. The definition of “credit institution” in the FSA must be interpreted in light of the definition of “credit institution” under the CRR.

In order for an SPV not to qualify as a bank under the FSA and CRR, it must take adequate measures to ensure that it attracts repayable funds solely from parties that do not qualify as “the public.” As of yet, there is no European guidance as to what constitutes the “public.” According to the Dutch legislator’s explanatory notes for the act implementing CRR in the Netherlands (and amending the FSA), until such guidance becomes available, the ‘old’ (pre-CRR) regime still applies. In practice, this means that no funds are “attracted from the public”, when the funds are taken solely from professional market parties and/or persons or entities within a ‘restricted circle’. The term “professional market party” is defined in the FSA and further regulations pursuant to the FSA. As may be expected, the definition includes credit institutions, investment firms, financial institutions, insurance companies, collective investment schemes and their management companies, pension funds and their management companies and commodity futures dealers. However, there are also less common categories of professional market parties, such as entities that have a credit rating (either on the entity itself, or on any series of its issued securities). Persons or entities purchasing debt instruments of at least EUR 100,000 qualify as professional market parties irrespective of their status and location. In most securitisation transactions, notes issued by an SPV or loans obtained by an SPV can only be acquired and transferred in minimum
denominations or participations of EUR 100,000, thus ensuring that the noteholder qualifies as a "professional market party". In addition, the SPV can take measures against non-professional market parties purchasing their notes, for example by imposing extensive selling/transfer restrictions in respect of the notes/loans and (in respect of notes only) by including legends on the notes that are denominated in amounts of less than EUR 100,000, stating that investors must qualify as professional market parties under the FSA. These precautions allow an SPV to issue notes (in denominations of at least EUR 100,000) in the Netherlands, without being at risk of becoming subject to any Dutch banking licence requirements.

A prospectus approved by the Dutch Authority for the Financial Markets ("AFM") or a financial regulator of another Member State is, in general, required for the offering of notes to Dutch investors in the Netherlands. If a securitisation SPV offers notes to Dutch investors that are not "qualified investors" as defined in the Regulation (EU) 2017/1129 (the Prospectus Regulation) and no approved prospectus is required because of an exemption, a warning notice, in a form and size prescribed by the AFM, must be included in its offer documentation to indicate that it is not regulated in the Netherlands. An approved prospectus and/or warning notice is not needed in the event that notes are offered to Dutch "qualified investors".

By acquiring Dutch consumer credit receivables, the SPV is deemed to provide consumer credit. Pursuant to article 2:60 of the FSA, a licence is required for granting consumer credit. An exemption is available for the SPV if the SPV outsources the servicing of the consumer credit receivables and the administration thereof to an entity that is adequately licenced under the FSA ("Exemption"). Typically, a servicing contract is entered into by the SPV with the original lender. However, a third party can also be appointed to act as licenced servicer. On 24 December 2019, the Minister of Finance published a consultation on the Exemption.

**Reporting requirements**

In certain circumstances, the SPV must comply with reporting requirements in connection with payments made to and by the SPV under the transaction documents, pursuant to the Financial Regulations Act 1994 (Wet financiële betrekkingen buitenland) and the rules promulgated thereunder. Pursuant to the implementation of Regulation (EC) No. 1075/2013 of the European Central Bank (ECB/2013/60), Dutch SPVs engaged in securitisation transactions are obliged to notify the Dutch Central Bank of their existence and must provide the Dutch Central Bank with data on end-of-quarter outstanding amounts, financial transactions and write-offs/write downs on the assets and liabilities of the SPV on a quarterly basis. Furthermore, the SPV will have to be compliant with the reporting requirements as set out in the European Market Infrastructure Regulation ("EMIR") if it intends to enter into a derivatives contract, such as an interest rate swap.

**AFM’s approach on transparency requirements for private securitisation transactions**

The transparency requirements under Article 7 of the Securitisation Regulation require the originator, the sponsor and the SPV to make information available to, amongst others, national competent authorities in public securitisations and private securitisations. The Securitisation Regulation does not specify, however, how information should be made available in private securitisations to national competent authorities and it leaves room for national competent authorities to provide guidance in this respect.

The AFM and the Dutch Central Bank are the competent authorities under the Securitisation Regulation in the Netherlands. The Dutch Central Bank is the competent authority for securitisations that involve an originator, sponsor or original lender with a licence with the Dutch Central Bank. All other securitisations with an originator, sponsor, original lender and/or SPV established in the Netherlands are supervised by the AFM.

Recently, the AFM published guidance on its website on how private securitisations in the Netherlands should comply with the transparency requirements at pricing: a completed digital form "private securitisations notification template" should be sent by email to the AFM by the designated reporting entity prior to pricing. It is not mandatory to submit transaction documents but, "upon request", additional information such as quarterly reports and transaction documents should be made available to the AFM. In addition, a notification must be sent to the AFM in case of any inside information or if a significant event occurs in accordance with the Securitisation Regulation.

**Incorporating an SPV**

A Dutch SPV is typically set up in the form of a private company with limited liability (besloten vennootschap met beperkte aansprakelijkheid ("B.V."). With respect to securitisation transactions, it is common practice to use an "orphan structure" where a foundation (stichting) is the holder of all shares in the BV. A foundation can be set up in one day and a B.V. can generally be incorporated in a matter of days with minimum capital of EUR 0.01.
Tax implications

The tax issues set out below refer to a typical "orphan" structure comprising an SPV in the form of a Dutch B.V. that is wholly owned by a Dutch foundation.

CORPORATE INCOME TAX

A foundation is only subject to Dutch corporate income tax if and to the extent it carries on a business enterprise. A foundation that only performs activities as a shareholder will generally not be considered to be carrying on a business enterprise. Therefore, a foundation established and operating with the sole purpose of holding shares in an SPV will generally not be subject to Dutch corporate income tax.

A B.V. is subject to Dutch corporate income tax by virtue of its legal form. This means that all of the income of the B.V. is in principle taxable at the statutory Dutch corporate income tax rate. Under the current corporate tax rate, the first EUR 200,000 of profits are subject to tax at the rate of 16.5% and further profits are subject to tax at the rate of 25%. From 2021, the first EUR 200,000 of profits is subject to the tax rate of 15% and further profits are subject to 21.7%. Typically, the difference between the income from the receivables it holds and the expenses on the notes issued by the SPV should be such that only a minimal taxable margin is left in the SPV itself.

INTEREST WITHHOLDING TAX

Interest received by the SPV will often be exempt from withholding tax in the country where the obligor of the receivable is resident or is subject to a significantly reduced withholding tax rate by virtue of a double tax treaty concluded between the Netherlands and the obligor country. It is these exemptions and reductions that render the Netherlands particularly attractive as a jurisdiction for securitisation SPVs. Tax treaties are in place between the Netherlands and over 96 jurisdictions. The Dutch treaty network is regularly expanded and improved by ongoing negotiations with jurisdictions around the world.

On 18 December 2019, the Dutch government published the Withholding Tax Act 2021 ("WTA") on dividend distributions. The WTA introduces a withholding tax on intragroup interest and royalty payments to low-tax jurisdictions (jurisdictions where the statutory tax rate imposed on business profits of entities is less than 9%) and non-cooperative jurisdictions as of 1 January 2021. Interest paid by the SPVs is typically not made to group entities and should therefore not attract any Dutch withholding tax. The withholding tax rates on interest and royalties, if applicable, will be the same as the corporate income tax rates as set out under "Corporate income tax".

OTHER TAXES

The transfer of Dutch commercial real estate or real estate-related rights may be subject to Dutch transfer tax. This is particularly relevant for commercial mortgage-backed securities transactions. The rate is 2% for residential real estate and 6% for other real estate. From 1 January 2021, the rate for other real estate will increase to 7%. There are no other stamp duties or transfer taxes applicable to transfers of receivables in the Netherlands.

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The Philippines
Background

On 25 May 2005, the Philippine Congressional Oversight Committee approved the implementing rules and regulations ("Rules") of the Securitisation Act of 2004 ("Securitisation Law"). The Rules took effect on 19 July 2005. The Securitisation Law provides the legal and regulatory framework for asset securitisation, and grants tax exemptions and other incentives in favour of securitisation transactions in the Philippines. It is designed to create a favourable capital market environment for asset-backed securities ("ABS") and to facilitate the development of a secondary market for residential mortgage-backed securities.

Method of transfer

In the securitisation process under the Securitisation Law, loans, receivables or similar financial assets with an expected cash payment stream ("Assets") are sold on a without recourse basis by a seller ("Seller") to a special purpose entity ("SPE"). The SPE then issues to investors ABS that depend, for their payment, on the cash flow from the Assets. The issuance of the ABS must be in accordance with the plan for securitisation ("Plan") approved by the Philippine Securities and Exchange Commission ("SEC"). The Seller may be the original obligee of the Assets sold ("Originator").

Receivables that are to arise in the future cannot be considered as Assets unless approved by the relevant regulator of the Originator (i.e., the SEC, or the Bangko Sentral ng Pilipinas or the Philippine Central Bank ("BSP")). Receivables from future expectation of revenues by the Government, national or local, arising from royalties, fees or imposts cannot be included in the Assets underlying the ABS ("Asset Pool").

Regulatory concerns

SPECIAL PURPOSE ENTITIES

The SPE may be a special purpose corporation ("SPC") or a special purpose trust ("SPT") created solely for the purpose of securitisation.

