

Introduction

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Since the financial crisis of 2008, international regulatory bodies have agreed upon broad reforms and regulatory enhancements that have been adopted and implemented at the national level by financial regulatory authorities. These reforms were designed to strengthen prudential oversight, improve risk management, enhance transparency, promote market integrity and reinforce international cooperation. Regulatory reforms implemented in nearly all of the major financial centres since the crisis have impacted financial services compliance across the globe.

Beginning with the agreements reached at the G20 Pittsburgh Summit in 2009, there have been vast improvements in the quantity and quality of bank capital and significant reductions in bank leverage. Regulators have implemented countercyclical capital buffers, and imposed higher capital requirements in terms of the levels and quality of capital. Capital charges have increased for riskier products and off-balance sheet activities. Supervisors have implemented stress-testing regimes and new liquidity regulations, as well as mandated improvements in the resolvability of large financial institutions. Many believe that the financial system is significantly stronger and more resilient to shocks as a result of these and other regulatory reforms.

There have been other important changes to financial services regulation implemented since the financial crisis. One material innovation has been the regulation of the derivatives markets. This previously unregulated market is now subject to pervasive regulation at all levels of activity. National governments, particularly those with major financial market centres, have agreed that standardised products must trade on exchanges or regulated electronic platforms and that products must clear through central counterparties. Transactions are now reported to regulated trade repositories. Capital and margin requirements for non-centrally cleared products have also been implemented. Intermediary regulation has also become the norm, with swap dealers (and in the US, security-based swap dealers), subject to registration and other requirements.

While there were undoubtedly many causes of the financial crisis, weak and ineffective governance is widely believed to have been an important contributory factor. As a result, international regulatory bodies as well as national authorities have focused significant attention on governance issues and in particular the role of gatekeepers, including boards of directors and compliance professionals.

Much has been written about and influenced changes to governance practices in the financial services industry over the past several years, including the Basel Committee's 'Principles for Enhancing Corporate Governance' (2010), the Group of Thirty's report entitled 'Toward Effective Governance of Financial Institutions' (2012), and the Financial Stability Board's (FSB's) 'Thematic Review on Corporate Governance' (2017) (the Thematic Review). The latter is a peer review that assesses the implementation of the G20 or Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Principles of Corporate Governance. The peer review assesses how FSB member jurisdictions have applied the Principles to publicly listed, regulated financial institutions, identified effective practices and areas where progress has been made, while noting gaps and weaknesses.

The Thematic Review found that, while all FSB member jurisdictions have a comprehensive corporate governance framework, its effectiveness can be impacted if, among other things, the division of responsibility among financial sector authorities is unclear.

Key recommendations of the Thematic Review include (i) augmenting the enforcement powers of national authorities to address weaknesses in corporate governance regimes or non-compliance with corporate governance requirements, and (ii) adopting codes of ethics or conduct of boards and encouraging boards to undertake regular assessments of their effectiveness.

Recent instances of wide-scale misconduct in the financial services industry, such as the Libor rate-fixing scandal, have made it abundantly clear that addressing governance weaknesses is essential, since the implications of misconduct can be far-reaching and create vulnerabilities to both individual institutions and the financial system as a whole. The FSB's recent studies of this issue and the leadership role of the Federal Reserve Bank of New York on issues concerning bank culture are just two examples of the significant high-level attention to these critical issues. More recently, the US Federal Reserve took strong action against Wells Fargo for years of sales practice misconduct, both barring it from future growth until reforms are in place, and requiring the bank to replace four members of its board by the end of the year. In a letter to the bank's board members, the Federal Reserve levelled very sharp criticisms against the board and alleged ineffective oversight. This action may presage greater attention to board accountability in the US and other jurisdictions in the future.

Regulators have not only increased their scrutiny of the oversight provided by boards; compliance professionals have also seen their accountability increase in the past several years. In the United States, chief compliance officers or chief executive officers of banking entities must attest to the fact that their firms have policies and procedures reasonably designed to ensure compliance with the Volcker Rule, which generally prohibits proprietary trading by banking entities. Chief compliance officers of swap dealers must also submit annual compliance reports to the Commodity Futures Trading Commission (CFTC) relating to compliance with the rules and regulations of the CFTC. This heightened level of accountability is becoming more widely adopted.

Understanding financial services compliance at the national level has never been more important. Regulation remains largely national, with national authorities adopting standards that must be adhered to within their borders. That said, regulated institutions and participants in financial markets have faced increased challenges in complying with disparate regulatory requirements in differing jurisdictions. This has been particularly true since the adoption of the Dodd-Frank Act in the United States, which in a number of respects did not adhere to traditional notions of the geographic reach of regulation. In areas such as the Volcker Rule and swaps regulation, supervisory authorities took very expansive views of the types of non-US activity that should be subject to US regulation by virtue of potential impacts on the US financial system. Thus, for example, US firms operating abroad with non-US counterparties could be subject to US law as well as the law of the jurisdiction in which the transaction occurred.

In the European Union since the crisis, however, multiple legislative initiatives have resulted in increasing regulatory convergence and harmonisation of rules across member states, while new EU financial services legislation has had an increasing extra-territorial impact. Notwithstanding commitments to international accords in principle, there are inevitable differences in national approaches that have made compliance with multiple sets of regulatory requirements extremely challenging. Harmonisation of approaches and mutual recognition of

foreign regulatory regimes are essential in a global, borderless marketplace. Efforts to harmonise rules as well as approaches to financial regulation across jurisdictions continue to be a work in process, and thus understanding local regulatory and compliance structures such as those contained in this compendium will continue to be essential.

Perhaps not as widely recognised today is the extent to which we are at a major crossroads regarding the regulation of financial products and services. A number of national regulators are currently grappling with emerging regulatory issues concerning cryptocurrencies and fintech, including blockchain. These emerging products and technologies will test the boundaries of regulation like never before. Basic questions have arisen concerning how to categorise these products from a regulatory perspective, and what regulation is appropriate for those products and particular types of market participants. More fundamentally, how do traditional notions of intermediary regulation apply in a world of distributed ledgers? What sales practice rules will apply to the purchase and sale of products such as cryptocurrencies? Only recently have these questions come to the attention of national authorities, gatekeepers, legislatures and others. How these questions are addressed at the national level, and what national authorities will exercise jurisdiction over this emerging area, will be an area for

further study and analysis in the years to come. Thus, understanding the structure of financial regulation at the national level will continue to be important.

This, our first edition of *Financial Services Compliance 2018*, is a compilation of the rules and approaches to financial services compliance in each of the 13 major jurisdictions and the European Union. Our hope is that this very practical and pragmatic guide will assist lawyers, compliance professionals, boards of directors and others who represent or are engaged with globally active institutions in navigating the regulatory requirements and frameworks of multiple jurisdictions. Understanding the regulatory landscape and the differences in approaches is fundamental to successful transactions in financial commerce across borders. Each chapter of this guide has a common set of questions, allowing readers to deepen their understanding of a single jurisdiction, or to understand how any particular issue or product would be treated across a number of geographies. Importantly, the authors of each chapter are leading authorities on financial services regulation in their respective jurisdictions. Each author has practical experience in the details of his or her jurisdiction, which makes this volume important for globally active firms, regional institutions and purely national market participants.

EU Overview

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Introduction

Since the 2008 financial crisis, there has been a pronounced shift towards concentration of power and influence at the EU level, away from the regulators in individual member states. In addition, new laws and initiatives at EU level have tightened regulation of investment banking activities and the securities and derivatives markets.

Until recently, most EU financial laws were effected through directives, which are not directly applicable and must be implemented into the national law of EU member states. Following the crisis, the primary vehicle for financial services rulemaking has been the EU regulation. Such regulations are directly applicable without the need for transposition into national law. As a consequence, the scope for member state discretion in setting and interpreting key regulation has been reduced.

Following a number of years in which successive eurozone banking crises dominated the attention of market participants and regulators, Brexit is now a key factor in the development of new legislation and regulation.

The EU financial services regulatory architecture

Financial services legislation follows the so-called 'ordinary' legislative procedure, whereby the European Commission (the Commission), the Council of the European Union and the European Parliament work through various compromise proposals to achieve a final text. The process typically takes at least 12 months, and may drag on for years if the proposed legislation is complex or controversial.

The Lamfalussy process

EU financial services rules usually comprise a package of different types of legislation and guidance under an approach named after a senior EU official, Alexandre Lamfalussy, as follows:

- Level 1: framework legislation in the form of a regulation or a directive setting out the general requirements of the initiative. Individual provisions in that legislation empower the Commission to adopt Level 2 measures.
- Level 2: detailed implementing legislation, usually but not always in the form of a regulation, drafted in the first instance by one of the European Supervisory Authorities (ESAs).
- Level 3: Guidance for national regulators prepared by the ESAs. National regulators adopt this guidance on a 'comply or explain' basis.
- Level 4: Supervision and enforcement practice, usually by national regulators.

The ESAs

Following the financial crisis, the EU institutions concluded that the former committees of national regulators that had been formed to assist in the supervision of cross-border activity had insufficient powers and influence. In response, the EU created a new European System of Financial Supervisors, comprising the following ESAs:

- the European Banking Authority (EBA, currently based in London, then in Paris after Brexit);
- the European Insurance and Occupational Pensions Authority (EIOPA, based in Frankfurt); and
- the European Securities and Markets Authority (ESMA, based in Paris).

Although the ESAs do not generally have direct oversight of individual EU firms (except ESMA for credit rating agencies), they have a number of important powers and duties in relation to EU financial regulation, including:

- the development of binding technical standards in relation to Level 1 legislation (although the Commission actually adopts the standards as Level 2 legislation);
- dispute resolution between national regulators;
- ensuring the consistent application of EU rules by national regulators, including through the issuance of Level 3 guidance and more informal 'Q&A' documents for certain legislation; and
- in 'emergency situations', the power to intervene directly in the supervision of individual EU firms, or direct national regulators to take certain actions, or both.

Key EU financial services legislation

MiFID II

On 3 January 2018, the recast Markets in Financial Instruments Directive and the Markets in Financial Instruments Regulation (together commonly known as MiFID II) legislative package replaced the original MiFID. MiFID II is the most important piece of EU regulation covering investment banking and securities markets. MiFID-regulated services include many necessary to provide broker-dealer or corporate finance type services, such as underwriting of financial instruments, reception, execution and transmission of orders, and the provision of investment advice.

MiFID II covers, inter alia:

- the authorisation of investment firms;
- the availability of a passport to allow investment firms established in EU member states access to the markets of another without being required to set up a subsidiary or branch and obtain a separate licence to operate as an investment firm in that other member state;
- detailed conduct-of-business rules in relation to investment services and activities, including the reception and transmission of orders, managing investments, the provision of investment advice, underwriting and placing of securities (expanded under the new MiFID II regime to include new rules on conflicts of interest, best execution, product governance, receipt of inducements by asset managers and transparency in relation to mandate and instructions);
- a customer classification regime, dividing clients into 'eligible counterparties', 'professional clients' and 'retail clients'. Certain conduct-of-business rules are modified or disapplied in respect of business with professional clients and eligible counterparties;
- the regulation of securities trading venues in the EU, divided into regulated markets, multilateral trading facilities (MTFs) and organised trading facilities (OTFs), with different levels of regulatory requirements applying to each;
- a detailed and complex pre- and post-trade transparency regime applicable to securities traded on those markets;
- rules for systematic internalisers (major traders on a principal basis) obliging them to make public the prices at which they are willing to trade in securities in certain trading venues;
- requirements for algorithmic and high-frequency trading;
- a trading requirement for certain categories of sufficiently liquid derivatives, so that all EU trading in such derivatives must occur on a regulated market, MTF or OTF;

- position limits and reporting for commodity derivatives and new powers for national regulators to intervene in trading in commodity derivatives;
- new powers for national regulators to ban specific investment products or services in certain circumstances; and
- a 'passport' for non-EU firms to provide services into the EU in certain circumstances, subject to an equivalence determination by the Commission in respect of the relevant non-EU country and cooperation agreement in place between the non-EU regulator and ESMA.

The Benchmarks Regulation

From 1 January 2018, a new regulation, the Benchmarks Regulation (BMR) has applied to the use of, contribution to and administration of indices used as financial benchmarks in the EU.

The Commission published its original proposal for the BMR in 2013 following the settlements reached by regulators with a number of banks concerning the manipulation of the LIBOR and EURIBOR interest rate benchmarks. The Commission aimed to protect investors and consumers and limit the risks of future manipulation by improving how benchmarks are produced and used (it has been estimated that contracts worth at least US\$300 trillion reference LIBOR alone).