An SPC is a stock corporation with a minimum paid-up capital of PHP 5 million (approximately USD 100,000), or such higher amount as the SEC may prescribe. The SPC generally cannot engage in any activity other than: (i) owning and holding the Asset Pool; (ii) issuing ABS; and (iii) performing incidental activities disclosed in the registration statement filed with the SEC.

An SPT is a trust constituted for the sole purpose of purchasing assets, as well as owning and holding the Asset Pool for a definite period until all the ABS issued for the particular Asset Pool are paid. The SPT need not be registered with the SEC. An entity that is duly licenced to perform trust functions by the BSP administers the SPT. The BSP determines the capitalisation requirement for the trustee that administers an SPT. The term of the SPT expires upon full payment of all the ABS it has issued.

The SPE cannot undertake any activity other than that contained in the approved Plan, except upon the written approval of the SEC and the written consent of the holders of the ABS representing at least two thirds of the outstanding amount of the ABS.

The SPE may invest the proceeds of collections from the Asset Pool which are not yet due for distribution to holders of the ABS only in: (i) obligations issued or fully guaranteed by the Government of the Republic of the Philippines or issued by the BSP; (ii) registered securities; or (iii) other readily marketable investments which the SEC may, from time to time, approve.

APPROVAL OF THE PLAN AND REGISTRATION OF ABS

The SPE, whether an SPC or SPT, must submit the Plan to the SEC for its approval. The SPE must obtain BSP endorsement of the Plan: (i) if the Originator of the Assets is a bank, or any other entity subject to the supervision of the BSP, or is controlled by such bank or entity; or (ii) if the SPE is constituted as an SPT.

All the ABS proposed to be sold or distributed by an SPE within the Philippines, except those exempt securities and exempt transactions under the Securities Regulation Code ("SRC"), must be registered as securities with the SEC. For this purpose, the SPE must file with the SEC a prospectus and a registration statement. The SEC may issue an SPE an order and permit to sell ABS only after compliance with the registration requirements and approval of the Plan by the SEC. Any person claiming exemption from the registration requirements under the SRC must file with the SEC, not later than five days prior to the offering of the ABS, a notice of exemption with a duly accomplished Disclosure Statement.

No ABS may be issued unless such ABS has been rated by a duly accredited credit-rating agency. No credit-rating agency can commence rate-making operations pursuant to the Securitisation Law until it has obtained an accreditation from the SEC.

Yield

All ABS issued by an SPE pursuant to a Plan approved by the SEC are not considered as deposit substitutes under relevant Philippine banking and tax laws. However, the yield from the ABS is subject to a 20% final withholding tax, except those held by tax-exempt investors.

To promote the securitisation of the mortgage and housing-related receivables of government housing agencies as may be determined by the Housing and Urban Development Coordinating Council ("HUDCC") and the Department of Finance ("DOF").
the yield or income of the investor from any low-cost or socialised housing-related ABS is exempt from income tax.

**True sale of assets**

The conveyance of the Assets to the SPE must be absolute, without recourse, and a “true sale”. There is a “true sale” when:

- the transferred Assets are legally isolated and placed beyond the reach of the Originator or Seller and its creditors;
- the SPE has the right to pledge, mortgage or exchange the transferred Assets;
- the transferor relinquishes effective control over the transferred Assets;
- the transfer is effected by a sale, assignment or exchange, or in any event, on a without-recourse basis;
- the SPE has the right to the profits and disposition with respect to the Assets;
- the transferor does not have the right to recover the Assets, and the transferee does not have the right to reimbursement of the price or other consideration paid for the Assets; and
- the SPE undertakes the risks associated with the Assets.

In the exercise of a “clean-up call” option, a re-transfer may be made by the SPE with respect to the remaining Assets in the Asset Pool as a consequence of a breach of warranty or if the outstanding principal balance of the Asset Pool falls to 10% or less of the original principal balance of the Asset Pool (including foreclosed and other assets). The consideration for the re-transfer shall be at current market value. Such “clean-up call” is not considered recourse or in violation of the requirements of a “true sale”.

**The servicer**

The Servicer collects and records payments received on the assets, remits such collections to the SPE, and performs other duties as may be required by the SPE. Its authority generally encompasses the general powers of administration other than asset management or administration.

The Servicer must have a minimum authorised capital of PhP 10 Million (approximately USD 200,000), or such higher amount as the SEC may prescribe. The Servicer must be independent of the SPC or the trustee of the SPT. It cannot share common ownership, officers, or directors with the SPC or the trustee. The Originator or Seller may act as the Servicer with the approval of the SEC or the BSP, as the case may be.

**Tax and fiscal incentives**

The Securitisation Law and its Rules provide for the following tax and fiscal incentives:

- exemption from value-added tax ("VAT") and documentary stamp tax ("DST") on: (i) a true sale or transfer of Assets to the SPE and transfer of security interest thereto; (ii) a re-transfer of Assets from the SPE to the Originator/Seller, including security interest thereto; if required under the Plan; and (iii) all secondary trades and subsequent transfers of ABS, including all forms of credit enhancement in such instruments;
- reduction to 50% of registration and annotation fees payable to the Register of Deeds on the true sale or transfer of Assets to the SPE and the transfer of the security interest thereto, or on a re-transfer of Assets to the Originator/Seller, if required under the Plan;
- exemption from VAT on the original issuance of the ABS and related forms of credit enhancement by way of original issuance of securities related solely to the securitisation transaction;
- exemption from capital gains tax on the transfer of assets by dation in payment by the obligor to the SPE; and
- exemption from income tax on the yield or income of the investor from any low-cost or socialised housing-related ABS.

**Secondary Mortgage Institutions (SMIs)**

An SMI is responsible for providing liquidity mechanism to primary mortgage lenders/holders and developing a secondary market for mortgage and housing-related ABS.

An SMI must be registered with the SEC, and is also subject to the same disclosure requirements as an SPC. An SMI also needs to register its ABS with the SEC. Upon filing a registration statement for the registration of its ABS with the SEC, an SMI must also submit its business and operational plans and feasibility study.

An SMI may engage in any or all of the following activities:

- wholesale purchase of residential mortgages and housing-related contract receivables;
- buy and sell any residential mortgage and housing-related ABS;
- provide loans to primary lending institutions against residential mortgages;
- issue housing-related ABS through an SPE and issue bonds and other debt instruments;
- perform ancillary functions, including title insurance (through a subsidiary) and loan servicing; and
- perform such other functions as the SEC may deem necessary to mobilise and channel funds from the capital markets to the mortgage and housing finance sector.

Any SMI for the housing sector must be a stock corporation and must have an initial paid-up capital stock of PhP 2 Billion (approximately USD 40 million). The total obligations (actual and contingent) of an SMI cannot exceed 15 times its paid-up capital. Moreover, the total actual obligations of an SMI cannot exceed 10 times its paid-up capital.

Subject to the requirements of their governing charters, financial institutions and corporations owned or controlled by the Government of the Republic of the Philippines ("GRP") may collectively hold and own up to a maximum of 30% of an SMI’s capital.
A GRP financial institution may invest up to a maximum of 10% of its total investible funds in housing-related assets, or 5% in non-housing related assets. Such investments must not however exceed 5% of the total amount of each ABS issue.

Within 10 years from its incorporation, the SMI must offer and list at least 20% of its common shares with the stock exchange. The 10-year period may be extended only upon approval of the SEC.

The SMI is prohibited from:

- originating or financing individual mortgage loans
- providing loans to other parties engaged in a business other than that approved in the Plan submitted to the SEC
- providing capital equity to other companies except companies that provide ancillary services

SMIs are also entitled to the same tax and fiscal incentives and benefits available to an SPE under the Securitisation Law and its Rules.

**Accounting treatment**

The accounting treatment of Philippine securitisation is governed by Philippine Financial Reporting Standards ("PFRSs"), which adopt International Financial Reporting Standards ("IFRS"), and likewise by Philippine Accounting Standards ("PASs") which follow International Accounting Standards ("IASs"). Of particular relevance to an Originator in a securitisation transaction in the Philippines is PAS 39, adopting IAS 39 (Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement). IAS 39 provides additional guidelines on derecognition, fair value measurement of financial assets and financial liabilities, impairment assessment, fair value determination and hedge accounting. Furthermore, PFRS 7, which follows IFRS 7 (Financial Instruments: Disclosures), is relevant in providing risk information to users of financial statements.

BSP Circular No. 781 (dated 15 January 2013) provides the implementing guidelines issued by the BSP in relation to the revised risk-based capital adequacy framework for the Philippine banking system in accordance with the Basel III standards. Basel III reforms have introduced new standards in capital adequacy and liquidity in particular aim to mandate better transparency of secondary market movements involving securitisation and re-securitisation risk. Universal banks and commercial banks, as well as their subsidiary banks and quasi-banks, are required to maintain certain risk-based capital adequacy ratios, expressed as a percentage of the relevant capital to risk-weighted assets.

Under BSP Circular No. 781, any gain on sale resulting from a securitisation transaction must be deducted from Common Equity Tier 1 (which, together with Additional Tier 1 capital, composes Tier 1 or going concern capital).
Securitisation is a financing method used by Turkish companies to create liquidity and manage cash flow. Many companies have relied on special purpose vehicles (SPVs) established overseas to securitise their receivables — assigning their receivables to and issuing asset/mortgage-backed securities through SPVs.

This situation has changed in recent years with the introduction of new regulations by the Capital Markets Board (“CMB”), the authority responsible for regulating and supervising the capital markets in Turkey.

**Legal framework**

Turkish Code of Obligations No. 6098 (“TCO”) and Capital Markets Law No. 6362 (“CML”), together with communiqués issued under the CML, are the main legal acts governing Turkish securitisation transactions, both abroad and domestically.

The CML entered into force on 30 December 2012, abolishing Capital Markets Law No. 2499. The CML offers no substantial changes relating to securitisation, although it does provide broader authority to the CMB to regulate the relevant instruments, through implementing regulations. Following the enactment of the CML, the CMB modified the secondary regulations on securitisation to reflect the new CML rules and to provide a more secure environment for investors.

Under the current securitisation regime, the CMB regulates asset- and mortgage-backed securities under the Covered Bonds Communiqué No. III-591 (“Covered Bonds Communiqué”), which entered into force on 21 January 2014. Parallel to this, asset-backed securities and mortgage-backed securities are now both regulated under the CMB-issued Asset/Mortgage-Backed Securities Communiqué No. III-581 (“Asset/Mortgage-Backed Securities Communiqué”), which entered into force on 9 January 2014.

**Assignment of receivables**

The assignment of receivables is primarily governed by the TCO. Under the TCO, a creditor may freely assign its receivables to third parties, without regard to nationality, by simple written agreement between the assignor and assignee. The debtor’s consent is not required unless otherwise required by law or contract (e.g., the lessee’s right to use leased real estate cannot be assigned to a third party without the landlord’s consent; rights confered upon a borrower by a commodatum agreement cannot be assigned). Moreover, in certain circumstances, the characteristics of a contract may prevent the assignment of receivables, for instance, members of an association cannot assign their membership rights to a third party.

If an assignment is granted in return for consideration, the assignor is deemed to have guaranteed the existence of receivables and the debtor’s ability to pay, even if the assignment agreement is silent on this issue.

The assignment automatically results in the transfer of all rights and interests attached to the assigned receivable to the assignee, except the rights and interests attached to the assignor. For instance, the collateral given to secure the assigned receivable is automatically transferred to the assignee once the receivable has been assigned.

The assignment of receivables may not negatively affect the debtor’s position. Consequently, the debtor may raise all defences and counterclaims arising out of the contractual relationship with the former creditor against the assignee, such as the right to set off.

**True sale**

Under Turkish law, a true sale is recognised as the assignment of existing and future receivables. An assignment agreement will be validly concluded even if he parties’ signatures are not certified by a notary. The assignor, however, is required to notify the debtor of the assignment to enable the debtor to pay its debt to the assignee.

Failure to notify the debtor does not affect the validity of the true sale. If the debtor is unaware of the assignment, however, it may still pay the assignor, in which case the debtor may be validly discharged from its obligation. Notifying the debtor is also important as the debtor may pay the receivables to a third party appointed by a court, in which case there is a conflict as to the creditor/assignee’s identity. A provision whereby the assignor undertakes liability for the assignee’s default does not affect the true sale, provided that the receivables are validly transferred to the assignee.

**Covered bonds**

Under the Covered Bonds Communiqué, covered bonds (teminatlı menkul kıymetler), consisting of asset-covered bonds and mortgage-covered bonds, are general (on-balance sheet) obligations of the issuer that are issued against certain asset cover. Asset-covered bonds can be issued by banks, financing companies, factoring companies, financial leasing companies, mortgage finance corporations, real estate investment trusts, government entities authorised to issue securities pursuant to their special laws and other CMB-specified issuers. Only housing finance corporations (including certain banks, financing companies and financial leasing companies) and mortgage finance corporations can issue mortgage-covered bonds.

Assets that may be the subject of asset-covered bonds are, among others:

- banks and financing companies’ consumer loans and commercial loans receivables
- receivables arising from financial leasing and insured factoring agreements
- proceeds of real estate sales (on an installment basis and subject to agreement) by the Public Housing Administration (TOKİ)
- secured proceeds of real estate sales by and receivables arising from real estate investment trusts and long-term loans’ lease agreements, provided in foreign currency to the Ministry of Treasury and Finance (“Treasury”) by commercial banks for project-based financing
- substituting assets such as cash and state bonds
- other CMB-specified assets

Assets that may be the subject of mortgage-covered bonds are, among others:
must be issued in an electronically registered form, and the related interest recorded, in
The Covered Bonds Communiqué also sets forth that covered bonds issued in Turkey
one of the top three “investment grade” ratings.
for both issuance limits. These limits are doubled for financial institution issuers with
mortgage finance corporations are not subject to any such limit. Annual financial
issuers other than mortgage finance corporations is 10% of their total assets, whereas
proceeds of real estate sales (on an installment basis and subject to agreement)
by the Public Housing Administration with respect to the mortgage-covered
bonds issued by a mortgage finance corporation
substituting assets such as cash and state bonds
other CMB-specified assets
Covered bonds can be issued through a public offering or a sale to qualified
institutional buyers: international and local brokerage firms; banks; portfolio
management companies; collective investment institutions; pension funds; insurance
companies; mortgage finance corporations; asset management companies; retirement
and emergency funds; governmental authorities; the Turkish Central Bank; international
finance institutions such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund;
other investors specified by the CMB, and institutions having met at least two of the
following criteria: (i) total assets exceeding TRY 50 million; (ii) annual net sales proceeds
exceeding TRY 90 million, and (iii) equity exceeding TRY 5 million. Additionally, real
persons and legal entities meeting at least two of the following criteria can qualify as
qualified buyers upon their written request: (i) holding at least TRY 1 million in cash
and/or securities; (ii) having entered into at least 10 transactions of a total volume
of TRY 500,000 within each three-month period in the last year, which should be
conducted in the markets that such investor wishes to transact; and (iii) having worked
as a senior executive in the finance sector for at least two years or as a qualified
person in capital markets for at least five years, or holding an advance level licence or
derivatives licence. Covered bonds may also be issued through a private placement,
provided that the nominal value of the privately placed securities is at least TRY
100,000 per unit. However, such limit is not applicable to private placements outside
Turkey.

Covered bonds offered to the public must be listed on Borsa İstanbul, the Turkish
stock exchange. Therefore, in addition to applying to the CMB for public offering, a
simultaneous application must be made to Borsa İstanbul.

The issuance limit set by the Covered Bonds Communiqué for covered bonds issued by
issuers other than mortgage finance corporations is 10% of their total assets, whereas
mortgage finance corporations are not subject to any such limit. Annual financial
statements for the latest fiscal period prior to the issuance application are considered
for both issuance limits. These limits are doubled for financial institution issuers with
one of the top three “investment grade” ratings.

The Covered Bonds Communiqué also sets forth that covered bonds issued in Turkey
must be issued in an electronically registered form, and the related interest recorded, in
the Central Registry Agency (Merkezi Kayıt Kuruluşu) (“CRA”).

In case of an issuance abroad, issuers are required to notify the CRA regarding the
amount, issue date, ISIN code, first payment date, maturity date, interest rate, name
of the custodian, currency of the covered bonds, the country of issuance and any
change to this information, if any, including an early redemption, within three business
days from the date of issue of the covered bonds or, in the case of any change to this
information, the relevant change.

The CMB may require that the issuance of a specific covered bond be guaranteed by
a local bank or another legal entity or be subject to insurance coverage. The CMB may
also require that the cover pool be managed by a service provider or be kept by a bank
or a mortgage finance corporation.

The issuer must monitor and account for the assets covering the bonds by segregating
them from its assets. Until and unless the debt has been redeemed, the underlying
assets: (i) cannot be disposed of; seized or pledged; (ii) cannot be included in a
bankruptcy estate; or (iii) cannot be subject to an interim injunction granted for the
purpose of the collection of public debts.

An independent CMB-licenced auditor must be appointed as trustee by written
agreement prior to the issuance of covered bonds. The trustee cannot be selected
among the independent auditors auditing the issuer’s financials, or its foreign parent
company or any other local entity to which the auditor is legally connected. The trustee
is liable for, among others: (i) the appropriateness of the assets included in the asset
records; (ii) the stress test results’ accuracy; and (iii) the monitoring of the assets’
compliance with asset compliance principles.

Asset/mortgage-backed securities

Asset-backed securities and mortgage-backed securities are off-balance sheet
obligations that are issued against certain asset cover isolated in an SPV. These
securities can be issued by banks, financing companies, financial leasing companies,
mortgage finance corporations and certain brokerage firms.

The SPV must be in the form of a fund, i.e., no separate legal entity. Funds are pools of
assets that are operated in accordance with fiduciary ownership principles. The fund
should be established in Turkey. Funds may be formed for a definite or indefinite term,
and their assets must be segregated from those of the founder, service provider and
originator. Until and unless the debt has been redeemed, the fund portfolio: (i) cannot
be disposed of; (ii) cannot be included in a bankruptcy estate; or (iii) cannot be subject
to an interim injunction, including those granted for the purpose of the collection of
public debts. The CMB’s approval is required to form a fund and issue asset/mortgage-
backed securities. Funds established by financing companies and financial leasing
companies can only issue asset/mortgage-backed securities by taking over their
founders’ assets, whereas funds established by banks, mortgage finance corporations or
brokerage firms can issue securities by taking over other originators’ assets as well.