The BMR consequently defines benchmark widely to include interest rate benchmarks, commodity benchmarks and more bespoke strategy indices, among other things. Administrators are caught by the BMR where indices they produce are referenced in EU-traded instruments or EU-regulated consumer loans or mortgages, and where they are used by EU investment funds to measure performance.

The BMR imposes an authorisation requirement for EU benchmark administrators, in addition to conduct and governance requirements. Most of the BMR's provisions have applied from 1 January 2018 and EU administrators providing benchmarks in the EU must apply for authorisation under the BMR by 1 January 2020.

The European Market Infrastructure Regulation

Following the financial crisis and the emergence of an international consensus at G-20 level, the EU introduced the European Market Infrastructure Regulation (EMIR) to increase transparency in the financial markets. EMIR provides for:

- The prudential regulation of central clearing counterparties (CCPs), including requirements for authorisation, capital, margins, organisational rules and the establishment of a default fund.
- A reporting obligation in respect of all derivatives (not just OTC derivatives) entered into by all EU counterparties, including CCPs, to registered or recognised trade repositories. ESMA is responsible for the registration and supervision of these trade repositories. The reporting obligation has been in place since February 2014. In practice, counterparties have opted either to set up a direct relationship with a trade repository or to establish delegated reporting arrangements with their counterparty or a third-party provider. A trade repository must register with ESMA if it wishes to receive and process reports in accordance with EMIR. Once registered, the trade repository is able to receive reports from counterparties across the EU.
- A clearing obligation applicable to categories of standardised derivatives that meet criteria set out in EMIR Level 2 legislation. This obligation applies to EU 'financial counterparties' and EU 'non-financial counterparties' whose trading exceeds a specified threshold. This obligation also applies to certain non-EU counterparties in specified circumstances. ESMA and the Commission decided to phase in the application of the clearing obligation depending on the EMIR categorisation of counterparties and the size of their trading activities. The clearing obligation for the most commonly used interest rate swaps denominated in euros, sterling, yen and US dollars began for 'Category 1' firms in 2016 with a phased introduction for other types of counterparty until 21 December 2018. A similar approach has been adopted for certain credit derivative swaps (CDS), with a phase-in period running until 9 May 2019.
- The risk mitigation obligations are designed to reduce risk for OTC contracts that are not subject to the clearing obligation, including contractual requirements around portfolio reconciliation and dispute resolution, and a requirement for exchanges of collateral (margin) for certain categories of OTC derivatives. EMIR Level 2 legislation provides for an obligation on counterparties that are in

scope (mostly financial counterparties and other counterparties that carry out substantial levels of derivatives trading) to exchange initial and variation margin when dealing with each other. It also sets out a list of eligible collateral for the exchange of collateral and the criteria to ensure that it is sufficiently diversified. EMIR also requires operational procedures relating to margin to be put in place by the counterparties, such as legal assessments of the enforceability of the arrangements for the exchange of collateral.

The Short Selling Regulation

The EU regulation on short selling and certain aspects of credit default swaps took effect on 1 November 2012 and sought to harmonise the short selling rules across the EU. The key elements of the Regulation include:

- transparency requirements in relation to short positions in shares traded on an EU venue and EU sovereign debt and those with CDS positions in relation to EU sovereign debt issuers, including the flagging of short orders;
- a ban on 'naked' short selling – entering into a short sale of EU sovereign debt or shares trading on an EU venue without have borrowed, or entered into an agreement to borrow, the relevant financial instruments;
- disclosure of short positions to national regulators once a short position in the relevant instruments reaches 0.2 per cent, and disclosure to the relevant market once the position reaches 0.5 per cent, of the issuer's share capital; and
- national regulators may impose temporary (up to three months) bans on short selling and related derivative transactions in some emergency circumstances.

The Market Abuse Regulation

Since 3 July 2016, the Market Abuse Regulation (MAR) has applied across the EU, replacing the previous market abuse regimes that existed in member states and applied only to instruments traded on EU regulated markets.

Since the advent of MAR, the EU market abuse regime also applies to issuers with financial instruments, such as debt securities, admitted to trading (or for which a request for admission to trading has been made) on an MTF or an OTF. MAR also applies to derivatives or other instruments whose price or value depends on or has an effect on the price of certain financial instruments, regardless of where those related instruments are traded. This last category of instruments potentially widens the scope of MAR further, to include instruments traded outside the EU that could have a price effect on the instruments admitted to trading on an EU trading venue.

As a result, MAR prohibits insider dealing, unlawful disclosure of inside information and market manipulation in respect of a much wider range of securities. The regime also provides for a range of obligations on issuers and, in certain cases, those institutions who act on their behalf.

Key issuer obligations under MAR include the following.

Disclosure of inside information

An issuer with securities (debt or equity) admitted to trading on an EU venue must disclose inside information to the market as soon as possible, except where it is in the issuer's legitimate interests to delay disclosure. Under MAR, this disclosure obligation applies to a much wider range of instruments than previously. MAR also requires an issuer to inform the national regulator of the trading venue of any such delay, and issuers must also retain a record of how they determined that the delay in disclosure was in their legitimate interests. In addition, MAR provides that, once disclosed, inside information must be available to the public on the issuer's website for five years.

Insider lists

MAR also requires an issuer to maintain, in a prescribed format, insider lists detailing those persons working for it (either inside or outside the business) who have access to inside information relating directly or indirectly to it.

PDMR dealings

MAR requires persons discharging managerial responsibilities (PDMRs), and persons closely associated with them, to disclose to the

issuer and the national regulator certain notifiable transactions in the issuer's financial instruments. The issuer must ensure that any such notification is also disclosed to the EU market. In addition, MAR generally prohibits PDMRs from dealing when in possession of inside information or in a 'closed period', namely 30 days before an announcement of interim or annual results.

Market soundings

Under MAR, a market sounding comprises the communication of information, prior to the announcement of a transaction, to gauge the interest of potential investors. Where sounding-out investors involves disclosure of inside information, the issuer can benefit from a 'safe harbour' where it follows a specific market sounding procedure and maintains certain records. Although the clear policy focus of the market soundings regime is on the selective disclosure of inside information, a market sounding can also encompass situations where no such disclosure occurs prior to the announcement of a transaction (eg, in a roadshow where only public information is disclosed).

The Acquisition Directive

The Acquisition Directive provides for a harmonised regime for the acquisition of control in financial firms (including investment firms, banks and insurers) in the EU. Persons wishing to acquire control in such firms must seek prior regulatory approval before completion. 'Control' for these purposes is defined as being 10 per cent or more of the share capital or voting rights in the relevant firm or in its parent undertaking. The Acquisition Directive also contains provisions providing that where parties are acting in concert with one another, their interests may be aggregated for the purposes of the control threshold.

The CRD IV package

In the EU, the principal regulation of the banking sector is contained in the Capital Requirements Directive and the Capital Requirements Regulation (together known as the CRD IV package). The legislation sets out, inter alia:

- an authorisation regime for 'credit institutions' (broadly, deposit taking entities);
- prudential rules for banks and larger investment firms on a solo and consolidated basis, including detailed rules around capital requirements, including capital ratios;
- passport rights for credit institutions across the EU;
- liquidity standards in the form of a liquidity coverage ratio;
- rules on capital conservation and counter-cyclical capital buffers, to be maintained in addition to minimum regulatory capital requirements;
- rules on counterparty credit risk;
- rules on corporate governance and risk management; and
- remuneration limits and disclosure requirements (including a 'bonus cap' whereby the variable remuneration of certain bank staff (senior managers, material risk takers and certain compliance staff) is limited to 100 per cent of their fixed remuneration. The cap can be increased to 200 per cent with shareholder approval).

The Alternative Investment Fund Managers Directive (AIFMD)

The AIFMD regulates the authorisation, operations and transparency of managers of alternative investment funds (AIFs) who manage or market funds in the EU. The scope of the AIFMD is wide and regulates the provision of risk management and portfolio management services in relation to an alternative investment fund (AIF). The definition of an AIF is very broad and includes a wide range of structures and fund types. Both open-ended and closed-ended vehicles and listed and unlisted vehicles can be AIFs, as can investment structures not typically thought of as being 'funds'.

The AIFMD applies to:

- EU managers that manage one or more AIFs (wherever they are based);
- non-EU managers who manage one or more EU AIFs; and
- non-EU managers seeking to market AIFs (wherever they are based) to investors in the EU, subject to some limited exemptions.

The AIFMD does not directly apply to the AIFs themselves, although AIFs remain subject to applicable member state law and regulation, if any.

EU managers are subject to an authorisation requirement under the AIFMD. As a consequence of being authorised, a manager may market units or shares in the AIF it manages across EU member states under a passport regime. Authorised managers are subject to a range of obligations including in relation to governance and conduct of business standards, capital requirements, enhanced disclosure and transparency requirements and remuneration policies. In addition, authorised managers must appoint a depositary on behalf of each AIF that they manage. Authorised managers are also subject to limitations on leverage and face restrictions in relation to 'asset stripping' (meaning restrictions on distributions and capital reductions in certain portfolio companies) for two years following acquisition.

Member states may allow non-EU managers to market units or shares in the non-EU AIFs that they manage to professional investors under national private placing regimes. There is a degree of harmonisation in relation to these regimes, as managers using this route for marketing must comply with elements of the AIFMD disclosure regime, and there must be suitable cooperation arrangements between the relevant member state and the regulator of the home states of the manager and the AIF. In addition, the jurisdictions of establishment of the non-EU manager and any non-EU AIFs that it manages must not be listed as a non-cooperative country and territory by the Financial Action Task Force. European Union member states are, however, free to 'gold-plate' their national private placement regimes to add in other requirements before marketing can begin.

Most national regimes continue to permit 'reverse solicitation' and passive marketing without the need for compliance with the AIFMD or private placement regimes. The availability and boundaries of this concept vary widely across member states.

Future developments, including Brexit

Given the importance of London as the EU's largest centre for financial services, it is expected that Brexit will have an disproportionate impact in relation to the financial sector. The shape of any final deal between the EU and UK on a future trading relationship is still, at the time of writing, far from being settled, while uncertainty even surrounds the status of financial services in the transitional period expected to follow the UK's exit from the EU in March 2019. In broad terms, the key financial regulatory issues arising from Brexit include:

- UK financial services institutions, including subsidiaries of US and other non-EU parent companies, would no longer be able to benefit from passporting (unless single market membership is maintained post-Brexit, which seems unlikely at the time of writing). It is not at all clear whether a solution will be found to allow some cross-border financial services access to continue.
- Most of the UK's financial services regulation is based on EU law. That said, substantial further EU legislative work is expected to modify a number of these laws, so it is possible that the regimes could diverge rapidly after Brexit. In general with financial services legislation, an assessment will need to be made in the UK whether to align with EU legislation or diverge; the greater the divergence, the more the dual burdens on cross-border firms.
- The UK will likely not be part of the ESA framework after Brexit and will have no influence in the development of primary or secondary EU legislation or guidance. The UK has been a significant force in the area of financial services legislation, so its withdrawal may impact the legislative agenda and ultimately the quality of the legislation produced.
- Significant disruption could occur if UK financial institutions are restricted from providing derivatives-dealing services to EU counterparties. In addition, if London-based CCPs (which currently fulfil a critical role in the clearing of derivatives in the EU as a whole) are also prevented from providing clearing services to EU counterparties post-Brexit (even if only for a limited time before an equivalence determination is made and those clearing houses are recognised by ESMA), this could have significant repercussions for financial and non-financial counterparties across the EU.

Even before the Brexit referendum a number of new regulatory initiatives were in train or under consideration, in part to recognise the need to reflect newly agreed international standards (such as the Financial Stability Board's total loss-absorbing capacity standard (TLAC) for global systemically important banks) as well building on the EU's own

policy priorities around building a banking union within the eurozone and the creation of a capital markets union. Important recent EU regulatory initiatives in financial services include:

- The banking reform legislative package published on 23 November 2016 consisting of:
 - a set of amendments to the CRD IV package, including amendments to the leverage ratio, the net stable funding ratio and capital standards and new proposals for a requirement to establish intermediate EU holding companies where two or more banking institutions established in the EU have the same ultimate parent in a non-EU country;
 - a proposal to amend the Single Resolution Mechanism Regulation as regards loss-absorbing and recapitalisation capacity for credit institutions and larger investment firms; and
 - proposals to amend the existing Bank Recovery and Resolution Directive in relation to TLAC requirements and regarding the ranking of unsecured debt instruments in the insolvency hierarchy.
- The proposal to amend EMIR, published on 13 June 2017. This would amend, inter alia, the procedures involved for the authorisation of CCPs and requirements for the recognition of third-country CCPs or equivalent. The proposal aims to address challenges in derivatives clearing as it grows in scale and seeks to reflect a pan-European approach to the supervision of EU and non-EU CCPs, to ensure further supervisory convergence and to enable closer cooperation between supervisory authorities and central banks in the EU and in non-EU countries. Despite ESMA suggesting that the reforms are consistent with ensuring the robust supervision of CCPs as systemically important institutions, the proposals have been criticised by some UK policymakers who

view them, post-Brexit, as a means of forcing the clearing of euro-denominated financial instruments from the UK to the EU.