Two types of these funds in Turkey are provided for under the Asset/Mortgage-Backed
Securities Communiqué, namely housing finance funds and asset finance funds. Assets that can be included in a housing finance fund (konut finansmanı fonu) are, among others:

- housing finance receivables secured by mortgages
- receivables arising from financial leasing agreements, commercial loans and bank, financial leasing company and financing company receivables secured by mortgages
- proceeds of real estate sales (on an instalment basis and subject to agreement) by the Public Housing Administration
- derivatives proceeds
- other assets specified by the CMB

Under the Asset/Mortgage-Backed Securities Communiqué, an asset finance fund (varlık finansmanı fonu) portfolio may include, among others:

- bank and financing company consumer loans and commercial loans receivables
- financial leasing receivables
- proceeds of real estate sales (on an instalment basis and subject to agreement) by the Public Housing Administration
- covered bonds issued by banks and mortgage finance corporations in Turkey or abroad
- other assets specified by the CMB

Asset/mortgage-backed securities can be issued through: (i) a public offering; (ii) a sale to qualified institutional buyers; or (iii) a private placement, provided that the nominal value of the privately placed securities is at least TRY 100,000 per unit. For asset/mortgage-backed securities to be issued abroad or without a public offering, an issuance limit will be set by the CMB. Like covered bonds, in case of a public offering in Turkey, asset/mortgage-backed securities must be listed on Borsa İstanbul and registered with the CRA. However, in case of an issuance abroad, founders are required to notify the CRA regarding the amount, issue date, ISIN code, first payment date, maturity date, interest rate, name of the custodian, currency of the securities, the country of issuance and any change to this information, if any, including an early redemption within three business days from the date of issue of the securities or, in the case of any change to this information, the relevant change.

Fund transfers

Pursuant to Decree No. 32 on the Protection of the Value of the Turkish Currency, residents and non-residents may freely transfer Turkish lira and foreign currency abroad through banks in Turkey. These banks are required to inform the Treasury of transfers exceeding the equivalent of USD 50,000, excluding payments for import and capital exports, as well as invisible transactions, within 30 days of the transfer date.

Clawback risk

Articles 277 through 280 of the Turkish Enforcement and Bankruptcy Code ("TEBC") grant a bankruptcy receiver a right of action to set aside certain transactions executed by the debtor before bankruptcy. Through this annulment procedure, the receiver can claw back payments made by the debtor prior to bankruptcy. Under the TEBC, three groups of transactions may be annulled: (i) transactions executed within the two years prior to bankruptcy made for no consideration, such as donations; (ii) certain transactions concluded within the year prior to the bankruptcy: (a) pledges given by the debtor as security for a legal and valid debt, other than security previously granted by the debtor, (b) payments made other than with money or other common payment instruments, (c) payments for an undue debt, and (d) annotations on title deeds for the benefit of third parties; and (iii) transactions concluded within five years prior to bankruptcy that were intended to damage its creditors.

In a securitisation, as the debtor will be making payments for a legal and valid debt, the risk of a clawback may arise only if the debtor has paid before the debt became due or if the payment was made other than with common payment instruments.

These clawback provisions also apply to assignments between the assignor and the assignee, as these transactions are among the disposals that can be clawed back under Turkish law. In a securitisation, the assignment may be clawed back if: (i) the assignment has been made for no consideration; (ii) the consideration for the assignment has been paid by payment methods other than money or other common payment instruments; or (iii) the assignment has been made to damage the assignor’s creditors.

Various time limits apply to how far back in time the transaction may be, ranging from one to five years depending on the type of transaction. There is no time limit for transactions executed to defraud creditors.

Tax treatment

CORPORATE INCOME TAX

The difference between the book value of the asset and the assignment value can be taken into account to determine the corporate income tax base of the creditor. In this respect, if the book value of the asset is less than the assignment value, the creditor can deduct the difference from the corporate income tax base. If the book value of the asset is higher than the assignment value, the difference would be subject to corporate income tax, save for the corporate income tax exemption for real estate transfers under certain circumstances.

Income derived by the SPV from the securitisation transactions is subject to corporate income tax if the SPV is resident in Turkey.
WITHHOLDING TAX

If the receivables were assigned to a non-resident SPV that is a foreign financial institution, the interest payments to be made by Turkish debtors to foreign financial institutions would be subject to 0% withholding. However, in case of an assignment of receivables to a non-financial SPV, a 10% withholding tax would apply on the interest payments (save for applicable double tax treaty provisions).

The income derived by investors from securities may be subject to withholding tax in Turkey depending on various conditions (such as the residency of the taxpayer, the status of the taxpayer, the nature and maturity of the security, etc.) under the Corporate Income Tax Law and the Income Tax Law.

VAT

The assignment of receivables is not subject to VAT in Turkey. Other asset transfers may trigger VAT if the SPV is not a Turkish resident asset management company.

In case of an assignment of receivables to foreign financial institutions, the interest payments made by Turkish debtors to foreign financial institutions are exempt from VAT. In case of an assignment of receivables to non-financial institutions, the interests payable are subject to 18% VAT in Turkey through a reverse charge mechanism. The VAT paid through the reverse charge mechanism can be offset from output VAT if the debtors are VAT-registered taxpayers.

Issuance of the securities and interest payments made to the investors are not subject to VAT.

RESOURCE UTILISATION SUPPORT FUND (RUSF)

If the receivables are assigned to a non-resident SPV, RUSF burden at the level of debtors may arise depending on the maturity and currency of the receivables.

STAMP TAX

The agreements made for the assignment of receivables to banks, foreign credit institutions and international institutions would be exempt from stamp tax. Otherwise, the agreements executed for the assignment of receivables would be subject to 0.948% stamp tax over the highest transaction value in the agreement. Note that assignment of receivables regarding exportation transactions are also, in principle, exempt from stamp tax. In addition, agreements regarding real estate transfers may be exempt from the stamp tax in case the circumstances stated in the Stamp Tax Law are fulfilled.

According to the Stamp Tax Law, documents drawn up in connection with the issuance of capital markets instruments, housing finance transactions of housing finance institutions and the issuance by such institutions of mortgaged capital markets instruments, the issuance of securities representing asset-based securities and asset financing funds, as well as the receipts and documents drawn up in connection with the collaterals subject to such issuance, are also exempt from stamp tax.

Accounting treatment

The Public Oversight, Accounting and Audit Standards Authority (“POA”) determines the accounting standards in Turkey. However, other standards are set out by: (i) the CMB for companies carrying out activities under the CML, and (ii) the Banking Regulatory and Supervisory Authority for banks operating in Turkey. The POA has issued Turkish Accounting Standard 39, which is a translation of the International Accounting Standard 39 (“IAS 39”) issued by the International Accounting Standards Board (“IASB”). The CMB accepts that IAS 39 applies to companies operating within the CML’s scope.

Data protection and confidentiality

After almost a decade of legislative struggles, on 7 April 2016, Law No. 6698 on Protection of Personal Data (“Data Protection Law”) entered into force. The Data Protection Law aims to harmonise Turkish data protection laws with European Union Directive 95/46/EC (“EU Directive”), which was recently replaced by the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), and the Council of Europe’s Strasbourg Convention for the Protection of Individuals with Regard to Automatic Processing of Personal Data 1981 (“Strasbourg Convention”), which Turkey ratified on 18 February 2016. Articles 1-16 of the Data Protection Law, which regulate the purpose, subject, definitions, scope and general principles of the Data Protection Law, are parallel with the Strasbourg Convention, the EU Directive and the GDPR, although there are nuances in the legislation and its local implementation in Turkey. The Turkish Personal Data Protection Authority’s (“Authority”) establishment is also in line with the EU Directive and the GDPR. Most significantly, the Data Protection Law introduces principles with which data controllers must comply. Such principles include proportionality, fairness and lawfulness. Furthermore, in line with the Turkish Constitution, the consent of the data subject is required for the processing of personal data where other grounds for processing do not exist. Consent must be explicit under the Turkish Constitution and the Data Protection Law. “Explicit consent” is defined as consent that is “specific, informed and declared with free will”, in parallel with EU practice. Under the Data Protection Law, data controllers must provide data subjects with information on: the data controller’s identity; the purposes of processing; the recipients to whom the data will be transferred, and the purposes of such transfer; the method and legal grounds for the data collection; and the rights of the data subject. Additionally, the data controller must limit the use of personal data to activities absolutely necessary for the purposes identified during data collection. Moreover, the data controller must ensure that appropriate technical and organisational measures are implemented to prevent unlawful and illegal access to or processing, destruction, loss, amendment, disclosure or transfer of the personal data.

In the absence of specific provisions within the Data Protection Law and in addition thereto, general provisions of Turkish law apply to data protection such as the Turkish Constitution, Turkish Criminal Code No. 5237 (“Criminal Code”), Labour Code No. 4857, the TCO, Turkish Civil Code No. 4721 and E-Commerce Law No. 6563. Moreover, sector-specific regulations also include specific provisions that might apply to personal data such as rules under Banking Law No. 5411 (“Banking Law”), the Payment and Securities
The Regulation on Deletion, Destruction or Anonymisation of Personal Data lays out the principles and procedures with respect to the deletion, destruction and anonymisation of personal data.

The Regulation on the Data Controllers’ Registry was published on 30 December 2017, establishing the procedures and rules with respect to the Data Controllers’ Registry. The Authority also established the exemptions from the registration obligation in its decision No. 2018/32 of 2 April 2018. The online Data Controllers’ Registry is currently available, and data controllers must assess whether they are under the obligation to register and, if applicable, to register before the relevant deadlines.

On 10 March 2018, the Authority published the Communiqué on Procedures and Principles on Notice Requirement and the Communiqué on Procedures and Principles for the Application to Data Controller to detail and regulate the implementation of the notice requirement provided in Articles 10 and 11 of the Data Protection Law. Further, a legally binding decision is adopted by the Authority with regard to mandatory security measures to be taken by data controllers in relation to the processing of special categories of personal data. The Authority also published the guidelines to date, which shed light on how the Authority interprets rules surrounding the grounds of personal data processing, personal data security and the disposal of personal data.

Under the Data Protection Law, if the data controller fails to make the proper notifications to the data subjects, it may be fined between TRY 9,000 and TRY 180,000. If the data controller fails to comply with the data security obligations, it may be fined between TRY 27,000 and TRY 1.8 million. If the data controller fails to comply with an order from the Turkish Personal Data Protection Board to remedy violations of the Data Protection Law, it may be fined between TRY 45,000 and TRY 1.8 million. Moreover, if the data controller fails to register with the Data Controllers’ Registry, it may be fined between TRY 36,000 and TRY 1.8 million. The amounts of the administrative fines stipulated herein are the rounded up figures updated by the revaluation rates since 2016. Further, Article 138 of the Criminal Code sentences those that fail to delete, destruct or anonymise personal data following the termination of the retention period to imprisonment for one to two years. According to Article 140 of the Criminal Code, if a data privacy crime is committed within the scope or as a result of a legal entity’s operations, the relevant entity might be subject to security measures for the relevant crimes. The security measures may be: (i) revocation of the licence/permit; and/or (ii) confiscation of property or material interests relating to the offence/crime per Article 60 of the Criminal Code.

Consents lawfully given before 7 April 2016 will be deemed compliant with the Data Protection Law, unless the data subject expresses their declaration of intent to the contrary within one year. To ensure compliance with the Data Protection Law and to avoid administrative fines, prison sentences and judicial fines, taking certain actions is recommended, including the following:

- Conduct a data compliance audit within the organisation to check whether personal data is collected and processed in line with the provisions of the Data Protection Law.
- Align personal data processed before the entry into force of the Data Protection Law with the provisions of the Data Protection Law within two years from 7 April 2016.
- Delete, destruct or anonymise non-compliant data and data for which the purposes of processing cease to exist.
- Ensure that all departments within the organisation have the necessary procedures and policies in place to collect and process personal data in line with the provisions of the Data Protection Law.

The Authority, established in January 2017, actively initiates investigations into companies upon complaints or ex officio, and imposes administrative fines for violations of the Data Protection Law.

The Authority published the Regulation on Deletion, Destruction or Anonymisation of Personal Data on 28 October 2017, which entered into force on 1 January 2018. The Regulation on Deletion, Destruction or Anonymisation of Personal Data lays out the principles and procedures with respect to the deletion, destruction and anonymisation of personal data.

If none of the foregoing conditions exists, the explicit consent of the data subject might be the only available legal basis for cross-border transfers.

At this stage, it is not clear which jurisdictions will be deemed to have “adequate protection” and how these framework rules will reconcile with the sector-specific localisation and data transfer principles.

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Under the Asset/Mortgage-Backed Securities Communiqué, any confidential information regarding third parties obtained by the fund board, fund auditors, fund operations manager or service provider in the performance of their duties must not be used for their own interests or disclosed to any party other than those authorised by these communiqués or by special regulations. Furthermore, under the Banking Law, management members and bank personnel must not: (i) disclose any information relating to their customers that these banks acquire as part of their duties to persons other than those who are authorised by the Banking Law; or (ii) use such information for their own or others’ benefit. Additionally, Turkish Commercial Code No. 6102 prohibits the unlawful disclosure of confidential information on third parties’ trade secrets without regard to how the information was obtained.

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Since 2006, securitisation has been viewed by Ukrainian banks as an attractive vehicle for raising capital in international markets. Ukrainian originators were eager to look at a wide range of assets for securitisation and completed two transactions before the 2008 global economic downturn curtailed all further attempts. The assets securitised in the transactions completed to date include residential mortgages and auto loans.

Regulatory framework

The Civil Code, the Commercial Code and a number of other laws allow Ukrainian banks and other companies to raise funds through domestic and cross-border securitisation transactions. In the mortgage lending area, the key legislation is composed of:

- Law of Ukraine "On Mortgage" No. 898-IV dated 5 June 2003 and effective 1 January 2004 ("Mortgage Law")

The Mortgage Bonds Law permits an originator — a Ukrainian commercial bank or an authorised financial institution — to create "mortgage assets" (i.e., a pool of rights of claim under the originator's mortgage loans) and the related "mortgage coverage" (i.e., a pool of mortgages securing the underlying loans). Mortgage assets may be sold by the originator to a special purpose vehicle (SPV), which would, in turn, issue mortgage-backed bonds.

Due to the reform of Ukraine's financial sector, the Law of Ukraine "On Mortgage Lending, Transactions with Consolidated Mortgage Debt and Mortgage-Backed Certificates" dated 19 June 2003 No. 979-IV, which provided for the issuance of mortgage-backed certificates (a separate type of mortgage-backed securities), has been repealed as of 1 July 2020.

Transfer of assets and true sale

Ukrainian legislation expressly recognises the concept of the sale of rights of claim, including the rights of claim to money or payments (receivables). A sale is distinguished from factoring transactions or transactions creating a security interest in the rights to payment. As determined by the nature of rights to payment, their sale is carried out by way of assignment of such rights to the purchaser. The Civil Code provides that general rules governing assignment will also apply to the sale of rights to payment unless otherwise provided in the sale agreement or by the applicable legislation.

A sale of rights to payment must be documented by an agreement in writing between the assignor and the assignee. Such sale agreement must follow the form of the underlying agreement that creates the rights to be assigned. Thus, if the underlying agreement was certified by a notary, the assignment agreement must also be certified by a notary. If applicable legislation requires the underlying agreement to be registered with any state authority, the assignment agreement must also undergo such registration except where otherwise specifically provided by applicable legislation.

Unlike in many developed jurisdictions, a contractual restriction on the sale or assignment of rights in the underlying agreement (an anti-assignment clause) is enforceable and will render any purported sale or assignment invalid.

A true sale of rights of claim can be achieved under Ukrainian law provided that the relevant agreement between the originator and the purchaser is:

- clear as to the intent of the parties to transfer unconditionally, completely and irrevocably (i.e., assign in exchange for monetary consideration or sell) the receivables from the originator to the purchaser, rather than to collateralise the receivables as security for the financing extended by the purchaser to the originator; and
- otherwise compliant with the legal requirements governing assignment agreements and sale-purchase agreements.

Accordingly, the proper and careful drafting of the sale agreement, and structuring of the transaction generally, is crucial to ensure its favourable treatment under Ukrainian law.

Types of assets suitable for securitisation

Ukrainian legislation prohibits the assignment (and, accordingly, the sale) of rights of claim that have a "personal nature," i.e., that are "inseparably connected to the person" of the originator. Ukrainian law does not provide criteria for determining whether a particular claim may be regarded as a "personal claim." However, a fair reading of the applicable legislation, as well as the existing court practice and market practice, suggests that the category of "personal claims" should not include the lender’s claims with respect to:

- repayment of principal and payment of interest under a loan agreement
- collateral under a security agreement
- insurance proceeds payable under the relevant insurance contracts upon the accidental loss, destruction or damage of the collateral

Thus, such claims are generally capable of assignment. Moreover, Ukrainian legislation provides that an assignment of the lender’s claims with respect to collateral under a security agreement would result in the assignee also acquiring the related insurance claims by operation of law.

Choice of law

Although Ukrainian conflicts of law rules permit a sale of assets to be governed by any foreign law chosen by the parties, the established international market practice (and the related market expectations) would be for the relevant sale agreements to be governed by the law that applies to the underlying assets, i.e., Ukrainian law. The legal reasoning for this is that issues of assignability of the assets and related transfer requirements and procedures would be governed by the laws of the documents evidencing such assets (i.e., the loan documentation).
The established market practice is to include in a sale agreement in an international securitisation transaction an extensive list of the originator’s representations and warranties with respect to its lending business and the portfolio of assets, as well as limited recourse, non-petition, indemnity and certain other provisions, originating primarily from English law. In civil law jurisdictions such as Ukraine, the legal standing and significance of such provisions are uncertain. As a result, recent practice in international securitisation transactions in civil law countries is to include split governing law provisions in the relevant sale agreements, whereby the asset transfer clauses of such sale agreements would be governed by the laws applicable to the underlying assets, while the other clauses would be governed by English law.

**Mortgage-backed securities**

The Mortgage Law provides for two types of mortgage-backed security: mortgage-backed certificates and mortgage-backed bonds. However, due to the repeal of the law that governed the issuance of mortgage-backed certificates, only mortgage-backed bonds may be issued.

The issuance of mortgage-backed bonds is regulated by the Mortgage Bonds Law, which provides for two types of mortgage-backed bonds: common mortgage-backed bonds and structured mortgage-backed bonds. Mortgage-backed bonds are registered securities and may be issued in non-documentary form only. The issuance of mortgage-backed bonds requires registration with the National Securities and Stock Market Commission of Ukraine.

Mortgage-backed bonds are secured by a "mortgage coverage" (a pool of mortgage assets that secure the loans). A mortgage bondholder is entitled to receive the nominal value of mortgage-backed bonds, plus a fixed or floating rate of interest. In addition, mortgage-backed bonds entitle their bondholders upon default of the issuer to obtain recovery from the underlying mortgage coverage in priority to the other creditors of the issuer of such mortgage-backed bonds.