- The ESAs and the European Central Bank have, on a number of occasions over the past year, issued opinions and expressed views in speeches regarding the impact of Brexit on the licensing of financial services firms in the EU. For example, on 31 May 2017, ESMA published an opinion on general principles to support supervisory convergence in the context of authorised firms relocating from the UK. The opinion addresses regulatory and supervisory arbitrage risks that may arise from such relocations and sets out general principles for a common supervisory approach across the member states. The opinion is underpinned in the EU by a concern that a regulatory ‘race to the bottom’ may occur among European regulators to win business post-Brexit. To guard against such arbitrage, the opinion encourages progress in supervisory convergence to improve integration and ensure financial stability across the EU and make clear that ‘substance’ requirements will have to be met, with the full force of EU regulation applying to firms that choose to move from the UK.

The legislative proposals described above continue to grind their way through the EU legislative process. The Commission and the ESAs continue to adopt a position that advocates ‘more EU’ as the solution to financial regulatory issues that arose during the crisis and beyond. The direction of travel is therefore towards more powers for the ESAs and the ECB, with even less discretion available to national regulators. The impact of Brexit will likely have a material impact on the operation and regulation of the EU’s financial markets, given the critical importance that London currently holds.

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1 What national authorities regulate the provision of financial products and services?

The Hong Kong system of financial regulation reflects a modified institutional approach, with different regulators largely responsible for the oversight of different types of financial institutions.

The two principal authorities responsible for the regulation of banking, securities and derivatives products and services are:

- the Hong Kong Monetary Authority (HKMA), which regulates banks; and
- the Securities and Futures Commission (SFC), which regulates securities, futures and other contract markets, as well as certain entities that participate in those markets.

There is, however, increasing overlap among and between regulators, particularly as banks expand the range of securities activities in which they are engaged.

See question 2 regarding the activities regulated by each authority.

2 What activities does each national financial services authority regulate?

The HKMA oversees all aspects of authorised banking institutions within its jurisdiction, including banks, restricted licence banks (eg, merchant banks) and other deposit-taking companies. It supervises these authorised institutions on a consolidated basis, with the aim of promoting the safety and stability of the banking system, including in respect of local and overseas branches and subsidiaries. The principal areas of HKMA supervision include capital adequacy and liquidity, exposure concentration, resolution and anti-money laundering and counter-terrorist financing (AML/CTF) obligations (eg, customer due diligence), with different requirements applicable to locally and foreign incorporated institutions.

The SFC is responsible for the licensing (or registration) and supervision of intermediaries and individuals, including broker-dealers, advisers and funds, engaged in a wide range of securities and futures activities, including:

- dealing in securities;
- dealing in futures contracts;
- leveraged foreign exchange trading;
- advising on securities;
- advising on futures contracts;
- advising on corporate finance;
- providing automated trading services;
- securities margin financing;
- asset management; and
- providing credit rating services.

The SFC is also responsible for overseeing market operators, including, among others, HKEx, which operates the Stock Exchange of Hong Kong and the Hong Kong Futures Exchange, clearing houses and alternative trading platforms (eg, dark pools); overseeing takeovers and mergers of listed companies; and the regulation of investment products.

Authorised institutions supervised by the HKMA must register with the SFC as to regulated securities activities undertaken in Hong Kong, but the HKMA is responsible for the day-to-day oversight of any such activities performed by these authorised institutions. The precise

role and responsibilities of the HKMA in respect of the securities activities of authorised institutions are set out in a series of memoranda of understanding between the HKMA and the SFC. The Secretary for Financial Services also plays a coordinating role, and helps to set policy for the securities and futures markets generally.

3 What products does each national financial services authority regulate?

As described above, the HKMA exercises comprehensive supervisory oversight over all of the activities of authorised banking institutions, rather than regulating particular types of products.

The SFC regulates licensed (or registered) institutions on the basis of the activities in which they are engaged, for example, by imposing principles-based business conduct standards. These conduct standards are applicable to all licensed and registered institutions (and individual persons), and include expectations and requirements as to the suitability of products offered or sold to third-party customers.

Through its supervisory and rule-making authority over market operators, the SFC also regulates certain financial products, including securities and futures. It thus has indirect authority over the manner in which these products are transacted, for instance, on exchange or over the counter. In addition, the SFC directly authorises and regulates investment products, including, among others, closed-end funds, exchange traded funds, leveraged and inverse products, pooled retirement funds, unit trusts and mutual funds, structured investment products, real estate investment trusts, and unlisted shares and debentures.

4 What is the registration or authorisation regime applicable to financial services firms and authorised individuals associated with those firms? When is registration or authorisation necessary, and how is it effected?

As to securities and futures activity, financial services firms must be licensed by the SFC before engaging in any of the regulated activities set out in question 2, subject to narrow statutory exemptions. Licensing is necessary when financial services firms carry out a regulated activity, as well as when they hold themselves out as doing so.

Licensing is also necessary if a financial services firm actively markets to the public in Hong Kong any service that would be a regulated activity if performed in Hong Kong. This is true whether the firm is marketing its services from Hong Kong or overseas, including when it does so through a third party. For instance, a US-based asset manager soliciting clients for its US-based services in Hong Kong would need to be licensed for asset management activity in Hong Kong, even if the solicitation was undertaken through its Hong Kong-licensed subsidiary.

Individuals must also be licensed before performing a regulated activity on behalf of their licensed corporation. In addition, any executive directors (ie, senior managers) in charge of a licensed corporation's regulated activities must also be licensed as 'responsible officers'.

Temporary licences are available to both firms and individuals if they will undertake regulated activity only on a short-term basis, and it is the SFC's expectation that such licences will be obtained before any regulated activity is undertaken, even in the case of day-long business meetings in Hong Kong, for instance.

To receive a licence, a firm or individual must apply to the SFC. Different requirements apply to each type of regulated activity, but at

a minimum, the application process ordinarily requires the submission of extensive materials, including detailed business plans, biographies of senior employees, directors and officers and other corporate and individual records. All licensed persons – firms or individuals – must also, at a minimum, demonstrate that they are ‘fit and proper’, in connection with which the SFC evaluates the applicant’s financial status, qualifications, competence, honesty, fairness, reputation and character. Licensed firms must also comply with additional requirements, including financial resources rules (eg, rules relating to minimum paid-up share capital and liquid capital) and insurance rules. The application process for temporary licences is less complex, especially for individuals.

Banking organisations are subject to similar authorisation requirements, albeit overseen by the HKMA rather than the SFC. Authorisation is required when banking activities are undertaken in Hong Kong, and also when they are marketed to customers in Hong Kong. As noted in question 2, Hong Kong has a three-tier banking system that includes banks, restricted licence banks and deposit-taking companies. Different regulations, including different authorisation requirements, apply to locally incorporated banking organisations than to the Hong Kong branches of overseas banks. Otherwise, the application requirements are similar to those applicable to financial services firms licensed by the SFC, and banking entities seeking to engage in securities and futures activities in Hong Kong must also be licensed by the SFC.

5 What statute or other legal basis is the source of each regulatory authority’s jurisdiction?

The importance of financial services to Hong Kong as an international financial centre is recognised in its Basic Law, which also gives the government the authority to ‘formulate monetary and financial policies, safeguard the free operation of financial business and financial markets, and regulate and supervise them in accordance with the law’.

Otherwise, the jurisdiction of both the HKMA and the SFC is proscribed by statute: the Banking Ordinance and the Anti-Money Laundering and Counter-Terrorist Financing (Financial Institutions) Ordinance in the case of the HKMA, and the Securities and Futures Ordinance in the case of the SFC.

These ordinances set out the supervisory, examination and enforcement powers of the HKMA and SFC, respectively, in addition to conferring upon each regulator the authority to promulgate more particularised subsidiary legislation (ie, rulemaking with the force of law) and non-binding guidance in respect of defined topics (eg, product suitability).

6 What principal laws and financial service authority rules apply to the activities of financial services firms and their associated persons?

The principal statutes applicable to institutions authorised by the HKMA are the Banking Ordinance and the Anti-Money Laundering and Counter-Terrorist Financing (Financial Institutions) Ordinance (AML/CTF Ordinance).

The Banking Ordinance sets out the requirements for authorisation of financial services firms seeking to provide banking services, the HKMA’s powers of direction and examination, restrictions on the ownership and management of authorised institutions, and liquidity and capital requirements, among others. It also authorises the promulgation by the HKMA of subsidiary legislation addressing a range of topics, from capital and liquidity requirements to disclosure rules, in more particularity.

The AML/CTF Ordinance sets out the obligations of authorised institutions in respect of customer due diligence, ‘know your customer’ requirements and suspicious transaction reporting.

In addition to the Banking Ordinance, AML/CTF Ordinance and associated subsidiary legislation, institutions authorised by the HKMA must also comply with the minimum expectations and standards set out in the HKMA’s Supervisory Policy Manual. The Supervisory Policy Manual codifies the HKMA’s supervisory policies and practices, some of which reflect requirements under the Banking or AML/CTF Ordinances and others of which are best practices. Among the regulatory topics it addresses are corporate governance; internal controls; capital adequacy; credit, interest rate, operational and liquidity risk management; securities activities; and money laundering.

The principal statute applicable to entities and persons licensed or regulated by the SFC is the Securities and Futures Ordinance (SFO). The SFO sets out the licensing requirements for entities conducting regulated activity in Hong Kong; recordkeeping, reporting and disclosure requirements; and civil, criminal and disciplinary enforcement regimes in respect of market misconduct, in addition to conferring upon the SFC the authority to promulgate subsidiary legislation addressing a wide range of topics from the treatment of client monies and securities, professional investors, and short positions, to contract limits, price stabilisation and investor compensation.

In the case of both the HKMA and SFC, the regulatory requirements reflected in statutes, subsidiary legislation and other binding policy statements are supplemented by a variety of codes of conduct, guidelines and circulars with varying degrees of legal effectiveness.

7 What are the main areas of regulation for each type of regulated financial services provider and product?

Institutions authorised by the HKMA are supervised on a consolidated basis. The main areas of regulation and supervision are registration; safety and soundness; capital and liquidity; internal controls and governance; business conduct; risk management; and record-keeping, reporting and disclosure. Pursuant to a Memorandum of Understanding between the HKMA and SFC, the HKMA is also responsible for supervising the securities activities of HKMA-authorised institutions on a day-to-day basis, with the SFC principally responsible for enforcement action in respect of misconduct arising from such activities.

The SFC, unlike the HKMA, only regulates certain defined securities and futures activities (see question 2). In respect of these activities, it regulates, inter alia, licensing requirements; business conduct (ie, the standard of care afforded customers); market conduct; internal controls, governance and supervision; the treatment of client securities and monies; recordkeeping, reporting and disclosure obligations; the timing and format of contract notes; and various activity restrictions.

8 What additional requirements apply to financial services firms and authorised persons, such as those imposed by self-regulatory bodies, designated professional bodies or other financial services organisations?

The SFC is responsible for licensing market operators, most notably the Stock Exchange of Hong Kong, the Hong Kong Futures Exchange and their associated clearing entities. These market operators act as self-regulatory bodies, but also as frontline regulators. Any person seeking to trade or clear through their facilities must comply with the policies, rules and procedures promulgated by each operator (and approved by the SFC). In the case of the Stock Exchange of Hong Kong, for instance, these rules govern admissible order types and sizes; trading hours; closing mechanisms; trade reporting; trading misconduct; maximum allowable position and lot sizes; the trading engine; and short selling restrictions, among other topics. Importantly, the Stock Exchange of Hong Kong is also the frontline regulator in respect of listing and listing applications.

In many cases, the rules promulgated by the market operators parallel those promulgated and enforced by the SFC. In practice, the SFC thus acts as the principal enforcement authority for the market operators.

9 What powers do national financial services authorities have to examine and investigate compliance? What enforcement powers do they have for compliance breaches? How is compliance examined and enforced in practice?