Common mortgage-backed bonds may only be issued by the originator, while structured mortgage-backed bonds may be issued by a special mortgage institution (i.e., the purchaser SPV) following the acquisition of the underlying mortgage assets from the originator. Common mortgage-backed bonds and structured mortgage-backed bonds also differ in that the bondholder of common mortgage-backed bonds may obtain, upon default of the issuer, recovery from the assets of the originator in addition to the mortgage coverage, while the owner of structured mortgage-backed bonds may satisfy its claims from the value of the mortgage coverage only.

**Notice requirement**

Ukrainian legislation does not require the originator to notify any of the borrowers of the sale (assignment) of the rights of claim by the originator to a third party. Any failure of the originator to notify the borrowers of such sale (assignment) would not affect the validity of the sale (assignment) of the rights of claim. However, the SPV as assignee would bear any negative consequences of the originator’s failure to give such notice. In particular, the respective borrower would have the right to: (i) discharge its obligations in respect of the assets to the originator and not to the SPV until and unless the borrower has received the notice; (ii) make such objections against the claims of the SPV in respect of the assets as the borrower would be entitled to make against the originator as of the date of receipt of notice or, in the absence of such receipt, as of the date on which the SPV makes such claims; and (iii) set-off against the monetary claims of the SPV certain monetary claims of the borrower to the originator that have arisen from the grounds that existed at the date of receipt by the borrower of notice or, in the absence of such receipt, at the date when the SPV makes such claims. It is therefore recommended that the transaction documentation provide for the originator’s obligation to give notice to each borrower.

Although there is no express requirement under Ukrainian legislation for the originator to notify each insurer of the sale (assignment) of the respective insurance claims (if any) that are ancillary to the assigned rights of claim under the loans, any failure to give such notice may have the same negative consequences (as regards the discharge of the insurers’ payment obligations) as discussed above.

**Bankruptcy remoteness**

The concept of bankruptcy remoteness entails the separation of the securitised assets from the risks associated with the originator, such as its bankruptcy or insolvency. Ukrainian legislation provides sufficient basis to state that, once the assets are sold to the SPV, such assets are not included in the liquidation estate of an originator that is a Ukrainian commercial bank. At the same time, during the originator’s temporary administration and liquidation proceedings, the temporary administrator or liquidator (for a commercial bank, the Deposit Guarantee Fund) has the power to refuse or suspend performance, or terminate or declare invalid any pre-administration transfers of the originator if such transfers cause or may cause a deterioration of the originator’s financial condition and satisfy certain other statutory criteria. Such statutory grounds are poorly drafted; the relevant concepts are vague and there is no established practice of their application by the courts. However, proper structuring of a deal can help mitigate such risks.

In addition, the Parliament of Ukraine has recently adopted a law amending the legislation on mortgage bonds, which is primarily aimed at enhancing the bankruptcy remoteness of the mortgage assets from the bankruptcy or liquidation proceedings in respect of the originator, including during the term of temporary administration and moratorium.

Another aspect of bankruptcy remoteness relates to minimising the likelihood of bankruptcy of the SPV. The concepts of a Ukrainian SPV and its bankruptcy remoteness were introduced by the Mortgage Bonds Law, but the reach of this law is limited only to mortgage assets and to specialised mortgage entities, which can act as SPVs. As a result, in the absence of a sufficient legal framework to achieve bankruptcy remoteness through a domestic SPV, the two Ukrainian securitisation transactions closed to date used SPVs that were incorporated in other jurisdictions.
Disclosure of information and personal data protection

Ukrainian banks are required to preserve banking secrecy, i.e., the secrecy of information related to their clients and such clients’ accounts, deposits and transactions. Information subject to banking secrecy may only be disclosed subject to the written consent of the owner of such information and, in some limited cases, as required by the law. In addition, no collection, processing or disclosure of the personal data of private individuals may be made without prior written consent of those individuals.

Even in the absence of the borrowers’ consent, the limited disclosure of information on the client and the relevant agreements (e.g., loan, pledge or mortgage agreements) by the bank to the purchaser in the context of a sale of receivables by the bank to the purchaser should be permissible. Under applicable Ukrainian legislation, information on the loans and certain information on the borrowers (in particular, information relating to the receipt by a borrower of a loan and the security for such loan) is public information and, therefore, should not fall under banking secrecy restrictions. Such information is subject to registration in the publicly accessible state registers. These registers contain records on the assets that secure the underlying obligation, including the name of the borrower and the pledgor, their place of residence, description and location of the collateral, amount and term of the secured obligations, and information on the lender. Accordingly, the disclosure of such information in the respective sale agreements cannot be viewed as a violation of the requirement of preservation of banking secrecy.

In addition, Ukrainian legislation expressly requires an assignor to provide the assignee with the documents evidencing the assignor’s rights of claim, as well as to disclose information that is relevant for the exercise by the assignee of its rights with regard to the debtor. Also, Ukrainian banking legislation expressly permits banks to disclose information, subject to banking secrecy, to private individuals and organisations for the performance of their functions or for the provision of services to such banks pursuant to the executed agreements between the banks and such individuals/organisations, in particular in accordance with assignment agreements, or provided that the aforementioned functions or services concern banking activities.

The relationship between banking secrecy and protection of personal data of individuals is not entirely clear; however, it is believed that the transfer of personal data of individuals to third parties for specific purposes, in particular in accordance with assignment agreements, or provided that the aforementioned functions or services concern banking activities, require careful structuring and documentation to minimise the risks posed by the still restrictive regulations (which do not expressly cater for international securitisation transactions). The structures that can be considered (and elements of which have been tested in the transactions completed to date) include:

- reliance on the “foreign investment exemption” whereby the purchase of the assets is viewed as a foreign investment in property rights in Ukraine and, consequently, the payment of proceeds from such assets is viewed as a return of the investment and profit on investment;
- the servicing of the assets based on the asset management arrangement whereby a duly licensed asset manager would transfer proceeds of the assets abroad based on its banking licence (provided that it covers certain specific operations).

Repayment of the proceeds of assets from Ukraine

Although Ukraine’s regime for currency exchange and cross-border payments was significantly liberalised in February 2019, repatriation (from the Ukraine to an overseas jurisdiction) of proceeds of a loan portfolio acquired by a foreign SPV would still
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Legal Framework

The UAE is a civil law country that follows a Civil Code inspired by Egyptian and French law. Sharia or Islamic Law has little relevance in commercial transactions.

The main UAE sources of law are:

i. The UAE Civil Transactions Code of 1985 ("Civil Code") is the code that governs in general contractual liability and the award of damages under UAE law.

ii. The Explanatory Note on the UAE Civil Code ("Commentary"), issued by the UAE Ministry of Justice. According to established case law, this Commentary is indicative of the intentions of the UAE legislature and is as such relied upon as source for the interpretation of the UAE Civil Code. This is also confirmed by the preface to the Commentary in the following terms:

"The Commentary is a substantial and scholarly work published by the Ministry of Justice in 1987, which provides an analysis of the historical, jurisprudential and comparative background of each of the various parts of the Civil Code and, in most cases, of individual articles. It also provides numerous examples of how many of the provisions work in practice. Although the Commentary does not have statutory authority, it is nevertheless so important, so profuse in its guidance, and held in such respect by the courts of the United Arab Emirates, that it can properly be said that it is an essential tool for the correct interpretation of the statutory provisions of the Code, and that it is often unsafe to rely on the words of the Code alone in determining their meaning and effect."

iii. Comparative doctrine on Civil Law and, in particular, Egyptian legal doctrine. Note that in this context the UAE shares with other Gulf and Arab countries the same civil law system. After the formation of the Federation in 1971, the UAE was guided by Egypt, which is inspired by the French civil law tradition, for the drafting of its major codes. For this reason, Egyptian legal experts and Egyptian as well as French legal doctrine exerted considerable influence on the legislative processes in the formative years of the UAE. Even today, many years after the formation of the Federation, UAE courts will take account of Egyptian authorities for guidance in the event of ambiguities in the provisions of UAE law. The fact that many judges sitting in the UAE courts are Egyptian lends further support to the practical importance of Egyptian legal doctrine, which in turn has its origin in the French civil law tradition and therefore itself takes guidance from French law and jurisprudence, in the interpretation and application of UAE law. This said, it would be an oversimplification to state that the UAE codes are no more than copies of the Egyptian codes or that the Egyptian authorities will always apply. The UAE's legislation does differ from that of Egypt in the finer detail.

iv. Relevant case law of the competent UAE Courts. It is noted that even though contrary to the situation in common-law jurisdictions — case law from the UAE courts does not constitute judge-made law, it does provide important guidance in the interpretation of individual provisions of the various UAE codes of law.

However, the situation is a little bit more complex because in addition to the UAE 'mainland', the UAE has created by a constitutional amendment and a federal law, financial free zones ("FFZs"), where UAE federal civil and commercial laws are not applied in favour of either a codified common law (in the context of the Dubai International Financial Centre ("DIFC")) or in favour of English law amended by regulations (in the case of the Abu Dhabi Global Markets ("ADGM")).

Those FFZs have also their own courts and financial regulators.

Retired common law judges from common law jurisdictions (England, Australia, Singapore, among others) preside the courts that follow a slightly amended version of the Code of Civil Procedure.

Incorporating a special purpose vehicle ("SPV")

In the UAE on-shore there is currently no concept of SPV.