Both the HKMA and the SFC have the power to conduct on-site inspections and examinations of the financial services firms they regulate, and to compel the production of certain documents. Both regulators also conduct off-site surveillance – the HKMA of the financial condition of the institutions it authorises, and the SFC of market conditions and trading activity.

In connection with these powers of inspection and surveillance, both regulators are also given the authority to conduct investigations, which can lead to disciplinary, civil or criminal enforcement actions, as detailed in question 10.

10 What are the powers of national financial services authorities to discipline or punish infractions? Which other bodies are responsible for criminal enforcement relating to compliance violations?

Both the HKMA and the SFC are authorised to take disciplinary or civil enforcement action (subject to the approval of the Department of Justice) in connection with regulatory breaches. A wide range of sanctions is available even in the disciplinary context, including licence revocation or suspension, fines and public reprimands, among others. In many cases, the HKMA and the SFC also require the entities or persons responsible for regulatory violations to strengthen and enhance internal controls and governance. In the civil context, the SFC can also petition the court for winding-up or bankruptcy orders, restoration orders, declarations that securities transactions are void, or for receivership. In addition, the courts and relevant tribunals can require disgorgement, impose financial penalties and enforce activity restrictions and prohibitions on future conduct.

The HKMA and SFC can also seek criminal prosecution in connection with certain regulatory breaches. The SFC can prosecute 'summary offences' on its own, but must refer any indictable offences to the Department of Justice. The HKMA must refer all potential offences to the Department of Justice for prosecution. The maximum penalties ordinarily available for financial services offences are fines of up to HK\$10 million, and a term of imprisonment of up to 10 years.

11 What tribunals adjudicate criminal and civil financial services infractions?

Hong Kong has a number of specialised tribunals responsible for the adjudication of disciplinary and civil financial services infractions. In most cases, the regulatory authorities are also able to pursue civil enforcement actions in the Hong Kong courts.

SFC disciplinary decisions, for instance, are appealable to the Securities and Futures Appeals Tribunal, where a full de novo review of the disciplinary proceedings are conducted by a three-member panel consisting of a chairman and two lay members. Final orders entered by the Securities and Futures Appeals Tribunal can be registered in or appealed to the Hong Kong courts.

Similarly, civil breaches of market misconduct provisions are heard by the Market Misconduct Tribunal, as part of a public inquiry heard by a three-member panel (one judge and two lay members) in which the SFC acts as the presenting officer. The Tribunal can issue injunctions, order disgorgement, or impose a prohibition on dealing in securities, taking management roles in listed companies or engaging in future misconduct. Subsequent violations of its orders are punishable by imprisonment and fines.

Otherwise, civil actions are dealt with by the Hong Kong courts.

12 What are typical sanctions imposed against firms and individuals for violations? Are settlements common?

In the disciplinary setting, the most common sanctions are fines (ordinarily three times the profit earned or loss avoided), public reprimands and partial licence suspensions. Penalties can range from incidental amounts to well over US\$50 million, depending on the severity and scope of the relevant violations. The settlement of disciplinary actions is quite common, but the regulators nearly always require some form of public reprimand.

For civil enforcement actions, the full range of economic and equitable sanctions are common, especially disgorgement and prohibitions on future activity (eg, acting as the director of a listed company). Settlements of civil actions are also quite common, although statistics as to the rate of settlement are not publicly available.

13 What requirements exist concerning the nature and content of compliance and supervisory programmes for each type of regulated entity?

For financial services firms engaged in securities and futures activity, the SFC's Code of Conduct for Persons Licensed by or Registered with the Securities and Futures Commission (Code of Conduct) enshrines compliance as one of its nine general principles, and sets out numerous principle-based requirements in respect of internal controls, IT infrastructure and trading systems, the disclosure of firm financials, the handling of client assets and compliance obligations. Other relevant

subsidiary rules and regulations include the Securities and Futures (Accounts and Audit) Rules, the Guidelines on Anti-Money Laundering and Counter-Terrorist Financing, and the Management, Supervision and Internal Control Guidelines for Persons Licensed by or Registered with the Securities and Futures Commission.

The HKMA's Supervisory Policy Manual also sets out detailed guidance as to the compliance programmes expected of authorised banking institutions, the principal focus of which is risk management. The Supervisory Policy Manual also includes a Code of Conduct, which sets out the standards of business conduct and competence expected of authorised institutions and their employees.

14 How important are gatekeepers in the regulatory structure?

Gatekeepers perform crucial functions within Hong Kong financial services firms. For firms engaged in regulated securities and futures activities, the roles of gatekeepers are governed by the SFO, its subsidiary rules and regulations, and codes and guidelines issued by the SFC. Under the SFO, firms engaged in regulated securities and futures activities in Hong Kong must have at least one 'responsible officer' for each regulated activity they are licensed to conduct. As recent cases have shown, responsible officers of licensed corporations are expected to actively supervise the functions they oversee, bear primary responsibility for compliance and may be subject to disciplinary penalties for compliance failures. This expectation is also codified in the Code of Conduct applicable to all licensed entities.

Beginning on 16 October 2017, licensed corporations are also subject to the new 'managers-in-charge' regime, which aims to more clearly define who should be regarded as senior management of licensed corporations, and enhance individual accountability. The SFC has identified eight core functions of licensed corporations and requires licensed corporations to designate a manager-in-charge for each. Among the core functions are compliance; AML/CTF; finance and accounting; risk management; and operational control and review. The managers-in-charge overseeing these gatekeeping functions are subject to SFC's disciplinary powers, even if they are not themselves licensed persons, which means that traditional compliance, back-office and middle-office functions are, for the first time, brought within the scope of the SFC's authority.

These requirements also apply to banking organisations authorised by the HKMA, but registered with the SFC to conduct securities and futures activities. Otherwise, the HKMA takes a more traditional approach to the role of gatekeepers and corporate governance, largely relying on directors and senior officers to manage risk and ensure compliance. The HKMA's Supervisory Policy Manual does, however, set out detailed and extensive guidance as to the role of the internal audit function, including the expectation that authorised institutions will, in most cases, have an audit committee and that the internal audit function will be appropriate by reference to the size, scope and complexity of an authorised institution's business and operations. With respect to risk management and compliance, it is expected that there will be separate, designated risk and compliance officers, with the board of directors principally responsible for ensuring that these functions are adequately resourced.

15 What are the duties of directors, and what standard of care applies to the boards of directors of financial services firms?

Common law directors' duties apply to the boards of directors of financial services firms in Hong Kong. These include the duties to:

- act in good faith for the benefit of the company as a whole;
- exercise power solely for proper purposes;
- exercise independent judgement and refrain from delegation without proper authorisation;
- exercise care, skill and diligence;
- avoid conflicts of interest or abuses of position;
- avoid unauthorised use of firm property or information; and
- maintain proper accounting records.

The standard of care applicable to directors, meanwhile, is set out in statute, in the Companies Ordinance, which expressly displaces the common law standard of care. In determining whether a director has breached his or her duties, courts in Hong Kong will apply a mixed subjective and objective test, comparing the conduct of the director to that of a 'reasonably diligent person' having the general knowledge,

skill and experience reasonably expected of a person in the director's position (the objective component) and the knowledge, skill and experience that the director actually has (the subjective component).

Generally, directors of financial services firms should also bear in mind the need for management to instil a strong compliance 'tone from the top'. This is especially important in light of heightened regulatory focus on individual and senior management accountability. In May 2017, the SFC published a reminder of steps that directors may take to minimise the risk of corporate misconduct and promote a culture of good corporate governance. Leading by example, directors are expected to regularly discuss governance-related matters, including by actively consulting senior management regarding observed issues within the firm, and to ensure effective channels for the escalation of concerns and suggestions of improvements. Directors' genuine interest in the firm's affairs, demonstrated by attendance at board meetings and obtaining updates on management accounts and corporate performance, is encouraged to promote timely identification of issues. In matters where personal conflicts of interest arise, directors should abstain from involvement. On a firm-wide level, directors should ensure the implementation of effective internal controls and whistle-blowing procedures. Systems of checks and balances should be in place to prevent policies from being overridden without due cause or accountability.

16 When are directors typically held individually accountable for the activities of financial services firms?

Directors may be held individually accountable for the activities of financial services firms as a result of regulatory breaches. For instance, the SFO empowers the SFC to seek injunctive relief and other orders on behalf of investors against persons who contravene (or aid, abet, induce or are involved in the contravention of) any provision of the SFO. The SFO also authorises civil actions against directors who fail to take reasonable measures to establish safeguards against market misconduct. Directors of licensed corporations who are also responsible officers or managers-in-charge are also subject to the SFC's disciplinary powers if found liable for the misconduct of financial services firms.

Recent enforcement cases reflect Hong Kong's regulatory focus on director and senior management accountability for the activities of financial services firms, with the SFC bringing civil proceedings against individual directors for, among other things, failing to act in a company's best interest in connection with the late disclosure of inside information. These cases serve as reminders of directors' personal accountability to their corporations, and of directors' responsibilities to stay informed and alert to governance or compliance issues within their firms (see question 15).

17 Do private rights of action apply to violations of national financial services authority rules and regulations?

Private rights of actions for regulatory violations are available in only very limited circumstances, for individuals who suffer pecuniary loss as a result of another person committing the market misconduct offences set out in the SFO. These offences include:

- insider dealing;
- false trading;
- price rigging;
- disclosure of information about prohibited transactions;
- disclosure of false or misleading information inducing transactions; and
- stock market manipulation.

They also include the offences of:

- use of fraudulent or deceptive devices in securities, futures contracts or leveraged foreign exchange trading;
- disclosure of false or misleading information inducing transactions in leveraged foreign exchange trading; and
- falsely representing dealings in futures contracts on behalf of others.

Persons found liable in connection with private rights of action pursuant to these provisions are required to pay damages if it is 'fair, just and reasonable' in the circumstances. Courts may also impose injunctive relief in addition to or in lieu of orders for damages. Potential defendants under these provisions are not limited to persons directly perpetrating a market misconduct offence. Investors may seek to

recover from persons who knowingly assist or connive with others in the perpetration of market misconduct. Officers of corporations also may be named as defendants if market misconduct was perpetrated by the corporation with the officer's consent or connivance. 'Officers' is widely defined in the SFO: directors, managers or secretaries, or any other person involved in the management of a corporation, are all deemed 'officers of a corporation'.

18 What is the standard of care that applies to each type of financial services firm and authorised person when dealing with retail customers?

In Hong Kong, the relationship between retail customers and financial institutions is principally a matter of contract, as applied in the context of the common law duties of banks. In addition, financial services firms licensed or regulated by the SFC must, as a condition of their licences, meet minimum, principles-based regulatory standards governing the treatment of customers, while banking organisations authorised by the HKMA are expected to comply with the recommended practices prescribed in the Code of Banking Practice, which was promulgated by industry associations, but endorsed by the HKMA.

The principles-based standards governing the relationship between entities licensed for securities and futures activities and their customers are principally set out in the Code of Conduct. The Code of Conduct requires licensed entities to act honestly, fairly and diligently, and in the best interests of their clients; to obtain adequate information about the financial situation, investment experience and objectives of clients; to make adequate disclosures of relevant information to clients; and to properly account for and safeguard client assets. The Code of Conduct also elaborates more particularised minimum requirements in respect of, among other things, the content of client agreements and the principles of prompt and best execution.

The Code of Banking Practice, although not binding or a condition of authorisation, sets out similar, albeit more particularised expectations for the treatment of banking customers, by reference to particular banking activities, including accounts, card services, payment services and electronic banking services, among others. These particularised expectations reflect a set of general principles announced in the Code, among which are the equitable and fair treatment of customers, with special attention given to the needs of vulnerable groups.

19 Does the standard of care differ based on the sophistication of the customer or counterparty?

In respect of securities and futures activity, including when such activity is performed by banks, the standard of care does vary based on the sophistication of the customer (ie, their net worth and investment experience).

Under the SFO and related guidance promulgated by the SFC, certain customers may be classified as 'professional investors', in which case certain regulatory requirements are relaxed, including those pertaining to the information about a customer's financial condition, experience and objectives that licensed entities are expected to obtain; the minimum contents of client agreements; the suitability of investment products; and the type of transaction-related information that must be disclosed to clients.

The HKMA also recognises certain categories of customers (eg, private banking customers), for which suitability and other requirements are relaxed. In respect of banking activity, however, the standard of care does not vary based on customer sophistication, aside from the expectation, elaborated in the Code of Banking Practice, that banks will devote special attention to vulnerable populations (eg, the elderly).

20 How are rules that affect the financial services industry adopted? Is there a consultation process?

With certain exceptions, all subsidiary legislation in Hong Kong ordinarily must go through a process of consultation prior to adoption. This is true for subsidiary legislation adopted both by the SFC and the HKMA (and often, the regulatory bodies are also required to consult each other). Subsidiary legislation refers to those rules and guidelines promulgated pursuant to express authority in the relevant governing statutes.

The consultation process for subsidiary legislation involves the circulation of proposed rules for public consideration, the opportunity for public comment, the circulation of consultation conclusions setting

out any public comments received, regulator responses to these comments (as well as any new amendments that substantively differ from the original draft) and publication of the final rules for adoption.

Both the HKMA and SFC also regularly publish circulars and other guidance, in which they set out their interpretations of requirements set out in statute or subsidiary legislation. No consultation ordinarily is undertaken in connection with such interpretive guidance, as it is only persuasive, not binding.

21 How do national financial services authorities approach cross-border issues?

Hong Kong largely takes a territorial approach to the regulation of its securities and futures markets. As explained in question 4, financial services firms must be licensed by the SFC to conduct regulated securities and futures activities whenever they conduct those activities in Hong Kong, as well as when they actively market to the public in Hong Kong any service that, if performed in Hong Kong, would be a regulated activity. This is true whether the firm is marketing its services from Hong Kong or abroad, including when it does so through a third party (eg, a subsidiary or affiliate). Even when such activity, or the marketing of regulated activity, is conducted in Hong Kong only on a temporary or short-term basis (eg, a one-off meeting with a brokerage client), a licence is required.

One potential exception to this territorial approach is the catch-all fraud provision of the SFO, which is modelled on Rule 10b-5 in the United States, and which the SFC recently used to target insider dealing in Taiwan in securities listed on the Taiwan Stock Exchange. Importantly, significant elements of the fraudulent scheme were devised in Hong Kong, but this enforcement action nevertheless shows that the SFC will use its ostensibly territorial jurisdiction to reach conduct that principally occurs offshore, especially where it has effects on Hong Kong's markets and market participants.

Hong Kong also takes a largely territorial approach to banking regulations, although the HKMA frequently communicates with overseas counterparts and can disclose information about the operations of institutions authorised in Hong Kong to overseas regulators, as long as there are adequate privacy measures in place. The HKMA also looks to the home regulators of banking organisations incorporated overseas in determining whether to authorise them to conduct banking activity in Hong Kong. Such organisations can only be authorised in Hong Kong if the HKMA is satisfied that they are adequately supervised by their home banking regulator. Without authorisation, overseas banks cannot engage in any banking business, although they can open local representative offices to liaise with local customers.

Banking organisations authorised in Hong Kong are also subject to regulation in respect of their overseas activity, including the HKMA's powers of inspection. They cannot open overseas branches (or acquire overseas banks) without the approval of the HKMA, and must regularly disclose to the HKMA the assets and liabilities of their overseas entities.

The SFC and HKMA also both cooperate extensively with international regulators, especially Mainland regulators. The SFC has memoranda of understanding with Switzerland, the United States and Japan to facilitate varying degrees of mutual assistance on a cross-border basis and frequently makes or receives requests for assistance from regulators globally. The HKMA has similar cooperative arrangements with foreign jurisdictions, including with Australia, Canada, Mainland China, France, Germany, India, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States.

22 What role does international standard setting play in the rules and standards implemented in your jurisdiction?

International standard-setting plays an important role in the rules and standards implemented by both the SFC and the HKMA. Both are active participants in the Financial Stability Board, for instance, on the basis of Hong Kong's status as a systemically importance financial centre.

The SFC is also actively involved in the work of the International Organisation of Securities Commissions (IOSCO), and its guidelines often reflect IOSCO standards. The chief executive of the SFC currently is the chair of IOSCO, and the SFC is represented in all IOSCO bodies, including policy committees and task forces.

The HKMA largely follows the approach to capital adequacy, leverage ratios, countercyclical capital buffers and liquidity prescribed by the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision, including Basel III, albeit with varying regimes for locally incorporated and overseas incorporated entities. The HKMA also has the authority to designate authorised banking institutions as 'domestic systemically important' institutions, and has adopted the Basel Committee's framework for evaluating these institutions. However, it has not yet implemented local rules in respect of the Basel Committee's exposure limits. The HKMA typically adopts regulations or guidance implementing the standards promulgated by the Basel Committee through the process of consultation described in question 20.

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1 What national authorities regulate the provision of financial products and services?

The main piece of legislation specifying regulated financial services in the UK is the Financial Services and Markets Act 2000 (as amended) (FSMA) and its subordinate legislation. There is a tripartite system of regulators for financial services firms authorised under the FSMA; the Financial Conduct Authority (FCA), the Prudential Regulation Authority (PRA) and the Bank of England Financial Policy Committee (FPC). The scope of each regulator's authority is set out in the FSMA.

The FPC is the dedicated macro-prudential authority, and monitors the stability and resilience of the financial system as a whole, identifying and taking action to reduce systemic risk. The FPC can direct the FCA and the PRA to take certain action to combat systemic risk, but does not itself have direct regulatory responsibility for UK-authorized firms.

The PRA is responsible for the authorisation and prudential regulation and supervision of firms that manage significant risk on their balance sheet (including banks, insurers and systemically important investment firms), while the FCA is responsible for the authorisation, prudential regulation and supervision of all other FSMA firms (including consumer credit firms), as well as the conduct of business of all firms.

The FCA is also responsible for the regulation of conduct in retail and wholesale financial markets, supervision of the trading infrastructure that supports those markets, and the authorisation and supervision of e-money issuers and payment services firms that fall outside the FSMA regulatory regime. The FCA also oversees the Payment Systems Regulator, which is an operationally independent subsidiary of the FCA that is the economic regulator for payment systems.

The PRA and FCA are obliged to ensure that their functions are exercised in a coordinated manner; for example, they must obtain advice or information from each other relating to the exercise of their functions under the FSMA on matters of common regulatory interest. A memorandum of understanding supports the relationship between the two regulators.

2 What activities does each national financial services authority regulate?

The FSMA provides that no person can perform a regulated activity without being authorised or exempt. A regulated activity is a specific activity that relates to a specified type of investments. The FSMA (Regulated Activities) Order 2001, a piece of subordinate legislation under the FSMA, specifies the following activities that, when performed in relation to specified products or investments (see question 3), are regulated activities in the UK:

- deposit-taking;
- issuing electronic money by credit institutions, credit unions and municipal banks;
- insurance-related activities (including effecting a contract of insurance and assisting in the administrator or performance of contracts of insurance);
- investment activities, including arranging deals in investments, advising on investments, dealing in investments, safeguarding and administering investments, managing investments, operating a trading facility and establishing or winding up a collective investment scheme;

- mortgage and home finance-related activities, including mortgage lending and administration and entering into or administering home reversion and home purchase plans, and sale and rent back agreements;
- consumer credit regulated activities; and
- other miscellaneous activities, such as establishing a stakeholder pension scheme, specified financial benchmark administration activities, bidding in emissions auctions and certain activities in relation to the Lloyd's insurance market.

Agreeing to carry on a regulated activity is also generally a regulated activity.

The PRA is responsible for the authorisation of deposit takers, insurers, managing agents in the Lloyd's insurance market, the Lloyd's insurance market itself, and certain high-risk investment firms that have been designated by the PRA. Firms authorised by the PRA are subject to dual-regulation by the PRA and the FCA – the PRA is responsible for their authorisation, prudential regulation and supervision, while the FCA is responsible for regulating their conduct. All other FSMA firms are authorised, regulated and supervised by the FCA in respect of both prudential and conduct matters.

Separate regulatory regimes exist in the UK for the regulation of payment services and the issuance of electronic money by institutions other than credit institutions, credit unions and municipal banks (under the Payment Services Regulations 2017 (PSRs) and the E-Money Regulations 2011 (EMRs)). The FCA is responsible for the authorisation and supervision of e-money issuers and payment services firms.

3 What products does each national financial services authority regulate?

The following are specified products or investments for the purposes of the FSMA regime:

- deposits;
- e-money;
- contracts of insurance;
- shares;
- instruments creating or acknowledging indebtedness;
- alternative finance investment bonds;
- government and public securities;
- instruments giving entitlements to investments;
- certificates representing certain securities;
- units in a collective investment scheme;
- rights under a pension scheme;
- options;
- futures;
- contracts for differences;
- Lloyd's investments;
- funeral plan contracts;
- regulated mortgage contracts;
- regulated home reversion plans;
- regulated home purchase plans;
- regulated sale and rent back agreements;
- rights to or interests in investments;
- greenhouse gas emissions allowances;
- rights under consumer credit and consumer hire agreements; and
- structured deposits.

4 What is the registration or authorisation regime applicable to financial services firms and authorised individuals associated with those firms? When is registration or authorisation necessary, and how is it effected?

The PRA and the FCA have the power to authorise a firm to carry on regulated activities under the FSMA (only firms authorised or exempt under the FSMA may carry on FSMA-regulated activities in the UK).

A firm must apply to the PRA if its application includes certain PRA-regulated activities, such as deposit-taking or the writing of insurance contracts. These firms will have their application considered by both the FCA and the PRA. In any other case the application will be made to the FCA only.

In the case of dual-regulated firms, the PRA leads the authorisation process. This includes pre-application meetings with the FCA and PRA; submission by the applicant of a detailed application pack including a core details form, a regulatory business plan, a controllers form, applications for certain key individuals (such as directors, senior managers and individuals responsible for compliance functions) to perform 'controlled functions' or 'senior management functions' and an IT self-assessment questionnaire; and the payment of a fee ranging from £1,500 to £25,000 depending on the complexity of the application. The PRA and FCA must be satisfied that certain threshold conditions are met and that the firm will continue to meet certain minimum standards before granting any authorisation. The regulators must come to a decision within six months of the date it receives the completed application.

Applications to the FCA only follow a similar structure; however, the FCA has sole responsibility for the authorisation process.

Certain individuals performing key functions for authorised firms must also be pre-approved by the FCA or PRA (as appropriate). There are currently two separate approval regimes for FSMA firms, the senior managers regime that applies to banks, building societies, credit unions and PRA-designated investment firms, and the approved persons regime, which applies to all other FSMA firms (although the FCA is currently consulting on extending the senior managers regime to all regulated firms). Both regimes extends to directors, partners, officers, senior managers and certain key employees (eg, the Money Laundering Reporting Officer and Compliance Officer). Applications for approval to perform 'controlled functions' or 'senior management functions' must be made prior to the relevant individual's appointment, and the PRA and FCA have up to three months to determine an application.

A separate regime applies for payment services firms and e-money institutions. E-money or payment institution authorisation applications must be determined by the FCA within three months. In addition, firms that operate in lower risk environments, such as small e-money institutions and payments firms and consumer buy-to-let firms, may only need to be registered with the FCA.

5 What statute or other legal basis is the source of each regulatory authority's jurisdiction?

The FSMA is the basis of the FCA's and the PRA's jurisdictions in respect of FSMA-regulated activities and firms. The PSRs and the EMRs are the basis of the FCA's jurisdiction in relation to the payment services and e-money regimes. Various elements of EU legislation also apply directly in the UK, and the FCA or PRA are empowered as the competent authority in relation to that legislation.

6 What principal laws and financial service authority rules apply to the activities of financial services firms and their associated persons?

The current regulatory framework in the UK derives largely from the FSMA and its secondary legislation. The main rules applicable to financial services firms are set out in a combination of directly applicable EU legislation (such as the Capital Requirements Regulation) and the handbooks and rulebooks of the FCA and the PRA. The regulators also set out regulatory expectations in non-rule based materials such as policy statements, approach documents, thematic review reports and speeches.

7 What are the main areas of regulation for each type of regulated financial services provider and product?

Firms performing regulated activities in the UK must generally be authorised by (or, for certain firms, registered with) one of the UK

financial services regulators unless they benefit from an exemption or exclusion. Once authorised, the requirements that apply vary depending on the types of regulated activities performed.

Most UK authorised firms are subject to regulatory capital requirements, with banks, insurers and investment firms subject to the most stringent capital requirements.

Extensive regulatory rules and guidance also apply to regulated firms under the relevant UK legislation, as well as directly applicable EU laws and the PRA and FCA rules and guidance.

The PRA and FCA rulebooks encompass both high-level standards for conduct, and systems and controls of regulated firms, as well as a number of requirements relating to a firm's day-to-day business, such as the management of client assets or the disclosures required to be made to clients and counterparties.