However, in the FFZs the concept of SPV exists.

Private companies are limited by shares incorporated under the laws of the DIFC or ADGM and have the following characteristics:

- no foreign ownership restriction
- zero tax entity
- access to DIFC or ADGM jurisdiction and enforcement regime (common law based and easy enforcement of security)
- mandatory requirement to appoint a corporate service provider (licenced by DIFC or ADGM) whose role is similar to that of a company secretary
- no requirement of physical office; what is required is a registered address, which can be the address of the company secretary/corporate service provider
- no requirement to maintain, audit or file its accounts
- no requirement to hold an annual general meeting
RESTRICTIONS ON USE

The purpose of the SPV must be limited to performing the “exempt activities” (whether conducted in Islamic or in the conventional manner) as follows:

- acquisition, holding and disposal of any asset in connection with and for the purposes of a Transaction
- obtaining any type of financing, granting of any type of security interest over its assets, providing of any indemnity or similar support to its shareholders or entering into any type of hedging in connection with a Transaction
- financing of another SPV
- acting as trustee or agent for any participant in a Transaction
- any other activities approved by the DIFC or ADGM Register of Companies
- any other ancillary activities related to the above activities

A “Transaction” is defined as being an:

Islamic or conventional structured finance transaction for the benefit of the Initiator in connection with which the SPC has been established, which shall include, without limitation, any type of securitisations or other capital markets transaction.

The term “Initiator” is defined as being the entity for whose Transaction the SPV has been established.

There are further restrictions that apply to SPVs. An SPV

- cannot be used as general corporate holding company
- cannot operate trading business
- cannot serve as general partner in an investment partnership
- cannot conduct ‘financial services’ unless authorised
- is not permitted to have more than three shareholders
- every shareholder must be: (i) a nominee holding shares on trust for discretionary purposes, (ii) the Initiator, or (iii) another SPC

Method of transfer

In the UAE on-shore, the concepts of true sale and bankruptcy remoteness do not currently exist, unlike in the Financial Free Zones where these concepts exist and are embedded in law. The Law of Security provides that the law applies to a sale of receivables that is perfected upon attachment.

Over-collateralisation/yield

Over-collateralisation can be achieved through the various DIFC or ADGM security laws or the new UAE law on the pledge of movables (20 of 2016) that has for the first time created the concept of a floating charge in the UAE.

Yields will very much depend on the credit worthiness of the issuer.

Tax

The FFZ SPV is a zero tax entity

Accounting treatment

There is no requirement to maintain, audit or file the accounts of a FFZ SPV.

Regulatory concerns

There are no particular regulatory concerns to report.

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The United States may be viewed as the birthplace of modern securitisation. In the 1970s, securitisation emerged as one of the most efficient forms of financing and has become one of the mainstays of corporate finance in the US. Beginning with the securitisation of residential mortgage loans, securitisation has grown into a multi-trillion dollar market encompassing a wide variety of financial assets held by companies in virtually every industry worldwide, including credit card receivables, trade receivables, commercial loans, commercial mortgage loans, franchise loans, consumer account receivables, automobile loans, timeshare loans, equipment leases, music royalties, lottery winnings, tobacco settlements, stranded utility costs and municipal tax liens. In the current post-financial crisis environment, securitisation has re-emerged as a staple of corporate finance in the US.

As the securitisation market in the US has grown and matured, the number of laws and regulations that apply to securitisation transactions has increased as well. In the US, each securitisation transaction must comply with a number of laws and regulations. Specifically, as a result of the global financial crisis, the US Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act (“Dodd-Frank Act”) has produced a number of additional rules and regulations that apply to securitisation transactions. Described below is a brief summary of certain fundamental structuring considerations for securitisation transactions covering US securities registration, the Investment Company Act, risk retention, bankruptcy, tax and other regulatory reforms.

**Securities law**

Unless the SPV receives funding from a commercial paper vehicle or another funding source, such as a bank-funded warehouse line of credit, the SPV will most likely issue term securities into the capital markets in compliance with federal and state securities laws. An offering of term securities to a larger potential investor base can be made by way of a registered public offering or a private placement.

**REGISTERED PUBLIC OFFERINGS**

If a securitisation transaction will be funded by securities offered to the public in the US, such securities must be registered with the Securities and Exchange Commission (“SEC”) in accordance with the Securities Act of 1933, as amended (“Securities Act”). A registered public offering in the US requires the filing of a registration statement with the SEC. Before any securities are offered to the public, the related registration statement must be declared effective by the SEC.

The process involved in filing a registration statement with the SEC, responding to SEC comments on the registration statement, and waiting for the SEC to declare the registration statement effective can take at least several months. In order to shorten the transaction timeline, the Originator and SPV may be able to use a “shelf” registration to offer securities from time to time using a registration statement that has already been filed and declared effective by the SEC for subsequent issuances of securities up to a maximum amount. Only certain types of securitisation transactions may take advantage of shelf registration, including certain lease-backed securities and certain asset-backed securities structures involving master trusts, revolving periods or pre-funding periods. Foreign asset-backed securities issuers are permitted to file shelf registration statements.

In addition to the initial registration requirements, issuers of securities offered to the public have certain ongoing reporting requirements under the Securities Exchange Act of 1934, as amended. Foreign asset-backed securities issuers are subject to the same ongoing reporting requirements as US issuers. In addition to their regular reporting requirements, issuers must report any material impact on the asset-backed securities caused by foreign legal and regulatory developments during the reporting period.

In 2004, “Regulation AB” under the Securities Act was implemented to codify certain positions of the SEC regarding the type of information required to satisfy the registration and prospectus disclosure requirements for registered public offerings of asset-backed securities. One noteworthy requirement is that the SPV must provide static pool disclosure containing cumulative loss, delinquency and payment rate information for the SPV’s previous securitised pools (or for past pools of receivables based on vintage date of origination, if an SPV has a limited securitisation history). In addition to disclosures about the static pool and about the SPV itself, Regulation AB requires material information to be disclosed about other parties to the transaction, such as trustees, derivative counterparties, third-party credit enhancement providers and significant obligors. Regulation AB also requires the filing of compliance reports by “parties participating in the servicing function” (e.g., the servicer and many types of third party vendors and sub-servicers) together with related attestation statements from independent accountants.

In November 2014, the SEC adopted “Regulation AB II” containing a wide-ranging set of reforms to Regulation AB. Public offerings of securities that are issued on or after 24 November 2015 must comply with all of the new rules, forms and disclosure requirements, except for asset-level data (for which compliance is not required until 24 November 2016). Several key changes implemented by Regulation AB II include:

- Asset-level data disclosure at time of offering and in subsequent periodic reporting for securities backed by automobile loans, automobile leases, residential mortgages, commercial mortgages, and debt securities.
- The offering must be made on a single, integrated prospectus on new Form SF-1 or SF-3. A combination of a base prospectus and a prospectus supplement will no longer be permitted. Any changes to structure, credit enhancement, etc. must be made through a post-effective amendment to the registration statement.
- Investment-grade rating requirement for shelf registrations has been eliminated and replaced with four new requirements: (i) the depositor’s chief executive officer must make a detailed certification at the time of each takedown about the quality of the disclosure and the expectation that the assets’ cash flow will be sufficient to repay the securities issued; (ii) the transaction documents must contain a dispute resolution provision containing certain specified time periods and procedures; and (iii) the transaction documents must contain a dispute resolution provision containing certain specified time periods and procedures; and (iv) the transaction documents must require the SPV to include in a distribution report the name and contact information of an investor who wishes to communicate with other investors.
• Enhanced static pool and delinquency disclosure and reporting.
• Disclosure of sponsor financial condition in certain circumstances.

It is also important to note that despite inclusion in prior rule proposals, Regulation AB II does not require that a Rule 144A offering comply with public offering disclosure requirements.

PRIVATE PLACEMENTS
As an alternative to a public offering of securities, an SPV may offer securities through a Rule 144A private placement to “qualified institutional buyers” (“QIBs”). QIBs generally include institutional investors that own and invest on a discretionary basis at least USD 100 million in securities of issuers that are not affiliated with the QIB. Unlike a public offering, in which Regulations AB and AB II mandate the scope of information relating to the SPV and the offering to be included in the prospectus delivered to investors, in a private placement there are only general legal parameters for disclosure, such as securities fraud statutes. Nevertheless, the offering documents for many private placements (particularly with respect to securitisations of “mainstream” assets such as automobile loans and similar asset classes) contain disclosure that meets most of the requirements required for registered public offerings.

If the securities are to be sold to non-US investors, Regulation S of the Securities Act provides a safe harbour rule that permits the offer and sale of securities without registration with the SEC. There are two general conditions that must be met in order for such sale of securities to qualify under Regulation S. The first general condition is that the offer and sale of the securities is made in an “offshore transaction”. This means that the investor is, from a US perspective, offshore at the time of the offer and sale, or the transaction occurs on certain “designated offshore securities markets”, which include, among others, the Eurobond market, the Stock Exchange of Hong Kong Limited, the Irish Stock Exchange, the London Stock Exchange, the Oslo Stock Exchange and the Tokyo Stock Exchange. The second general condition is that no “directed selling efforts” may be made in the US by the SPV, a distributor, or any of their affiliates, or any person acting on behalf of the foregoing. These activities consist of efforts reasonably expected to condition the US market for the securities.