UK-regulated firms are under a general duty to inform the UK regulators of a material change in their business, management or of any significant regulatory rule breaches or complaints. In addition, firms are typically required to comply with periodic reporting obligations in respect of their ongoing operations.

Non-FSMA derived rules also apply to UK-regulated firms, such as the UK Money Laundering Regulations 2017 (MLRs). The FCA is responsible for supervising ongoing compliance with the MLRs and both prosecute offences under that legislation, and taking enforcement action for a lack of adequacy of systems of controls to prevent money laundering.

8 What additional requirements apply to financial services firms and authorised persons, such as those imposed by self-regulatory bodies, designated professional bodies or other financial services organisations?

Financial services firms and senior managers or approved persons may be subject to the rules and regulations of other professional or self-regulatory bodies. Whether firms are subject to any such rules or regulations, and the nature of those rules or regulations, will depend on the specific firms and bodies in question.

9 What powers do national financial services authorities have to examine and investigate compliance? What enforcement powers do they have for compliance breaches? How is compliance examined and enforced in practice?

Both the FCA and the PRA have a number of powers to investigate and take disciplinary action against firms and individuals who breach regulatory and some legal requirements.

The FCA has significant powers of investigation and information gathering, which it can exercise against authorised firms. These powers are set out in the FSMA, and include powers to:

- require information and documents from authorised firms and connected persons;
- require a report on an authorised firm by a skilled person (and in some cases to appoint that person); and
- appoint both general and specific investigators.

The FCA has a number of disciplinary and enforcement powers, the most commonly used being the ability to issue public statements and censure, and to impose financial penalties. The FCA can also:

- vary or withdraw a firm's regulatory permissions, and impose restrictions or suspensions on a firm's ability to carry on regulated activities;
- withdraw or suspend an individual's approval, or restrict them in, or prohibit them from, performing certain functions;
- apply to court for injunctions in connection with certain matters; and
- prosecute certain criminal offences, including insider dealing and money laundering offences.

The FCA's overall approach to enforcement is a strategy of 'credible deterrence' (ie, to deter firms or individuals being disciplined from reoffending and to deter others from making similar mistakes). The FCA has published guidance on its policies and procedures and approach to enforcement in its Decision Procedure and Penalties Manual and its Enforcement Guide.

The PRA has broadly the same information gathering powers as the FCA against PRA-authorised firms and connected persons, and

can also require the provision of skilled persons reports (and to appoint skilled persons) and appoint investigators.

Like the FCA, the PRA has enforcement powers, although it is only able to impose penalties on PRA-authorized firms. The PRA has published statements of policy and procedures detailing how it will exercise its powers to impose financial penalties and suspensions, or impose restrictions on firms or approved persons.

10 What are the powers of national financial services authorities to discipline or punish infractions? Which other bodies are responsible for criminal enforcement relating to compliance violations?

See question 9. Various other bodies are responsible for compliance enforcement in the UK, depending on the relevant legal or regulatory requirement. For example, the Information Commissioner's Office is the regulatory authority responsible for enforcement of breaches of UK data-protection legislation, while the Office of Financial Sanctions Implementation (part of HM Treasury) enforces financial sanctions in the UK.

11 What tribunals adjudicate criminal and civil financial services infractions?

The FCA and PRA each have an internal decision-making process that applies in the context of enforcement action.

The FCA's Decision Procedure and Penalties Manual provides guidance on the nature and procedure of the FCA's Regulatory Decisions Committee, which is (in most cases) responsible for deciding whether to take enforcement action following an investigation. The Bank of England is currently consulting on introducing an Enforcement Decision-Making Committee in respect of PRA enforcement actions.

Decisions taken by the FCA or PRA may be appealed by firms and individuals to the Tax and Chancery Chamber of the Upper Tribunal of the High Court.

A criminal prosecution brought by the FCA or PRA would be instituted in the criminal courts in England, Wales or Northern Ireland.

12 What are typical sanctions imposed against firms and individuals for violations? Are settlements common?

Typically, fines are levied by the PRA and FCA against firms for violations. Discounts are ordinarily applied where firms cooperate with the regulators and for early settlement. In the 2017, the FCA imposed fines of approximately £229 million, including a fine of £163 million levied against Deutsche Bank AG for anti-money laundering controls failings during the period between 1 January 2012 and 31 December 2015.

13 What requirements exist concerning the nature and content of compliance and supervisory programmes for each type of regulated entity?

Regulated firms are required to have in place systems and controls to ensure that they comply with applicable laws and regulated requirements. The nature of these controls and compliance programmes vary depending on the size of the firm and the regulated activities performed.

Compliance requirements are set out in a combination of legislation, including directly applicable EU legislation, and in FCA and PRA rules and guidance. There are also a number of ways best practice may be conveyed to firms, including through ongoing supervision and as a result of thematic reviews undertaken by the FCA.

14 How important are gatekeepers in the regulatory structure?

In recent years, there has been a heightened focus on improving individual accountability for individuals working in financial services.

Senior individuals at FSMA firms performing certain key functions have to be pre-approved by the PRA and FCA (whether pursuant to the senior managers regime or the approved persons regime, depending on firm type). These functions broadly cover roles where individuals have managerial responsibility for a firm's affairs. Examples of individuals that need to be pre-approved include individuals performing executive director roles, the head of internal audit functions and compliance oversight. Financial institutions are expected to perform due diligence on prospective senior managers in advance of appointing

Update and trends

The outcome of the referendum on the UK's membership of the EU has led to uncertainty for the financial services industry in the UK. The UK government has not published a position paper specifically relating to financial services, but has indicated that it intends to reach agreement on an 'implementation period' to allow for preparation for the new arrangements that will apply following the UK's departure from the EU in March 2019. The UK financial services industry has warned the government that, unless a transitional agreement is agreed by early 2018, firms will work on the assumption that there will be no transitional arrangements. Many financial institutions are considering restructuring their EU business or seeking deposit-taking or other licences in multiple EU jurisdictions. Brexit could also affect financial services infrastructure, such as access to clearing houses or payment services.

these individuals. These approved individuals are subject to FCA or PRA conduct rules.

15 What are the duties of directors, and what standard of care applies to the boards of directors of financial services firms?

In addition to the high-level requirements imposed on senior managers or approved persons by the FCA or PRA, directors of financial institutions incorporated as companies in England are subject to high-level general and fiduciary duties set out in the Companies Act 2006. In particular, they are required to promote the success of the company, exercise independent judgement and exercise reasonable care, skill and diligence.

16 When are directors typically held individually accountable for the activities of financial services firms?

Senior managers have a duty of responsibility under the senior managers regime. The FCA and PRA can take action against senior managers if:

- they are responsible for the management of any activities in their firm in relation to which their firm contravenes a relevant requirement; and
- they do not take the steps that a person in their position could reasonably be expected to take to avoid the contravention occurring (or continuing).

The burden of proof lies with the regulator to establish that a contravention has occurred and that the senior manager did not take the steps that an individual in their position could reasonably be expected to take to avoid the contravention occurring. The FCA and PRA have produced separate but largely consistent guidance outlining how a senior manager should behave to comply with their duties of responsibility.

The duty of responsibility for senior managers is supported by conduct rules, which prescribe a base level of good conduct for staff. The FCA's conduct rules in respect of individuals at firms subject to the senior managers regime are set out in the Code of Conduct sourcebook, and the PRA's rules are set out in the Conduct Rules Part of the PRA Rulebook. Approved persons are similarly subject to conduct rules set out in the FCA's Statements of Principle and Code of Practice for Approved Persons. The regulators can take disciplinary action against individuals for non-compliance with the conduct rules.

17 Do private rights of action apply to violations of national financial services authority rules and regulations?

Section 138D of the FSMA establishes a statutory right for certain private persons who suffer loss as a result of contravention by an authorised firm of an FCA or PRA rule to bring an action for damages, subject to the defences for breach of statutory duty (such as contributory negligence). There is a presumption that breach of an FCA rule is actionable unless the rule states to the contrary, whereas a PRA rule must expressly provide that it is actionable.

Customers may also be able to bring claims against investment firms in contract or tort where there has been a breach of a regulatory rule or requirement, and courts may look to the scope of regulatory rules to inform the scope of common law duties owed by investment firms to clients.

18 What is the standard of care that applies to each type of financial services firm and authorised person when dealing with retail customers?

Financial services firms are subject to high-level requirements to treat their customers fairly and to act in the best interests of clients, and a high standard of care applies to financial services firms when dealing with retail customers. Categorisation as a retail client offers the most protection to customers and imposes the most requirements on financial institutions dealing with such clients in terms of communication, disclosure and transparency.

Retail clients also benefit from the additional protections offered by the Financial Ombudsman Service, a UK ombudsman that considers and settles disputes between consumers and financial services businesses, and the Financial Services Compensation Scheme, a UK compensation scheme for customers of insolvent UK financial services firms.

In addition, the UK is introducing (from 2019) a ring-fencing regime around retail deposits held by UK financial institutions. The aim of this is to separate certain core banking services critical to individuals and small- and medium-sized enterprises from wholesale and investment banking services, in order to insulate retail customers and smaller businesses from the possible failure of the investment banking entity.

19 Does the standard of care differ based on the sophistication of the customer or counterparty?

Yes. Both EU legislation (MiFID II) and the various UK regulatory regimes recognise that investors have different levels of knowledge, skill and expertise and that the regulatory requirements should reflect this.

For banks and investment firms, firms are required to categorise clients into retail clients, professional clients and eligible counterparties. Different regulatory protections apply for each of these categories, with those falling within the retail category – the less experienced, knowledgeable and sophisticated investors – afforded a higher level of protection than investors in the other categories.

In addition, the PSRs allow payment institutions to disapply some of the conduct and information requirements set out in the regulations when dealing with certain corporate clients.

20 How are rules that affect the financial services industry adopted? Is there a consultation process?

Rules that affect the financial services industry in the UK encompass EU legislation, formal guidance issued by certain EU bodies such as European Supervisory Authorities, UK legislation and FCA and PRA rules and guidance.

The process for adopting rules and regulations, including whether a consultation is required and the manner of that consultation, depends on the nature of the rule being adopted. Generally, however, consultations are undertaken in respect of rules that will significantly affect the financial services industry.

21 How do national financial services authorities approach cross-border issues?

While the UK remains part of the EU, EEA-authorized financial institutions are generally able to operate in the UK without the need for a separate authorisation pursuant to a cross-border services or a branch passport. This 'passporting' regime allows EEA-authorized financial services firm to conduct business for which they are authorised in their home state in the UK and vice versa, without seeking a separate UK licence. Passporting is subject to a notification procedure between the EEA financial institution, the EEA home state regulator and the relevant UK regulator, which requires the home state regulator to verify that the firm meets certain specified conditions.

Foreign financial institutions incorporated outside the EEA are able to operate in the UK by establishing a UK-authorized branch or subsidiary, or alternatively may operate without a UK authorisation in reliance on certain overseas persons exemptions. The overseas persons exemptions allow overseas firms to provide certain financial services to UK customers on a cross-border basis, although the exemptions only apply to certain regulated activities (including dealing in investments, arranging transactions, advising on investments and certain mortgage related activities) and come with strict conditions preventing the overseas firm from having a physical presence in the UK.

22 What role does international standard setting play in the rules and standards implemented in your jurisdiction?

Generally the UK seeks to implement international standards. EU and international regulatory policy and standards, and their implementation, supervision and enforcement in the UK, are integral to the remits of the FCA and the PRA. The FCA also engages regularly with a wide range of European and international counterparts and stakeholders to enhance cooperation, share best practice and discuss issues of common interest.

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1 What national authorities regulate the provision of financial products and services?

The structure of the regulatory regime for financial products and services in the United States is arguably the most complex of any jurisdiction, due to a variety of factors including historical precedent, the federalist nature of the US and national politics. Recent changes since the financial crisis of 2008 were aimed at addressing regulatory gaps and systemic risk issues, although the financial regulatory structure has remained largely intact.

Banking supervisors, market regulators and a consumer financial products agency have the authority to regulate the provision of financial products and services.

- Banks in the US may choose to be chartered at the state or federal level and the applicable banking supervisor depends on the charter type. The federal banking supervisors include the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System (the Federal Reserve), the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency (OCC), the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) (collectively, the Banking Regulators). The National Credit Union Association, which regulates credit unions, is outside the scope of this chapter.
- Financial products and services, financial markets and certain participants in those markets are regulated by the financial markets regulators. On the national level, these regulators include the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) and the Commodity Futures Trading Commission (CFTC) (collectively, the Markets Regulators).
- The Consumer Financial Protection Bureau (CFPB) was formed in 2010 to focus on consumer protection with regard to financial products and services.

The complex array of supervisory agencies necessitates coordination between regulators.

2 What activities does each national financial services authority regulate?

The Banking Regulators are tasked with monitoring the safety and soundness of depository institutions, and supervising all activities of depository institutions within their jurisdictions. The OCC regulates national banks and federal thrifts, and the Federal Reserve and FDIC serve as the primary federal regulator for state-chartered banks and thrifts – the former regulating state-chartered banks and thrifts that choose to be Federal Reserve members, and the latter regulating non-members. The FDIC also has a role in regulating all federal and state banks and thrifts, as the insurer of their deposits. Finally, in its capacity as the consolidated supervisor of bank and thrift holding companies, the Federal Reserve oversees the activities of institutions that control or are affiliated with banks or thrifts.

The SEC regulates the offer and sale of securities (which include securities options and security-based swaps), US securities markets and certain market participants such as clearing agencies, broker-dealers, investment advisers and investment funds. The CFTC regulates activities relating to derivatives – primarily futures, options on futures and swaps. Persons regulated by the CFTC include, among others, futures exchanges, derivatives clearing organisations, futures commission merchants (FCMs), swap dealers, commodity pool operators and 'commodity trading advisors'.

The CFPB regulates consumer financial products and services, which includes, among others, extensions of credit, certain real estate settlement services, cheque cashing and financial data processing.

Many financial institutions are subject to multiple regulators to the extent that they engage in multiple financial activities.

3 What products does each national financial services authority regulate?

The Banking Regulators exercise comprehensive supervisory oversight over the activities of depository institutions; however, certain Banking Regulators' rules apply specifically to certain types of products or activities (eg, consumer lending or fiduciary services).

The Markets Regulators regulate the offers and sales of financial products within their jurisdictions. The SEC regulates securities and does so primarily through a disclosure regime and its anti-fraud authority. The SEC also focuses on investor protection and market integrity issues through rules that apply to intermediaries such as broker-dealers and investment advisers. The CFTC regulates futures and swaps, among other derivative instruments. While most of the requirements relating to these instruments apply to registered entities, some apply more generally to users of these products (such as mandatory clearing for certain standardised swaps and swap trade reporting requirements).

The CFPB regulates consumer financial products and services, including deposit products, secured and unsecured loans, and prepaid cards.

4 What is the registration or authorisation regime applicable to financial services firms and authorised individuals associated with those firms? When is registration or authorisation necessary, and how is it effected?

To accept deposits, an entity must be chartered as a depository institution by either a federal or state authority. The choice of charter determines both the legal framework that will apply and the regulator that will supervise the institution. In choosing the appropriate charter, an entity will likely consider most heavily the restrictions imposed, and the activities permitted by laws and regulations applicable to a depository institution (or its affiliates) based on the charter type.

To receive a charter, a proposed depository institution must apply to:

- the appropriate regulatory authority (ie, the OCC for national banks and federal thrifts;
- state regulators for state banks and thrifts); and
- the FDIC in order to obtain deposit insurance.

In addition, if the proposed bank or thrift is under the control of a parent company, the parent company must apply to the Federal Reserve to become a bank or thrift holding company. The application process requires the submission of extensive materials, including detailed business plans, pro forma financial statements, and biographies and financial reports for proposed shareholders, directors and officers.

With regard to the Markets Regulators, the registration regime depends on the particular activity engaged in by a firm. For example, unless an exemption applies, a firm will have to register with:

- the SEC as an investment adviser if it is engaged in the business of providing investment advice to others for compensation;

- the SEC as a broker-dealer if it is engaged in the business of effecting transactions in securities for the account of others or engaged in the business of buying and selling securities for its own account;
- the CFTC as a swap-dealer if it is engaged in swap dealing activities above a de minimis threshold; and
- the CFTC as an FCM if it solicits or accepts orders to buy or sell futures or options on futures and accepts money or other assets from customers to support such orders.

Many firms regulated by a Markets Regulator must also become members of a self-regulatory organisation (SRO), which are subject to oversight by the relevant Markets Regulator. For example, broker-dealers must generally become members of the Financial Industry Regulatory Authority (FINRA) and swap dealers and FCMs must become members of the National Futures Association (NFA).

Registration for firms involves submitting an application to the relevant Markets Regulator or SRO. The application requirements vary but will generally request information regarding the ownership of the applicant, certain prior criminal, civil or regulatory history, evidence of financial and capital adequacy, information relating to its operations and compliance capabilities, among others. Certain firm personnel are also subject to licensing and qualification requirements.

5 What statute or other legal basis is the source of each regulatory authority's jurisdiction?

Each of the primary financial regulators in the US was created by statute to address a national crisis or market event:

- the OCC was created by the National Bank Act of 1864 as part of an effort to create the financial infrastructure necessary to finance the American Civil War;
- the Federal Reserve System was established under the Federal Reserve Act of 1913 in response to instability in the financial sector best represented by the Banking Panic of 1907;
- the FDIC and the system of federal deposit insurance were created during the Great Depression under the Banking Act of 1933 (which has since been replaced by the Federal Deposit Insurance Act of 1950) in response to the panic and bank runs that accompanied the economic downturn;
- the SEC was established pursuant to the Securities Exchange Act of 1934 (the Exchange Act) following the stock market crash of 1929 to oversee the US securities market;
- the CFTC was created in 1974 pursuant to the Commodity Futures Trading Commission Act. At the time, the predecessor to the CFTC generally regulated only agricultural commodities. The CFTC, however, was granted with the authority to regulate the growing trading in futures and options on non-agricultural commodities; and
- the CFPB was established after the financial crisis of 2008 by the Consumer Financial Protection Act of 2010.

6 What principal laws and financial service authority rules apply to the activities of financial services firms and their associated persons?

The primary statute applying to national banks is the National Bank Act, which sets out the parameters for the activities in which national banks may engage. Bank holding companies and their non-bank subsidiaries are subject to activities limitations imposed by the Bank Holding Company Act of 1956. Federal thrifts and thrift holding companies are subject to the activities restrictions of the Home Owners' Loan Act. The activities of state banks and thrifts are primarily limited by state banking laws, but are also subject to federal limits set in the Federal Deposit Insurance Act. The Federal Reserve Act also imposes restrictions on the inter-affiliate activities of bank holding companies and thrift holding companies and their subsidiaries.

The primary statutes applying to financial services firms regulated by the SEC include:

- the Securities Act of 1933, which is generally designed to ensure that investors receive sufficient information regarding securities offered for public sale, and to prevent misrepresentations and other fraud in the sale of securities;
- the Exchange Act, which, among other things, authorises the SEC to regulate various securities market participants;

- the Investment Advisers Act of 1940 (the Advisers Act), which governs the regulation of investment advisers; and
- the Investment Company Act of 1940, which governs the regulation of investment companies, including mutual funds.

The primary statute applying to financial services firms regulated by the CFTC is the Commodity Exchange Act (CEA), which governs, among others, futures, options on futures and swaps, and certain persons that engage in activities with regard to those products.

The primary rules applying to financial services firms include the rules adopted to implement the foregoing statutes.

7 What are the main areas of regulation for each type of regulated financial services provider and product?

The principal areas of regulation for depository institutions and their holding companies include activities restrictions; safety and soundness requirements; capital and liquidity requirements; lending restrictions; fiduciary regulations; consumer protection laws and regulations; and affiliate transaction restrictions.

For persons and entities regulated by the Markets Regulators, the principal areas of regulation include registration requirements; capital and margin requirements; clearing requirements; business conduct standards; reporting requirements; requirements to adopt policies and procedures; and record-keeping obligations.

8 What additional requirements apply to financial services firms and authorised persons, such as those imposed by self-regulatory bodies, designated professional bodies or other financial services organisations?

As described in question 4, many firms regulated by a Markets Regulator must also become members of an SRO, such as FINRA and the NFA, and certain firm personnel must register with the same SRO and pass a qualification examination.

Securities and derivatives exchanges and clearing organisations are also SROs. As a result, market participants that are members of such exchanges or clearing organisations must become members of these institutions and comply with their rules.

Requirements imposed by SROs on their members vary depending on the type of regulated entity and the type of SRO. In some instances, SRO rules implement existing federal statutory or regulatory requirements. In other cases, SROs are provided with discretion to adopt additional or more detailed requirements. FINRA, for example, requires its member broker-dealers to comply with 'just and equitable principles of trade', which is a higher conduct standard than the anti-fraud standard that the SEC can impose under the Exchange Act.

9 What powers do national financial services authorities have to examine and investigate compliance? What enforcement powers do they have for compliance breaches? How is compliance examined and enforced in practice?

The Banking Regulators, the CFPB and the Markets Regulators have broad authority to examine the entities they supervise for compliance with applicable laws, rules and regulations. They also have enforcement powers to address legal and regulatory violations. How these authorities are exercised in practice vary by regulator.

The Banking Regulators are prudential regulators, supervising institutions within their jurisdiction to monitor their safety and soundness, as well as their compliance with federal banking laws and regulations. Each of the Banking Regulators regularly conducts on-site safety and soundness examinations to assess the financial and managerial soundness of the regulated institution. In addition, the Banking Regulators conduct examinations that focus on compliance with particular legal and regulatory requirements, such as anti-money laundering laws or community investment and lending requirements. To address violations of laws or regulations or the finding of unsafe or unsound practices, the Banking Regulators may informally require regulated institutions to remediate or may bring formal enforcement actions.

The CFPB is a new federal agency formed in 2010, which has the authority to supervise and examine banking institutions with more than US\$10 billion in assets, as well as their affiliates (unless excepted), for compliance with federal consumer financial protection laws. The CFPB has the authority to bring enforcement actions not only against

institutions it supervises, but against any institution that engages in financial transactions with consumers, for violations of applicable federal consumer financial laws or for engaging in acts or practices that are deemed unfair, deceptive or abusive.

The Markets Regulators examine regulated institutions for compliance with applicable laws and regulations both directly and indirectly through examinations by the SROs. In addition, the Markets Regulators have the authority to conduct informal or formal investigations of potential misconduct and to bring enforcement actions. Such potential misconduct may come to the attention of the Markets Regulators through a variety of channels, including through examinations, complaints from the public or referrals from other government agencies. Markets Regulators are generally viewed as having more of an enforcement focus than the Banking Regulators.

10 What are the powers of national financial services authorities to discipline or punish infractions? Which other bodies are responsible for criminal enforcement relating to compliance violations?

The Banking and Markets Regulators and the CFPB have civil enforcement powers and can pursue a variety of civil remedies.

The Banking Regulators have the power to pursue a variety of civil remedies, both informal and formal, against depository institutions and their affiliates, as well as associated individuals, for unsafe and unsound practices or compliance violations. Informal remedies include commitment letters, memorandums of understanding or the issuance of findings entitled 'matters requiring attention'. Formal remedies against firms may include cease-and-desist orders, formal written or supervisory agreements, prompt corrective action directives and civil money penalties. Formal remedies against individuals associated with depository institutions include removal and prohibition orders, cease-and-desist orders, restitution orders and civil money penalties.

The Markets Regulators have the power to seek a variety of civil remedies against both firms and individuals. Sanctions include injunctions or cease-and-desist orders, revocation or suspension of an individual's or entity's registration and exchange trading privileges, restitution orders, disgorgement of ill-gotten profits and civil money penalties. Certain industry and conduct-related bars may also be available.

SROs, such as FINRA and the NFA, also have authority to discipline infractions committed by their members in violation of their rules. SROs generally have the authority to fine, suspend or bar individuals and firms from the industry, among others.

To the extent that regulated entities' or individuals' compliance failures constitute violations of criminal law, the Banking and Markets Regulators may refer those failures to the Department of Justice, a US attorney's office or local law enforcement agencies who may institute a criminal proceeding.

11 What tribunals adjudicate criminal and civil financial services infractions?

Federal district courts in the US adjudicate violations of both civil and criminal federal law. The Banking Regulators, the CFPB and the Markets Regulators may and pursue civil violations of federal financial laws and regulations in the federal district courts, although the Banking Regulators generally elect to use administrative proceedings rather than court proceedings. Criminal financial services violations are also adjudicated in the federal district courts. To the extent that compliance failures constitute violations of state law, whether civil or criminal, such infractions would be tried in state civil or criminal court.