US Investment Company Act
The Investment Company Act of 1940, as amended (“Investment Company Act”), was enacted to define and regulate investment companies, including mutual funds, and to protect the public by requiring disclosure of material details about the investment company. The cost of a registration and the compliance with the other requirements of the Investment Company Act for an investment company would be prohibitive for nearly all securitisation transactions. Thus, nearly all securitisation transactions are structured to fit within one of the following exemptions from the registration requirements under the Investment Company Act:

RULE 3A-7
Rule 3a-7 under the Investment Company Act is an exemption designed specifically for issuers of asset-backed securities. However, not all issuers of asset-backed securities are eligible for the Rule 3a-7 exemption.

Rule 3a-7 excludes from the definition of “investment company” any issuer that: (a) issues non-redeemable fixed-income securities which entitle the holders to receive payments that depend primarily on the cash flow from assets that convert into cash within a finite time period; (b) cannot acquire or dispose of such assets for the primary purpose of recognizing gains or decreasing losses resulting from market value changes; and (c) has appointed an independent trustee.

Rule 3a-7 permits a public offering of investment grade securities and sale of below investment grade securities to the “accredited investors” as defined under Regulation D (a lower standard than a “qualified purchaser” described below). This exemption is useful for securities that will be marketed, at least in part, to the general public.

In August 2011, the SEC requested public comments on its preliminary proposal to consider broad amendments to Rule 3a-7, including replacing the credit rating requirements with a requirement that an independent reviewer assess the sufficiency of the cash flows to make required payments on the securities; however, the SEC has not taken further action since that time.

SECTION 3(c)(1)
Section 3(c)(1) of the Investment Company Act excludes from the definition of “investment company” any company “whose outstanding securities (other than short-term paper) are beneficially owned by not more than 100 persons and which is not making and does not presently propose to make a public offering of its securities”.

The principal advantage of the Section 3(c)(1) exemption is that US investors do not need to meet the requirements of the “qualified purchaser” definition as required under the Section 3(c)(7) exemption (see further below). A disadvantage of this exemption is that policing the 100 beneficial owner limitation may be administratively difficult as there are a number of complex “look-through” requirements that could increase the number of beneficial holders.

SECTION 3(c)(7)
Section 3(c)(7) of the Investment Company Act excludes an issuer of securities from the definition of “investment company” if it is not making a public offering of the securities and restricts the offer and sale of its securities to US persons that are “qualified purchasers”. The term “qualified purchaser” includes natural persons who own not less than USD 5 million in investments, any company owned by close family members that owns not less than USD 5 million in investments, certain trusts or any person, acting for its own account or the accounts of other qualified purchasers, who in the aggregate owns and invests on a discretionary basis, not less than USD 25 million in investments.
THE UNITED STATES

The Section 3(c)(7) exemption is common in private placements of securities because it provides for the largest potential investor base and virtually all investors who qualify as a QIB would also qualify as a qualified purchaser. Securitisation transactions executed in the private market usually limit sales to only US persons who are QIBs and therefore the requirement that the investor also be a qualified purchaser is not particularly onerous.

SECTION 3(c)(5)(C)

Issuers of mortgage-backed securities may, in some cases, rely on the exemption under Section 3(c)(5)(C) of the Investment Company Act, which applies to assets that primarily consist of mortgage loans or other real estate interests.

THE VOLCKER RULE AND THE INVESTMENT COMPANY ACT

Under the Volcker Rule, banking entities are prohibited from sponsoring or acquiring an ownership interest in any "covered fund," i.e., an issuer that relies exclusively on the exemption provided by Section 3(c)(1) or Section 3(c)(7) of the Investment Company Act. Although the Volcker Rule was designed to regulate proprietary trading by banks, as well as investments by banks in hedge funds and private equity funds, the scope of the Volcker Rule is sufficiently broad to include any entity, unless otherwise exempted, including securitisation special purpose entities, that rely exclusively on the exemption provided by Section 3(c)(1) or Section 3(c)(7). Careful consideration and analysis must be given to determine what exemptions are available to the SPV under the Investment Company Act and under the Volcker Rule to ensure bank investors will not be in violation of the Volcker Rule as a result of an investment in the securities of an SPV issued in a securitisation transaction.

Credit Risk Retention

Under Section 941 of the Dodd-Frank Act, sponsors and securitisers of asset securitisation transactions are required to retain at least 5% of the credit risk of their transactions so long as the securities remain outstanding. The risk retention rule was effective as of 24 December 2015 for residential mortgage-backed offerings and was effective on 24 December 2016 for all other asset-backed securities offerings. Credit risk retention can take the form of a vertical interest equal to 5% of the face value of each tranche of securities offered, a horizontal interest equal to 5% of the fair value of the total amount of the securities offered, or a combination of a vertical interest and a horizontal interest. The prospectus must contain specific disclosure regarding the method used to determine the fair value of the securities.

Bankruptcy considerations

One of the primary propositions of a securitisation transaction is that the transaction will primarily be valued on the basis of the credit quality of the assets and is largely independent from the credit quality of the Originator or any other entity involved in the transaction. In order to insulate the assets from any credit issues of the Originator, including its bankruptcy, the assets are sold to an SPV that is "bankruptcy remote." Bankruptcy remoteness requires that the SPV is structured such that its own bankruptcy is unlikely and also such that it would not be adversely affected by the bankruptcy of the Originator or any other entity involved in the transaction. To that end, a two-fold analysis is made, namely: (i) whether the assets have been absolutely transferred from the Originator to the SPV so that if the Originator were to become subject to an insolvency proceeding, the assets would not form part of its bankruptcy estate (the "true sale analysis"), and (ii) whether the Originator and the SPV are separate entities, such that if the Originator were to become subject to an insolvency proceeding, the SPV, including its assets and liabilities, would not be substantively consolidated with those of the Originator (the "non-consolidation analysis").

In the true sale analysis, the following principal factors are considered to establish whether the assets have been absolutely transferred from the Originator to the SPV:

- whether fair consideration was paid to the Originator
- whether the SPV bears the risk of loss on the assets
- whether there is any recourse to the Originator for losses on the assets
- the intent of the parties
- what accounting treatment will be applied
- which party retains control over the assets

However, even if assets have been transferred to an SPV (which is typically a subsidiary of the Originator), in a bankruptcy of the Originator, a bankruptcy court would have the ability to "substantively consolidate" the assets of the SPV with the assets of the Originator if it finds that there is a lack of separateness between the two entities. The following principal factors are considered to determine a sufficient degree of separateness:

- separate management of the affairs of the entities
- whether a third party would reasonably rely on the assets of the SPV to satisfy the obligations of the Originator and vice versa
- whether either party is liable for the payment of the other’s obligations; and
- whether either party is a guarantor for the liabilities of the other

Both the true sale analysis and the non-consolidation analysis are facts- and circumstances-driven and are generally addressed in legal opinions rendered by the Originator’s counsel. The governing documents of the SPV should be structured in a manner to address the factors listed above such that the true sale analysis and the non-consolidation analysis are determined favourably for the securitisation transaction.

Tax considerations

The primary tax concern with regard to securitisation transactions is the avoidance of double taxation of income from the assets at the SPV level and at the investor level. To avoid income taxation at the SPV level, the SPV should be set up as a tax-free entity. The type of entity (and its tax treatment) will depend, in part, on whether debt instruments will be issued or whether instruments representing beneficial ownership of the underlying assets will be issued. In addition, the type of asset will also dictate the type of entity to be used (and its tax treatment).
From July 2014, US source interest payments generally will be subject to a thirty percent (30%) withholding tax under the Foreign Account Tax Compliance Act of 2010 (‘FATCA’) if paid to a “foreign financial institution” or a “non-financial foreign entity”, unless: (i) the “foreign financial institution” undertakes certain diligence and reporting obligations; (ii) the non-financial foreign entity either certifies that it does not have any “substantial United States owners” or furnishes identifying information regarding each substantial United States owner; or (iii) the foreign financial institution or non-financial foreign entity otherwise qualifies for an exemption. Entities located in jurisdictions that have an intergovernmental agreement with the United States governing FATCA may be subject to different rules. In addition, payments of US source interest may also be subject to “backup withholding” if the payee does not provide the payor with the appropriate certification that it is exempt from backup withholding.

**Additional regulatory reforms**

In addition to the regulatory requirements described above, below is a summary of certain other important securitisation-related regulatory reforms enacted under the Dodd-Frank Act:

- Issuers of publicly-offered securities are required to conduct an asset-pool review and disclose the nature of the review. The review must be designed and effected to provide reasonable assurance that the prospectus disclosure regarding the securitised assets is accurate in all material respects. The level of the disclosure must enable investors to conduct their own due diligence on the assets and be formatted in a manner that facilitates comparison of securities backed by similar asset classes.
- Issuers are required to periodically disclose historical asset repurchases, including requiring disclosure of fulfilled and unfulfilled repurchase requests in filings with the SEC and, for registered public offerings, the prospectus.
- The Dodd-Frank Act expanded the definition of “commodity pool” under the Commodity Exchange Act such that certain securitisation issuers that enter into swaps may be designated as commodity pool operators or commodity trading accounts requiring registration with the Commodity Futures Trading Commission (“CFTC”) and compliance with certain reporting requirements. However, the CFTC has issued two no-action letters that effectively exempt most traditional securitisation issuers from the definition of “commodity pool” so long as the issuer does not use swaps to provide investors with investment exposure.
- Commencing as of September 2016, certain securitisation issuers who enter into swap contracts will be required to provide variation margin on a daily basis against the market value of the swap contract.

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