The Banking Regulators, Markets Regulators and CFPB may also seek civil penalties or other remedies in administrative proceedings. Administrative proceedings are presented before administrative law judges (ALJs), who may be employees of the particular financial services authority. These proceedings result in non-judicial findings of fault or wrongdoing. Certain financial services authorities, such as the SEC, rely heavily on administrative proceedings, while others like the Federal Reserve use administrative proceedings sparingly.

Finally, SROs may institute disciplinary proceedings against members that are heard before their own internal bodies.

12 What are typical sanctions imposed against firms and individuals for violations? Are settlements common?

The majority of enforcement actions pursued by the Banking and Markets Regulators are resolved via settlement, including through cease-and-desist orders, removal and prohibition orders, civil money penalties, and disgorgement orders. The size of monetary sanctions imposed in a given case ranges significantly depending on the nature of the case. The largest penalties tend to be imposed in settlements in which the respondent knowingly violated the law and caused a pecuniary loss as a result.

In addition to imposing penalties, the Banking and Markets Regulators often require settling institutions to undertake substantial remediation efforts to improve policies, procedures, controls, and governance, among other things, to mitigate the risk that the activity giving rise to the settlement will reoccur.

A unique and often-criticised aspect of the US financial regulators' settlement practices is the ability of respondents to settle with the regulators without admitting wrongdoing. Commonly referred to as 'neither-admit-nor-deny' settlements, the Banking and Markets Regulators justify this practice by asserting that it allows them to impose consequences on respondents quickly and obtain necessary relief for victims, while also avoiding burdensome litigation costs.

13 What requirements exist concerning the nature and content of compliance and supervisory programmes for each type of regulated entity?

The Banking Regulators, who act as prudential supervisors, are focused on monitoring the safety and soundness of depository institutions and their holding company system in a comprehensive manner. Thus, the Banking Regulators expect supervised institutions to adopt an effective risk-management programme that manages compliance risk alongside the other risks present in an institution's business. As a general matter, the Banking Regulators expect that a regulated institution's risk-management programme will reflect its size, resources and complexity, and will be proportionate to the risks present in its business.

No matter the size of the entity, an effective compliance programme for entities subject to the Banking Regulators' supervision will include, among others, adequate policies and procedures to safeguard and manage assets; a clear organisational structure that establishes responsibility for monitoring adherence to established policies; controls that facilitate effective assessment of risks; and an internal audit system.

The Trading and Markets Regulators have similar requirements for the content of their regulated entities' compliance programmes, though the precise expectations may depend on the type of regulated entity. In general, the Markets Regulators require its regulated institutions to:

- adopt and implement written policies and procedures reasonably designed to prevent violations of applicable law;
- periodically review the adequacy and effectiveness of such policies and procedures; and
- designate a chief compliance officer to administer such policies and procedures.

14 How important are gatekeepers in the regulatory structure?

The national financial services authorities place great emphasis on internal gatekeepers, such as chief compliance officers (CCOs), internal auditors, risk-management personnel and others who have a general obligation to identify and prevent potential misconduct.

As discussed above, regulatory expectations for risk management in depository institutions vary depending on a regulated institution's size, resources and complexity. National banks and federal thrifts with more than US\$50 billion in consolidated assets are expected to implement a 'three lines of defence' risk-management programme, which requires the business line to assume first-line responsibility for compliance, an independent risk-management function headed by a chief risk executive (second-line), and an independent audit function headed by a chief audit executive (third line). In this structure, the chief risk executive and chief audit executive have unrestricted access to the institution's board of directors. In large institutions, the second and third lines of defence are crucial for monitoring and assessing the institution's activities, as well as recommending areas for improvement. The Banking Regulators often look to second- and third-line reports as part of their own examination processes.

The Markets Regulators similarly place great emphasis on internal gatekeepers. Since the financial crisis, regulations have assigned additional responsibilities and increasing accountability to such personnel through periodic certifications. For example, the CFTC adopted a rule requiring CCOs of FCMs and swap dealers to take reasonable steps to ensure compliance with applicable rules, and prepare and sign an annual report that (i) provides an assessment of the effectiveness of the firm's policies and procedures, and (ii) describes any material non-compliance issues identified and the corresponding action taken. This report must also include a certification by the CCO or chief executive officer that the information contained in the annual report is accurate and complete.

15 What are the duties of directors, and what standard of care applies to the boards of directors of financial services firms?

State corporate laws and common law generally govern the duties of the directors of US corporations, including financial services firms. Directors are ultimately responsible for the overall direction and strategy of the firm. A board carries out this responsibility primarily by selecting, retaining and overseeing the firm's managers, who direct daily operations. The board retains, however, the responsibility to evaluate and approve major decisions in the life of the firm.

When carrying out their responsibilities, directors of a US corporation owe the firm and its stockholders certain fiduciary duties, namely, the duties of care and loyalty. The duty of care generally requires directors to act with the care that a reasonably prudent person in a like position would use under similar circumstances. The duty of loyalty generally requires directors to act in good faith and in the best interests of the firm and its stockholders (and not for their own interests). In general, the business judgment rule applies to protect directors from judicial second-guessing when they have acted on an informed basis, in good faith and in the honest belief that the action was taken in the best interests of the company.

Bank directors may be held to a heightened standard with regard to these fiduciary duties, as courts have found that they must be concerned with the welfare of depositors as well as stockholders.

In addition to these general corporate responsibilities, the Banking and Markets Regulators have issued rules and guidance outlining specific responsibilities of boards of directors of financial institutions, which can be extensive.

16 When are directors typically held individually accountable for the activities of financial services firms?

Directors of financial services firms may be held individually liable (to shareholders or the applicable regulator) if they breach their fiduciary duties; however, as described above, the business judgment rule applies to protect directors from judicial second-guessing when they have acted on an informed basis, in good faith and in the honest belief that the action was taken in the best interests of the company.

In addition to being held accountable for breaches of fiduciary duties, directors of depository institutions could be subject to enforcement actions brought by the Banking Regulators for violating federal banking laws or engaging in unsafe or unsound practices, with the degree of the penalty – and the likelihood of an enforcement action – heightened depending on the director's mens rea and the extent of the consequential loss to the bank or pecuniary gain or benefit to the director. In addition, if a director of a national bank knowingly violates, or knowingly permits officers or agents of a bank to violate, federal banking laws, the bank could be dissolved and the director could be held liable in a personal and individual capacity for all damages that the bank, its shareholders or others may have sustained as a consequence of the violation.

Directors of financial services firms that are regulated by the Markets Regulators are considered to be 'control persons' and, as a result, may be held personally liable for the acts of the controlled entity if he or she failed to act in good faith or otherwise knowingly induced or engaged in the acts constituting the violation.

17 Do private rights of action apply to violations of national financial services authority rules and regulations?

Whether a private right of action would or likely could exist for a violation of a national financial services authority statute or rule depends on the particular statute or rule at issue and how courts have interpreted

them. Generally, a private right of action is available only where such a right is provided for in the statute or rule that is alleged to have been violated. Even where a private right of action is not specifically enumerated in a statute or rule, courts have occasionally found private rights of action to be implied based on legislative intent and other factors. These instances, however, are quite rare.

18 What is the standard of care that applies to each type of financial services firm and authorised person when dealing with retail customers?

The standard of care that applies when dealing with retail customers varies by the type of financial services firm and, in some cases, the particular capacity in which the financial services firm is servicing the customer.

Depository institutions must take care not to engage in unfair, deceptive or abusive acts or practices (UDAAPs) in any interaction with retail customers. These terms have been interpreted by the Banking Regulators, the CFPB and courts, which have developed tests for determining if an activity rises to the level of a UDAAP. The Banking Regulators only have the power to take action against depository institutions that conduct unfair or deceptive acts or practices. The CFPB has the full complement of powers and can take action against unfair, deceptive or abusive acts or practices. There are also a multitude of laws and regulations that relate to the delivery of specific products and services by depository institutions, many of which are designed to protect the consumer.

Generally, depository institutions are not subject to fiduciary duties with regard to retail customers, unless they are acting in a fiduciary capacity (eg, a trustee or executor), in which case, state law governing duties owed by a fiduciary or, in some cases, federal law, may apply.

SEC-registered investment advisers are deemed fiduciaries under the Advisers Act and must accordingly comply with the duties of loyalty and care when interacting with all of their customers, including retail customers. The SEC and courts have interpreted these fiduciary duties as requiring investment advisers to act with utmost good faith in the best interests of their clients, make full and fair disclosure of all material facts, and employ all reasonable care to avoid misleading clients. The Advisers Act imposes further limitations on an investment adviser's dealings with customers.

Broker-dealers are generally not considered fiduciaries, although they nevertheless are subject to a duty of fair dealing. This duty is derived from the anti-fraud provisions of the federal securities laws and is also reflected in SRO rules. For example, FINRA requires its member broker-dealers to observe high standards of commercial honor and just and equitable principles of trade. In addition, broker-dealers must comply with other requirements that affect how they interact with customers, including:

- suitability requirements, which generally require broker-dealers to recommend only those specific investments or overall investment strategies that are suitable for their customers; and
- the duty of best execution, which generally requires broker-dealers to seek to obtain the most favorable terms available under the circumstances for their customer orders.

19 Does the standard of care differ based on the sophistication of the customer or counterparty?

Banks acting as fiduciaries and SEC-registered investment advisers must exercise their fiduciary duties, including the duties of loyalty and care, no matter the sophistication of the customer or client. The standards for satisfying their fiduciary duties, however, may become more stringent as the sophistication decreases, as care that is reasonable when dealing with an institutional investor may not be reasonable when dealing with a retail customer.

Other aspects of US financial services rules and regulations may apply differently depending on the characteristics of a customer that serve as a proxy for sophistication. For example, a broker-dealer recommending a security to an 'institutional account' is exempted from its obligation to conduct a customer-specific suitability analysis provided specified conditions are met.

20 How are rules that affect the financial services industry adopted? Is there a consultation process?

The Banking and Markets Regulators are federal agencies and, thus, are subject to the US Administrative Procedure Act (APA), which sets out the process by which agencies may promulgate rules. These agencies generally use the APA's informal rulemaking process, also known as the notice-and-comment process, to promulgate rules pursuant to either their general statutory rulemaking power, or an express statutory directive.

To initiate the notice-and-comment process, the agencies issue a notice providing the public a draft of a proposed rule and explaining the statutory authority and purposes for that rule. The public is given a period of time – typically 60 to 90 days – to review and comment on the proposed rule. Agencies may also meet with financial institutions or trade associations to discuss the proposed rule and comment letters.

After considering the comments submitted, the regulators may issue final rules, which typically become effective 60 days to one year after the final rule is issued. Any person with standing to challenge the rule in court may do so on certain stipulated grounds, including by bringing a claim that the agency acted in an arbitrary and capricious manner.

21 How do national financial services authorities approach cross-border issues?

The way in which the Banking and Markets Regulators approach cross-border issues varies by type of financial services firm and, in some cases, the type of activity. In many cases, the applicable statute takes a territorial view when drawing the perimeter of US regulatory jurisdiction. For example, unless an exemption applies, a non-US entity will generally need to obtain a bank charter, establish a bank branch, agency or representative office, or register as a broker-dealer if it (i) solicits banking or broker-dealer services to persons located in the US

or (ii) engages in such activities from within the US. A non-US entity could, however, provide banking or broker-dealer services to persons located outside the US without triggering the application of US banking and broker-dealer laws, respectively, so long as the interactions with the customer occur outside the US. Other categories of registrants, however, such as investment advisers and swap dealers may be required to register with the SEC or CFTC, respectively, if they provide services to US persons regardless of their location.

With regard to certain cross-border transactions, the Banking and Markets Regulators have adopted exemptions and mutual recognition frameworks. For example, under the uncleared swap margin rules adopted by the Banking Regulators and the CFTC, certain non-US swap dealers with regard to some swap transactions are permitted to comply with such rules by complying with the margin rules of another jurisdiction, if the applicable US regulator issues a determination that such other jurisdiction's rules are comparable to the US requirements.

22 What role does international standard setting play in the rules and standards implemented in your jurisdiction?

The Banking and Markets Regulators actively participate in international standard setting organisations. For example, the Banking Regulators are members of the Basel Committee on Banking and Supervision (BCBS), an international forum focusing on banking supervisory matters; the Federal Reserve and the SEC are members of the Financial Stability Board, an international body that promotes international financial stability; and the SEC and CFTC are members of the International Organization of Securities Commissions (IOSCO), a multilateral organisation that develops and promotes adherence to internationally recognised standards for securities regulation.

While the agreements reached by these international organisations are not self-executing, the Banking and Markets Regulators may implement the agreed upon standards by promulgating rules pursuant to their general statutory grants of authority.

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